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BRIEF SKETCH OF THE PRESENT CONDITION OF EDUCATION IN THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD.*

A brief review of the present condition of education in the more prominent countries of the world, may be interesting. In *England*, the facilities for acquiring a thorough university education are excellent, for those who have sufficient means at command; the course of study at Cambridge and Oxford, though perhaps giving too much prominence to classical and mathematical studies, is still well calculated to develop the intellectual powers. The London University, and some of the colleges of the dissenters, give more attention to popular science. The great endowed schools of Eton, Rugby, Harrow, Westminster, Winchester, Christ's Hospital, &c., &c., are for the most part, devoted to classical and mathematical training.

In provision for the education of the masses, England is yet behind many of the countries of Europe. Still, under the persevering efforts of Lord Brougham, Sir J. Kay Shuttleworth, the Earl of Shaftesbury, Lord Stanley, and other distinguished friends of education, there has been decisive progress within a few years past: the factory children are not now brought up in utter ignorance; a cheap yet instructive literature pervades every hamlet, and has developed, even in the lowest classes, a love of reading; evening schools for adults, and Sunday-schools, which there, as well as on the continent, are very often occupied with instruction in reading and other elementary branches, are very largely attended.

* From the *History and Progress of Education*, by Philobibulus. New York: A. S. Barnes & Burr, 1860.

The education of deaf mutes and the blind, is more limited than in France or this country, being generally confined to reading, writing, and the acquisition of some mechanical art, on the part of the deaf and dumb; and reading by touch, singing, playing on musical instruments, and knitting, mat-braiding, weaving, or basket-making, for the blind.

The Reformatories of England are deserving of high praise, both for their number and success. Hundreds are every year rescued by them from a life of crime, and rendered good and intelligent citizens.

Scotland is inferior to England in its facilities for higher education; and the low salaries afforded to the professors in its universities, prevent, in many cases, highly qualified scholars from accepting the posts; but in secondary and primary education, it is far in advance of England; Its system of parish-schools is not, indeed, perfect, but it is constantly improving. Its humanitarian institutions have a higher reputation than those south of the Tweed.

Ireland, so long the victim of ignorance, is improving in education and general intelligence, as much, or more than any country of Europe. Within a few years, good schools have been greatly multiplied; and, ere long, her peasantry will be beyond those of England in intelligence. This is the result of the system of national education, established there about thirty years since, which, from small beginnings, has at last drawn into its schools the great bulk of the children of the country. It provides for *combined* secular, and *separate* religious instruction, and thus obviates the great difficulties under which the English schools have labored.

In *France*, *superior education*, as it is called, especially in mathematical and physical science, is not inferior to that of any country in the world; and the colleges and lyceums which are found in every considerable town in the empire, are generally well conducted.

Primary education was very much neglected from the time of the Revolution of 1793 to the accession of Louis Philippe; but the efforts of that monarch, seconded, most zealously, by Guizot, effected, in the course of the next eighteen years, a wonderful change; and, in 1850, only two thousand five hundred communes, out of more than thirty-eight thousand, were without one or more primary schools, and one-ninth of the whole population were attending school. The charitable, reformatory, and special schools of France are generally well conducted, and the success of some of them—that of the institutes for the deaf and dumb, and for the blind, and the reformatory colony at Mettray—has been such as to attract the attention of all the nations of Europe.

Of the educational condition of Spain and Portugal, we cannot speak so favorably. Harassed, for years, by internal discords and civil wars, the glory which once belonged to their universities has long since departed; even the children of the wealthy and noble are but indifferently taught, and the offspring of the poor seldom find any other school than that at their own fireside. The rigid adherence of the people to the Catholic faith, has prevented the introduction (once attempted) of more modern systems of instruction, like that of Pestalozzi.

In Italy, the *States of the Church* do not lack for schools or colleges. Education is superintended by a company of cardinals, who under the designation of the *Congregation of Studies*, make the examinations, and, personally or by deputy, appoint the professors and teachers. The primary or communal schools are under the immediate supervision of the bishops, who are also generally chancellors of the universities. There are also regional schools, and schools for each sex, under the direction of several of the religious orders. Most of the schools are free, or nearly so, in many of them the teachers being supported by endowments.

Sardinia, which, up to 1848, was behind most of the other countries of Europe in education, has since that time, almost taken its place among the foremost. The system of education embraces superior and inferior primary schools, for all the children of the kingdom; secondary schools, colleges, universities, and special schools; the Pestalozzian method is generally adopted, and normal schools, well conducted, are fast supplying competent teachers. With better text-books, and a few years' experience in her present system, the population of Sardinia will speedily become one of the most intelligent in Southern Europe.

Tuscany, under Austrian influence, has adopted to a considerable extent, the Austrian system of education; her schools are, for the most part, in good repute, and the Universities of Pisa and Sierra retain something of their ancient renown. [See page .]

The Kingdom of Naples, or the *Two Sicilies*, is in a very low educational condition. Sicily has more schools than the continental portion of the kingdom, but they are not well conducted, and beyond reading and writing, the children make very little progress. Its colleges and universities have some reputation, but the despotic character of the government is unfavorable to much intellectual freedom or activity.

Turkey has schools for its Moslem population, and its laws make it obligatory on every parent to send his children to school. The teaching is in Turkish and Arabic, and is not generally of the highest order; there has been, however, material improvement since 1847, when a system of intermediate schools was established, which took the place of the secondary schools of other countries. Previously there had only existed the *mekteb*, or elementary schools, and the *medresseh*, or gymnasium. There are some special schools, but education is at a low ebb.

Greece has, since its independence, made zealous efforts for the improvement of public instruction. There is an efficient university at Athens, secondary schools in each considerable town, and, in most cases, elementary schools in each commune. The Pestalozzian system is generally adopted. As yet, however, not much more than one-fourth of the children are under instruction.

Russia has made very strenuous exertions, of late years, to improve the educational condition of its people. Its universities and its special schools of military, mining, engineering, manufacturing and agricultural science, are worthy of very high commendation for the extent and thoroughness of their instruction. Provision is made for the elementary instruction of the children of the soldiery, who are generally expected to follow their fathers' profession; but, although *ukases* have been issued, ordering the establishment of schools in every commune, yet not one-seventh of the children of European Russia receive any instruction whatever.

Lapland and *Finmark* are almost destitute of schools, though many of the Lapps and Fins acquire a knowledge of reading, and some of them have become eminent as scholars. The people of Iceland are generally intelligent, but their education is, for the most part, domestic, or communicated by their pastors.

In *Norway*, though the sparseness of the population is a great drawback to the maintenance of good schools in the country, education is very general. Only about one-eighth of her population dwell in towns. For these, the advantages of education are hardly surpassed by any country in Europe: there are elementary and upper district-schools, citizens' schools, answering very nearly to our academies; Real schools, in which technical science is taught in connection with the knowledge of modern languages; Latin or cathedral schools, furnishing a classical education; military, agricultural, drawing, and polytechnic schools; normal schools, and a university. In the country, there are what are called *ambulatory schools*, kept by teachers who go from hamlet to hamlet, and teach for about eight weeks in each.

In *Sweden*, education is very general. Through the efforts of Mr.

Siljeström, a law has been passed, requiring at least one stationary school in each parish, and normal schools for teachers, in addition to the ambulatory schools which are still necessary in the districts of scattered and sparse population. The system of schools is quite complete, but the quality of the teaching is susceptible of improvement. In physical education the Swedes are not equalled by any country in Europe. Their universities at Upsala and Lund have a high reputation.

Denmark has for many years maintained a high standard of education; the proportion of pupils in school to the whole population, is said to be greater than that of any other country in Europe. The Pestalozzian method is generally adopted; and there is a complete system of graded schools, from the university to the primary school.

The States of *Germany*, with hardly an exception, occupy a high educational position. There is, however, a difference in these States. Prussia, Saxony, and Wurtemberg are perhaps entitled to the first rank, Austria to the second, and Bavaria, Mecklenburg, and perhaps some other of the smaller States to the lowest. In Prussia, as well as in several of the other German States, a modification of the Pestalozzian method is adopted. The elementary text-book in the primary schools, is a Reader (a modern *Orbis Pictus*), in which the rudiments of geography (the geography of Germany), natural history, arithmetic, language, &c., are arranged as reading lessons; and all instruction not found in the Reader, is communicated orally by the teacher, assisted, however, by maps, drawings, specimens of natural history, &c., which are found in every school-room. Eight years' attendance upon the schools is compulsory upon the children; they pass from the primary to the burgher schools, the Real schools, the gymnasias, and the university, if they choose to obtain a thorough education. The plan of education adopted in Saxony and Wurtemberg, differs but little from that of Prussia. It is perhaps somewhat more thorough and liberal in Saxony, and its results are highly satisfactory.

Austria proper has, within a few years, made great advance in her elementary schools, and has established many *Reals* schools, which differ from those bearing the same name in North Germany, in being more technical in their character, and in pursuing a more extended course. Though there is still great room for improvement, yet Austria occupies a very fair position among the countries of Europe, in the intelligence of its people. Since 1855, attendance upon the schools has been made compulsory; and great efforts have been made to extend to Hungary, Bohemia, Croatia, and Austrian Italy, similar regulations to those maintained in the Archduchy of Austria.

In *Bavaria*, *Mecklenburg*, and some of the other small German States, the governments have taken less interest in the promotion of elementary education than in the States already named. Higher education, is, however, well cared for in Bavaria.

In the variety and extent of their charitable educational institutions, the Germans have surpassed all the other nations of Europe. They have a great number of institutions for the deaf and dumb, ten or twelve for the blind, two for idiots, and four or five for cretins; *crèches* and *kinder-garten* (children's gardens), for infants; some hundreds of reformatories, for all classes of juvenile offenders and vagrants; orphan schools, almost without number; industrial schools; "work schools," for pauper children, &c.

On the great African continent, we find but little attention paid to education. *Egypt* and the Tributaries of the Porte, in Northern Africa, have schools after the Moslem fashion, in which the children of the true believers are taught to read the Koran, and acquire a little rudimentary knowledge of arithmetic. *Algiers*, as a French colony, is receiving the French system of communal and higher schools. [See page .] The English and American settlements at *Sierra Leone* and *Liberia*, have established schools in accordance with the plans of the mother countries, Liberia having organized also a college. The Cape Colony has free schools in every district, and two colleges; but the vast territories which comprise the interior and eastern coast of the continent, can hardly be said to have any system of education.

Those tribes and countries into which the Arabs have penetrated, have usually a few persons who can read and write; and in the Portuguese settlements, which occasionally dot the coasts, may be found some persons of Portuguese extraction, who possess a tolerable education;—but aside from these, and the few schools which the missionaries have been able to establish at their various stations, there is nothing which can, in the ordinary sense of the term, be called education.

Portions of Asia are less degraded. In *Persia*, there still remains the tradition of the learning which once made Bagdad and Ispahan the centres of intelligence for the worshippers of Mahommed; and many of the Persian *mullahs* are, at the present day, accomplished in the Arabic lore, which was so highly prized in the days of the Abbassides.

Further east, the nomadic tribes which roam over the wide *steppes* of *Independent* and *Chinese Tartary*, and the thievish, freebooting

Afghan and *Beloochees*, have little respect for books or learning. The principal towns of *Siberia* have schools and educated people; but they are exiles from Russia, or officers and their families who are located there on duty.

In *China* and *Japan*, the systems of education have changed but little, probably, for two thousand five hundred years. In *Thibet*, the condition of education does not vary, materially, from that of *China*. *Siam*, *Tonquin*, and *Burmah*, professing substantially the Buddhist faith, have also the Buddhist educational system; while the inhabitants of *Malacca* and the *Malaysian Isles* are hardly to be considered as possessing any education.

In *India*, while the Brahminical system has made small advance from its method of instruction two thousand years ago, the East India Company have made some efforts to establish colleges for the education of such of the Brahmins as might fill offices in the employ of the Company.

In *Australia*, schools have been established and liberally supported by the government; and two colleges, one at Sydney, and the other at Melbourne, have been founded. *Tasmania*, *New Zealand*, the *Society* and the *Sandwich Islands*, all have good schools; and, in the two latter groups, the natives are, many of them, acquiring considerable education. At *Oahu*, one of the *Sandwich Islands* group, a college has recently been established.

Turning our attention to the American continent, we find in *Newfoundland* an improving state of education; in *New Brunswick*, a larger number of schools in proportion to the population, and a college; in *Canada East*, a good school system, embracing all grades from the university to the primary school, and an annually increasing attendance and efficiency; in *Canada West*, an organization unsurpassed in its results, for attendance and intellectual progress, by any in the world.

In the *United States* there is a great variety in the educational condition of different sections of the country. The Northern States have generally efficient school systems. The Southern States, on the other hand, have not generally attained to so high an educational position.

A few of these States have made praiseworthy efforts for a more effective school system; among these, North Carolina, Alabama, Missouri, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Louisiana are deserving of special mention.

The higher education is not equal to that of England, France, or Germany. Our colleges, numbering more than one hundred and twenty, though possessing more extensive grounds, and often much larger endowments, are not, with a few exceptions, superior, in the extent or thoroughness of their course of instruction, to the collegiate schools of England, the lycæums and colleges of France, or the gymnasia, Real schools, and Latin schools of Germany. Of true university instruction, with the exception of Harvard University, Yale College, and Columbia College, we have nothing deserving the name; and even these are far below the European universities.

But, in the wide diffusion of elementary education, and in the development of a high intellectual activity, no country of Europe can compare favorably with the New England States and New York. A comparison of the per centage of children in attendance upon the schools in these States, to the whole population, with Prussia, Austria, Saxony, and Denmark, where attendance is compulsory, will show conclusively the efficiency of their school organization.

Human and reformatory institutions are quite numerous in the United States; there are more than twenty deaf and dumb institutions, nearly the same number for the blind; seven schools for idiots, and nearly or quite fifty reform schools. Besides the professional seminaries, special schools of military, naval, engineering, chemical, and agricultural science, also exist,—and the last are becoming quite numerous.

The Hispano-American States—*Mexico* and *Central America*—owing in part to their frequent revolutions, and in part to the large admixture of races, are in a very low educational condition, much lower even than when provinces of Spain. No public-school system exists; and, though there are a few good private schools, and some conventual schools, and a university at the city of Mexico, the great mass of the people are most deplorably illiterate.

In the *West India Islands*, *Cuba* has made some efforts for the improvement of education, since 1842, and has now two very good universities and several colleges. The number of elementary schools is estimated at about six hundred, and of pupils not over ten thousand, about one in one hundred of the population. In the rural districts, profound ignorance prevails, while in the cities there are a considerable number of good schools. The wealthier classes, very generally, send their children abroad for an education.

In *Jamaica*, popular education is more advanced, and a very considerable proportion of the people of color are beginning to understand its advantages. The children in school constitute one-thirtieth of the whole population. *Hayti* has few schools, and no public provision is made for education. The children of the wealthy are

generally sent to France for instruction. In the Dominican Republic, and in Porto Rico, the schools are few, and generally poor. *Trinidad* has some good schools. The smaller islands have generally made some provision for instruction, though of course, the advantages are usually limited.

In *South America*, we find the States of New Grenada, Venezuela, and Ecuador possessing few schools, and those of a very inferior character; a very large majority even of the white and creole inhabitants cannot read or write, and of the Indians, the number who can do so is very small. In French and Dutch Guiana, the condition of things is not much better; while in British Guiana there are many good schools, and about one in thirteen of the population, including the Indians and Negroes, are in attendance upon them. Brazil is making great efforts to diffuse education among her people. The emperor is deeply interested in its promotion, and a very efficient system has been organized, but as yet cannot be enforced, except in the larger towns. There are colleges, or faculties of science, in most of the principal towns, universities at San Paulo and Pernambuco, and academies or lycæums in the smaller towns. At present, not one-sixtieth of the inhabitants are in school.

The Argentine confederation, and the State of Buenos Ayres, have hitherto paid very little attention to education. The *guachos*, who form a majority of their native population, are a rough, semi-savage race, who care nothing for books, and regard schools with contempt. In Buenos Ayres, there is a very considerable foreign population, who are generally intelligent, and who have encouraged the establishment of schools of a high grade.

Uruguay possesses even less educational facilities than the Argentine Republic. Paraguay, on the contrary, has a system of parochial schools, established by the Dictator Francia, and, relatively to most of the other South American States, may be considered as occupying a high rank in the matter of education. Chili is in advance of any other State of South America, in its educational condition. Its system of schools embraces all grades, from the university to the primary school; Bolivia and Peru are, like the States north of them, enveloped in ignorance. In the larger towns there are some schools, and in Lima, a university, dating from 1551.

The impulse which has been given to education throughout Christendom, within the last fifty years, has already accomplished vast results in improving all the apparatus of instruction and the methods of teaching. In the German States, it has induced thorough professional training, by means of normal schools and teachers' seminaries, the general abandonment of corporal punishment, the introduction of oral exercises, blackboards, and thinking-lessons;—in Great Britain, a reduction of the extreme severities of former times, better qualified teachers, and greatly improved text-books;—in the United States, very great improvements in the architecture of school-houses, in the organization of normal schools, teachers' institutes and teachers' associations; the introduction of globes, blackboards, charts, &c.; a milder and better discipline, improved methods of teaching, and the substitution of really scientific and well-adapted text-books for the imperfect and ill-arranged treatises previously in use.

Within a few years past, the competition in the production of school-books has perhaps been carried to an injurious extent; but no one can compare those now in use, with those in the schools fifty years since, without becoming satisfied, that the progress has been almost miraculous. The danger most to be feared at the present day, in these books, is that the process of simplification may be carried too far, and the pupil be led through a wearisome round of text-books, with but little real advancement in knowledge.

The improvement in school architecture has been very progressive. But the most efficient measures for the improvement of education, have been the establishment of normal schools, teachers' associations, and periodicals.

In the department of higher education, there has also been material advance. The curriculum of study has been enlarged, the requirements for admission raised; the examinations have become true tests of scholarship; higher attainments have been required in the professors; scientific schools have been established in connection with several of the universities, and separate schools of mines, chemistry, physical science, and civil engineering, organized.

Astronomical science, within the past fifty years, has made great progress, both in Europe and America; and in every department of physical research, more has been accomplished than in any previous century.

We may look with certainty for an advance proportionally much greater, in the coming fifty years. Civilized nations appreciate, as they have never done before, the advantages of education; and, ere long, the teeming millions of China, Japan, and India, driven from their slumber of three thousand years, by the impulses of the electric wire and the rush of the locomotive, will join with the enlightened nations of the West, in seeking a higher intellectual development, and the beneficial results of a purer science.

2. EDUCATIONAL QUESTION IN IRELAND.

The official reply of Mr. Cardwell, to the Irish Roman Catholic prelates, has since been made public, and from which we quote some extracts.

"In Ireland, Parliament assigns a considerable sum to the purpose of national education, and as this sum is drawn from taxes contributed by all, so it is devoted to an object in which all are equally concerned, the institution and maintenance of schools, where an excellent instruction is offered equally to every denomination of Christians. In the benefits conferred by such an application of the public money, the Roman Catholics largely participate. Of the total number of 5,335 schools mentioned in the last report of the commissioners, as in connexion with the board in March, 1858, and educated in the whole 569,900 pupils, 3,683 schools were under Roman Catholic patrons, and 481,000 pupils belonged to the Roman Catholic church; of every 100 pupils in attendance, 84 were Roman Catholics; of the teachers of all classes in the service, 80 in every 100 were Roman Catholics; of every £100 paid to those teachers, £80 were paid to Roman Catholics.

"In the schools of which the patrons are Roman Catholics, the religious instruction is Roman Catholic; while in all the schools vested in the National Board, Roman Catholic pastors have free access before and after school hours—for the purpose of giving instruction—to the pupils of their own church.

"For this instruction every facility is offered. All the State requires is, that during school hours a good education, open to all Christians, should be given; and that no child should at any time be required to receive or be present at any religious instruction of which his parents or guardians disapprove.

"This system has now been in operation nearly thirty years. It has educated a whole generation, and is universally admitted to have conferred the greatest benefits upon the population of Ireland. Its maintenance must ever be an object of the utmost interest to a government anxious to promote the welfare and happiness of the Irish people.

"In replying, therefore, to the memorial of the Irish Roman Catholic archbishops and bishops, Her Majesty's government desire, in the first instance, to express in the plainest terms their steadfast adherence to the principles on which the national system of education has been created. Those principles were clearly laid down by the Earl of Derby, then Secretary for Ireland, in the well-known letter addressed by him to the Duke of Leinster in the year 1831. They secure to the clergy their legitimate right of conveying religious instruction to the members of their respective churches, while at the same time they sustain the just independence of the laity, whether Roman Catholic or Protestant. They have been repeatedly and deliberately considered in parliament, and constitute the recognised conditions on which education in Ireland receives assistance from the State."

3. ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN IRELAND.

Elementary education is a subject which is so seldom discussed in our high-priced reviews, that we deem it right to direct attention to an article in the last number of the *Edinburgh Review*, bearing the title, "Expense of Public Education in England." The writer of the article is evidently favourable to the maintenance of the existing system of the Committee of Council, subject, however, to important modifications. The debate on Mr. Wise's motion (which by the way, was carried) for a Committee of the House of Commons to revise the expenditure under the head of the "Civil Service Estimates," clearly showed that considerable alarm is felt by many members of the House (Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bright being among the number) in reference to the rapid strides which the grant for education is annually making. The Committee of Council on Education have already commenced reducing their grants; and a royal commission is now sitting to consider the whole question of popular education, and if possible, to suggest measures for the future. No doubt the financial part of the question is an important element in their inquiry, and one which engages serious attention. In their last report, the Committee of Council stated that the total number of children for whom they would probably have to provide school-accommodation, teachers, &c., is 3,000,000. The number of teachers required for this supply of scholars was said to be 300,000. The total expense has been estimated at a sum somewhere between two and three millions. The writer of the article to which we have referred, attempts to prove that only 2,000,000 children are likely to be in inspected schools; that only 200,000 teachers will be required; and that even if the grants are not reduced, the total demand on the national exchequer would not exceed the sum of £1,600,000. But the writer suggests various reductions. He thinks that the capitation-grants might be discontinued, and observes that those grants "have scarcely answered their object; that the general

opinion is, that they have not to any material extent prolonged or increased the attendances; and it is certain that in some cases they have merely replaced local contributions; and that in others—the condition on which they are granted, namely, that the school-pence shall not exceed 4d. per week, prevents the managers exacting from parents payments which they are well able to make; so that, instead of increasing the school-fund, they substitute public assistance for private benevolence or parental duty." The writer of the article says he would substitute "stipendiary monitors at yearly payments of £5 or £6, for the worst half of the pupil-teachers." He also thinks that the building-grants are capable of reduction. He would moreover cease to employ "a separate staff of inspectors, exclusively attached to each church or doctrinal denomination." We do not allude to other reductions which have been suggested, but confine the present summary to the points stated above.—*English National Society's Monthly Paper.*

4. REV. W. FRASER ON EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND.

During the past year the Established Church of Scotland received £46,774, being an increase over the preceding year of £9,944; the Free Church received £31,609, being an increase of £3,194; the Episcopal received £5,536, being an increase of £661.

The necessity for legislation is overwhelming, when we bear in mind that, after all our efforts, tens of thousands of children are growing up, a curse to themselves, a burden to the community, a feebleness to the State, and dying as the heathen die.

The extension and elevation of Public Schools in Scotland have hitherto been prevented by incidental and moral obstacles, which may be briefly stated, and which are too well known to require explanation:—

I. The exclusive claim of the Established (Presbyterian) Church to the Parish Schools.

II. Extreme voluntarism.

III. Prevailing educational apathy. The public in Scotland are sick of the subject, and nauseate further discussion.

The foregoing sentiments and statements form a brief but almost *verbatim* outline of evils detailed in a pamphlet recently published by the Rev. William Fraser, of Paisley.* Now, educationally speaking, we have a great respect for Scotland. But we cannot shut our eyes to the fact that, comparatively speaking, Scotland, in educational matters, is at the present time, and has been for some years, retrogressive.

With regard to the Universities, a correspondent of the *Times* lately observed that there are causes of weakness and languid activity in the Universities over which the Professors have no control, which a board of supervision is equally powerless to remedy. There is a want of organization, of unity, of *esprit de corps* in the several Colleges; what there is of this comes from the clubs and associations of the students themselves. In regard to the studies of the place, the class-room is the "be all and the end all." There is nothing to lead the student to advance further in his studies than the Professor has led him; there is no authoritative review of work done which aims at more than ascertaining that the student has paid a fair attention to the lectures. University distinction is hardly possible where the only publication of honours gained is a single advertisement in a local newspaper.

More than two years since, Professor Blackie, in his introductory lecture at the commencement of the Session, said—"Those who still choose to indulge themselves in the pleasant occupation of contemplating our academical excellencies, real or imaginary, may do so. I have a more serious business on hand, and, so long as I see the most glaring defects and the most unmitigated absurdities tolerated in our existing University system, shall consider it my duty on every suitable occasion, to stand forward and denounce them, that both my own usefulness may no longer be marred, and the intellectual character of the nation no longer degraded by the continuance of puerile practices in our highest seats of learning, which only the most besotted ignorance can defend, and nothing but the most culpable laziness can tolerate."

In the course of his lecture, the Professor observed—"What I call on the Scottish people to do in reference to this matter is, that while they continue every fair encouragement to the talented sons of the poor, they should beware of allowing their professors to dole out rations of meagre soup by way of charity, which the sons of the rich will despise, and which must have the effect of causing our academic halls to be deserted by the most cultivated classes of the country. We must manage matters so that no young man of enterprise and talent, whether rich or poor, shall have occasion to go to Oxford or to Berlin because in the metropolis of Scotland he cannot find teachers who have both time and talent to carry him on to the most advanced heights of his particular study."

* "The Educational Condition of Scotland." Paisley: Robert Stewart.

Then with regard to the subject of study, "When the results of the Scottish system as respects classics are set against English, we find that, while the Oxford exclusive system has produced a long series of profound theologians, exact philologists, and highly-cultivated gentlemen, the Scottish *laissez-faire* system has produced none at all. This may be a useful fact for those shallow would-be philosophers who think that Greek and Latin can be brought into the market of the world exactly on the same principle and with the same prospects as boots and shoes. But there are other things to be noted. The long neglect of classical learning in the Scottish Universities has generated a habit of thought, natural enough to mere money-making men, that Greek and Latin are of no use, and the Scottish Universities are precisely for this reason entitled to take their stand far above the English, because they produce no scholars—a term which, in the minds of these objectors, is synonymous with a pedant, a gerund-grinder, and a book-worm."

Again: "With regard to history and theology, we are forced to confess with shame and confusion of face that, except in the single department of local and native history, which receives effective support from some members of the Faculty of Advocates, all historical research has died out in Scotland. In fact, without philology, many of the most difficult problems of historical research are impossible; and the same thing must be said of theology. Scotland produces, no doubt, effective popular preachers, who in their way may vie with any pulpit orators in Europe; but there is in our Church everywhere felt a woful lack of historical knowledge, and, what springs out of that, philosophical survey. No pious thinker, harassed with religious doubts, the solution of which lies in the deeper region of historical research and philological criticism, will apply to a Scottish divine; and all this intellectual degradation of our National Church, when traced to its proper roots, as Dr. Chalmers saw and said forty years ago, proceeds from the fact that we do not teach philology thoroughly in our Schools and Universities, but occupy our Professors with the vain show of scattering learned seed, which, as matters are arranged in Scotland, never can produce fruit."

In adverting to the method of study the Professor took occasion to observe, "There is no lack of money in the country. There is a want of intelligence only, and of a lofty purpose. Many are altogether ignorant about the state of our Universities; many are indifferent; others are full of that vain conceit and windy delusion which our insular habits and our situation in a corner of Europe are so apt to generate."

This is certainly not complimentary, but we fear that it is too true at the present moment. Mr. Fraser's pamphlet leads us to suspect that no material change for the better has taken place within the last three years. "With regard to discipline, a single word will suffice. As a whole, unquestionably the English discipline is far more complete and more effective than ours. In Edinburgh we are in many points, even as compared with the other Universities of Scotland, almost perfectly lawless;" and in conclusion the Professor said—"In Scotland the flame of youthful intellectual ambition is systematically blown out and extinguished at the very moment when it most requires to be fanned. This will never do. This is the system that, in the midst of much talk about our parochial Schools, Universities suited to the genius of the people, and so forth, has brought Scotland to such a pass that, except in the one department of medical science, which is based upon a practical and utilitarian interest, and some branches of physical science bearing on the interests of practical life, with the happy accident here and there of a distinguished man, our Universities are hardly known in the wide republic of European research, and must assuredly sink more and more into contempt, unless we speedily change our system and adopt a principle the very reverse of that which has hitherto guided us in these matters. * * * Let us encourage learning as we encourage lawyers, and we shall soon see that Scotland possesses men able to rival both the exact erudition of England and the profound speculation of Germany. There is no want of working power among us; but even Scotsmen, whose brains are as hard as reapers' loins, cannot afford to study and to starve at the same time. But unless this change take place, and that with quick decision, I must confess I see no hope of Scotland being able to regain the ground in the intellectual world which she has lost. Already, with open Fellowship and increased Scholarships in Oxford, the tide of intellectual ambition in our young men flows more and more beyond the Tweed, and every day pungent proofs are brought before the observant eye that Scotland has already inflicted a deep, and it may be an incurable, wound upon herself, by neglecting to work out the complete educational scheme three centuries ago promulgated by her great prophet, John Knox, and voluntarily surrendering to a foreign people and to a strange system the highest education of her noblest sons." We have here a strong weight of evidence to show that Scotland is not in so advantageous a position with regard to education as is generally supposed.—*English School and the Teacher.*

5. EDUCATION IN TUSCANY.

I have often expressed my surprise that the Tuscan Government could, under present circumstances, find sufficient leisure, calmness of mind, and above all things, money, to provide for the thorough and permanent organization of public instruction; my duty, however, is not to judge of the expediency or opportunity of Government measures, but simply to report them with that accuracy and minuteness which may enable the reader to come to a clear understanding of what falls under my immediate observation. As Tuscany seems determined to be nothing unless she be a schoolmistress, it may not be uninteresting to see how she proceeds to the business of opening her school.

From the very time that the Tuscan Republics were united under the sceptre of a Duke, or Grand Duke, Florence, the capital, felt that she could do no less for her old rival, Pisa, than allow her to become, or rather to continue to be, as she always was, the seat of Tuscan learning. At a somewhat later period, however, Siena came also under the sway of Cosmo de Medici, and the academical institution there extant was suffered for centuries to flourish side by side with the Pisa High School; so that Tuscany laboured under the disadvantage of having two universities. About a score of years ago some distinguished gentlemen, equally anxious for the welfare of the country and the real progress of academical studies, urged the Government to unite the two institutions, by simply suppressing the University of Siena. The city of Siena, however, resisted this measure might and main; and, as its university had been either privately or municipally endowed, the common rules of right of property forbade an act of sheer spoliation, and the Government came in 1852 to the resolution of creating one Tuscan university, by dividing the studies or faculties equally between Pisa and Siena. The studies of philosophy and philology, of mathematics and medicine, were established in the former city; the legal and divinity schools resided in the latter.

It was thought at the time, doubtless not without reason, that political, no less than economical causes, had led to that division. It seems that the Government, since the events of 1831 and 1848, had conceived the utmost dread of the aggregate mass of students whom the fame of its university attracted to Pisa. On the *divide et imperia* principle, the Government broke the sinews of that dangerous institution, drove from it the strangers—Corsicans and Greeks chiefly—who flocked to it, and by the suppression of liberal chairs, such as those of agriculture, political economy, moral philosophy, &c.; and the removal of popular professors, such as the illustrious Silvestro Centofanti, who was put off with a sinecure as inspector of the libraries, they so utterly humbled and laid waste both the universities, that those unfortunate spectre cities, which are nothing without the presence of their students, had fallen into the utmost desolation and decay.

I have been assured in the very best quarters, and have the most convincing proofs, that the same Vandalic war against schools of every description was carried on by the late Government with a relentless animosity, which could not have failed to plunge the Grand Duchy into utter barbarism, had it not been for the reaction it called forth on the part of this lively and intelligent population, who supplied, by means of private establishments, the lack of adequate public educational institutions.

The movement of the 27th of April naturally enough aroused a desire to undo all that had been done by the illiberal fallen rulers, and a decree of the 30th of the same month ordered the re-constitution of both the universities of Pisa and Siena. Pisa was to be restored to all its former lustre, and was to have six faculties—theology, law, philosophy and philology, medicine, mathematics, and natural sciences. The professors were to be between 50 and 60; the University of Siena was to have only the three faculties of theology, law, and medicine. To both, however, the Minister has shown the greatest liberality by creating new chairs and new professors, increasing salaries and emoluments, and adding to the endowments of libraries, museums, laboratories, &c. The Pisa professors enjoy a salary of 4,000*l.* yearly; those of Siena only of 3,000*l.*; to both a triennial increase of salary is allowed, which, for the professors of Pisa, averages a sum of 200*l.* These stipends, which may be looked upon as unprecedently liberal in Italy, do not, however, enable these instructors to live beyond the limits of the barest decency. Prices have lately risen throughout Italy, and an increase of pay to all civil as well as military officers has become a matter of absolute necessity, so that the Marquis Ridolfi deserves the most unqualified praise for providing for the comfort and decorum of men who, after the magistrates, are trusted with the mission of the most vital importance to the State.

The government of the universities was in former times entrusted to a Provveditore, or Principal, appointed by the Crown, and to a council, of which each faculty freely elected a member. The Grand-Ducal Government had gradually done away with the action of the elective council, so that the Provveditore's rule has become perfectly

absolute. The Marquis Ridolfi has not only restored the council, but, by enacting that even the Provveditore, or Rettor Magnifico, should spring from free election, aims at restoring to the Tuscan seats of learning that self-government which the Italian universities all owed to the Republican times in which they were constituted—a principal of self-government which the German, English, French, and Spanish universities generally imitated.

Connected with and subordinate to the universities are the lyceums, under which, again, the gymnasiums are ranged. The principal lyceums are established at Florence, Pisa, Siena, Arezzo, Pistoia, Lucca, and Leghorn. They are uniformly endowed by the State, so as to answer the purpose of preparatory seminaries for students destined to the universities; they will have from 10 to 12 professors each; but the town-council of each place where a lyceum is opened may add to the Government endowment, out of the municipal funds, any sum of money, which may enlarge the sphere of action of the local institution, and enable it to send forth its pupils well grounded in the studies belonging to the first or second year of university education. The gymnasium, again, is only an institution preparatory to the lyceum, and it is the desire of the Government to found as many gymnasias as there are towns and boroughs in the State.

It is, however, of the greatest importance to observe that the object of all instruction in Tuscany, throughout all the phases of gymnasium, lyceum, and university, is twofold. Education is to be classical and technical, academical and social. Side by side with the learning of dead languages and abstract sciences are to be commercial, agricultural, and all other practical studies. It is with that view that *agrarian* chairs, the last of which was abolished at Pisa by the Grand-Ducal Government, have been established not only in both universities, but in every lyceum, together with professorships of Greek literature, which had also—it is difficult to say for what reason—everywhere been suppressed.

By the late foundation of an "Institute of Superior Practical Studies and of General Improvement," to which I alluded in a former letter, the centre of all this vast and magnificent educational system, will be established in Florence. Besides her own lyceum, gymnasium, and a variety of other places of learning, Florence will have, first the Academical Institute, or Upper School of Law, Medicine, Philosophy, and Philology, Natural-Sciences, &c., which will be considered as a complementary university, intended for the finishing of students already graduated at Pisa and Siena; secondly, the Technical Institute, for the upper studies of those who in the subordinate establishments made their pursuits subservient to some social or industrial purpose; and thirdly, the Agricultural Institute, of which, also, I gave an account, in which the young farmers, educated at the agricultural establishments and model farms to be attached to every lyceum, may complete their information. It is but justice to the late Government to say, that the embryos of most of these institutions already existed in the capital. To the medical school of Santa Maria Nuova little will have to be added to turn it into a most efficient branch of the finishing institute. The museums of natural history, the anatomical preparations in wax-work, &c., are among the objects which render Florence attractive to foreign visitors. Still the Marquis Ridolfi is bent upon enlarging all these institutions upon a scale of splendor amounting to almost a new foundation; and all that is being done for literature and science will also be extended to the fine arts, every school of which will have its centre in a re-constituted Florentine Academy.

For mere popular instruction very little had ever been done in Tuscany, and the only normal school which had been opened in Pisa had been suffered to fall into the utmost neglect. The Minister is full of grand plans for the establishment of schoolmaster schools (*Scuole Magistrali*). Uneducated wretches, chiefly priests, often receiving no higher pay than fifty francs yearly, by which they eked out the scanty subsistence afforded to them by the mass, had the care of most of the Tuscan village schools. It will be difficult to provide for good masters, and no less difficult to find them. Tuscany has a vast number of dioceses and archdioceses, and to each of them a seminary or a divinity school, with all preparatory branches of tuition, is attached; she has swarms of priests, and only the poorest and most abject of them have any thing to do with the people's education. The Church has almost altogether proved false to her mission as a popular instructor. The intellectual food that she supplies to the multitude not only is miserably scanty, but it is also held utterly unwholesome and deleterious by those who have now the destinies of the country in their hands. Not only must the priest make way for the real schoolmaster, but must also pay for him. In Tuscany, as in Piedmont, and everywhere in Italy, the settlement of the national political question will, sooner or later, lead to a revision of accounts between State and Church, in which the former will have to turn to the profit of popular education part, at least, of the riches which the latter enjoyed upon the understanding that education devolved upon her as the most sacred of her duties.

In all these measures, the Marquis Ridolfi gives us clearly to understand, Tuscany does not work for herself merely, but for all Italy. Pisa, Siena, and Florence, put together, will not merely make up a primary and secondary school, a university and institute for the youth of this province, but for the students of the whole peninsula; its normal academies will turn out masters, not merely for the Tuscan, but for all Italian villages. Florence is to be the Athens, Tuscany the Attica of Italy. Her ancient civilization, her pure dialect, her great literary and scientific achievements, and the very bent of her people's mind—everything seems to point out to Tuscany the expediency of taking upon herself the task of schoolmistress. "*Etruria docet!*" is the motto of the present Tuscan Minister.—*Times Correspondent.*

6. EDUCATION IN ALGIERS.

The lady traveller who wishes to penetrate into the inner life of those mysterious houses of Algiers, of which I have endeavored to give my readers an external impression, should cultivate an acquaintance with Madame Luce, than whom no Algerine resident will be found more intelligent and polite. Madame Luce is a stout, sunny-faced French woman, who has opened a school where more than a hundred little Moresques are learning reading, especially French, writing, arithmetic, and various kinds of needlework and embroidery. She inhabits a fine old Moorish house, in the very heart of Algiers, and the story of her life is as romantic as its achievements are remarkable. She came to the colony thirty years ago, and was at first a private governess; but as time went on, and she realised the social degradation of the women of Moorish families, she set her heart on founding a school for the education of little Moorish girls. Her facilities were indeed few. She had acquired the Arab language, and was intimate in several Musselman households; but she was poor, and a widow (her name was then Madame Allix), and the enterprise was entirely novel. Government had already established schools for instructing native boys in French, under a system by which each elder scholar receives two francs a month for attendance; but these institutions were not flourishing. The Mahometans entertained a great dread of religious proselytism, more particularly if the Catholic priesthood had any share in the work.—As to the girls, nobody ever thought of them, except in such cases (rare, and only connected with charity,) in which they fell under the eye of the Sisters of Charity. Madame Luce (I use her present name to avoid confusion) began her scheme of action in 1845 (fifteen years after the conquest), by endeavoring to persuade the Moorish fathers and mothers to entrust their little girls to her for a few hours a day, that they might be taught to read and write French and to sew neatly—an accomplishment in which the Moresques are as deficient as in Latin or mathematics. She coaxed and entreated, made solemn promises not to interfere with the religion of the children—without which assurance, and its being believed, she would not have got one pupil—and at length, by tact, energy, and a few presents, she got together four little girls—such little girls, if they were like the present scholars whom I saw—dressed in full trousers and jackets, their hair twisted into long pigtailed behind, and tightly bound with green ribbon, a-top of which were little caps of velvet, embroidered with gold thread. The nails of their little hands were tinged with henna, and their legs, perfectly bare from the knee to the ankle, were finished off with anklets and slippers—stockings being apparently unknown. Imagine four young objects thus attired, densely ignorant, and choked up with prejudices, brought to her swaddled up in veils by their mothers or and old servant, either of which would be equally invisible, save for a slit under the brow, permitting two black eyes to pick their way up and down the labyrinthine streets. Upon these four she set to work without delay, and by degrees, as a rumor of the school spread from household to household, by means doubtless of the morning calls which the Moorish ladies made from house to house, by stepping like cats from roof to roof, the school increased to thirty or forty pupils. Madame Luce then applied to the local Government for the same support which it afforded to schools for boys, on the plea that it was in vain to try to civilize the population of Algiers while the mothers of the next generation were left in ignorance and degradation. But the Algerine officials could not be brought to see any good in educating women; and though they complimented Madame Luce on her energy, they declined giving her any money. What was to be done? Her slender purse was exhausted, and the expenses were heavy; the children had to be bribed to come, and the poorer ones to be helped with food and clothes. Then there was the hire of the school-room and the purchase of school books; and though her moral aims were answering, and though she could not make both ends meet, and there seemed no resource but to close the school,—and on New Year's Day, 1846, the school was closed. This undaunted woman then actually resolved on a trip to Paris, across nine hundred miles of sea and land; and she straightway pawned her little plate, her

trinkets, and a gold thimble given her by a friend, and started off for the capital, which she reached early in February, and there she at once memorialised the Minister of War, visited the most influential deputies, and by dint of indefatigable representations, saw daylight break upon the sympathizing official mind. The Parisian authorities behaved handsomely, defrayed the cost of her journey, and urged her to return at once to her work, promising aid. She obeyed, and reached Algiers in June, where she re-opened her school amidst great rejoicing from parents and children. But seven months elapsed before the Home Government really fulfilled its promises, and she had often much ado to meet expenses from day to day. The Curé of Algiers gave her a little money and much sympathy; and Comto Guyott, a man in high office, helped her from his private purse; and at length, in the beginning of 1847, the dark days were over; her school was fairly adopted by the Government, its expenses were defrayed, and a proper salary allotted to herself. In 1857 the school numbered 150 pupils of all ages from four years old to eighteen. I visited it three times. On the first occasion the children were eating their dinners, which they brought with them; on the second they were writing—some making pothooks in large text, and others writing all from French dictation, in a small, bad, running hand. The main object is teach them French, so as to put them in communication with Europeans; and the Arabic race display a remarkable facility in acquiring that language. I have heard Moors speak it with the most perfect ease and the purest accent. The third time the whole school was sewing—making white towels and green cotton frocks. Madame Luce pays great attention to the sewing, and to such industrial education as she can find means to impart, for the Mahometan woman has no means of gaining a respectable livelihood by her own exertion; and this deficiency is a grievous plague-spot in society, as may be easily conceived. At the Great Exposition in Paris, in 1855, Madame Luce gained a first and second class medal for work done in her establishment. Among the specimens was a set of dolls, carefully dressed in native costume, many of which were executed by a poor deaf and dumb girl, whose lot, but for Madam Luce, would have been deplorable. The school possesses a Moorish assistant, who has passed a regular examination and taken out her diploma. This young woman dresses in French custom, except when she walks out with her mother, in conformity with whose feelings she then wears a veil.—*The Eclectic.*

7. ENGLISH TAUGHT IN NORWAY SCHOOLS.

A correspondent of the *Athenæum*, at Christiania, states that the English language has of late become a compulsory branch of education in the public schools in Norway.

II. Papers on Practical Education.

I. MEANS OF SECURING PUNCTUALITY AND REGULARITY IN SCHOOL.

The pious Lavater says, "The great rule of Moral conduct is, next to God, to respect time." If time is valuable anywhere, it is emphatically so in the school-room, where the success of all is so largely dependent upon the success of every individual. Hence the means of securing the most perfect punctuality in attendance at school, is a topic of deep interest to every earnest teacher.

In much of the business of life promptness is a virtue as rare as it is important. Many fail to appreciate its advantages, and many more fail to practise what they esteem in others. This element of character is peculiarly desirable in all persons who are associated with others for the achievement of any object in common. Therefore it is essential that all the pupils of a school should be rigidly prompt to secure the greatest success. On the contrary, in many schools much time and patience are sacrificed by tardiness and dilatory movements. The teacher is conscious of the evil, but fails to apply the proper remedy. To such a teacher, it is hoped that the following hints, though simple in themselves, may furnish some suggestions that will be valuable.

Nothing is more potent in the school-room than the example of the teacher. Every eye watches him. The teacher should first examine himself, and inquire whether this evil is the result of his own conduct. If he can honestly say, that he himself is never one minute late, that every session commences and closes precisely at the appointed time, that every recitation has its exact limit, and its time is invariably respected, and that it is his aim at all times to teach his pupils by example as well as by precept, that "every thing" is "beautiful in his time," he has employed the most efficient means to make his pupils punctual.

Next to the example of the teacher the interests of the pupils should be made available. Let the good to be obtained, not merely

in the aggregate, but from each hour's employment at school, be impressed upon the pupil's mind. Let him habitually regard it as a real benefit, to be gained or lost by him, and every hour will have its estimated value, while that estimate will depend entirely upon the intensity of the pupil's interest in the work of the school-room.

The writer of this article recently asked of the superintendent of a large manufacturing establishment, what inducement brought in, with such regularity and promptness, so many operatives of all ages. He replied, that when the hand of the clock points to the exact minute, the machinery moves, and every one must be in his place, if not, an hour is deducted from his time table. This would amount to a tenth of his wages, say from a dime to a shilling. The result of this practice is, that every one, from the oldest to the youngest, is at his post an hour much earlier than that appointed for the commencement of our public schools. Let the school exercises be such that the pupil will value them as highly as the factory boy does his wages, and the results will be equally satisfactory. The teacher must never rest until he has made the school-room and its work so attractive that every pupil is unwilling to lose any portion of the regular sessions.

It is well to arrange the order of exercises with this end in view. If anything of particular interest, or out of the regular course, usually receives attention at the opening of school, and the pupil has learned that there will be no delay, his place will seldom be vacant.

Constancy in attendance is equally necessary to secure success in the school-room. Yet in this city, the absence in some schools has often been as high as ten, fifteen, and even twenty per cent. In the public schools of the whole State, it appears from the published reports for several years past, that more than one-fourth belonging to those schools are constantly absent.

What can be done to prevent, as much as possible, this vast amount of absence, is, therefore an important question. No teacher can control many causes of absence. Sickness, casualties, and unforeseen emergencies are beyond his reach. But many teachers do accomplish much more than many others. Often a change of teachers, in the same school, has been attended with remarkable changes in respect to attendance. What means does the successful teacher employ to accomplish his work?

A careful inspection of the records is essential. Many teachers give but little attention to the daily history of their schools, and when the term closes, are astonished to find so many absences recorded. A more careful examination, from day to day, would show who are most frequently absent, and suggest at the time the inquiry whether all the absences are necessary ones. Coupled with this practice, frequent notices of absences, sent to parents at the time they occur, almost entirely check all traces of truancy, and very frequently unnecessary absence. In some schools every absence is reported at the time, and the best results are known to follow.

The teacher can accomplish very much by visiting parents whose children are frequently absent. A friendly interview enlists the co-operation of the parent which is essential, as the parent can detain his child from school at his pleasure. Nor is it unusual, that the visit and cheering words of the teacher prove to be more efficacious than those of the physician in restoring the health of his invalid pupils.

We all love to be appreciated. No one is unmindful of the recognition and just valuation of his efforts. Children, especially, are gratified when they receive merited praise. When they make exertions to be punctual, often attending school when their parents are not only willing but even prefer that they should be absent, such cases should be commended. Others, who are constant in attendance for an entire term, or for a year, may well be encouraged by some notice on public occasions, when parents or friends are present.

Emulation, judiciously employed, is another powerful motive. Different classes in the same school, or different schools in the same town or city may be induced to emulate each other.

An effective method of accomplishing these results has been found in the use of printed statements, in which the names of pupils who have been constant in attendance for a stated period appear, together with other statistics, such as the teacher may choose to insert. In one school in this city where this plan was adopted, every boy, except one, in one room, was perfect in attendance during an entire term, and he was absent but four half days, on account of sickness—making the percentage of attendance 99.8. In the same school is a girl, residing more than half a mile from the school house, who has been perfect in attendance at the public schools twenty-two terms, or five and a half years. Any plan that is attended with such results is not altogether unworthy of notice.

If it is objected that many of the motives referred to above are likely to produce impulsive efforts, rather than lasting good, it can well be said in reply, that during a single term many pupils will acquire a new interest in their studies, if they can pursue them

without interruption, and will form habits of regularity which will continue with them through life.

As we have said before, in securing promptness, so the real secret of success in securing perfect attendance lies in creating a lively interest in the mind of the pupil for school exercises and school work. It is in this direction that the teacher must prosecute his labors with the most untiring assiduity. No pupil will fail to enjoy what he loves. If he neither loves the place, the work, nor the teacher, he will be frequently on the absent list. Every such pupil must be the teacher's especial care till a change is effected, and become as regular as he has been inconstant, as deeply interested in his studies as he has been in his pleasures.

This element of a school may often afford the teacher a valuable index of his own success. While it proves a source of encouragement that his labors have been well directed, it may also be an incitement to more earnest efforts to prevent the defeats which he has already experienced. If in the review he finds it to be a difficulty too formidable for him to overcome, he may seriously inquire whether, after all, he has not mistaken his vocation.—*Rhode Island Schoolmaster.*

JOURNAL OF  EDUCATION,
Upper Canada.

TORONTO: JULY, 1860.

* Parties in correspondence with the Educational Department will please quote the number and date of any previous letters to which they may have occasion to refer, as it is extremely difficult for the Department to keep trace of isolated cases, where so many letters are received (nearly 800 per month) on various subjects.

HOLIDAYS, AND VACATIONS, &c., IN THE COMMON AND GRAMMAR SCHOOLS OF UPPER CANADA.

(Adopted on the 3rd of October, 1850, and revised on the 11th of July, 1860, by the Council of Public Instruction, as authorized by the Consolidated Common School Act, 22 Victoria, chapter 64, section 119, sub-section 4.)

A number of letters have recently been received at the Educational Department, asking whether the provision of the amended School Act, making every Saturday a holiday, applies to teachers' engagements at present in force, or whether teachers should not be compelled to make good the loss of the new holiday. The reply has invariably been, that the provision of the recent statute applies, from the date of its passing, to all contracts affected by it, and made under the Act which it amends—no provision having been made to restrain its application to them. Besides, the new Saturday holiday was not given for the exclusive benefit of the teacher; it was given for the benefit of both pupil and teacher, and affects all parties concerned alike. To make the teacher suffer the loss of the holiday given for the general good, is not only contrary to the School Regulations, but also to justice and fair play.

The necessity of making some changes in the holidays observed in the Common Schools, having been under the consideration of the Council of Public Instruction, the regulations at present in force, were revised as follows. The only new features in these Regulations are: the abolition of the Easter holidays (excepting Good Friday) and the extension of the summer vacation in cities, towns, and incorporated villages only, from two to four weeks. The newly-amended School Act makes every Saturday a holiday in all the Common Schools.

"1. The hours of teaching each day shall not exceed six, exclusive of all the time allowed at noon for recreation. Never-

theless, a less number of hours for daily teaching may be determined upon in any school, at the option of the trustees.

"2. Good Friday, and every Saturday* shall be a holiday as directed by the statute.

"3. There shall be two vacations in each year: the first, or summer vacation, shall continue for two weeks from the first Monday in August; the second, for eight days, at Christmas.

"NOTE.—In cities, towns, and incorporated villages, the summer vacation shall continue four weeks, from the first Monday in August.

"4. All agreements between trustees and teachers shall be subject to the foregoing regulations; and no teacher shall be deprived of any part of his salary on account of observing allowed holidays and vacations. (See notes * and † below.)

"5. Union grammar and common schools are subject to the regulations affecting holidays and vacations in grammar schools, as follows: ‡

TERMS, VACATIONS, DAILY EXERCISES, AND HOLIDAYS IN THE GRAMMAR SCHOOLS OF UPPER CANADA. §

"1. There shall be four terms each year, to be designated the winter, spring, summer, and autumn terms. The winter term shall begin the 7th of January, and end the Tuesday next before Easter; the spring term shall begin the Wednesday after Easter, and close the last Friday in June; the summer term shall begin the second Monday in August, and end the Friday next before the 15th of October; the autumn term shall begin the Monday following the close of the summer term, and shall end the 22nd of December.

"2. The exercises of the day shall not commence later than nine o'clock a.m., and shall not exceed six hours in duration, exclusive of all the time allowed at noon for recreation, and of not more than ten minutes during each forenoon and each afternoon. Nevertheless, a less number of hours of daily

* The number of teaching days in the rural Schools, in each month, omitting the allowed holidays and vacations, is as follows:

<i>(First half of the year.)</i>		<i>(Second half of the year.)</i>	
January	22	July	22
February	20	August (cities, towns, &c., 2) . . .	13
March } As Easter is change. }	22	September	20
April } able, these will vary. }	20	October	23
May	24	November	22
June	21	December	16
Total	129	Total	116

† No deduction whatever can be lawfully made from any Teacher's salary for any allowed holidays or vacations; nor for the exemption of payment of rates by indigent persons, authorized by law.

‡ 1. This regulation applies to union grammar and common schools, as the law provides for the union of common schools with grammar schools, not the union of the latter with the former. In all cases, therefore, in which common schools are united with the grammar schools, the union schools are subjected to the regulations which are here prescribed in respect to grammar schools.

2. It should be observed, that the twenty-fourth and twenty-fifth sections of the Consolidated Grammar School Act, empowers boards of trustees to prescribe any duties, or make regulations, in connection with their respective schools, which are not provided for by, or are not inconsistent with, the general regulations prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction, and approved by the Governor General in Council.

§ The vacations in the Model Grammar School have been altered, so as to allow an opportunity to Grammar School Masters of visiting the school during their own vacations. The sessions will, in future, extend from the Monday after Easter until the fourth Friday in July; and from the Monday following the end of a seven weeks' vacation from that day until the 22nd of December. On the 7th of January the school again resumes.

teaching may be determined upon in any grammar school, at the option of the board of trustees.

"3. Every Saturday shall be a holiday; or, if preferred by the board of trustees and head master of any grammar school, the afternoons of Wednesday and Saturday in each week shall be half-holidays. All days declared by law to be public holidays, shall be holidays in each grammar school.

"4. The public half-yearly examinations required to be held in each grammar school, [by the eighth clause of the twenty-fifth section of the Consolidated Grammar School Act, 22 Vic., cap. 63], shall take place, the one immediately before the Christmas holidays, and the other immediately before the summer vacation.

"Adopted by the Council of Public Instruction for Upper Canada, on the 26th day of December, 1854.

"Approved by the Governor General in Council as intimated to the Chief Superintendent of Education, on the 15th day of February, 1855."

NEXT SESSION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

The present session of the Normal School closed on the 15th June. The next session of the school will commence on the 8th August. Application for admission should be made in person not later than the first week of the session.

The terms of admission to the Institution have recently been revised by the Council of Public Instruction, as follows:—

NEWLY REVISED TERMS OF ADMISSION INTO THE NORMAL SCHOOL, TORONTO.

(Adopted by the Council of Public Instruction for Upper Canada, on the 23rd day of July, 1851, and revised on the 24th day of August, 1858, and 10th day of July 1860.)

The Council of Public Instruction, anxious to adopt such measures as appear best calculated to render the training of the Normal School as thorough as possible, and to diffuse its advantages over every county in Upper Canada as equally and as widely as possible, adopts the following regulations in regard to the duration of the future Sessions of the Normal School, and the mode and terms of admitting and facilitating the attendance of students at that Institution.

Ordered, I. That the semi-annual Sessions of the Normal School shall be held as follows: (1) The Winter Session shall commence on the 8th day of January, and close on the 15th day of June. (2) The Autumn Session shall commence on the 8th day of August, and close on the 22nd day of December of each year; [and if those days fall upon Sunday, the day following;] each Session to be concluded by an examination conducted by means of written questions and answers, and followed by a vacation as prescribed.

II. That no male student shall be admitted under eighteen years of age, nor a female under the age of sixteen years. (1) Those admitted must produce a certificate of good moral character, dated within at least three months of its presentation, and signed by the clergyman or minister of the religious persuasion with which they are connected; (2) They must be able, for entrance into the Junior Division, to read with ease and fluency; parse a common prose sentence, according to any recognised authority; write legibly, readily and correctly; give the definitions of Geography; have a general knowledge of the relative positions of the principal countries, with their capitals; the ocean, seas, rivers, and islands of the world; be acquainted with the fundamental rules of arithmetic, common or vulgar

fractions, and simple proportion. They must sign a declaration of their intention to devote themselves to the profession of school-teaching, and state that their object in coming to the Normal School is to qualify themselves better for the important duties of that profession.

III. That upon these conditions, candidates for school-teaching shall be admitted to the advantages of the Institution without any charge, either for tuition, the use of the Library, or for the books which they may be required to use in the School.

IV. That Teachers in-training shall board and lodge in the city, in such houses and under such regulations as are approved of by the Council of Public Instruction.

V. That a sum at the rate of one dollar per week (payable at the end of the Session,) shall be allowed to each Teacher in-training, who, at the end of the *first or second Session*, shall be entitled to either a first or second class Provincial Certificate; but no Teacher in-training shall be entitled to receive aid for a period exceeding one Session.

VI. That all candidates for admission into the Normal School must present themselves during the *first week* of the Session, otherwise they cannot be admitted; and their continuance in the School is conditional upon their diligence, progress, and observance of the General Regulations prescribed by this Council.

VII. That all communications be addressed to the Reverend Dr. Ryerson, Chief Superintendent of Education, Toronto.

By order of the Council of Public Instruction for Upper Canada.

EDUCATION OFFICE,

Toronto, 11th July, 1860.

N.B.—Board and Lodging, for Students, may be obtained at Houses approved by the Council of Public Instruction, at from \$2 75 to \$3 50 per week.

PROVINCIAL CERTIFICATES GRANTED BY THE CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION.

The Chief Superintendent of Education, on the recommendation of the masters of the Normal School, and under the authority of the following section of the Upper Canada Consolidated Common School Act, 22 Vic., chap. 64, sec. 107, has granted to the undermentioned Students of the Normal School, Provincial Certificates of qualification as Common School teachers in any part of Upper Canada:

"107. The Chief Superintendent of Education, on the recommendation of the teachers in the Normal School, may give to any teacher of Common Schools a certificate of qualification, which shall be valid in any part of Upper Canada until revoked; but no such certificate shall be given to any person who has not been a student in the Normal School."

The certificates are divided into classes, in harmony with the general programme according to which all teachers in Upper Canada are required to be examined and classified, and are valid until revoked, or until the expiration of the time mentioned in the certificate.

Each certificate is numbered and recorded in the register of the Department in the following order:

Twenty-third Session.—Dated 15th June, 1860.

MALES	
<i>First Class.—Grade A.</i>	
1059 Barrick, Eli James (982.)*	1061 Knight, James Henry (794.)
1060 Hay, Angus Cameron.	1062 Platt, John Milton (991.)
	1063 Ridgway, Robert (992.)

* The figures in brackets indicate the number of a previous certificate obtained by the student named.

<i>First Class.—Grade B.</i>		
1064 Curry, Robert Nicholas (987.)	1087 Cuthbertson, Edward Greer.	
1065 Moore, Charles Boyle.	1088 Hill, Alfred.	
1066 Murray, John.	1089 Hipple, Jacob.	
1067 Rouse, William Hiram.	1090 Kiernan, Thomas.	
<i>First Class.—Grade C.</i>		
1068 Armstrong, John (623.)	1091 McCamus, William.	
1069 Chaisgreen, Charles (996)	1092 McDiarmid, Peter (643.)	
1070 Healy, Michael.	1093 McFarlane, Laughlin.	
1071 Keffer, Thomas Dixon	1094 McGregor, Robert Campbell.	
1072 Price, Robert (619)	1095 McMillan, Malcolm Cameron.	
<i>Second Class.—Grade A.</i>		
1073 Farewell, George McGill.	1096 Margach, John Lewis.	
1074 Fotheringham, A. Thomson.	1097 Scollon, John.	
1075 McKay, Hugh.	1098 Sing, Samuel.	
1076 Mutton, Ebenezer.	1099 Thompson, Alexander.	
1077 Pysher, David (723.)	1100 Wark, Alexander (926.)	
1078 Sinclair, John.	1101 Wilson, George.	
1079 Stewart, Thomas.	1102 Wright, Meade Nisbett.	
<i>Second Class.—Grade B</i>		
1080 Anderson, William.	<i>Second Class.—Grade C.</i>	
1081 Barefoot, Isaac	(Expire one year from date.)	
1082 Briery, Charles.	1103 Fleming, William.	
1083 Buckland, Henry.	1104 Hammond, William.	
1084 Cannon, George.	1105 McRae, Alexander.	
1085 Chisholm, William.	1106 Mulloy, Nelson.	
1086 Craig, George.	1107 Richardson, James.	
	1108 Treadgold, George.	
	1109 Walker, Thaddeus.	
	1110 Whiteside, Jacob Lemon	
	1154 Atkinson, Edward Lewis (920.)	

FEMALES.

<i>First Class.—Grade A.</i>		
None.		
<i>First Class.—Grade B.</i>		
1111 Collar, Eliza (1038.)	1133 Gowanlock, Janet Kidd.	
1112 Fraser, Catherine (1050.)	1134 Hall, Agnes (1053.)	
<i>First Class.—Grade C.</i>		
1113 Ashall, Eliza (670.)	1135 Hendershott, Melissa Frances.	
1114 Carroll, Charlotte Jane (1046.)	1136 McAllan, Annie.	
1115 Hamilton, Sarah Maria (938.)	1137 McMillan, Susan Maria.	
1116 Kellock, Agnes (946.)	1138 Sanders, Harriet Louisa.	
1117 Mullin, Sarah (1041.)	1139 Scarlett, Catherine (1057.)	
1118 Robinson, Grace (1042.)	1140 Shepherd, Mary Elizabeth.	
1119 Umney, Lilly (962.)	<i>Second Class.—Grade C.</i>	
<i>Second Class.—Grade A.</i>		
1120 Bourke, Barbara Anne.	(Expire one year from date.)	
1121 Childs, Sarah Elizabeth (1048.)	1141 Bethell, Dorinda.	
1122 Grece, Martha.	1142 Corrigan, Augusta.	
1123 Rattray, Jessie Sophia (1055.)	1143 Craignile, Elizabeth Wilson.	
1124 Russell, Mary Jane.	1144 Cummins, Margaret.	
1125 Shepherd, Anne Eliza.	1145 Ford, Julia Cadman.	
1126 Yeats, Elizabeth.	1146 Foster, Mary Louisa.	
<i>Second Class.—Grade B</i>		
1127 Bedell, Sarah Melantha.	1147 Gunn, Jane.	
1128 Coulter, Margaret	1148 Hill, Charlotte Mary.	
1129 Dunn, Hannah Olivia.	1149 Lloyd, Eliza Jane.	
1130 Farquharson, Georginna.	1150 McLennan, Margaret.	
	1151 Millard, Alice Gay.	
	1152 Rogers, Ellen.	
	1158 Stewart, Annie.	

All the certificates of the *Second Class.—Grade C.*, granted subsequently to the 19th Session, have been limited to one year from their date; the following certificates are consequently not valid after 22nd June, 1860:—

713 Brine, Henry James.	812 Beach, William Godkin.
714 Burns, Robert.	813 Bielby, William.
715 Forrest, John.	814 Brodie, James.
716 Foster, Jesse.	816 Duncan, Alexander.
719 Hillock, Moses.	818 McLennan, Simon.
721 McLelland, John.	819 Malloy, Alexander.
722 Maxwell, James.	820 Bates, James Marshall.
725 Snell, Charles.	821 Milne, William.
726 Windsor, Francis.	822 Rutledge, James.
762 Burr, Hester.	823 Walker, Thomas.
766 McCann, Susan.	824 Way, Daniel Sherman.
767 Proctor, Sarah Anne.	864 Barnard, Sarah.
769 Thompson, Jane.	865 Chesnut, Harriet Henrietta.
770 Wilson, Margaret.	866 Evans, Jessie.

869 Harper, Jane.	951 Atkin, Ellen.
870 Hurd, Helen Marr.	952 Beam, Rebekah Ann.
872 Martin, Elizabeth.	954 Fenney, Jane Parker.
873 Serson, Mary.	955 Flood, Louise.
874 Young, Caroline.	959 Irwin, Margaret.
877 Wilson, Helen.	960 McPhail, Margaret.
921 Carrie, James.	963 Gardiner, Ann.
925 Sinclair, John.	964 Gardiner, Elizabeth.
950 Armstrong, Mary.	

N.B.—The certificates numbered as follows are not given above, having been superseded by others obtained subsequently:—717, 718, 720, 723, 724, 763, 764, 765, 768, 815, 817, 867, 868, 871, 920, 922, 923, 924, 926, 953, 956, 957, 958, 961, 962.

Certified.

Education Office,
27th June, 1860.ALEXANDER MARLING.
Registrar.

IV. Papers on Scientific Subjects.

1. TOTAL ECLIPSE OF THE SUN, JULY 18, 1860.

The total eclipse of the sun, which will occur on the 18th July next, is regarded by astronomers as the most important which will be witnessed during the present century. It will be visible as a partial eclipse throughout the United States, but will be total only in a small part of Oregon and Washington territories. The central line of the moon's shadow will strike the coast 15 miles north of the mouth of Columbia river (lat. $46^{\circ} 25' N.$) soon after sunrise, and the breadth of the shadow there will be 80 miles. Moving thence in a north-east direction it will pass near to Olympia: across Flathead Lake, and north of Lake Winnipeg, to York Factory, in long. $57^{\circ} N.$, and on the south-west side of Hudson's Bay. At Fort York the breadth of the shadow will be 105 miles. It will leave this continent at Cape Chidley (or Chudleigh) the north-east point of Labrador, in lat. $59^{\circ} N.$; and bending first eastward and afterwards to the south-east, after traversing the Atlantic Ocean, it will reach Spain near to Santander, on the Bay of Biscay. The shadow will next pass over the entire surface drained by the waters of the river Ebro; nearly all the Balearic islands, except Minorca; strike Algeria near Cape Carbon; pass to the south of Tripoli; and finally, at 10h. 46m., A. M., (mean time Washington) it will leave the earth at Mossawa, on the Red Sea. The end of the eclipse will be about one hour later.

At Astoria the duration of the total eclipse will be 1m. 54s.; at Cape Chidley, 2m. 50s.; in Spain, 3m. 30s.; and in Algeria, 3m. 12s. It is during this phase, and when the whole of the direct light is cut off from the observers, that protuberances, sometimes rose-colored, sometimes black, and on other occasions resembling luminous clouds, are witnessed as appendages apparently to the sun. To determine their true character is an object of the most earnest interest in physical science, and at every recurrence of a total eclipse, astronomers undertake long journeys for the purpose of placing themselves near the central line of the shadow, from whence only are the phenomena visible. At the last total eclipse visible on this continent, one astronomer went from France to the Northern part of Brazil; a second from this country (under the auspices of the Smithsonian Institution) traversed the desert to the northern part of Peru; and a third went from Chili also to Peru. The two former were successful; the last encountered a cloudy morning. It is known that the Astronomer Royal of England will go to Santander, and other parties will accompany him thither, to occupy stations at Portugaletta, Bilboa, Pampelona, &c. The Bavarian Astronomer proposes to place himself near the mouth of the Ebro, on the Mediterranean, and the French will occupy Palma in Majorca, and Bugia in Algeria; so that there will be near a hundred observers stretched along the centre of the shadow in Europe and Africa, a force ample to gather a rich harvest of physical results as well as of corresponding data for our geographical question.

2. THE WAY TO TELL THE TIME OF NIGHT BY THE STARS.

With suitable instruments the time can be ascertained by the stars more accurately than it can in any other way; and it is easy to tell it approximately, say within half an hour, without any instruments whatever. Let us describe a simple, rough device, for this purpose, as the easiest mode of explaining how it may be done by the unaided action of the eye and judgment.

Take a keg or barrel hoop, or a hoop of wire, and divide it into 24 equal spaces marking the dividing points for hour points. Con-

nect the opposite hour points by lines of fine twine drawn across the diameter of the hoop. Hang the apparatus against a north window, and place the eye in a line with the middle of the hoop (where the wires cross each other) and the north star. Now any one of the fixed stars in its daily revolutions about the pole, will pass from one wire to the next in an hour. Let us select the nearest pointer in the "diper" (Alpha Ursa Major) for the hour hand on our great clock the heavens. Place the eye at such a distance from the apparatus as to bring this star just within the hoop, keeping the centre of the hoop in a line with the north pole. On the 5th day of March the Star Alpha Ursa Major, will be on the Meridian, directly over the north star, and consequently in a line with the upper vertical wire of our apparatus at 12 o'clock midnight; and as it passes from one wire to the next in an hour, if it be seen in line with the first wire at the right of the vertical one, the time will be 11 o'clock, in a line with the second wire at the right 10 o'clock, and so on. While if it have passed the middle, and reached the first wire at the left, the time indicated is 1 o'clock; the second wire 2 o'clock; and so on.

This star, in common with all other fixed stars, comes to the meridian about four minutes earlier each night or day, than it did on the preceding night or day. Consequently, on the 5th of April, it will reach the vertical wire at 10 o'clock at night, and the variation continues at the rate of two hours in each month throughout the year.

From this description the mode will be readily understood of telling the time by the stars without the aid of instruments. We require to learn two stars—to remember that this latter star is directly over the north star at midnight on the 5th of March, and comes to the meridian two hours earlier on the 5th of each month, than it did on the 5th of the preceding month. As the star revolves around the circle in 24 hours, it will, of course, revolve one-fourth the distance in 6 hours, being at right angles to the meridian 6 hours from the time it is on the meridian, and at an angle of 45° 3 hours from that time.

The apparatus which we have described will be more accurate if the top be inclined forward from the perpendicular to the axis of the earth, and in a plane parallel with the plane of the equator.—*Scientific American.*

3. AMERICAN EXPEDITION TO THE ALLEGED OPEN POLAR SEA.

Dr. Hayes, who accompanied Dr. Kane on his second Grinnell expedition to the Arctic regions, purposed starting late last month, on a voyage to those northern latitudes. Dr. Kane, it will be remembered, contended, on his return from his expedition in 1854, that an open Polar Sea existed to the north of Smith's Sound, in latitude 82° 47'. The object of Dr. Hayes' voyage is to settle the question of the existence of open water in that direction, and, if possible, to reach the North Pole. This is certainly one of the greatest problems in geographical science, and as the discovery was first made by an American, it is quite natural that his countrymen should endeavour to bring the matter to a satisfactory solution. Dr. Hayes undertakes his enterprise under the auspices of the American Geographical Society of New York, whose action has been sanctioned by the co-operation of almost every scientific body in the United States. The *New York Herald* in speaking of this expedition, says:—"Dr. Hayes proposes, we understand, to sail next May for Rensselaer Harbour, in Smith's Sound, where Dr. Kane made the winter quarters of the *Advance* in 1854, and, taking the western shore of the Sound, which is more free from the drift ice than the eastern shore, which Kane followed, to push on in boats run on sledges towards the open Polar Sea, and on reaching open water to make for the North Pole. In the event of not finding everything favourable for a water journey to the Pole, he will return to the ship for the winter, and at the opening of spring will start with sledges over the ice towards the Pole, having previously established depots of provisions along the route. The sum requisite to carry out this enterprise will be about twenty thousand dollars, of which ten thousand have already been raised. The feasibility of the undertaking has been endorsed by all the leading scientific associations of the country; and as an evidence of the interest which scientific men individually feel in it, and the hopeful light in which they view its results, we may state that Professor Bache has contributed the liberal sum of a thousand dollars towards it."—*Leader.*

4. GOLD MEDAL PRESENTED TO LADY FRANKLIN.

At the annual meeting of the Royal Geographical Society, the Founder's, or King William gold medal, was awarded to Lady Franklin for her self-sacrificing perseverance in sending out expeditions to ascertain the fate of her husband and the ships under his command, and in commemoration of the discoveries of the illus-

trious navigator Franklin; and the Patron's, or Victoria gold medal, to Captain Sir F. L. McClintock, for the skill and fortitude displayed by him and his companions—Hobson, Young, and Walker—in their successful search for records of the lost expedition, and for their valuable coast surveys, by which our acquaintance with Arctic geography has been greatly enlarged. Sir R. Murchison, who attended on behalf of Lady Franklin, said that, setting aside all pecuniary reimbursement to herself for that large expenditure of money which she could ill afford, she hopes that the parliament may be thus far generous as to reward the officers and crew of the *Fox*, and also provide for the erection of a monument to the memory of her husband and his companions, in a public place, on which shall be recorded that they died in being the first to discover a north-west passage. W. Parker Snow says, in a letter, it is not Lady Franklin, but another lady of title, who has come forward to aid his expedition for a renewed Arctic search, and the warm interest everywhere displayed convinces him that there is still a strong feeling alive as regards our lost Arctic voyagers—the 105 who landed at Point Victoria. He proposes "going round the Cape of Good Hope, and thence by way of China; thus, on my return, coming through Baffin's Bay, and so carrying our good old flag round the globe by the Arctic route." He adds,—"Some American gentlemen from the United States intend going up to do what I propose. Shall we let them do it for us, and perchance again return with something else of value besides the *Resolute*."

V. Papers on Natural History.

1. THE FISHERIES OF CANADA.

The following statements in reference to the Fisheries of Canada are, says the *Quebec Chronicle*, taken from statements issued under the authority of the Crown Lands Department.

THE FISHERIES OF LOWER CANADA.

Lower Canada possesses in the River and Gulf of St. Lawrence an extent of coast of 1,000 miles, where the Cod, Herring, Mackerel, Salmon, and other fisheries are carried on successfully.

Whale fishing is also carried on by vessels fitted out from the Port of Gaspé. Average season value of whale oil is \$27,000.

The Cod fishing is carried on along the whole coast of Canada; the Herring fishing principally at the Magdalen Islands, in the Bay of Chaleur, and on the coast of Labrador; the Mackerel fishing at the Magdalen Islands, along the coast of Gaspé, and in the lower part of the River St. Lawrence.

There are above 70 Salmon Rivers in Lower Canada, which the Government are now fostering with a view to enhance the commerce of this valuable fish. The latest annual catch is 3,750 brls. The Bay of Chaleur alone formerly exported 10,000 brls.

Number of boats belonging to Canada fishing on the Canadian shores, from 1,200 to 1,500.

Nearly 100 Canadian vessels are employed in the fisheries of Canada.

Number of fishing vessels from Nova Scotia and other Lower Provinces fishing on our shores from 250 to 300.

Number of fishing vessels from the United States, frequenting our shores, principally for Cod and Mackerel fishing, from 200 to 300.

Quantity of dried and smoked fish yearly exported from Canada	172,893 qu'ls.
Quantity of pickled fish exported from Canada	118,257 brls.
Consumed in Canada, above kinds	75,000 qu'ls.
Quantity of fish oils exported from Canada	100,218 gals.
Number of Seal Skins do do	13,000
Quantity of Salmon taken in the Rivers of Canada	3,500 brls.
Quantity of Trout and Halibut taken in Canada.....	900 brls.

Total fish productions valued at \$1,026,288

Note.—The take by vessels other than Canadian is not computed in this table.

Square and manufactured timber is exported in large quantities from the different ports of the coast of Gaspé. There is also found an abundance of wood of the best quality for ship-building purposes. The lands in the District of Gaspé are composed of a light but fertile soil, producing all kinds of grain and vegetables. There are millions of acres of those lands which are still in the wild state, and covered by beautiful forests.

The population of the District of Gaspé and of the north coast of the River and Gulf of St. Lawrence is 32,000 souls.

The District of Gaspé alone could contain and support a population of more than 100,000.

The Inland Lakes and Rivers abound with fish.

The Fisheries in Canada are as yet in a state of infancy.

THE FISHERIES OF UPPER CANADA.

The merchantable fish products derived from the Lakes and Rivers of Upper Canada consists chiefly of White-Fish, Salmon, Salmon-Trout, Herring, Lake-Trout, Speckled Trout, Sturgeon, Pickerel, Bass, Muscalonge, &c. Inferior kinds also abound in the smaller lakes, tributaries, and streams.

The extensive area, great depth, clear cold waters, abundant feeding banks, shoals and spawning grounds, of the principal Upper Canadian Lakes, render the fish found therein numerous, of good quality and large size.

The annual take of the different species of fish is carefully estimated at \$380,000 value.

This produce is variously disposed of, by export, fresh and cured, in the neighbouring United States, and for domestic sale and consumption.

Ready markets are found both at home and abroad for any seasonable catch.

Tracts of cultivable land bordering on the great Lakes are still disposable for settlement.

2. SALMON SPEARING—ITS DESTRUCTIVE EFFECTS.

Mr. Whitcher's report in the Appendices of the Crown Land Reports, thus refers to the destructive effects of spearing salmon by the Indians.

"The practice of capturing salmon by torch-light and spears is justly held to be pernicious. Employed, as it almost invariably is, at a time when the waters of each river are lowest and clearest, whilst the salmon are baulked at the base of steep falls, awaiting the next freshet, and congregate during sultry nights near the mouths of little rivulets emptying in the main stream, or loiter about the tails of pools, spear fishing involves excessive slaughter. Sometimes in the course of one night as many salmon will be thus killed and maimed as an ordinary net-fishery along the coast or in the estuaries can capture throughout the regular fishing season. Practised during autumn and periods of reproduction, as is still more frequently the case, it becomes indescribably bad,—tis the crowning act of extirpation. The luckless fish are then killed at a stage which makes the bare feature of destroyal in the highest degree deplorable. They have won their devious way from the piscine pastures of old ocean, through the labyrinth of nets and a multitude of watery perils. Urged onwards by strong instincts, they have surmounted incredible difficulties and achieved marvels of adventurous travel. They are now arrived at nature's free hospitals of piscary lying-in. The water-way by which they came is in many parts impassably shoal, and no more heavy breeders can reach the same high grounds, or supply their places for that year at least. And after all, lean from exertion and thin food, dark and slimy from the physical drain and unhealthy action incident to the pro-creative state, perhaps sluggish and heavy with thousands of ova, or busied in the exhaustive labor and anxious cares of depositing their prolific burden—they are ruthlessly slain by the spear. With every dead or wounded fish there perish in embryo from ten to thirty, forty, fifty even as high as sixty thousand.—Spawners and melters both suffer. Is it possible to exaggerate the ruinous consequences of such improvidences? There are also other features in this practice contributing to the waste and injustice it entails. The salmon so taken by the spear are, comparatively speaking, worthless as a marketable commodity. But being easily taken, the captors willingly dispose of them at miserable prices, and in barter for the cheapest kind of goods, for rusty pork and moulded biscuits. The wrong to the public of suffering the richest and finest fish in Canadian waters—the precious capital of our rivers—to be thus traded in when almost valueless, and under circumstances that admit of unscrupulous fishermen and dishonest traders, deriving some mean benefits thereby, is obvious. These dealers seditiously sacrifice the ugly portions, disguise their ill-conditioned bargain by dry salting or hot pickle, and concealing the unwholesome fish at the bottom of the tubs, or dispersing them amongst other sound pieces, thus pawn them off to the public. Costing little at prime, the sale is a ready one below the average market price. If consumers were once to see a few specimens of unseasonable salmon struck by the spear, they would remember the loathsome sight and rather than venture the chances of again eating such deleterious food, would eschew salmon altogether.

3. THE TITANIUM ORES OF CANADA.

Mr. Mushet, who is well known in England as an eminent practical metallurgist, has recently published in the *Engineer* an important communication on the influence of titanium on the quality of iron and steel. The difference in the quality of the metal obtained from ores, apparently similar and smelted by the same processes,

have long been well known, but no satisfactory explanation of these differences has yet been given. Mr. Mushet affirms that other things being equal, the goodness of the metal depends upon the amount of titanium which it contains; and that the superior quality of the Dannemora and other Swedish Irons is due to the fact that they contain from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of titanium.

Canada, so far as yet known, the only country which possesses any considerable supplies of a rich ore of titanium, whose existence was first made known by the Report of the Geological Survey for 1847, where attention was called to the fact that the great beds of iron ore in the Eastern Townships contained titanium, often in considerable quantities, and that a forty-five feet bed of ore in St. Francis, on the Chaudière, was composed of a mixture, separable by a magnet, of two parts of magnetic iron ore, and one of ilmenite, containing 48 per cent. of oxyde of titanium, so that the mass of the ore would yield 16 per cent.

In 1850 the great deposits of iron ore which occur in St. Urhan, at Bay St. Paul, were examined by Sir William Logan and Mr. Hunt, and found to consist entirely of ilmenite containing more than 48 per cent of oxyde of titanium, combined with oxyde of iron, and mixed in some parts with red crystalline grains of pure oxyde of titanium or rutile. One mass of the ore there imbedded in the rock is 90 feet thick, and 300 feet long; and besides many other smaller masses, there is said to be a still larger bed in the neighbourhood. In describing these ores the officers of the Geological Survey then stated that such minerals would by themselves be difficult to work as iron ore, but that if at any time a demand should arise in the arts for titanium or its compounds, the deposits of the ilmenite in Canada, and especially those at Bay St. Paul, might be made to yield abundant supplies of it.

At the World's Fair in London, in 1851, Sir William Logan exhibited masses of these titaniferous ores, and again at the Paris Exhibition in 1855, at the same time calling attention in a published sketch of the Geology of Canada, to the importance which these deposits might one day assume, as the only available ores of titanium, should this metal ever become extensively used in the arts. Large blocks of the ore, of several hundred pounds weight, have been for some years deposited in the collection of Canadian minerals at the Sydenham Palace, and in the Geological Museum in this city.

The existence of these great deposits of titanium ore in Canada, which has hitherto been a fact of scientific importance only, seems, by the recent discovery of Mr. Mushet, to assume a great economical and commercial importance. If further experiments confirm the conclusions of this metallurgist, titanium will be everywhere sought for, for mixing with iron ore, and Canada will have the monopoly of the mineral, for the ores from the far distant colony of New Zealand, which contain only eight per cent. of oxyde of titanium, cannot compete with those of the Lower St. Lawrence, containing 50 per cent. We shall await with interest farther developments relative to this new source of mineral wealth, for the knowledge of whose existence in Canada we are indebted to the Geological Survey.—*Montreal Gazette.*

VI. Biographical Sketches.

No. 14. WILLIAM WOODRUFF, ESQ.

On Wednesday evening we announced the death of William Woodruff, Esq., of St. David's, one of the oldest, most prominent, and most respected citizens of the Niagara frontier. An active and enterprising business man in this section for the past 45 years, a prominent politician, and one who has taken part or been conversant with almost every event in the history of the country for more than half a century; a sketch of his life cannot but be of interest.

William Woodruff was born at Middleton, Conn., on the 1st October, 1793, and was therefore in the 67th year of his age at the time of his death. Before the deceased was two years of age, his parents determined on migrating to the then Western wilderness, and they landed at Newark, (now Niagara) in this County, in July, 1795. At that time the journey from Connecticut to Upper Canada, was one of danger, difficulty and hardship, and the person undertaking it gave evidence of possessing more than the ordinary amount of courage. The elder Woodruffs sailed from their native State to Schenectady in a sloop, and from thence up Wood Creek, in an open boat, to Fort Stanwix. The country was then a wilderness, and the adventurers had to clear a portion of their way; and what with this, and the tortuous nature of the navigation, their progress was slow and laborious; so very slow indeed was it, that frequently when camping on the banks of the stream at night the smoke from the decaying camp fires of the previous evening could be seen. From Fort Stanwix, the travellers went to Oswego, and from thence they coasted along the shores of Lake Ontario to Fort Niagara.

At this time (1795) the new city of Utica, through which they then passed, contained but one house, and Fort Niagara and Oswego were in the possession of the British army. The family resided at Queenston for some years, and subsequently removed to Stamford, where they remained until the War of 1812.

When that War commenced, volunteers were called for, several companies of which, composed principally of young men, were formed in the Niagara District, under the late Colonel Claus. The Legislature was called immediately, and passed an Act compelling all those who had volunteered to stand enrolled for six months; their head-quarters to be at Niagara, and to be called Flank Companies. Mr. Woodruff joined one of these companies, and his first engagement was at the Battle of Queenston on the 13th October, 1812, under the command of the late Hon. James Crooks. His next engagement was on the plains of Niagara on the 27th May, 1813; his commander having been the late Capt. Matthew McClellan, who received a fatal wound, and fell against Mr. W. exclaiming "I have got my fatal shot." His Lieutenant was the late Geo. Adams, who also fell at the same battle mortally wounded. The same company suffered very severely, having a large number killed and wounded. At this time the deceased was about 20 years of age, and a characteristic incident is related of him and a youth named Matthews, not over 15 years of age. When the Americans had succeeded in effecting a landing, and after a portion of the British Army had retreated, Matthews and the deceased borrowed ammunition, got behind some bushes, and kept up a brisk fire on the Americans, shooting at their heads as fast as they would raise them above the banks of the river, and only retreating when compelled to do so by superior numbers. Another incident of the same battle was, the deceased ensconcing himself behind a stump and firing briskly at the enemy until the idea entered his mind that the Americans might possibly direct a shot in his direction, as his firing was extremely annoying to them. With his usual promptness, the deceased at once decided to leave the stump, which he had no sooner done than it was struck by a cannon ball and shattered into a thousand pieces. Mr. W. was in active service during the whole war of 1812. About the close of the War, the deceased entered into partnership with his brother, Richard Woodruff, in a general business, at St. David's. During the partnership the Messrs. Woodruff erected a steam Grist Mill at St. David's, which was the only one in the County for many years. The firm did a very large business, and both brothers succeeded in acquiring considerable wealth. In the year 1828 Mr. W. was elected to Parliament for one of the Ridings of this County, of which there were then four, and served two sessions, or until the Dissolution in 1830. He was from the commencement of his political career an active and consistent Reformer; and was invariably found on the side of the people as against the compactism that ruled the country until after the Rebellion. A lover of freedom himself, and descended from those who had suffered and expatriated themselves for opinion's sake, he could not tolerate in the country of his adoption those practices which had brought so much misery to other lands. The principles of justice and right were with him superior to those of party expediency, and whenever he conceived that our rulers were pursuing a course detrimental to the interest of the country, he at once told them of their error and its consequences.—*From the St. Catharines Journal, June 29.*

No. 15. SIR CHARLES BARRY.

"The English architect, whose reputation has been most widely spread in this country, and who, of all English architects, has had the largest share of public patronage in his own generation, has just passed from amongst us, at a greater age than most people would have imagined him to have attained. He was born in 1795, and in this month of May, had completed the 65th year of his age. At a very early age the taste for drawing and design, so conspicuous in after-life, manifested itself, and as a boy he had no greater pleasure than to shut himself up in his own room, and work with charcoal or pencil on cartoons often of life size, and connected with the stories of heathen mythology. He went abroad in 1817 and stayed away from England three years and four months. During this time he visited Italy, Greece, Egypt, Constantinople, Jerusalem and Syria, returning home by the way of France. His own means not permitting so protracted a stay, he secured the opportunity of prolonging his studies, by concluding an engagement with a rich countryman, Mr. Bailie, to the effect that the latter should defray all expenses, and should in return possess all sketches made by his protégé. Consequently most of the best drawings and sketches made at this period are not in the possession of his family. An attempt of the traveller to reach Palmyra was defeated by an attack of the Arabs, in which Barry nearly lost his life from a thrust of a lance, inflicted by one of the sons of the Desert, which, though aimed at his body, was fortunately received by his haick. After his

return to England he married Sarah, daughter of Mr. S. Rowsell,—in 1823, and commenced his professional career. Without friends in influential quarters, and with nothing but his own consciousness of power to encourage him to proceed, the first path of the young architect was a thorny one, and many serious difficulties, only stopping short of want, had to be encountered. Night and day he toiled to conquer Fortune, and whenever a competition for designs offered a chance of honorable success, he did his best to be foremost in the race. After experiencing much of the sickening effects of hope deferred, his efforts were at last rewarded, and among his earliest successes in competition may be named, St. Peter's Church, Manchester; a church at Stand, near Manchester; and St. Peter's Church, Brighton. To those followed the Institute of Fine Arts, Manchester; the Travellers' and Reform Club House, London; King Edward's School, and other important buildings. In 1836, the great work, upon which the reputation of Charles Barry will chiefly rest, was intrusted to his hands. His own preferences and tastes would have led him to adopt the Italian style of architecture for the New Palace of Westminster; but as the instructions to the competitors limited the choice of styles to Gothic or Elizabethan, he chose the former as most suitable for such a building. From the moment he commenced his arduous undertaking, until the day of his death, a period extending over more than twenty-four years, this work occupied his thoughts night and day. In 1852 Mr. Barry received the honor of Knighthood at the hands of Her Majesty, on the occasion of the first entry to the New Palace by the Queen through the Victoria Tower.

It had been interded that the funeral should have taken place at Norwood Cemetery, in as private a manner as possible; but in consequence of a general wish on the part of the artistic and other friends of the late architect, conveyed to the Dean and Chapter of Westminster, by Professor Cockerell, R. A., the President of the Royal Institutes of British Architects, the mortal remains of the deceased are to be deposited in Westminster Abbey.

The *Times* gives the following description of his funeral:—Three times within the last six months has the sacred quiet of our great cathedral been broken by the solemnity of State funerals, and in the deaths of Robert Stephenson, Lord Macaulay, and now of Sir Charles Barry, the country may be said to have lost its foremost men in science, in literature, and in art. The last tribute of public respect and admiration which was paid yesterday, then, was not more than was due to the merits of the architect, nor less than was expected by the profession of which he was the head and ornament. Westminster was both his native place and the scene of the most enduring monuments of his genius. The venerable Abbey itself is almost overshadowed by the regal structure which confronts it, and also beneath the shadow of the great monument which now towers so high above all London rest the remains of Barry in the nave of the old Abbey, at the foot of the coffin of Robert Stephenson, and side by side with that of Stephenson's great competitor, Telford. All the gentlemen who were to take part in the procession, and who numbered between 400 and 500 representatives of the great societies of art and science in England, assembled in places adjoining the cloisters, and there awaited the arrival of the funeral cortege. The hearse reached Dean's-yard a few minutes before one o'clock, and the coffin was borne through the old cloisters to the side entrance of the nave, where the Dean and Chapter, headed by the choir were waiting. The procession was then formed, and to Purcell's solemn anthem, "I am the resurrection and the life," moved slowly up the nave. As many as could be accommodated in the choir having taken their seats, the solemn service proceeded by the choir chanting with melancholy impressiveness, Handel's "I know that my Redeemer liveth," and the mournful cadences of Purcell's 90th Psalm. The Dean then read the lesson, after which the choir again sung, "When the car heard," &c. The procession was then reformed, and moved slowly to the side of the grave amid the most solemn silence.

At the edge of this the coffin was deposited, while the choir chanted in a subdued tone Croft's touching anthem, "Man that is born of woman has but a short time to live," and "In the midst of life we are in death." The coffin was then slowly lowered to its last resting-place, amid the unrestrained emotion of the mourners and friends. The Dean then proceeded with the rest of the service, which was listened to with the most profound silence, broken only by the sharp harsh rattle of the earth as it was strewed on the coffin. The choir then chanted "I heard a voice from Heaven," and still more impressively the anthem "His body is buried in peace, but his name liveth for evermore." The ceremony concluded with the benediction pronounced by the Dean, and the solemn music of the Dead March rang through the Abbey while the relatives and friends pressed to take a last glimpse of all that remained of the gifted Sir Charles Barry. A flag was hoisted on the Victoria Tower half-mast during the day, and as long as that tower stands, its great founder will need no other memorial of his fame with posterity.

No. 16. GEORGE P. R. JAMES, ESQ.

G. P. R. James, the well-known writer, is dead. We are without the particulars of his decease, although we suppose it took place in Venice. Mr. James was born in London, at the commencement of the present century, and commenced his career by early contributions to the magazines and newspapers. Mr. Washington Irving, was his literary godfather, for some youthful effusions exhibited merit sufficient to elicit his praise, and the advice to adventure in a larger field. The "Life of Edward, the Black Prince," published in 1822, was his first important effort in literature, and was followed by a long series of volumes, by which Mr. James attained his peculiar reputation and success. From the year 1822, till the day of his death, Mr. James' pen has never been idle. The mere list of his writings is beyond most men's power to number, as the writings themselves have been beyond most men's power to read. His last work, if we remember correctly, was "Lady Montague's Page," which was the 189th volume of his composition. Besides these original works, Mr. James also gave a careful editing to the "Ver-non Letters," illustrative of the times of William III., to William Henry Ireland's historical romances of "David Rizzio"; and with Dr. E. E. Crown, wrote the lives of the most eminent foreign statesmen. Perhaps it is not exact to include under the title of historical romance, such works of his, as the "Life of Charlemagne," the "History of Chivalry," and other similar works. The "Life of Charlemagne," De Quincy praised highly, and it is still a quoted authority. His historical works were his best, and will secure him a long, posthumous reputation; for they exhibited most his extensive knowledge of history, his quick sense of the picturesque, and his sympathy with truth of sentiment and nobility of character.

VII. Miscellaneous.

I. PRAY FOR THE LITTLE ONES.

Yes, pray for the young children—there are some
For whom no father's prayer hath ever risen—
For whom no mother's gentle voice hath sought
One blessing from the treasure-house of heaven.
There are the worse than orphans—little ones
Whose parents know no Saviour and no God.
Oh! let the Sabbath prayer ascend for them,
To Him who bought them with His precious blood.

Yes; pray for the young children. One hath gone
But lately to the lone and silent grave.
Fast fall the icy raindrops on the ground,
And leafless branches o'er the churchyard wave;
Yet not more cheerless is the wintry gloom—
The dreary dimness of its short-lived day—
Than was the lot of that now sleeping child,
Ere God in mercy summoned her away.

For she had made acquaintance with pale want,
And sin, and misery, from her very birth.
For her there seemed no sunshine in the sky,
No dewy floweret on the weary earth;
And none had cared to bathe her aching brow,
Or smooth aside each heavy, tangled curl.
Perhaps it was in answer to your prayers
God sent his angel for the infant girl.

Yes, pray for the young children—not alone
When in the courts of God ye bend the knee—
By day, by night, in sorrow and in joy,
Send up to heaven your solemn litany.
And, oh! remember that "to feed his lambs,"
Is Jesus' own appointed test of love;
And lead them, while ye pray, to Gospel streams,
And the green pastures of a Saviour's love.

—J. T. in *British Mothers' Journal*.

2. EVENING PRAYER

TAUGHT BY A MOTHER—ITS INFLUENCE.

'Our Father.'
The mother's voice was low and tender, and solemn.
'Our Father.'
On two sweet voices the tone was borne upward. It was the inno-
cence of children that gave them utterance.
'Who art in Heaven.'
'Who art in Heaven,' repeated the children, one with her eyes

bent meekly down, and the other looking upward, as if she would
penetrate the heavens into which her heart was aspiring.

'Hallowed be Thy name.'

Lower fell the voices of the little ones. In a gentle murmur they
said,

'Thy kingdom come.'

And the burden of the prayer was still taken up by the children.

'Thy will be done on earth, as it is in heaven,' filled the chamber.

And the mother continued—

'Give us this day our daily bread.'

'Our daily bread,' lingered a moment on the air, as the mother's
voice was hushed into silence.

'And forgive us our debts as we also forgive our debtors.'

'And lead us not into temptation, but deliver us from evil.'

'For thine is the kingdom, and the power, and the glory, forever
and ever.' 'Amen.'

All these holy words were said piously and fervently by the little
ones, as they knelt with clasped hands beside their mother. Then as
their thoughts, uplifted on the wings of prayer to their heavenly
Father, came back again and rested on their earthly parents, a
warmer love came gushing from their hearts.

Pure kisses—tender kisses, the fond 'good night.' What a sweet
agitation pervaded all their feelings. Then two dear heads were
placed side by side on the snowy pillows, the mother's last kiss
given, and the shadowy curtains drawn.

What a pulseless stillness reigns without the chamber. Inwardly
the parents ears are bent. They have given those innocent ones into
the keeping of God's angels, and they can almost hear the rustle of
their garments as they gather around their sleeping babes. A sigh,
deep and tremulous, breaks on the air. Quickly the mother turns
to the father of her children, with a look of earnest inquiry on her
countenance. And he answers thus her silent questions:

"Far back through many years have my thoughts been wandering.
At my mother's knee, thus I said nightly, my childhood's evening
prayer. It was that best and holiest of all prayers: 'Our Father,'
that she taught me. Childhood and my mother passed away. I
went forth as a man into the world, strong, confident, and self-seek-
ing. Once I came into great temptation. Had I fallen in that
temptation, I should have fallen never to rise again. I was about
yielding. All the barriers I could oppose to the in-rushing flood,
seemed ready to give way, when as I sat in my room one evening,
there came from an adjoining chamber, now first occupied for many
weeks, the murmur of low voices. I listened. At first no articulate
sound was heard, and yet something in the tones stirred my heart
with new and strong emotions. At length a voice came to my ears,
in the earnest, loving voice of a woman, the words:

'Deliver us from evil.'

"For an instant it seemed to me as if that voice were that of my
mother. Back with a sudden bound, through all the intervening
years, went my thoughts, and a child again I was kneeling at my
mother's knees. Humbly and reverently I said over the words of
the holy prayer she had taught me, heart and eye lifted up to heaven.
The hour and the power of darkness had passed. I was no longer
in slippery places, with a flood of water ready to sweep me to destruc-
tion, but my feet were on a rock. My pious mother's care had
saved her son. In the holy words she had taught me in childhood
was a living power to resist evil through all my after life. Ah! that
unknown mother, as she taught her child to repeat this evening
prayer, how little dreamed she that the holy words were to reach a
stranger's ear, and save him through the memory of his own child-
hood and his own mother. And yet it was so. What a power there
is in God's word as it flows into and rests on the minds of innocent
childhood."

Tears were in the eyes of the wife and the mother, as she lifted her
face and gazed with subdued tenderness upon the countenance of
her husband. Her heart was too full for utterance. A little while
she thus gazed, and then with a trembling joy laid her head upon
his bosom. Angels were in the chamber where their dear ones slept,
and they felt their holy presence.

3. CHARITY NEVER FAILETH.

Bad as the world is, it has a heart that can always be reached,
provided the right means of reaching it are resorted to. A case in
point. Not long since it was announced that the London Hospital
had lost about £1,500 a year by the falling in of certain annuities.
It was therefore necessary, if the institution was to distribute its
benevolence to the same extent as heretofore, that a capital sum
producing this amount should be collected from the public. The
managers thereupon went to work, and in a very short space of
time, not £1,500, but £24,000 was subscribed. And this is the way
it was done: Some thirty or forty gentlemen, calling themselves
"stewards"—gentlemen of position and influence in the community

—went about, unfolding in a quiet way the benevolent character of their mission, and personally soliciting funds on its behalf. There were no public meetings, no subscription committees, no advertisements in the newspapers, no flourishing of trumpets; in short, none of the clap-trap which is but too often the fashion to resort to when a charitable thing is to be done. We commend this method of doing business, as worthy of all imitation on our side of the Atlantic. It frequently happens that the cost of a public meeting, with other incidental expenses, to carry into effect some particular enterprise, quite eat up the lion's share of the contributions from the general public.—*N. Y. Express.*

VIII. Papers on Colonial Subjects.

1. BRITISH AND COLONIAL DOCUMENTARY HISTORY.

A series of works are now in course of publication by authority of the British Government under the general name and title of "Chronicles and Memorials of Great Britain and Ireland during the Middle Ages." This comprises the history of Great Britain from the invasion by the Romans to the reign of Henry VIII. Of this series 18 volumes have been already published. Another enterprise similar in design with this, and published by the same authority, relates to the Colonial papers found in the States Paper Office at London. The first volume of this series, now in the course of publication if it is not already completed, brings down the record of these colonial papers from the year 1574 to 1660. The papers relating to the period comprised within the remaining twenty-eight years (to 1688) being relatively much more numerous will, it is calculated, require for their proper description and classification four additional volumes. As this work will end precisely at the point of time where its continuation might be made specially valuable to the history of British colonization on the American continent, it has been suggested to the joint library committee of Congress that some provision should be made by the Government of the United States for the further prosecution of this work, which would doubtless shed much light upon the founding and planting of those colonies, which have now strengthened and widened into the United States of America. It is said that the papers relating to American colonization, as now found in the British state-paper office, are comprised in two large series of documents, termed those of the "Board of Trade" and those concerning "America and the West Indies," of which the former, detailing the proceedings of the body in question, are continuous and regular, while the latter are subdivided into several minor series, according to the order of time or subject in which they were differently received at the state paper office, or as they accumulated in that department, without being separated and sorted from the other state papers.

2. FORT NIAGARA 100 YEARS AGO.

There are few localities richer in historical incidents and interesting events than this frontier. Its written history dates back over two hundred years. Hennepin, Chaplain, La Salle, Joncarie, Johnson, Brandt, and a host of other names, have contributed to make Niagara occupy an important place in the history of North America. Nearly 300 years ago the early French traders saw the value of the present site of Fort Niagara as a military post. La Salle, whose name has been handed down as the builder of the first vessel, (only about six miles above this village,) to navigate Lake Erie, erected a trading post there in 1668. This was burned in 1680—rebuilt in 1687 by Denonville—abandoned the next year—remained unimproved until 1725, when it was built up in a larger and stronger manner by De Longueil, and continued in possession of the French until 1759, a period of nearly 100 years.

The time had now come for a change. French domination in this quarter was about to cease. The surrender of Fort Du Quesne in 1758 prepared the way for the fall of Niagara. The darling object of the English, for several years, was about to be accomplished. The line in the French chain of posts from Quebec to Louisiana was broken—the possession of Niagara would end their rule and influence with some of the most powerful tribes of Indians, and relieve the English colonies from a most troublesome enemy. What the English Government had been urged to do by the Government of New York, and other officers, for several years, was now decided upon. The expedition under the command of General Prideaux, was fitted out and sailed for Oswego, coasting along the Lake and landing at Four Mile Creek, about 4 miles East of the Fort, on the 6th July, 1759.

At this time, Fort Niagara was garrisoned by 486 men, according to Pouchot, the French commander, but according to English ac-

counts, numbered over 600. Gen. Prideaux's forces numbered, according to Capt. De Lancey, 2,200 and 600 Indians, when they left Oswego, and were joined by 300 more Indians during the siege. Sir Wm. Johnson says about 1,000 Indians were engaged with them.

Pouchot discovered the English on the 7th of July, and immediately took measures to defend himself.—He dispatched couriers to Presqu' Isle, to Fort Machault, (at the mouth of French Creek, Pa.) and to the commander of the Fort at the "Carrying Place," apprising them of his situation. Reinforcements were immediately sent down from the former places, and arrived at Navy Island, numbering about 600 French and 100 Indians. When they passed down the rapids at the outlet of Lake Erie they "resembled a floating island, so black was the river with bateaux and canoes." They landed a few miles above the falls and proceeded to Lewiston, and thence to relieve Pouchot. In the meantime the siege had been pressed with vigor. Prideaux was killed by the bursting of a horn on the 20th, (Pouchot says on the 18th,) and the command devolved on Sir Wm. Johnson.

The English learned of the approach of reinforcement from this quarter, and Capt. James DeLancey was dispatched to a position in ambush above the present site of Youngstown. On the morning of the 24th of April—100 years ago—the French and Indians commenced the attack on DeLancey's forces, "with great noise and shouting." The English not only stood their ground, but soon jumped over the breastwork and rushed upon their enemies, putting them to flight and chasing them five miles. They killed 200 and took 100 prisoners. Pouchot learned the extent of this disaster about 2 o'clock by an Indian scout. About 4 o'clock Johnson sent in a demand for a surrender. According to Captain DeLancey and several other English authorities, Pouchot capitulated the same evening, but Pouchot himself says he capitulated the next day, the 25th, after negotiating all night. A part of the garrison were Germans; these mutinied, and demand to capitulate, which Pouchot says hastened him in complying. On the 26th the garrison left the fort to be transported to New York, according to the terms of capitulation.

Thus ended French domination in the vicinity. The English were henceforth masters of the key to the Northwest, and in position to hold a greater influence with the Iroquois and other Indian tribes. Fort Niagara—much improved of course—yet remains, but the braves who took part in the scenes we have enumerated have disappeared.

Some time ago it was proposed to hold a continental celebration of this important event, and the matter was extensively discussed. It might have been made the occasion of a most interesting and grand display. The proposition, however, failed to enlist sufficient enthusiasm, and was abandoned. What changes will another 100 years produce in this quarter? The men of 100 years ago never dreamed of the state of things now existing—shall we presume to estimate the changes that may take place in the next 100 years.—*Buffalo Advocate.*

3. BROCKVILLE PRISON LIBRARY.

The Grand Jury of the United Counties of Leeds and Grenville, in their recent presentment, thus refer to the library established in the Brockville Jail, by the joint efforts of the County Council and the Educational Department for Upper Canada:—"The jurors were much pleased to see the interest manifested by some of the prisoners in reading books belonging to the library connected with the gaol."

IX. Educational Intelligence.

CANADA.

—TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, COUNTY OF HASTINGS.—At the June meeting of this Association, Mr. F. H. Rous, President of the Convention, and Superintendent of Schools for the South Riding, in the Chair. Mr. Tilley read an Essay upon School Exhibitions, at the conclusion of which the following Resolution was adopted unanimously:—

"Resolved,—That in the opinion of this Convention, those Common School Exhibitions, so frequent in this country, which consist in the recitation of pieces committed to memory, apart from the ordinary branches taught, are, upon the whole, productive of far more evil than good."

The following Resolution was passed by the same Convention, at its last meeting, at the conclusion of an Essay, by Mr. E. R. Morden, upon the subject—"Our Common Schools:—"

"Resolved,—That in the opinion of this Convention, the custom of hurrying a pupil from one lesson or book to another, which is more

difficult, ere the former has been mastered, and which is too commonly practised by teachers, is seriously prejudicial to the real progress of such pupil, and cannot be too strongly discountenanced."

Mr. Steele gave a short lecture on Book-Keeping, showing its importance as a branch of study, and giving some illustrations of his method of teaching it. Mr. Keys gave a specimen of his system of teaching Anatomy and Physiology, in which he showed considerable acquaintance with the subject.

The next meeting will be held in Belleville, on the first Saturday in July, when an Essay will be read upon "The awarding of prizes in Schools," and other subjects of interest will be discussed.

— **IMPORTANT SCHOOL TEACHER'S TRIAL.**—The following case was tried at the Quarter Sessions recently held in Hamilton:—

Stuart vs. Campbell.

This was an appeal by Archibald J. Campbell, of Carlisle, East Flamboro', a School Teacher, against the verdict of the Magistrates, Messrs. Patton and Crocker. Messrs. O'Reilly, Robertson and J. V. Spohn, Counsel for Stuart; Mr. Freeman for Campbell.

It appeared from the evidence, a good many witnesses being sworn on both sides, that Mr. Campbell had severely whipped one of the small boys on his bare feet till the blood ran. On their way home the scholars talked over the whipping, and Miss Stuart remarked that if it had been her little brother she would have interfered. Mr. Campbell who was near, heard one of the pupils say "don't speak so loud, the teacher is listening." Campbell having ascertained what Miss Stuart had said, called her to account on the next day that she attended school, and insisted upon her saying she had done wrong, Miss Stuart said "perhaps she was wrong." "Don't say *perhaps*" vociferated Campbell, "say you were wrong." "Perhaps I was," replied the pupil. Whereupon Campbell struck her twice with a hickory whip stalk over the back of her hands—the scars of which she still carried at the trial in June. This was not enough for the redoubtable teacher, but he more than once pulled off her hat, which she had put on to leave the school, and then thrust the end of the whip-stalk against her breast, and forced her down into a seat. After thus whipping and insulting the young lady of between 17 and 18 years of age, he said, "it is the custom in my school when a scholar is dismissed, to clap her out." He himself, then set the example of clapping his hands, calling upon his pupils to do the same, and thus cheered and clapped her out of the school. Mr. Stuart, the father of the young lady, and one of the most respectable men in the neighbourhood, brought Mr. Campbell before the magistrates, who fined him. From this conviction Campbell appealed to the Quarter Sessions. The Jury, after being absent a few minutes, returned a verdict sustaining the magistrates in their conviction.—*Spectator.*

— THE CONGREGATIONAL INSTITUTE at Toronto has, we believe, been incorporated with a Nova Scotian institution under the name of the Congregational College of British North America.

— **WOODSTOCK BAPTIST ACADEMY.**—This institution was formally opened on the 4th July. Three male and female teachers, with Dr. Ffye as principal, constitute the educational staff at present. As the opening of the Institute did not correspond with any regular term, the number of pupils in attendance was rather limited.—*Times.*

— **REV. DR. ORMISTON.**—The University of New York has conferred the honorary degree of Doctor of Divinity upon the Rev. Wm. Ormiston, M.A., United Presbyterian Minister, Hamilton, and Inspector of Grammar Schools, Upper Canada.

— **GRAMMAR SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS.**—We have received various interesting accounts of the Grammar School Examinations. It would be invidious to make selections; and want of space precludes the insertion of all.

GREAT BRITAIN.

— **OXFORD UNIVERSITY.**—At the recent commencement at Oxford the honorary degree of D.O.L. was conferred upon Lord Brougham, Sir Leopold McClintock, the Arctic navigator, Sir. R. Bethell, Attorney General, John Robert Motley, an American author of the History of the Dutch Republic, and His Excellency the Swedish Ambassador. The honorary degree of M.A. was also conferred upon the Rev. Mr. Harris, one of the chaplains at Lucknow during the memorable siege. The names of Sir Leopold McClintock and the Rev. Mr. Harris were received with most enthusiastic cheers.

— **CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY.**—The honorary degree of LL.D. was conferred at the recent Cambridge commencement upon Col. Sir Herbert Edwardes, noted for his heroism at Moulton, and Captain Sir Leopold McClintock. Rev. Hugh McNeile of Liverpool, was also incorporated with the University as canon elect of Chester, with a degree of D.D. Rev. Charles Kingsley, M.A., has been appointed by the Queen Regius, Professor of History, in place of the late Sir James Stephen. The late Archbishop of York has bequeathed to his old College of Trinity, a beautifully executed MS. of the Koran, formerly the property of the eminent Wesleyan Minister, Rev. Dr. Adam Clarke.

X. Literary and Scientific Intelligence.

— **BRITISH ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE.**—The 30th annual meeting of this Association is fixed to take place at Oxford on Wednesday, the 27th June, and following days, under the presidency of Lord Wrottesley, and the Earl of Derby, the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Oxford (Dr. Jeune,) the Duke of Marlborough, the Earl of Rosse, the Bishop of Oxford, the Dean of Christchurch (Dr. Liddell,) Dr. Daubeney, Dr. Acland, and Professor Doukin, as Vice-Presidents. The proceedings will commence on the afternoon of the 27th inst., in the Sheldonian Theatre, when it is expected that his Royal Highness Prince Albert (who presided over the meetings of the Association at Aberdeen last year,) will attend and resign the presidency, after which Lord Wrottesley will deliver the inaugural address. The subsequent days will be occupied with the meetings of the several sections, and on the afternoon of Friday and Monday, June 29 and July 2, there will be general excourses in the theatre, one of which will be delivered by Professor Walker, on "The Present State of our Knowledge of the Physical Condition of the Sun." One great feature of the Meeting will be the evening *soirees* in the Museum, which is rapidly approaching completion, and, from its capacious size and the interest which attaches to it, is admirably adapted to the purpose. The last of these meetings will be especially devoted to the exhibition of the microscope, and Dr. Acland and Mr. Gray, of Exeter College, who have undertaken the care of the exhibition, have received numerous promises of assistance from several of the most eminent microscopists and opticians throughout the country. Another evening will be occupied with electrical experiments. Letters of invitation have been issued to all the members of the Association, to the number of upwards of 2,000, and there is reason to believe that the meeting will be attended by the representatives of science in England as well as abroad.

— **PHOTOGRAPHY IN 1796.**—It has been discovered by Lord Brougham that the principle of photography was discovered in 1796, and a paper giving an account of it, was actually excluded from the philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society, on the ground of its empiricism.

EXAMINATION OF COMMON SCHOOL TEACHERS, COUNTY OF YORK.

NOTICE is hereby given that an EXAMINATION of COMMON SCHOOL TEACHERS and others, will take place on TUESDAY, 7th AUGUST, 1860, at the COURT HOUSE, CITY OF TORONTO, at RICHMOND HILL, and at NEWMARKET, at 9 A.M. Candidates will be required to produce Certificates of Moral Character from their respective Ministers, and, if Teachers before, also from their respective Trustees.

JOHN BARCLAY, D.D., *Chairman.*

Toronto, 5th July, 1860.

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Montreal, April, 1860.

[*pd. St. anv*]

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

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