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THE GREAT SCHOOLS OF ENGLAND.*

ETON School is a school attached to a collegiate foundation, the legal title of which is "The College of the Blessed Mary of Eton, near Windsor." As originally constituted in 1441, the college was designed to consist of a provost, 70 scholars, 10 fellows, 10 chaplains, 10 clerks, 16 choristers, one head master, one lower master or usher, and 13 bedesmen. In the reign of Edward IV., when it was deprived of some of its estates, the number of fellows was reduced to seven. The college now consists of a provost, seven fellows, 70 scholars, a head and a lower master, three conducts or hired chaplains, 10 lay clerks, and 12 choristers, besides 10 servants—the place of the bedesmen being occupied by 10 almswomen.

Although strictly subordinate to the college, the school has so greatly outgrown the original foundation that it must now be regarded as a distinct institution. The distinction is, however, only roughly practicable, the two branches of the foundation being necessarily entwined with each other. Of the masters of the school two only (the head and lower master), and of the scholars seventy only (called "Collegers" or "King's Scholars,") are members of the college—the other scholars, constituting the great bulk of the school, living out of the college, and hence called "Oppidans" or "Town Boys." Some of the officials of the college are, and some are not, connected with the school;

* Abridged from the Report of the Royal Commissioners on Public Schools. Availing ourselves of the valuable information presented in this elaborate Report, we propose in the present and succeeding numbers to give some account of the foundation, progress, and course of study of each of the schools embraced in the inquiries of the Commission.—Ed. *English Educational Times*.

and the site, finances, and government of the one are inseparably mixed up with the other.

The school contains at present altogether from eight to nine hundred boys. The numbers in the list published at election 1861 were as follows: Upper school, 730; Lower school, 99—total, 829. Deducting the seventy King's Scholars, the number of "Oppidans," or boys not on the foundation, was thus 749.

In 1862, there were 840 boys, and therefore 770 Oppidans.

We have no account of the rise of the school. That the founder of Eton, like the founders of Winchester and Westminster, desired and intended that the benefits of his grammar school should not be confined to a single class, is sufficiently clear from the statutes. The statutes of Eton College contemplate distinctly three classes of scholars:—

1. Foundation boys (King's Scholars), lodged, fed, and in part at least clothed, by the founder's bounty.
2. Boys lodged and fed by the college with the foundationers, but at a charge sufficient to cover the expenses of their maintenance.
3. Boys resorting to the school for instruction, but not boarded within the college (Oppidans).

The boys in the second class, styled in the second class "Commensales," sons of noblemen and gentlemen, answering exactly to the Pensionarii at Westminster, and to the Commoners and Pensioners at the colleges of Oxford and Cambridge, did formerly exist at Eton, there is no doubt. The first Cavendish Earl of Devonshire, then a boy of nine, with his elder brother and a servant, was admitted on these terms in the year 1550. Between 1564 and 1648 the old audit books of the college contain the names of the "Commensales" who dined in hall during that period, varying in number from 37 downwards. They have entirely disappeared since the Restoration.

The original number of "Kings Scholars" does not appear to have been at any time increased, and the Oppidans have thus for centuries constituted the great bulk of the school.

The division of the school into Upper and Lower does not appear to have been created by the Statutes, but to have arisen from the necessity of providing some preparatory instruction for the younger pupils who were unqualified to enter upon the regular studies of the school. The lower master—the *ostiarium* or usher of the original foundation—is now the head master of the Lower School, subject to the control of the Provost. The subjects taught are elementary classics, history, geography, arithmetic, writing, and dictation. Hardly any age is considered too

early, nor any age under fourteen too late, for admission into the Lower School. The general rule appears to be that boys may enter as soon as they are able to read, and they remain in it until they are fit for the Upper School.

The old series of six ascending forms, consecrated by usage in most of the great schools in this country and in Germany, still subsists at Eton; but not for the purpose for which it was originally established—that of instruction in school. For that purpose, a “form” must of course be of manageable size, and composed of boys nearly equal in proficiency. The lowest three forms at Eton belong to the “Lower School,” while the other three belong to the Upper School. There are, in fact, eleven forms or subdivisions of forms in the Upper School, and a boy who advances regularly from the bottom makes ten steps to reach the top, each step marking in theory at least, a grade of proficiency. The form and remove in which a boy is, denote his stage of advancement and his rank in the school; but the forms first, and then the removes, have gradually grown too large to be handled by a single master; and it has been thought better for the purpose of teaching in school, to distribute the whole mass afresh, without disturbing the organization already described, into groups of manageable size called “divisions,” each of which has a master of its own. The number of divisions may be multiplied or diminished from time to time without affecting the number or arrangement of the removes, of which it is wholly independent; thus boys in different divisions may be in the same remove, and *vice versa*; and a boy may possibly be promoted into a higher remove without quitting his division or changing his class-master. The division, therefore, in which a boy is, marks the master by whom he is taught, and the group of boys with whom he goes into school, for the time being. Sometimes, too, a boy passes over a whole division without entering it. In 1861 there were 17 divisions in the Upper School.

Before admission to the Upper School, a boy has to pass an examination, consisting of some easy translations from English into Latin, prose and verse, and from Greek and Latin into English. The standard is low; and nobody would believe, says Mr. Balston, how poor are the results obtained. If the candidate cannot come up even to this low standard, as is often the case, he is permitted to enter the Lower School, which, as already stated, admits any boy who is able to read. There is no inferior limit of age; no boy is admitted after 14, except on special grounds; and no boy can be placed, on entrance, higher than in the lower part of the remove, or seven steps from the top of the school. The average age of entrance is from 12 to 14, and the average time of remaining at school four or five years.

The general government of the whole school, upper and lower, is vested in the head master, subject to the control of the provost. The discipline and classical instruction of the Upper School were, in 1861, shared by the head master with seventeen assistants; the lower master, with four assistants, having the like charge of the Lower School.

The head master is, by the Statutes, to be a Master of Arts, “if such can be procured conveniently,” sufficiently instructed in grammar, and experienced in teaching, unmarried, and not holding ecclesiastical preferment within seven miles of Eton. He is not required to be a clergyman, nor to have been educated at Eton; but, practically, he is always both the one and the other. In his case, as in that of the Fellows, the condition of celibacy has become obsolete. He is elected, and may be deprived, by the Provost and Fellows.

Although the head master governs the school, he governs it under the control of the provost. This control is not, like the power of the governors in most other great schools, an almost nominal check—it is active, extensive, and minute. No assistant master can be appointed, no holiday or half holiday given, no alteration of the school hours made, no new school-book, or new edition of a school-book, introduced by the head master without the provost's sanction. This control applies not only to matters of real importance; “it has always been exercised even in the smallest matters.” Such is account given of it by the provost and fellows themselves.

This relation between the provost and head master springs historically from the old position of the latter as a subordinate officer of the college—“conductitius et remotivus,”—and subject to the control of its head. His statutory position is still the same as it was when the school contained only the 70 foundation boys, with such few “Commensales” and day scholars as could be taught with them by a master and usher. And whilst the number of the Oppidians has gradually increased, the provost has been constantly resident on the spot; and both provost and fellows have been men who, having spent much of their own lives as masters in the school, were naturally disposed to claim and exert a control over the working of it, and to receive, perhaps, with more or less of reluctance, alterations suggested by their successors which had not been deemed necessary by themselves. Different opinions have been expressed on the

question whether this control is or is not beneficial to the school. The opinion of the fellows collectively is strongly in its favour.

The course of study at Eton was until 1851 exclusively Classical: it now embraces both classics and mathematics. There is a teacher of French attached to the school, who resides at Eton; there is also a teacher of German, and one of Italian, who do not reside there; and lectures on Natural Sciences are delivered occasionally to such boys as choose to attend. In these subjects and in drawing, some instruction may be obtained by boys who are willing to pay for them as extras. But they do not enter into the course of study, and many boys leave Eton without having learnt there any one of them.

The teaching of the classics at Eton divides itself into two branches—teaching in school, and teaching out of school, or in pupil-room; and the large proportion which the latter bears to the former constitutes the chief peculiarity of the Eton system. The teaching out of school again, consists partly in the preparation of lessons which are to be construed in school, and the correction of exercises which are to be shown up in school; partly in private reading, the choice and direction of which rests wholly with the individual teacher, and which is quite independent of the school-work. Every assistant master has a share in this double teaching—in school, as a master in charge of a division—out of school, as a tutor, and every boy stands in a double relation to his tutor and to the master of his division, so that, except during the short time which he passes in the school division of which his tutor has the charge, he is under a double system of instruction at almost every point in his school life. The head master takes a division, but does not act as a tutor.

The work in school consists in construing and in repeating passages learnt by heart from Latin and Greek poets. Including the time spent in showing up compositions previously corrected by the tutor, a boy is in school on an average not more than two hours and a half on a whole school day; a lesson usually takes from 35 to 50 minutes. The real work is done out of school in “pupil room,” under the tutor, who not only goes over the pupil's exercises and construing before they go up to the division master, but goes through a large amount of private reading on any subject on which he may find the boys deficient besides. Thus to a course of reading in school, which is narrow and incomplete, is superadded another course which the tutor may make as elastic and discursive as he pleases, it being left entirely to him to supply the amount and kind of instruction which the character and capacity of every individual boy may render desirable. The large amount of repetition and of Latin verse composition, and the sameness and narrow range of the reading in form, are among the chief peculiarities of Eton school-work; to which may be added, also, the large use of extract-books instead of original authors.

Fifty years ago, the boys at Eton were taught, or supposed to be taught, in large masses, and the curriculum through which they were conducted was much narrower than at present. The whole of the sixth form, with the upper fifth—198 in all—were, under Dr. Keate, heard together. The number of masters in the Upper School was, in 1812, only six, and the average number in each form 80. The average number in a division does not at present exceed 40; the largest is 48; the smallest (the head master's) 32. There is a greater infusion of Attic authors than formerly in the higher divisions; but Homer, Virgil, and Horace continue to be the staple of the teaching in school.

A boy reads no Greek dramatic poetry in school till he reaches the very top of the fifth form; he may, and probably does, in all cases, read some in pupil-room, but this depends on the taste or judgment of his tutor. The Greek historians and Livy he reads only in extract-books.

The quantity of Latin and Greek poetry learned by heart is very large. Speaking generally, every lesson which is construed is also learnt by heart. A boy has to say 80 lines of Homer, and 60 lines of some other author alternately five days in the week. But the manner in which it is heard by no means ensures its being learnt by all the class; and the quantity exacted, it is stated, “has very often the effect of making the exercise of memory mechanical and slovenly, and therefore worse than useless.” A Latin theme is done every week in the fifth form and remove; translations into Latin prose very rarely. There is little or no Greek prose, and no English writing, prose or poetry, except two essays in a year for the sixth form.

In the judgment of the present provost and head master, the divisions are now reduced to a convenient size. And it appears to be the general, though not the universal, opinion of the assistants, that 40 is a perfectly manageable number, and is indeed to be preferred to a smaller, as more easy to keep alive, and better calculated to quicken the interest and call out the powers of the teacher. That it requires some skill in handling appears to be admitted, and that there is some difficulty in making the process of “calling up,” and the dread of being called up a thoroughly effective stimulus, each lesson lasting only about three quarters of an hour; and this is a

difficulty to which some of the younger masters do not appear to be insensible.

In the divisions of the fourth form and remove, places are taken during the lessons; but not higher, unless the master of a particular division should think fit to adopt this course.

Every Classical Master is paid, as such, 42 guineas a year by the head master, and this petty payment is supposed to remunerate his work in school. As tutor, he receives £10 10s. from each pupil. If he has a boarding house, he receives £120 from each boy in it, the payment for board being blended in one sum with that for tuition. The King's Scholars are distributed among the tutors by private arrangement.

The subject next in importance to Classics in the school course is Mathematics. Before the year 1836, there appears to have been no mathematical teachers of any kind at Eton. There was a titular teacher of writing, arithmetic and mathematics; but he appears not to have taught, or been competent to teach, anything but writing and arithmetic. In 1851 mathematics were for the first time incorporated into the regular work of the school; and Mr. Hawtreys was made Mathematical Assistant Master, which placed him on the same level as the Classical Assistants. His own assistants, however, did not share in this elevation; they became or remained only "assistants in the Mathematical School," which position they still occupy. The distinction is by no means a merely nominal one; they have no share, as every Classical Assistant Master has, in the right and duty of maintaining discipline out of school; they cannot act as "tutors," and they are excluded from all but the inferior boarding houses, and are only allowed then to charge at the same rate as the "dames."

The time given to mathematical teaching at Eton is three hours a week throughout the school, besides an exercise (called by the boys "Extra work") between each lesson. In the "trials" or examinations for removes, the highest marks in mathematics are allowed one-fifth of the value assigned to the highest marks in classics. A boy's advance in the mathematical school is regulated on the whole, though not exactly regulated, by his advance in the classical school; and thus a good mathematician may be kept most of his time at school in mathematical classes much inferior to him, unless he happens also to be a good classic. A boy in the fourth classical division may be ranked in the mathematical school above all the boys in the third; but he must remain behind all those in the second, though they may be worse mathematicians than he.

The mathematical reading of an average boy extends to the first part of Colenso's Algebra, and four books of Euclid. A "fair number" read trigonometry; a few advance to conic sections, and fewer to analytical geometry, which is the highest point. The differential calculus has never hitherto been reached by any boy in the school. Euclid and Algebra are begun in the fifth form, and the rule is that a boy does not get into the fifth "until he has a fair knowledge of arithmetic, including the rule of three and its application, fractions and decimals."

History and geography, ancient and modern, are taught only in the division below the fifth form. Each master in the fourth form and remove chooses for his division what book and what portion of history he thinks fit, and afterwards reports what he has set to the head master. The elements of modern history are regularly taught in the Lower School. In the lower part of the Upper School the subject is changed from modern history to ancient; and although lessons are set commonly in the fourth form, and more rarely in the remove, yet so soon as these forms are past, all direct instruction ceases, and boys are left to the inducements supplied by examinations and the opportunities given by holiday tasks to continue and extend their reading. In the two highest divisions of the school essays are occasionally set on historical subjects.

Teachers are provided for modern languages (French, German, and Italian), but, as already stated, the study of these is entirely optional. The French class had, in July, 1862, 75 attendants, (the number has been as high as 130), the German class 25, and the Italian 3.

Physical science is not systematically taught, but lectures are delivered once a week during the two winter school-terms, by men of eminence, on scientific subjects. At the end of each lecture questions are proposed for the best written answers, to which a prize is awarded; and at the end of the course, questions are again proposed to be answered from recollection. Drawing is regularly taught by the visiting master, and a room fitted up with models and examples is open for four hours a day to those who wish to join the class. The instruction given is in artistic, not elementary drawing. Practical geometry and military plan drawing are taught in the mathematical school.

Music is not taught in the school. Those who desire it, are at liberty to take private lessons; and two of the tutors have private musical classes.

The system of promotion from class to class is peculiar. "Re-

moves," as they are called, take place twice a year, in June and December. At each remove each subdivision of every form in school, except the sixth and the upper division of the fifth, is promoted in a body and take rank as the subdivision next above it. Thus the boys in the lower remove of the fourth pass in a body into the middle remove, and the following half year they pass in the same way into the Upper remove. The half-yearly removes within each form take place without examination; but before the remove from form to form, examinations called "trials," of a very easy kind, are held, by which the fitness of each boy to pass into the form above is tested, and the places of the boys within the form are also determined. A boy who fails to pass the "trials" (a very unusual occurrence) remains in the form in which he is, and thus sinks into the remove below his own. On the other hand, a clever boy is sometimes allowed, on the recommendation of his tutor, to offer himself for a double remove. Thus, taking the divisions as A, B, C, D, a boy in A may either take the examination of his own division and pass into B, or he may take the examination of B instead, and if he succeeds in beating two-thirds of the boys in it, he will be at once promoted into C, without passing through B at all. As a general rule, however, a boy remains during the whole of his stay at Eton in the remove in which he is first placed. The system of removes ends with the upper division of the fifth, from which point promotion into the sixth takes place by seniority only.

The 70 "King's Scholars" or "Collegers" are elected by the provost, vice-provost, and head master of Eton, and the provost and two fellows of King's College, Cambridge, after a competitive examination which is open to all boys from any part of England. Although, generally speaking, of a somewhat lower social grade than the Oppidans, the King's Scholars constitute intellectually the *élite* of the school, and it is by them chiefly that the reputation of Eton at the Universities has been and continues to be sustained. They are exclusively eligible to Scholarships at King's College, Cambridge, of which there are four open annually—the successful candidates being chosen by competitive examination. The maintenance and instruction of a King's Scholar is not wholly gratuitous. He pays fees to his tutor, notwithstanding the express provision of the Statutes; and various other small sums, amounting in all to £25 per annum; and his expenses for travelling, pocket money, &c., raise his expenditure altogether to about £40. The average expenses of an Oppidan may be set down at about £200 per annum. With economy, and by omitting extras, such as modern languages and drawing, this sum may be reduced to about £150, but under any circumstances an Education at Eton must be considered an expensive one.—*English Educational Times*.

II. Papers on Practical Education.

1. QUESTIONS ON SCHOOL MANAGEMENT FOR MALES IN THE ENGLISH NORMAL SCHOOL.

1. Write full instructions for a pupil teacher about to take charge of the reading lessons in a class of children of average attainments, between 6 and 7 years of age.

2. What method of teaching the elements of reading is adopted in your practising school? What do you consider to be the principal advantages of that method? or, which method do you recommend from your own experience?

3. Make out a list of faults to be avoided by teachers in superintending lessons in penmanship.

4. Give a clear and full account of the system by which children are best instructed in spelling and in writing from dictation, together with an accurate estimate of the quantity of dictation that ought to be done in 25 minutes by a class of girls between 11 and 12 years of age.

5. What are the principal causes of the failures of girls under examination in arithmetic? By what expedients are those causes most effectually counteracted?

6. Give an accurate estimate of the quantity of work which ought to be done in the time allotted for arithmetic every week. How can the results be registered and defects corrected most effectually?

7. By what exercises are faults in articulation best corrected? What letters and combination of letters, present the greatest difficulty in teaching? Give instances of the best mode of teaching children to read words containing such combination.

8. To what extent should simultaneous reading be allowed? Give an estimate of the quantity of words each girl in a class of 20 children between 9 and 10 years old ought to read in a lesson of 30 minutes?

9. Prepare full notes of lessons on two subjects from the sub-joined list:—The cow, sheep, or pig. The bee, or butterfly. Poisonous herbs. Parts of a flower. Coal, or iron. Leather, candles, or soap. Good temper. Truthfulness. Neatness and cleanliness.

10. What are the chief principles to be kept in mind in giving instruction to young children? What technical terms are especially to be avoided in giving collective lessons to young children? Prepare a list of such terms and of the expressions which you would substitute for them as more intelligible, and better adapted to their capacities and wants.

INFANTS.—The following questions have special reference to Infant Schools—

1. In what respects should a school-room for infants be fitted up differently from one for older children? Why?
2. State exactly how you would proceed in teaching the letters of the alphabet to infants. What difficulty arises from the names of the letters in teaching to spell?
3. State exactly the lessons on which you would depend for cultivating the memory of infants.
4. Describe the principal expedients which have been devised for facilitating instruction in the first elements of writing.
5. State the exact means by which you would endeavour to teach infants to speak in a proper tone, and with proper clearness.
6. Write notes of a lesson on the human hand; or foot; or eye; explaining distinctly your object in giving the lesson, and the means by which you propose to make it intelligible and attractive.
7. What exercises are best adapted to teach infants to observe, and to give an account of common objects?

QUESTIONS ON SCHOOL MANAGEMENT FOR FEMALES IN THE ENGLISH NORMAL SCHOOL.

1. In a school of 100 girls between 7 and 12 years of age, what proportion of time should be allowed in the course of a week for each subject of instruction? Support your statement by satisfactory reasons.
2. What assistance would you require in order to give efficient instruction to every class? Supposing that you cannot get efficient pupil-teachers, what substitutes would you propose to employ? Write out the instructions you would give to each of your assistants with special reference to the faults most commonly committed in teaching elementary subjects.
3. What are the best arrangements for lessons in arithmetic? State fully, and give reasons exactly, for the causes of the frequent failures in this subject, and the methods by which you propose to counteract them.
4. By what plans would you collect and present, in a clear and complete form, the results of an examination of your school in all elementary subjects?
5. How would you ascertain and enable your school managers and the Inspector to ascertain the circumstances which would justify you in presenting girls for examination in a group below that to which they would properly belong by reason of their age?
6. State the moral faults to which you have found girls of various ages most liable; and explain clearly the principles which you should bear in mind in dealing with them.
7. How far, and under what circumstances, is it advisable to bring cases of misconduct or perversity under the notice of a large class of children?
8. Show the effects of injudicious punishments upon the temper and character of children.
9. Upon what principles and qualities does the moral influence of a school mistress chiefly depend?
10. Write a letter which, in your opinion, would produce a good effect upon a pupil-teacher who is in danger of losing her influence by some special fault which may have come under your notice.
11. How far should emulation be encouraged as an incentive to exertion?
12. Give the heads of an address to girls about to leave school, pointing out the qualifications most important to persons employed in household work.

School Registers.

What is the meaning of the word "average?" Give a full explanation of it.

What is the exact method of finding the three following numbers from Class Registers:—

- (1) The average weekly attendance,
- (2) " " quarterly "
- (3) " " yearly "

What approximate method of finding (2) and (3) is sometimes used? When will the approximate method give the same result as the exact method?

Which method was adopted in the school in which you were a pupil-teacher?

What is the exact method of finding the average annual number of attendances "of each child present at all."

2. SOME OF THE ANSWERS TO THE FOREGOING EXAMINATION PAPERS, WITH REMARKS.

Ans. to QUESTION 1.—An "average" is an intermediate quantity between a number of unequal quantities, and is such that the sum of the deficiencies is equal to the sum of the excesses.

By inspection of these results, however, we obtain another view of the term. It may be seen that it is the result obtained by dividing the sum of a number of unequal parts into an equivalent number of equal parts. The result is such that when multiplied into the number of equal parts the sum of the unequal parts.

Thus, suppose the attendance of a school to be as follows:—

Monday, 32 . 40	Thursday, 48 . 35
Tuesday, 37 . 39	Friday, 42 . 33
Wednesday, 43 . 51	
Total,	400

Here it is required to find such a number of children as had they been present the whole of the week, their total attendances would have been equal to the total of the usual attendances (400). By dividing 400 then by the number of half days, we get the result 40. And $10 \times 40 = 400$.

Again, suppose in a school 50 attend during the week, out of which 30 attend the whole week, 8 8 times, 7 for 6 times, and 5 for 4 times. Now to find the average attendance for each child present at all, we must distribute the total attendances ($426 = 213$ days) among the whole of the children which attend, $\frac{213}{50} = 4.26$.

Suppose the school times to be 10 and the average attendance 74. Then $10 \times 74 =$ the number of attendance marks distributed in equal portions among the 74 children. That is, 740 is the sum of the unequal marks obtained by more or less than 74 children, as the case may be on each day, but their total attendance is the same as 74 children attending the whole of the week.

Again, if the average number of half days be 9, and the number present at all be 30, the $7 \times 30 =$ the number of attendance marks gained by an unequal or variable number of children distributed in equal portions among those who have been present at all.

REMARKS.—This is a complete answer. Every point of the question receives attention and illustration, and there is evidence of a full mastery of his subject by the writer. Its defects are in the composition rather than in the matter or arrangement. Thus the opening definition is deficient in precision. It is not stated but left to be inferred that the average is the number, of which the sum of the deficiencies of the numbers below it is equal to the sum of the excesses of those above it. Again, "meaning" would be better than "view" in the phrase, "another view of the term."

QUESTION 5.—The great difference between reading and arithmetic in the progress is to be found in the fact that arithmetic is of a much more systematic nature than reading. True, every branch of instruction or education has its successive steps; but in arithmetic the mastery of each step is absolutely necessary to the understanding of the subsequent parts.

So that if a child is placed in a class too high for him, he may find something in common with the others which he can master in the reading lessons, but in arithmetic he can find nothing if he has not mastered the previous rules on which those in this class depend.

Again, reading is a thing which enters more into the child's daily life than arithmetic. Not a day passes but he sees something before him to read, and when a child has been once started he takes a delight in practising his knowledge and memory on any object he may chance to meet with.

This will apply to arithmetic, but in a much more limited sense. Expedients to provide for this—(in classification).

The only way to surmount the difficulty entirely is to have a separate classification for each subject. Children may often be equal in ability to read, while in arithmetic their attainments may be widely different. Unless this plan is resorted to there is evident unfairness to the child, whose progress in one subject at least is retarded.

Many find a difficulty in doing this, however, from lack of teaching power. This is the case in most of our national schools, where there are often only one or two pupil teachers. This may be obviated, in a great manner, by adopting the monitorial system. A skillful teacher, with a thorough and efficient staff of monitors will often work as well.

If this difficulty should be found to be great, the teacher might have a separate classification for arithmetic only, thus throwing the work of having one subject throughout the school at the same time, or one lesson only.

Then, again, in the work there should be more splitting up into drafts than in reading. It depends, however, on which branch of arithmetic is taken. Of instruction in rules and principles, then the classification should be very minute. If only for silent practice, it would require only about the same number of classes as for reading.

A plan adopted in some schools is to send out a whole class, or oftener a draft of the first class among the rest of the school. Each

with his little group may then be able to aid them in removing the difficulties experienced by young children in arithmetic.

REMARKS.—This answer has its good points. There is equal evidence that the question has not been misunderstood, but there lacks on the part of the writer that practical conception of a schools working which the question required, to have enabled him to answer it properly. The defect is one often found in learners, who are generally—perhaps unavoidably—more concerned to fix in their memory the verbal matter of their books, than to realize that which lies under it. Of course experience alone in this case could give this power; but experience, though necessary to the conception, does not always produce it. This is evident, not only from the answer before us, but from the fact that the real difficulty in classifying for arithmetic has never been met in many schools, nor even guessed at. Hence the discrepancies which are found in children's attainments, though in the same class, discrepancies which are not found among the members of a reading class. Occasional splitting up of a school into minute parts, and appointing a boy from an upper class to each, is doubtless better than the individual mode found in some schools, or the slovenly classes found in others, but it is too irregular a mode to obtain sound progress in a subject of so many distinct stages.

QUESTION 8.—Why should school be made attractive to children? It is important that children should feel school a delight. "School is a pleasure" should not merely be a song, but a reality with the children. Few things remain as permanent to do us any good, when we have associated them with feelings of pain, or it may be of disgust.

1. *Childhood a happy period.* God has made childhood pre-eminently a happy period. The happy buoyancy of childhood and youth are so ordained for wise and good purposes. If we then aid this cheerfulness we are co-workers with God. On the other hand, if we make childhood dull and cheerless, we are acting in direct opposition to this law.

2. *It is the best condition for imparting instruction.* When there is cheerfulness in the mind of the child, a high degree of mental activity may be expected. There is an energy and zeal about the manner which shows there is delight taken in the work. But if there is a school in which there is no sympathy with child nature, and instead of the sunshine of cheerfulness, a cold and harsh discipline, and the teacher's manner repelling, the children at once dislike school. The acquisition of knowledge becomes associated in their minds with pain, with dark and threatening looks, and with constraint. This is evidently the reason why we find some children almost overjoyed at the thought of being released from school.

2. *Its influence on moral culture.* How can principles for future guidance be implanted, or the conscience awakened to a sense of duty, where fear is made the ruling motive? The principle is contrary to that laid down in the New Testament, where *love* is made the ruling motive.

Means to make it a happy place.

1. *Teacher's manner.* The teacher must be cheerful and lively in his dealing with the children. He need not be afraid of a smile on his face lowering his authority or influence with the children.

2. He may indulge the children in *sallies of wit, tales, &c.* This will encourage them to laugh and so prove a reaction, will afford an outlet for the superfluity of animal spirits. Carlyle says it is an element of good in a man, however debased, if he can indulge in a hearty good laugh.

3. He should be careful that their *work* is suited to them, and that they are *not overworked*. The habit of application is quite a different thing to constant drudgery or slavery.

4. He should not *confine* his work to *school routine*. The three essentials must have the greatest share of the time. But there is still time left for interesting recreation lessons, as drawing, singing, &c.

5. He should carefully avoid *excessive fault-finding*. He should be on the look out for things to praise rather than to censure.

The children lose all heart in their work in trying to please their teacher when all their efforts are rewarded only by constant grumbling and complaints.

6. In their *games* they should be *left alone*. He may sometimes show them a new game or an improvement in their own, but in other respects he should not interfere.

REMARKS.—This answer goes over much ground, and yet deals with it in outline only. This could not be avoided where so many points are introduced, and where the space and time were limited. But was it necessary to introduce so many? Would not selection and a fuller treatment of each point be better than bones—"very many and very dry?" Mere fragments may suffice, sometimes, between a pupil and his teacher; but suppose the case of an examiner not as well acquainted with the course as the latter, is it advisable then to deal in fragments? May not the writer then be misunderstood—e.g., What would Stow say of the statement, or any

one else anxious for the moral training of children—"that in their games they should be left alone?"

QUESTION 11.—"Trusting." In matters relating to truth of word or action, the teacher should always "trust till deceived." It is highly important that children should be trusted, and that they should know that they are so too. There is a great tendency to be what we are taken for. "Give a dog a bad name and hang him." Suspicion is very injurious to the character of the child. If you give a child credit for being trustworthy, there will generally be an aim on his part to see that he deserves such.

Still, there is a danger of giving too much credit to the children; this ends in being imposed upon, or in the teachers winking at known misconduct. The degree of trust should depend upon the age of the child.

"Confession." Is important in its relation to real honesty of life. He should be treated as the true "coward" who, either from fear of punishment or of falling in the estimation of his comrades tries to hide his faults. The courage which confesses a fault should be approved by the teacher, and be rewarded by a remittance of punishment in some cases.

There is great fear, however, of carrying this too far. Where confession is voluntary it may be relied on, but when stimulated, as where hope of mitigation of punishment is held, its benefit is highly doubtful. The teacher should be careful, too, in requiring public confession; as, for instance, holding up the hand before the whole class. It is a test which few are able to stand.

"Praise." One of the most important stimuli which works with children in doing many actions is the hope of approval or praise. Though the love of praise is not to be encouraged, yet the teacher should recognize those actions which are deserving of praise. Deeds of kindness and courtesy, acts of self-denial, yielding to known preferences at play, &c., all these things should be encouraged by the approving smile of the teacher.

The great danger in this is that it has a tendency to make the children vain. The teacher should rarely praise the children publicly, unless in very exceptional cases. The want of humility, a consciousness of one's own ignorance and deficiencies is necessarily wanting in young children. And the teacher should be very discriminating in his distribution of praise lest he encourage this.

"Censure" is sometimes necessary and often more effective than corporal punishment. The teacher should know the nature of the child before he punishes in this way. In all cases of want of truthfulness, honesty, or moral conduct, he should express his strong abhorrence of the fault.

"Danger." He should be very careful he does not inflict too great a punishment. A *look* is enough with some children. When censuring before the class, too, he should not do so personally, else the sympathy of the class goes with the offender. He should avoid constant censure: when the occasions are few and far between, his reproof will be much more impressive.

REMARKS.—A very good answer in *outline*. This was what the question required, and the writer has managed to give evidence of attention to the subject.

QUESTION 15.—"Be careful that it is obstinacy.—(Locke). Often that which is termed obstinacy is not really so. The cases which occur in school of real obstinacy are very few.

(1.) Obstinacy may proceed from a *natural obtuseness* or *weakness of intellect*. Here the teacher should be patient and painstaking in his work. The child has perhaps been neglected at home, or not sent to school early enough.

(2.) What is called obstinacy may often proceed from a perfect confusion, caused by bullying, blows on the head, &c. Here the teacher requires patience, and the command of his own temper. A Rugby master once felt a rebuke very strongly, when, after he had been bullying and scolding a lad for his dullness a long time, the lad looked up in his face and timidly said, "Why do you speak so angrily; indeed, I am trying my best."

(3.) Sometimes this fault may be on the teacher's side. It may proceed from a constant, irritable, fault-finding disposition, when the children lose all heart in their work, and all respect for their teacher.

(4.) Again, a boy may take up the position of obstinacy for the sake of being a hero. Boys are rather fond of finding one who dares to oppose the master. In this case the teacher should deprive him of the sympathy of the class, and the motive being removed the action will drop. The teacher should never punish a lad for this fault before his class.

(5.) The fault may at first be only sulkiness, or ill temper; it may be brought on to obstinacy by the teacher's mismanagement. The boy should be left alone till his fit is over.

REMARKS.—This is an important subject, and deserved more attention than the writer gave to it; but time, we suppose, was pressing. The terms "bully and scold" were altogether inapplicable, surely to an Arnold!

QUESTION 17.—The grounds which exist for believing that pre-occupation of the mind with right principles would fortify it against the admission and practice of evil.

(1.) *The mind is never unemployed.* Even in the case of the youngest child, however few its ideas may be, it is constantly passing and re-passing these before the mind. A great part of our life is spent in reflection, in thought, &c.

(2.) Our present feelings and thoughts will depend on the objects of our previous pursuits. Whatever we have been reading, thinking of, or doing, gives the tone to our present thoughts. If we have spent our time in reading of nobler examples of patience and benevolence, in that channel, too, our thoughts will run.

They tend to familiarise the mind with that which is lofty and good, and so have an influence on our thoughts and actions.

(3.) *One feeling resists another by pre-occupation.* If thoughts and principles holy and good have been implanted, the mind will naturally repel all that is vulgar and bad.

(4.) "*Like attracts like*" is a principle which holds good in the physical world, and has an equal influence in a moral sense. The mind naturally picks out for itself those things or objects with which it is familiar.

Looked at the other way, it is evident that if the mind is allowed to follow its own inclination it will take an evil course. Neither does it want the presence of contaminating influences to do this.

Some Jesuits on the Continent on one occasion were particularly careful in rearing youths to protect them from the evil influence of the world outside. They were not allowed to have the slightest connection with any one without the walls. And yet after they entered the world their previous seclusion of life did not prevent them from becoming debased in character.

The fact was, their minds had not been previously fortified against evil by implanting.

REMARKS.—Here again there is evidence of haste and hurry, because the time is lapsing. But it is not wise in an examination paper to crowd in crudely digested matter; it is far better to do well what is done, as this would of itself indicate what the writer could do if there was time.—*Papers for the Schoolmaster.*

3. QUESTIONS ON SCHOOL MANAGEMENT IN AN ENGLISH NORMAL SCHOOL.

1. Explain "average," and give illustrations from school registers.
2. Clearly set forth the "approximate" and the "exact" methods of obtaining yearly averages.
3. What checks does a good system of registration supply on the accuracy of the returns? What other means will you adopt to show that your registers are accurate and truthful?
4. What "general principles are applicable to all school arrangements?"
5. How do reading and arithmetic differ in relation to a child's progress? By what expedients in classification will you provide for this?
6. Distinguish between "exercises of attainment," and "mechanical operations," and show fully the differences these require in classification, with the reasons thereof.
7. State the advantages of physical exercise, and give the conditions which should be sought in connection therewith.
8. Why should school be made attractive to children? Give some of the means by which a teacher may make it a happy place.
9. To what may fretfulness, irritability, pugnacity, and such like, often be traced in school? Trace the effects of these things physically and morally.
10. Write a theme on "Humility."
11. State briefly the importance and the dangers connected with "trusting," "confession," "praise," and "censure."
12. Write an essay on "Nothing is little or trifling in education that tends to give a bias to the mind," or, "on the function of action in the culture of the feelings and disposition."
13. Write out the section that contains "Boisterousness is highly unbecoming."
14. What is the relation of authority to the training of the will?
15. Illustrate Locke's remark: "Be careful that it is obstinacy."
16. What is the sphere of repetition?
17. What grounds exist for believing that pre-occupation of the mind with right principles would fortify it against the admission and practice of evil?
18. What do you understand by "principles" in the preceding question? What hindrances exist to the implanting of such principles?—*English Papers for Schoolmasters.*

4. TRAINING FEMALE TEACHERS IN DOMESTIC DUTIES.

There exists a prevalent but erroneous impression that in Eng-

lish normal schools this branch of instruction is overlooked. The mistake probably arises from the fact that the range of subjects taught is thought to be so wide, or so purely intellectual or technical, that more practical and common subjects are displaced. Such is not the case. DOMESTIC ECONOMY, the common term applied to this class of instruction forms a *distinct subject*, and is treated as such both in the arrangement of the Training College and in the examination for certificates of merit. For the information of such of our readers as may be interested in this branch, and in illustration of the character of the teaching, we subjoin the *actual questions* which, at the recent examination, formed what is termed the "Domestic Economy paper."

SECTION I.

1. Compare the advantages of linen, cotton, and woollen clothing, with regard to durability, health, and economy.
2. To what extent should cutting out be taught in a well ordered school? What expedients would you adopt in order to give the children practical instruction in this art?
3. What ought to be the yearly cost of clothing for a girl between fourteen and fifteen years of age, the daughter (1) of a mechanic, or (2) of a day labourer? Support your opinion by a detailed estimate.

SECTION II.

1. Prepare a table of diet for school children between ten and thirteen years of age. Explain the advantages of the various substances which you would use, having regard to economy, and the health and strength of the children.
2. Explain the reasons why meat, intended for the table, should be boiled slowly. Under what circumstances may rapid boiling be allowable?
3. How may the following articles of food be prepared, so as to be both economical and palatable?—Oatmeal, rice, sheep's head and fish.

SECTION III.

1. Give directions for washing woollen articles, and for getting up fine linen; and, as far as you are able, give intelligible reasons for the process which you recommend.
2. Mention some faults commonly committed by laundry women, the causes to which they are attributable, and the effects they produce upon the appearance and quality of clothing.

SECTION IV.

Prepare full notes for lessons on *two* subjects selected from the following list:—

Duties of a nurse-maid, or

Kitchen-maid;

Causes that predispose to typhus fever, or other prevalent diseases;

Symptoms of scarlet fever, or of croup, and simple methods of dealing with them until medical assistance can be obtained.

The different modes in which small savings may be turned to good account.

QUESTIONS IN REGARD TO INFANT SCHOOLS.

The following questions have special reference to INFANT SCHOOLS. Candidates who answer the questions in this section satisfactorily, and who afterwards pass a satisfactory probation in keeping Infant Schools, will have a special stamp added to their certificates when issued.

1. What means have been devised to teach infants the means and movements of common domestic process,—such as washing, baking, ironing, &c.?

2. Write the notes of such a lesson as would be intelligible and interesting to infants on catching cold, what it means, and how to avoid it.

It must be obvious that to pass this examination, a very considerable amount of knowledge must be possessed both theoretically and practically. A portion of the questions have to be answered on the spot, in writing, without any reference, and that correctly and precisely.—*English Educational Record.*

5. TEACHING THE LETTERS.

Looking in the last number of the *Teacher* for hints which would be useful in the details of the school-room, for the methods of teaching particular branches, etc., I wondered that the teachers did not write out more of their successful experiments for the benefit of others. Then I asked myself if I had any thing of value which I could add to the common stock. And I resolved to give an account of a plan for interesting the 'little ones' who are taking the first steps in the steep pathway which leads up the hill of science. The plan has worked well with me this present term.

I have always found my A B C classes, if at all large, rather dull to both scholars and teacher; and have also found it difficult to interest young children, and start them satisfactorily in reading. This term I procured pieces of paper boxes, one side of which, being glazed, would hold ink. These I cut into cards about an inch square, and made the letters on them, the small ones with pen and ink, the large ones with paint, by means of patterns borrowed from a shop.

Gathering my class around me, the cards were held up one by one, and the child who first named it correctly took the card. Those which none of them could name were retained by the teacher. When we had gone over the whole we would count and see which had the most, and then try again. Soon none were left for the teacher. Then I would try them one by one and see how many each child could take. I no longer had to force them to attend, and could no longer complain of a lack of interest. Their delight was great as, day by day, they found the pile growing in their little hands.

They had a sense of personal property in thus holding the letters. They had made them *their own* by learning them. Emulation, love of acquisition, and delight in consci us growth, were excited in the child's mind. Soon many were ready for advancement, and I proceeded in the same way with all the words of two letters, and some few others, such as *the, she, yes*, e. c. They named them at sight, from the cards, and read little sentences formed by placing them in various positions. It was rather slow work with some of them, but it was just the drill they needed in attention, observation of form, etc.; and when these words were thoroughly mastered, and the child was allowed to have a book of his own in his hands, in which the forms with which he had become so familiar appeared in a thousand combinations, his progress was rapid, and equally pleasant to pupil and teacher.

Considerable study could be easily secured from the little things in this way. In a class of sixteen, most were ready for the words, while a few were still in the letters. Calling them all to recite at the same time, I would give each of those who were learning words two or more cards to learn, and then proceed with the alphabet class. By the time I had heard them, most of those who had words would be ready to recite, applying themselves better than some scholars twice as old.—*E. in Illinois Teacher.*

6. INEFFACEABLE TEACHING.

There is a way of teaching which leaves a very slight impression, and there is another way the effect of which is obvious and lasting. The Spirit of God uses truth in converting and sanctifying men, but this truth is set forth by human agency, the efficiency of which depends much on the skill and diligence of the agent. We have never yet met with a teacher whose ill success could not be accounted for without impeaching the faithfulness of the divine promises.

A somewhat singular instance in illustration of this was lately given me as follows: A teacher met two well-dressed boys, and asked them if they were not going to Sunday-school. A poor boy, much smaller than the two, stood near, heard the invitation, and timidly asked if he might not go. The teacher was both surprised and pleased, and taking the little boy by the hand, led him to the school. He behaved well, and was connected with the school for several months. Whether he went after leaving the school is of no moment. He fell into company with profane men, and for full thirty years embraced and advocated sceptical opinions, openly scoffing the Bible and believers in it. After this long interval he renounced his scepticism, and became a professor of the religion he had sought to destroy; and his own declaration was that the lessons of those few months in the Sunday-school were too deeply lodged to be effaced, and finally forced him back to his allegiance to God.—*C. in the Sunday-School World.*

7. LESSENING OF TEACHERS' SALARIES.

We have often discouraged the application of the pernicious maxim that the cheapest teacher is the best, and experience only proves the truth of what we have said. In discussing this point the Sacramento Board of Education thus states the case:—"The spirit of discontent manifested by many of the teachers, who complain of the insufficiency of their wages, will, if continued, lessen their usefulness in the school room; for it is essential to the healthy progress of every school that the teacher should be zealous, efficient, and cheerful—so that the pupils may not only find her to be the dispenser of daily rations of reading, writing, and arithmetic, but also the living example of whatever is true, good, and beautiful in religion, in manners, and in knowledge. The welfare of nearly 6,000 children in our schools, whose characters are being daily moulded in the school-room, demands that we should do our utmost to put every teacher in the most serene and cheerful frame of mind. To show that we desire such a condition of circumstances, and that

we appreciate the exhausting labors of the school-room, we would now most cheerfully recommend an increase of salaries."

III. Correspondence of the Journal.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF TEACHERS.

(To the Editor of the Journal of Education.)

SIR,—An excess of supply over demand generally leads to the acceptance of much that is bad, and the rejection of much that is good. An excess of material seldom adds anything to the beauty of the structure. Experience will prove these remarks true in the commercial and manufacturing world, and observation in the literary and learned. A replete and overstocked market, whether of merchandise or talent, invariably tends to lower the moral status of both buyer and seller. Admitting the general acceptance of these observations, the growing evil exhibited in the large excess of teachers over the demand must have attracted the attention of every educationalist in the country. This evil has greatly increased of late years; and, unless something be done towards its extinction, it will, eventually, be productive of one result: that of positive injury to our, in many respects, admirable school system. This evil has even now assumed such dimensions, that numbers of individuals, of every grade of character, are traversing the country under the sanction of a certificate, which they obtained by chance or otherwise, offering their services as teachers, for any length of time, at almost any amount of remuneration. Many of these fellows, wholly inexperienced as teachers, having no love for the profession, further than its exclusion from manual labour, possess but a very limited knowledge of the rudiments of their mother tongue. It not unfrequently happens that necessity points these individuals to other means than honourable to procure a school. Such an order of things militates very strongly against the interests of the professional teachers. It is natural that men of talent and education, when they find themselves undermined by persons of inferiority, will, if possible, find a less responsible and more lucrative employment.

To a certain class of trustees, these low-priced teachers are particularly acceptable. With them the cheapest man is the best. According to their creed, education only occupies a secondary place, when contrasted with dollars and cents. Education and talent are thus rendered subservient to the god of the pocket; and incapacity patronized at the expense of professional ability. The question is, how is this evil to be remedied? In what manner can this difficulty be met and overcome, without checking, for a time, the progress of our educational machinery? Two practical methods appear adequate to meet the requirements of the case. First: Raise the qualification standard to a sufficient height, and cut off a large number of the lower grades. Again, abolish the present system of sectional trustees, and institute instead a township board, having control over all schools within the bounds of the municipality in which they reside. These changes are not only practicable, but necessary. The standard of examination has, hitherto, been far too low; for it is well known that there are many men in Canada, holding *first-class certificates*, incapable of teaching properly the commonest kind of a common school. Apart from the question of qualification, the very idea of calling up teachers periodically for examination is absurd in the extreme. Nothing short of the abolition of those petty county boards, and the establishment of a central provincial board, before whom all teachers are compelled to appear, will remove this evil, and bring about a satisfactory and permanent change. The establishment of township boards of trustees would remove many hindrances which at present stand in the way of the teacher. Local prejudice, and all this popular tittle-tattle about school grievances—more frequently imaginary than real—which has done so much to injure school discipline, would be destroyed. We could, thus, secure men of education and influence to superintend the working of our schools; whereas, according to the present system, it matters not how ignorant a man may be of schools and school business, he is eligible, if sufficiently assessed, to become one of a corporation having almost unlimited power at their control. Our present system places undue power within reach of the ignorant. Whenever the reins of government are placed within the grasp of all, discretion seldom becomes prominent as a leading feature in that government. Canada will never possess a class of thorough teachers, until means are taken to pay them better for their labor. In order to accomplish this, the quality must be increased, and the quantity reduced—such is the object of the above remarks.

Yours, very truly,

TEACHER.

SCARBORO', October 13th, 1864.

IV. Papers on Natural History.

1. WHY BEES WORK IN THE DARK.

A life time might be spent in investigating the mysteries hidden in a bee-hive, and still half of the secrets would be undiscovered. The formation of the cell has long been a celebrated problem for the mathematician, whilst the changes which the honey undergoes offer at least an equal interest to the chemist. Every one knows what honey fresh from the comb is like. It is a clear yellow syrup, without a trace of solid sugar in it. Upon straining, however, it gradually assumes a crystalline appearance—it *candies* as the saying is—and ultimately becomes a solid mass of sugar. It has not been suspected that this change was a photographic action. That the same agent which alters the molecular arrangement of the iodide of silver on the excited collodion plate, and determines the formations of camphor and iodine crystals in a bottle, causes the syrup honey to assume a crystalline form. This, however, is the case. M. Scheibler has enclosed honey in stoppered flasks, some of which he has kept in darkness, while others have been exposed to the light. The invariable result has been that the sunned portion rapidly crystallizes, while that kept in the dark has remained perfectly liquid. We now see why bees are so careful to work in perfect darkness, and why they are so careful to obscure the glass windows which are sometimes placed in their hives. The existence of the young depends on the liquidity of the saccharine food presented to them, and if light were allowed access to this the syrup would gradually acquire a more or less solid consistency; it would seal up the cells, and in all probability prove fatal to the inmates of the hives.—*Chronicle of Optics* "Quarterly Journal of Science."

2. A TEN MILE ARMY OF ANTS, AND THEIR EXPLOITS.

We take the following description of the "Bashikouay"—or reddish-brown African ant—from Du Chaillu's account of his African travels:

It is their habit to march through the forest in a long and regular line, about two inches broad and often ten miles in length. All along this line are larger ants, who act as officers, stand outside the ranks, and keep this singular army in order. If they come to a place where there are no trees to shelter them from the sun, whose heat they cannot bear, they immediately build underground tunnels, through which the whole army passes in columns to the forest beyond. These tunnels are four or five feet under ground, and are used only in the heat of the day or during a storm.

When they get hungry the long file spreads itself through the forest in a front line, and devours all it comes to with a fury which is quite irresistible. The elephant and gorilla fly before this attack. The black men run for their lives. Every animal that lives in their line of march is chased. They seem to understand and act under the tactics of Napoleon, and concentrate with great speed their heaviest forces upon the point of attack. In an incredible short space of time the mouse, or dog, or leopard, or deer is overwhelmed, killed, eaten, and the bare skeleton only remains.

They seem to travel night and day. Many a time have I been awakened out of a sleep, and obliged to rush from the hut and into the water to save my life, and after all suffered intolerable agony from the bites of the advance guard, who had got into my clothes. When they enter a house they clear it of all living things. Roaches are devoured in an instant. Rats and mice spring round the room in vain. An overwhelming force of ants kills a strong rat in less than a minute, in spite of the most frantic struggles, and in less than another minute its bones are stripped. Every living thing in the house is devoured. They will not touch vegetable matter. Thus they are in reality very useful (as well as dangerous) to the negroes, who have their huts cleaned of all the abounding vermin, such as immenso roaches and centipedes, at least several times a year.

When on their march, the insect world flies before them, and I have the approach of a bashikouay army heralded to me by this means. Wherever they go they make a clean sweep, even ascending to the tops of the highest trees in pursuit of their prey. Their manner of attack is an impetuous leap. Instantly the strong pincers are fastened, and they only let go when the piece gives way. At such times this little animal seems animated by a kind of fury, which causes it to disregard entirely its own safety, and to seek only the conquest of its prey. The bite is very painful.

The negroes relate that criminals were, in former times, exposed in the path of bashekoway ants, as the most cruel manner of putting to death.

Two very remarkable practices of theirs remain to be related. When, on their line of march, they must cross a stream, they throw themselves across and form a tunnel—a living tunnel—connecting two trees or high bushes on opposite sides of the little stream. This

is done with great speed, and is affected by a great number of ants, each of which clings with its fore claws to its next neighbor's body or hind claws. Thus they form a high, safe tubular bridge, through which the whole vast regiment marches in regular order. If disturbed, or if the arch is broken by the violence of some animal, they instantly attack the offender with the greatest animosity.

The bashikonay have the sense of smell finely developed, as indeed have all the ants I know of, and they are guided very much by it. They are larger than any ant we have in America, being at least half an inch long, and are armed with very powerful fore legs and sharp jaws, with which they bite. They are red or dark brown in color. Their number is so great that one does not like to enter into calculations; but I have seen one continual line passing at good speed a particular place for twelve hours. The reader may imagine for himself how many millions on millions there may have been contained here.

3. THE PINES OF CANADA.

We copy, from the Kingston *Whig*, the following poem, written by Chas. Mair Esq., of Lanark, and read before the Botanical Society of Kingston, by Mr. Joshua Fraser, student in Divinity. We lay this poem before those of our readers who have not heretofore had the pleasure of perusing this young poet's efforts:—

THE PINES.

BY CHARLES MAIR, LANARK, U. C.

O, heard ye the pines in their solitude sigh,
When the winds were awakened and night was nigh;
When the elms breathed out a sorrowful tale,
And the pillows waved darkly over the dead.

When the aspen leaf whispered a legend dread,
And the willows waved darkly over the dead;
And the poplar shone with a silvery gleam,
And trembled like one in a troublesome dream.

And the cypresses murmured of grief and woe,
And the linden waved solemnly to and fro,
And the sumach seemed wrapped in a golden mist,
And the soft maple blushed where the frost had kissed.

And the spectral birch stood alone in the gloom,
Like an unquiet spirit uprist from the tomb;
And the cedar outstretched its lone arms to the earth,
To feed with sweet moisture the place of its birth.

And the hemlock, uplifted above the crowd,
Drank deeply of mist at the brink of the cloud;
And the balsams, with curtains of shaggy green,
Like tents in the distance, were dimly seen,

I heard the pines in the solitude sighing,
When the winds were awakened, and day was dying;
And fiercer the storm grew, and darker its pall,
But the voice of the pines was louder than all.

THE VOICE OF THE PINES.

"We fear not the thunder, we fear not the rain,
For our stems are stout and long;
Nor the growling winds, though they blow amain,
For our roots are great and strong.
Our voice is eternal, our song sublime,
And its theme is the days of yore—
Back thousands of years of misty time,
When we first grew old and hoar!

"Deep down in the crevice our roots we hid,
And our limbs were thick and green,
Ere Cheops had builded his pyramid,
Or the Sphinx' form was seen.
Whole forests have risen within our ken,
Which withered upon the plain;
And cities, and race after race of men
Have arisen and sunk again.

"We commune with the stars through the paly night,
For we love to talk with them;
The wind is our harp, and the marvellous light
Of the moon our diadem.
Like the murmur of ocean, our branches stir,

When the night air whispers low ;
Like the voices of ocean, our voices are,
When the huriling tempests blow.

"We nod to the sun ere the morning prints
Her sandals on the mere ;
We part with the sun when the star light glints
On the silvery waters clear.
And when lovers are breathing a thousand vows
With their hearts and their cheeks aglow,
We chant a love strain, amid our breezy boughs,
Of a thousand years ago !

"We stand all aloof, for the giants strength
Craveth not from lesser powers ;
'Tis the shrub that loveth the fertile ground,
But the sturdy rock is ours !
We tower aloft where the hunters lag
By the weary mountain side,
By the jaggy cliff, by the grimy crag,
And the chasms yawning wide.

"When the great clouds march in a mountain heap,
By the light of the dwindled sun,
We steady our heads while the mist-winds sweep
And accost them one by one.
Then about us they girth, in their thunder mirth,
Till the wind starts fresh again,
When, like things of a day, they pass away,
But, like monarchs, we remain !

"The passage of years doth not move us much,
And time itself grows old,
Ere we bow to its flight or feel its touch
In our limbs of giant mould.
And the dwarfs of the wood, by decay oppressed,
With our laughter grim we mock ;
For the burthen of age doth but lightly rest
On the ancient forest folk.

'Cold Winter who filcheth the forest leaf,
And stealeth the floweret's sheen,
Can injure us not, neither work us grief,
Nor make our tops less green.
And Spring, who awakens her sleeping train,
By meadow, and hill, and lea,
Bringeth no new life to our old domain,
Unfading, stern, and free.

'Sublime in our solitude, changeless, vast,
While men build, work, and save,
We mock—for their years glide away to the past,
And we grinally look on their grave.
Our voice is eternal, our song sublime,
For its theme is the day of yore—
Back thousands of years of misty time,
When we first grew old and hoar !

4. TREES CHARACTERIZED.

The sailing *Pine* ; the *Cedar*, proud and tall ;
The vine-prop *Elm* ; the *Poplar*, never dry ;
The buidler *Oak*, sole king of forests all ;
The *Aspen*, good for staves ; the *Cypress*, funeral ;
The *Laurel*, meed of mighty conquerors,
And poets sage ; the *Fir*, that weepeth still ;
The *Willow*, worn of hopeless paramours ;
The *Yew*, obedient to the bender's will ;
The *Birch*, for shafts ; the *Sallow*, for the mill ;
The *Myrrh*, sweet bleeding in the bitter wound,
The warlike *Beech* ; the *Ash*, for nothing ill ;
The fruitful *Olive*, and the *Plantain* round ;
The carver *Holm* ; the *Maple*, seldom inward sound.

—Spenser.

5. THE GLORY OF THE PINES.

Magnificent are the pines ! nay sometimes, almost terrible. Other trees tufting crag or hill, yield to the form and sway of the ground, clothe it with soft compliance, are partly the flutterers, partly its comforters.—But the pine is serene resistance, self-contained ; nor can I ever, without awe, stay long under a great Alpine cliff, far from house or work of men, looking up to its companies of pine, as they stand on the inaccessible juts and perilous lodges of

the enormous wall, in quiet multitudes, each like the shadow of the one beside it—upright, fixed, spectral, like troops not knowing each other—dumb forever. You cannot reach them, cannot cry to them—those trees never heard human voice ; they are far above all sound but of the winds. No foot ever stirred fallen leaf of theirs. All comfortless they stand, between the two eternities of the Vancancy and the Rock ; yet with such iron will, that the rock itself looks bent and shattered beside them—fragile, weak, inconsistent, compared to their dark energy of delicate life and monotony of enchanted pride ; numbered unconquerable.—*Ruskin*.

V. Papers on Scientific Subjects.

1. CANADA BEFORE THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION.

This Association held its annual meeting at Bath on the 14th ultimo., Sir William Armstrong, presiding. Sir Charles Lyell, the newly elected President, shortly afterwards took the chair and delivered the annual address ; from which we take the following : "In reference to the other great question, or the earliest date of vital phenomena on this planet, the late discoveries in Canada have at least demonstrated that certain theories founded in Europe on mere negative evidence were altogether delusive. In the course of a geological survey, carried on under the able direction of Sir William E. Logan, it has been shown that northward of the river St. Lawrence there is a vast series of stratified and crystalline rocks of gneiss, mica-schist, quartzite, and limestone, about 40,000 feet in thickness, which have been called Laurentian. They are more ancient than the oldest fossiliferous strata of Europe, or those to which the term primordial had been rashly assigned. In the first place, the newest part of this great crystalline series is unconformable to the ancient fossiliferous or so-called primordial rocks which overlie it ; so that it must have undergone disturbing movements before the latter or primordial set were formed. Then again, the oldest half of the Laurentian series is unconformable to the newer portion of the same. It is in this lowest and most ancient system of crystalline strata that a limestone, about a thousand feet thick, has been observed, containing organic remains. These fossils have been examined by Dr. Dawson, of Montreal, and he has detected, in them, by the aid of the microscope, the distinct structure of a large species of Rhizopod. Fine specimens of this fossil, called *Lozoon Canadense*, have been brought to Bath by Sir William Logan, to be exhibited to the members of the Association. We have every reason to suppose that the rocks in which these animal remains are included are of as old a date as any of the formations named azoic in Europe, if not older, so that they preceded in date rocks once supposed to have been formed before any organic beings had been created. But I will not venture on speculations respecting 'the signs of a beginning,' or 'the prospects of an end,' of our territorial system—that wide ocean of scientific conjecture on which so many theorists before my time have suffered shipwreck."

Sir Roderick Murchison, in proposing a vote of thanks to the President, remarked upon the above :—Now, let me say that after many years of labor among my own Silurian rocks and those which lie beneath them in Britain and the continent of Europe, I came to the conclusion that during vastly long periods in the formation of the crust of the earth, *i. e.*, in the Lower Silurian formations, all animals (and their fossil forms are in countless profusion) belonged to invertebrate life, and that in all these long periods no fishes with back-bones swam in the seas. Descending into older rocks, and beneath the Silurian types of life, the closest researches have only revealed to us two or three species of a coralline body and probably a few seaweeds. The discovery at present announced from still older rocks pertains to the same low order of animals, and the very name *Lozoon Canadense*, or dawn of Canadian life, really seems to me to point to the earliest origin of animal life that we are likely to obtain. On such points as these discussion leads to the development of truth, which is, I am sure, the sole object of my friend and myself ; and quite certain am I, that none of our discussions have ever for one moment weakened our friendship, but on the contrary, have tended to raise our esteem for each other."

2. THE SKY AN INDICATOR OF THE WEATHER.

The color of the sky, at particular times, affords wonderful good guidance. Not only does a rosy sunset presage good weather, and a ruddy sunrise bad weather, but there are other tints which speak with equal clearness and accuracy. A bright yellow sky in the evening indicates wind ; a pale yellow, wet ; a neutral gray color constitutes a favourable sign in the evening, and an unfavourable one in the morning. The clouds are again full of meaning in themselves. If their forms are soft, undefined, and full feathery, the

weather will be fine; if their edges are hard, sharp, and definite, it will be foul. Generally speaking, any deep unusual hues betoken wind or rain; while the more quiet and delicate tints bespeak fair weather. These are simple maxims: and yet not so simple but what the British Board of Trade has thought fit to publish them for the use of seafaring men.—*Scientific American*.

3. THE PROGRESS OF STEAM NAVIGATION.

Perhaps of all the extraordinary results of the practical applications of science, which enable mankind in our generation to overcome the obstacles opposed by nature to the intercourse of distant branches of the great human family, and to extend his power over matter, rendering it, instead of an opposing obstacle, subservient to the accomplishment of his will, none surpasses, even if any can be said to equal, those arising from the application of steam power to the propulsion of vessels,—and so necessary have the facilities afforded by its means become to us, as to make it somewhat difficult to realize the fact that but a few years since there were no such things as steam vessels. Such, however, is the fact: it is but a quarter of a century (March 1838) since the first steamship—the *Great Western*—crossed the Atlantic from Bristol. About fifteen years more would take us back to the very commencement of steam navigation, and the first year of the present century will, in after ages, be held remarkable as having witnessed the completion of the first efficient steambot, the "*Charlotte Dundas*," brought into successful operation early in that year on the Forth and Clyde Canal in Scotland, by the great but unfortunate inventor of steam navigation, William Symington. It was some six years later before Fulton, who, it appears, had taken drawings of Symington's machinery, succeeded in reproducing a similar steambot in America, and getting her into operation on the Hudson, and many years later again, before any considerable progress was made. All these earlier steamships were of the paddle or side-wheel construction, and it is but so recently as the 1836, that F. P. Smith, a gentleman farmer, residing a few miles from London, (England,) invented and brought into a state of practical efficiency, the first screw-propeller. This was soon further improved upon and perfected by a number of other inventors, amongst the foremost of whom was the distinguished Naval Engineer Ericson, then an Engineer in London and since well-known as the inventor of the Caloric engine and constructor of the American Monitors. This notice has been suggested to us by receiving a pamphlet from Mr. John Harris of this city, who it appears has obtained patents in the leading countries on both sides of the Atlantic for a new or what might be termed a third system of propulsion differing greatly from either the side wheel or screw, but like them extremely simple in construction and even more direct in its action. The pamphlet contains a review of what Mr. Harris considers the defects of the 'side-wheel' and 'screws' systems of propulsion and an explanation of his reasons for expecting great advantages from the adoption of his invention which he calls a 'Lever-Paddle.' It is a question of course for naval engineers and those skilled in nautical mechanics to say what value of merit there may be in this new contrivance, all that we can say is that the pamphlet seems to be got up with great care, the review and explanatory matter written with clearness and apparently with a deep knowledge of the subject, and the lithographed drawings forming the illustrations certainly do credit to the skill of the engravers, Messrs. Roberts and Reinholdt. Before dismissing the subject there is one independent application of the 'lever-paddle' to which we should like to call the attention of our leading Canadian ship-builders, as this application is by no means confined to Steamship. It is a sort of supplementary rudder placed between the ordinary rudder and the stern post, and the effect, as stated, is to turn the vessel in either direction as far as may be desired quickly and quite independently of the motion of the vessel through the water. It is asserted that the ship can by this means be turned completely around or made to return in either direction; the driving machinery being nothing more than a wheel or winch to which the lever-paddle is attached, but we must refer those desirous of further information on the subject to the pamphlet itself.

VI. Biographical Sketches.

No. 42.—WALTER SAVAGE LANDON, Esq.

We have intelligence of the death of Walter Savage Landon, the poet, who had reached an age attained by comparatively few of the human family, having been born in the year 1775, so that he was in his ninetieth year, when at last summoned to pay the debt of nature. Mr. Landon was a native of the County of Warwick, England, and, being the child of wealthy parents, had all the advan-

tages in the way of education which money could give him. At a fitting age he was sent to Rugby, and was afterwards entered at Trinity College, Oxford. In 1802 he was in Paris, and saw Napoleon made first Consul for life. In 1808, on the first insurrection in Spain, he raised a body of troops at his own expense, and joined Blake, the viceroy of Galicia. In 1811 he married Julia, daughter of the Baron de Nieuveville, first gentleman of the bedchamber of Charles IV. of Spain. For many years afterwards he resided in Italy, only occasionally visiting England, but a few years since returned permanently to his native land, and finally settled at Bath, where he has since resided. As a poet Mr. Landon became first known to the public by his tragedy of "*Count Julian*." This was followed by other pieces, but he is most likely to be remembered hereafter by his prose especially his "*Imaginary Conversations*." During many of the later years of his life he was a contributor to the *Examiner*. A few years ago, when beginning to pass out of the public mind, he again forced for himself a questionable celebrity, by publicly offering a reward for the assassination of the King of Naples. Fortunately for his reputation, the inducement he held out did not lead to the perpetration of the crime which he suggested.—*Toronto Globe*.

No. 43.—CAPTAIN SPEKE.

The late English papers contain an account of the accidental and melancholy death of Captain John Speke, who in conjunction with Captain Grant discovered the source of the River Nile. The unfortunate man was on a visit to his brother, W. Speke, Esq., Wiltshire, England, and at the time of his death was on a hunting excursion with a relative. It appears that he set out with Mr. Geo. Fuller, to shoot partridges, and in pursuit of the game had to climb over a low stone wall. Those with him heard, at this time, the report of a gun, and looking towards the Captain, observed that he leaned against the wall as if wounded. On hastening up to him they discovered this supposition only to be too true, for by some means or other his piece had gone off with the muzzle in line with his body, and lodged the bullet in his spine, after passing through his lungs and some large blood vessels. The wound was mortal, and on their reaching him he had only time to say "Don't move me," when he expired. This celebrated adventurer and explorer was born in 1827, and was consequently at the time of his death 37 years of age. He entered the army young being only 17 years old at the time. He served at the Crimea in 1855, and at the close of that war started on an exploring expedition to Africa, but which amounted to nothing. In the year 1859 he started along with Capt. Grant on the famous Nile expedition which resulted in the discovery of the source of this historic river, and the settling of a long disputed and eagerly sought after point. Returning home and receiving the honors of an appreciative public due to such an explorer, he at last fell a victim to his own heedlessness in the handling of an arm to which he had so long been accustomed, and which so often before had saved him from the dangers of the savage, beast, and reptile. The feelings of regret for his untimely death, are universal, and are not only shared by his countrymen at home, but in every place where the news of his discoveries have been carried.

No. 44. IRA SCHOFIELD, Esq.

We have to announce the death of Major Ira Schofield, brother of the late Doctor Schofield. Major Schofield died at Morton, South Crosby, on the 8th inst., at the advanced age of 88 years. He was born in Connecticut while that portion of the continent of America was a British colony, and moved to Canada in 1800, settling in Leeds county. He served in the war of 1812 as a captain of militia. He afterwards moved to what was then known as the London district, where he was promoted to the rank of Major, and was also one of the first magistrates of the locality. Now, in a ripe old age, Major Schofield has been called to his fathers, leaving to his children and grand children the odour of a man who has passed through the world possessing the esteem and respect of his fellow-men. The major was for many years, like his brother the doctor, a most zealous Freemason. He was buried in the same spot where lie the remains of his father and mother.—*Brockville Recorder*

No. 45.—THE REV. DR. CAHILL.

Dr. Cahill, the celebrated Irish priest and astronomer, is dead. Dr. Cahill frequently lectured in Canada. The *New York Herald* says: "The Very Rev. D. W. Cahill, D. D., the celebrated Irish priest, astronomer, pulpit orator and chemist, died in Boston Mass., last Thursday, after a short illness. He was about sixty-five years of age. Dr. Cahill possessed talent of the highest order, and enjoy-

ed world wide reputation for his piety, learning, great charity and accomplishments as a gentleman."

No.—46. VICE CHANCELLOR ESTEN.

Vice Chancellor Esten died suddenly in Toronto on the 25th inst. The *Leader* says: "The deceased was the grandson of a former Attorney General of the Bermudas, and son of the late Chief Justice of the Islands. Mr. Esten was born in St. Georges, Bermuda, on the 7th of November, 1805, and was, we believe, educated at the Charter House School, in London. He was called to the bar in Lincoln's Inn, and for some time pursued the practice of his profession as barrister, in England. In the year 1837 on the establishment of the Court of Chancery in this Province. Mr. Esten who, a short time previously, had moved with his family to Upper Canada, entered that Court as a barrister, and immediately assumed at the Bar the high position to which his great learning and talents entitled him. From the first, he enjoyed a most extensive practice. He was one of the few men in the country, who, on the opening of the new Court, possessed any knowledge of equity law, pleading, or practice. A most diligent and accurate lawyer, possessed of qualifications which no government could overlook, he was, in 1849, on the reconstruction of the Court, raised to the Bench, as one of its Judges. From that time till June last, when disease compelled him to desist from his labors, he discharged unceasingly the important duties of his high office with a patience, zeal, honesty, and ability to which we are sure all who came in contact with him will bear sincere testimony. Firm in the administration of justice, he possessed wonderful equanimity of temper, and an amiability of disposition which endeared him to all who had business in his Court, or who enjoyed the pleasure of his society. No hasty word ever escaped his lips; and painstaking and cautious as he was in arriving at a decision, so candid was his mind that he readily listened to any appeal from it, and cheerfully acquiesced in reversing it when it was shown to him that he had erred.

No. 47. PARK BENJAMIN, Esq.

Park Benjamin, a well-known literary man of this city, died at his residence on Monday evening, Sept 12, in the fifty-fifth year of his age. He was a native of Demerara, in British Guiana, where his father was engaged in mercantile pursuits. He entered Harvard College in 1825, and after remaining two years in that institution, became a member of Trinity College, in Hartford, where he graduated in 1829. After passing through the usual course of legal study, he began to practice law in Boston in 1832, but devoted himself with less interest to his profession than to literature. He was one of the original editors of *The New England Magazine*, a periodical established in that city by Mr J. T. Buckingham, and numbering among its contributors several of the most popular writers of the day. In 1837, Mr Benjamin removed to New York, and was concerned at different times in the management of several literary journals, *The American Monthly Magazine*, *The New Yorker*, and *The New World*. At a subsequent period he became extensively known as a lecturer and poet at lyceums and on public occasions, and was a frequent contributor to various magazines. Mr. Benjamin was a man of more than ordinary cultivation in literature, great faculty in composition, frank and quiet manners.—*New York Tribune*.

VII. Miscellaneous.

1. WAR AND THE HOUSEHOLD.

The apples are ripe in the orchard,
And the work of the reaper is done,
And the golden woodlands redden
In the blood of the dying sun.

At the cottage door the grandsire
Sits pale in his easy chair;
While the gentle wind of twilight
Plays with his silver hair.

A woman is kneeling beside him,
A fair young head is pressed,
In the first wild passion of sorrow,
Against his aged breast.

And far from over the distance
The faltering echoes come,
Of the flying blast of trumpet
And the rattling roll of drum.

And the grandsire speaks in a whisper,—
"The end no man can see;
But we give him to his country,
And we give our prayers to thee."

The violets star the meadows,
The rose-buds fringe the door,
And over the grassy orchard
The pink-white blossoms pour.

But the grandsire's chair is empty,
The cottage is dark and still;—
There's a nameless grave in the battle-field,
And a new one under the hill.

And a pallid, tearless woman
By the cold hearth sits alone;
And the old clock in the corner
Ticks on with a steady drone.

2. THE LAST HOURS OF PRINCE ALBERT.

There has reached us from abroad a most interesting extract from a letter which was written by a member of the Queen's household shortly after the death of Prince Albert. The extremely confidential position which the writer held at the time not only gives the assurance of perfect reliability, but invests the following lines with a very special interest. After describing the grief and fears of the whole household for the Queen, the writer speaks of the personal loss sustained in the death of Prince Albert:

"How I shall miss his conversation about the children! He used often to come into the school-room to speak about the education of the children, and he never left me without my feeling that he had strengthened my hands and raised the standard I was aiming at. Nothing mean or frivolous could exist in the atmosphere that surrounded him; the conversation could not be trifling while he was in the room. I dread the return of spring for my dear lady. It was his favourite time of the year—the opening leaves, the early flowers and fresh green were such a delight to him; and he so loved to point out their beauties to his children, that it will be terrible to see them without him. The children kept his table well supplied with primroses which he especially loved. The last Sunday he passed on earth was a very blessed one for the Princess Alice to look back upon. He was very ill and very weak, and she spent the afternoon alone with him, while the others were in church. He begged to have his sofa drawn to the window, that he might see the sky and the clouds sailing past. He then asked her to play to him, and she went through several of his favorite hymns and chorals. After she had played some time she looked round and saw him lying back, his hands folded as if in prayer, and his eyes shut. He lay so long without moving that she thought he had fallen asleep. Presently he looked up and smiled. She said, were you asleep, dear papa? Oh, no, he answered, only I have such sweet thoughts. During his illness his hands were often folded in prayer; and when he did not speak, his serene face showed that the 'happy thoughts' were with him to the end. The Princess Alice's fortitude has amazed us all. She saw from the first that both her father's and mother's firmness depended on her firmness, and she set herself to the duty. He loved to speak openly of his condition, and had many wishes to express. He loved to hear hymns and prayers. He could not speak to the Queen of himself, for she could not bear to listen, and shut her eyes to the danger. His daughter saw that she must act differently, and she never let her voice falter, or shed a single tear in his presence. She sat by him, listened to all he said, repeated hymns, and then, when she could bear it no longer, would walk calmly to the door, and rush away to her room, returning with the same calm and pale face without any appearance of the agitation she had gone through. I have had several interviews with the Queen since. The first time she said, 'you can feel for me, for you have gone through this trial.' Another time she said how strange it seemed, when she looked back, to see how much for the last six months the Prince's mind had dwelt upon death and the future state; their conversation turned so often upon these subjects, and they had read together a book called 'Heaven at Home,' which had interested him very much. He once said to her 'we don't know in what state we shall meet again; but that we shall recognize each other and be together in eternity I am perfectly certain.' It seemed as if it had been intended to prepare her mind and comfort her—though of course it did not strike her then. She said she was a wonder to herself, and she was sure it was in answer to the prayers of her people that she was so sustained. She feared it would not last, and that times of agony were before her. She said 'there's not the bitterness in this trial that I felt when I lost my mother—I was so rebellious then; but now I can see the mercy and love that are

mixed in my trial.' Her whole thought now is to walk worthy of him, and her greatest comfort to think that his spirit is always near her, and knows all that she is doing."—*Northern Whig*.

3. THE PRINCE AND PRINCESS OF WALES IN DENMARK.

The *London Times* publishes a long letter from its correspondent in Denmark, describing the enthusiastic reception given to the Prince and Princess of Wales on their visit to that country. The following interesting scene is described in connection with their visit to Bernstoff Castle:—"The horses disappear, and the carriages, and nothing is seen on the great gravelled space before the door but a perfect sea of human faces looking up into the windows and moving to and fro at a respectful distance from the house. We are all beginning to think of taking our departure, when, at an upper window, near the far end of the chateau, a delicate hand is seen to open the window softly, and an unbanned head appears, and there is a quiet but delighted look cast down upon the people, and the figure retires. It is the Princess of Wales, who made her first visit to the nursery, and is now looking down from one of the windows. The crowd surges up under this window, and there is a great anxiety to know if the beloved Princess will again make her appearance. She stealthily peeps out again, and, seeing the great assemblage, she thinks evidently how best to gratify them, and she hits upon a plan which makes the woods resound with thundering Danish hurrahs. It was a simple one. The gracious lady, blushing in all the pride of a young mother, brings the little Prince in her arms, and holds him up to the people. The little uncle Valdemar and the little aunt Thyra are also at the window, and are looking up fondly at the dear baby, who seems delighted, and actually to crouch at the admiring people beneath. Then comes the Queen of Denmark and she takes the child too, in her arms, and mother and daughter hold him up between them, and present him to the people. The King and Prince appear smiling in the back-ground, and suddenly a thought occurs to the Princess, and laughingly, she places the precious burden in her father's arms. His Majesty, who hates everything that approaches a dramatic scene in real life, seemed embarrassed, but as the little fellow appeared very gallantly not to wish to quit the ladies, his Majesty had to pacify him by dandling him in his arms, and so he brought him to the window. But the Princess was not yet satisfied. She transferred the baby from her father's arms to her husband's arms, and the Prince performed the paternal duty very handsomely, though the ladies all solemnly decided that the more experienced King was for the moment the better skilled nurse of the two. The royal family seemed now finally to retire, and by degrees the groupe of visitors dispersed."

4. A BISHOP'S RECEIPT FOR MAKING ACCEPTABLE PREACHERS.

At the recent Annual Meeting of the Church of England Sunday-school Institute, the Bishop of London said:—

When young men came to him to be ordained he generally asked the question whether they had ever been Sunday-school teachers, conceiving that it was a great help in preparing for the office of the ministry to have taken part in the work of Sunday-school teaching. One great difficulty in the case of young men who had just entered on the ministry was that the people, and especially the leading people, of a congregation did not very much like being preached to by such young persons. That was the reason, he supposed, why so few persons went to church in the afternoon in London. Now his receipt for teaching young men how to learn to preach was to tell them to go to a Sunday-school. He rejoiced to think that that practice was gradually increasing in his diocese, and that the young clergy were continually employed in their various parishes in holding special services for children, who were found very ready to listen. They might be quite sure that the man who is able to arrest the attention of children would have no great difficulty afterwards in arresting the attention of adults. If he could explain the Gospel clearly to little children, and if he was learning day by day to keep up their interest, he was undergoing the best possible training for becoming a powerful preacher of the gospel to persons of all ages. In that portion of his office which had to do with the ordination of young men he considered that the work of Sunday-schools, and the great influence which that Society exercised over them, was a great aid to them in finding fit and worthy young men to maintain the succession of the ministry.—*The Sunday-school World*.

5. LITTLE ROBERT, THE TRAPPER; OR THE SAFETY OF TRUSTING IN GOD.

One morning while the pitmen were at work in an English mine, they heard a noise louder than the loudest thunder. In a moment

every lamp was out, for the men work by lamps; there is not a spark of daylight there. "A crush, a crush!" cry the men, by which they mean that a portion of the mine had caved in; and men and boys throw down their tools and run.

It was Tuesday morning. The men gather at the mouth of the pit and count their number. Five are missing, and among them one little trapper, Robert Lester! People above hear the noise and rush to the pit's mouth. The workmen are taken up. Oh, the agony of the wives and mothers of those who are left behind! Brave men go back to their rescue. They light their candles and reach the crush. There is nothing but a heap of ruins. Were the poor fellows instantly killed, or are they hemmed in to die of starvation? It is a dreadful thought. They called and shouted but no answer. Up go pickaxes and shovels to clear the way. It is great labour and great risk. The news of the accident brings help from far and near. Men flock from all quarters to offer their services. How they work! Towards night they hear something. Stop! hark; listen! It is not a voice, but a tapping. It can just be heard. *Clink, clink, clink, clink, clink!* five times, and then it is stopped. *Clink, clink, clink, clink, clink!* five times again, and then it is stopped. Five more and then a stop. What does it mean? One man guessed. There were five missing, and the five clinks showed all five were alive waiting for deliverance. A shout of joy went up in and above the pit.

Amongst the foremost was the father of little Robert. Night and day he never left the mine, and hardly quitted work. "You'll kill yourself, Lester," said a fellow workman. "Go take a little rest, and trust the work to us." "No, no, Tom," cried the poor father; I promised Robert's mother we would come up together, and so we will, if it please God," he said, wiping the tears from his rough cheek; and he hewed away with all his might.

How does it fare with the poor prisoners? They were frightened like the rest by that awful noise. Little Robert left his door and ran to the men, who well knew what it meant. Waiting till everything was quiet, they went forward to examine the passage-way Robert had left. It was blocked up. They tried another; that was blocked up. Oh, fearful thought, they were *buried alive!* The men went back to the boy. "I want to go home; please, do let me go home," said little Robert. "Yes, yes, as soon as we find a way out, my little man," said Truman in a kind yet husky voice. The air grew close and suffocating, and they took their oil-cans and feed-bags to one of the galleries where it was better.

Two of the men, Truman and Logan, were pious. "Well, James, what shall we do next?" asked Truman. "There is but one thing we can do," said Logan. "God says, 'Call upon me in the day of trouble; I will deliver thee, and thou shalt glorify me.'" They told the boys of their danger. "But we must keep up a stout heart," said these believing men; "and the way to do so is to put our trust in the Almighty God more than in man. He heard Jonah cry to him from the whale's belly, and he can hear us from the bottom of a coal pit. Let us pray to him." They all knelt down. Poor little Robert cried bitterly. But as the pious pitmen prayed, first one and then the other, their hearts grew lighter, and even the little trapper dried his tears.

When it was time for dinner they ate sparingly, in order to make the food they had last at least three days, for it might be full that time before they could be dug out. Meanwhile what should they do for water! A trickling noise was heard. Water, water! Yes, it water dripping from the rock. "It seems," said Logan, "as if this water was sent on purpose to put us in mind that God won't forsake us: for don't you know the good book says, 'When the poor and needy seek water, and there is none, I the Lord will hear them, I the God of Israel will not forsake them?'"

Pretty soon the men got their pickaxes; but what a hopeless task it seemed to cut through the terrible mass of earth and stones to day-light. Their hearts beat with hope and joy when they first heard the sound of their friends working on the other side. It was then they made the *clink, clink* with their pickaxes, which was heard, and so encouraged their deliverers.

Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, and no rescue! What dark and dreadful days. Worse than all, the sounds beyond did not appear to draw nearer. And yet prayer and *songs of praise* might have been heard in that dismal cavern. By Friday morning their food was gone, and by Friday night their oil gave out. "Our food is gone, our light is gone, but our God is not gone," said Truman. "He says, 'I will never leave you, or forsake you.' Can you trust him still, mate?" "Yes, I can," said his pious comrade. "Let us try and sing that blessed hymn—

'The soul that on Jesus hath leaned for repose,
He'll never, no never, no never forsake.'

They tried to sing it, but their strength gave out long before they got through. As for little Robert, he was so weak that he could

not sit up. His mind wandered; he talked about the sun and the grass as if he saw them.

Saturday came. Five days, and the men outside knew there was not a moment to lose. They were too anxious even to speak. It was only work, work, work, for dear life. For hours they had heard no signals. Were their poor comrades dead. Suddenly the wall was pierced; feeble voices were heard. "Truman, are you there?" "Yes, all here." "All living?" "Yes, thank God, all living." "All living! all living!" shouted the men; and the shout went up to the top of the pit. When Robert's father heard that his little son was alive, the good news was too much for him, and he fell down senseless.

One hour more and the rescuers reached their comrades. Who can describe the meeting? I can't, or the joy and gratitude of wives, mothers, and friends as one and another were brought out to light. Here comes Mr. Lester with Robert in his arms. What a huzza rent the air as they hove in sight. Safe, safe! God be praised!—*H. C. Knight in Family Treasury.*

6. LED, NOT DRIVEN.

A mother, sitting at her work in her parlour, overheard her child whom an older sister was dressing in the adjoining room, say repeatedly, as if in answer to his sister; "No, I don't want to say my prayers."

"How many," thought the mother to herself, "often say the same thing in heart, though they conceal, even from themselves, the feeling?"

"Mother," said the child, appearing in a minute or two at the parlour door;—the tone and the look implied that it was only his morning salutation.

"Good morning, my child."

"I am going out to get my breakfast."

"Stop a minute; I want you to come here and see me first."

The mother laid down her work in the next chair, as the boy ran toward her. She took him up. He kneeled in her lap, and laid his face down upon her shoulder, his cheek against her ear. The mother rocked her chair slowly backward and forward.

"Are you pretty well this morning?" said she, in a kind gentle tone.

"Yes, mother, I am very well."

"I am very glad you are well. I am very well too; and when I waked up this morning, and found that I was well, I thanked God for taking care of me."

"Did you?" said the boy, in a low tone, half a whisper. He paused after it. Conscience was at work.

"Did you ever feel my pulse?" asked his mother, after a moment of silence, at the same time taking the boy down, and sitting him in her lap, and placing his fingers on her wrist.

"No, but I have felt mine."

"Well, don't you feel mine now? How steadily it beats!"

"Yes," said the child.

"If it should stop beating, I should die at once."

"Should you?"

"Yes, I cannot keep it beating."

"Who can?"

"God."

A silent pause.

"You have a pulse too, which beats in your bosom here, and in your arms, and all over you, and I cannot keep it beating, nor can you. Nobody can but God. If He should not take care of you, who could?"

"I don't know, mother," said the child, with a look of anxiety; and another pause ensued.

"So, when I waked up this morning, I thought I would ask God to take care of me and all the rest of us."

"Did you ask Him to take care of me?"

"Why should I?"

"Because I did not ask Him and I suppose you did."

"Yes, but you should ask Him yourself. God likes to have us all ask for ourselves."

A very long pause ensued. The deeply thoughtful and almost anxious expression of countenance showed that the heart was reached.

"Don't you think you had better ask for yourself?"

"Yes," said the boy readily.

He kneeled again in his mother's lap, and uttered, in his own simple and broken language, a prayer for the protection and blessing of Heaven.

Suppose another case. A mother overhearing the same words, calls the child into the room. The boy comes.

"Did I not hear you say you did not want to say your prayers?"

The boy is silent.

"Yes, he did," says his sister behind him.

"Well, that is very naughty. You ought always to say your prayers. Go right back now, and say them like a good boy, and never let me hear of your refusing again."

The boy goes back pouting, and utters the words of prayer, while his heart is full of mortified pride, vexation, and ill-will. Could it not be managed better.—*Eng. Mothers' Magazine.*

7. I.—DUTIES OF PARENTS.

- To bring up children for God,—Eph. vi. 4.
- To instruct them in heavenly things,—Deut. vi. 7.
- To stay at home with them,—Tit. ii. 5.
- To love them,—Is. lxvi. 13; Tit. ii. 4.
- To be gentle and encouraging,—Col. iii. 21.
- Not to spoil them,—Prov. xiii. 24; xix. 18; xxiii. 18, 14; xxix. 15.
- But to correct them for good, as God does,—Heb. xii. 6, 9, 10.
- To set them a good example,—Gen. xviii. 19.
- To ask for wisdom and guidance,—James i. 5.
- To be more careful for their spiritual than temporal prosperity,—Luke xii. 29, 31; Ph. iv. 6.
- To make them obedient to parents,—1 Tim. iii. 4.
- To make them obedient to teachers.—Gal. iv. 1, 2.
- To discountenance ungodly marriage,—2 Cor. vi. 14, 15.

II.—PROMISES TO PARENTS.

- Is. xlv. 3; liv. 13. Prov. xxii. 6, 15; xxix. 17; xxxi. 28.
- Ps. xxxvii. 25, 16. Deut. xi. 19 to 21. Mark x. 14.

III.—EXAMPLES OF FAULTY PARENTS.

- Rebekah deceitful,—Gen. xxvii. 6 to 17.
- Punishment,—Gen. xxvii. 42 to 46.
- Jacob's improper partiality,—Gen. xxxvii. 3.
- Punishment,—Gen. xxxvii. 32 to 34.
- Eli indulgent,—1 Sam. iii. 13.
- Punishment,—1 Sam. ii. 27 to 36.
- Zebedee's wife ambitious,—Matt. xx. 20, 21.
- Punishment,—Matt. xx. 22.

IV.—EXAMPLES OF GOOD PARENTS.

- Abraham,—Gen. xxiii. 19.
- David and Solomon,—1 Chron. xxii. 11 to 13; xxviii. 9; Prov. iv. 3, 4.
- Hannah,—1 Sam. i. 20 to 23.
- Job,—Job i. 1 to 5.
- Manoah,—Judges xxiii. 8 to 12.
- Isaac and Rebekah grieving for Esau's marriage,—Gen. xxvi. 34, 35; xxvii. 46.
- In warning Jacob,—Gen. xxviii. 1.
- Those who brought their children to Jesus,—Mark x. 13 to 16.
- Lois and Eunice,—2 Tim. i. 5; iii. 15.
- The Elect Lady,—2 John i.

8. A CHAPTER OF FIRST THINGS.

The earliest reference to music we have is in the Book of Genesis (chapter iv., verse 21), where Jubal, who lived before the deluge, is mentioned as the "father of all such as handle the harp and organ."

- Christmas was first celebrated December 25th, A. D. 98.
- The first trial by jury took place May 14th, A. D. 970.
- The first Cardinal was made November 20th, 1042.
- The first mariner's compass was made Nov. 21st, 1302.
- Gunpowder was first used December 23rd, 1331.
- The first printing was done, April 24th, 1415.
- Printing was first brought into England, March 26th, 1571.
- The first Total Abstinence Society in the United States was organized at Trenton, N. J., in 1805.
- Calico, the well known cotton cloth, is named from Calicot, a city in India, from whence it first came. Calico was first brought to England in the year 1631.
- The first Commencement at Harvard College took place Oct. 6th, 1642.
- The first insurance office in New England was established at Boston in 1724.
- The first building erected in America to collect the King's duties occupied the site at the corner of Richmond and North streets, Boston.
- The first cut nails ever made were produced in Rhode Island, and the Historical Society of that State has the machinery employed in their introduction. The nails were made during the Revolution.
- The first religious newspaper ever issued was the *Herald of Gospel Liberty*, which was published by Elias Smith of Portsmouth, N. H., 1808.

The first debate in the United States House of Representatives was on the subject of a tariff.

Steam navigation was first successfully applied, Feb. 11th, 1809.

The first English Steamer for India sailed Aug. 16th, 1825.

The first Iron works established in New England were at Lynn.

The first attempt to melt the ore was made 1843.

The first paper made in New England was produced at Milton; the first linen at Londonderry; the first scythes and axes at Bridge-water; the first powder at Andover; the first glass at Quincy.

The first daily newspaper printed in Virginia was in 1780, and the subscription price was \$50 per annum.

The first woollen mill on the Pacific coast has been set in operation at Salem, Oregon, with four hundred and fifty spindles.

9. CHILDREN IN JAPAN.

During more than half a year's residence in Japan, I have never seen a quarrel among young or old. I have never seen a blow struck, scarcely an angry face. I have seen the children at their sports, flying their kites on the hills, and no amount of intertangled strings, or kites lodged in the streets, provoked angry words or impatience. I have seen them intent on their games of jackstones and marbles, under the shaded gateways of the temples, but have seen no approach to a quarrel among them. They are taught implicit obedience to their parents, but I have never seen one of them chastised. Respect and reverence for the aged is universal. A crying child is a rarity seldom heard or seen. We have nothing to teach them in this respect out of our abundant civilization. I speak from what I know of the little folks of Japan, for more than any other foreigner have I been among them. Of all that Japan holds, there is nothing I like half so well as the happy children. I shall always remember their sloe-black eyes, and ruddy, brown faces with pleasure. I have played battledore with the little maidens in the streets and flown kites with as happy a set of boys as one could wish to see. They have been my guides in my rambles, shown me where all the streams and ponds were, where the flowers lay hid in the thicket, where the berries were ripening on the hills; they have brought me shells from the ocean, and blossoms from the field, presenting them with all the modesty and a less bashful grace than a young American would do. We have hunted the fox-holes together, and looked for the green and golden ducks among the hedges. They have laughed at my broken Japanese, and taught me better; and for a happy good-natured set of children, I will turn out my little Japanese friends against the world. God bless the boys and girls of Nippon!—*Letter from Japan.*

VIII. Educational Intelligence.

CANADA.

—HURON COLLEGIATE SCHOOL.—Yesterday, the 17th October, the corner stone of this institution, was formally laid by the Bishop of Huron, in the presence of a number of citizens, and many of the clergy of the Diocese. The plot selected for the erection of the proposed institute, is situated on the north side of St. James Street, and occupies the greater part of the block. For the purposes intended, scarcely a more suitable and healthy locality could have been chosen. The building will be of large dimensions, and of the height of four stories, from the basement, which will be partially underground. It will be built in the shape of the letter D, with two wings of irregular length, and will be a credit to the founder, Archdeacon Hellmuth, as well as an addition to the architectural beauty of the city. London is much indebted to the Archdeacon, for the enterprising and spirited manner in which he has carried out the various designs undertaken by him. Huron College is, of itself, a design which would indelibly hand his name to posterity as a real benefactor, but his acts of munificence have still further extended, until a college chapel, and now a collegiate school, capable of educating from 150 to 200 students, is about to be reared, mainly by his endeavors. In connection with the respected head of the Anglican Diocese, he has done much to advance the cause of true Christianity among us. The proceedings of laying the stone began shortly after twelve o'clock, by singing the following hymn, composed for the occasion by Mr. George H. Squire, a student at present attending at Huron College:

O, Lord of Glory, from thy throne,
Behold us lay this corner stone,
Own Thon our work, and let it be,
A sure foundation laid on thee.

Upon it let a temple stand,
Where science clasps religion's hand,
And humbly casts her jewels down,
To deck her heavenly sister's crown.

A temple where youth's plastic mind,
Be fitly moulded and refined;
Be schooled in wisdom, and be taught
To shape and guide a nation's thought.

O, Thou who'rt Zion's corner stone,
Behold us from thy glorious throne,
Own then our work, and let it be
A sure foundation laid on thee.

A jar was produced, in which were placed two coins, a copy of the *Prototype, Free Press and Advertiser* of the latest dates, also a copy of the *Record* of the 28th of September, the *Echo* of the 18th October, the *Watchman*, and three pamphlets, one the inaugural address of the Right Rev. Bishop Mellvane, of Ohio, on the occasion of the opening of Huron College, on the 2nd December, 1863, the second, a copy of a sermon, "Justification by Faith," delivered in St. Paul's Cathedral, London, on the 24th January, 1864, by the Rev. Archdeacon Hellmuth, and a copy of the proceedings of the Synod of Huron, of the session of 1864, together with the plans of the building. The Bishop, on the conclusion of the hymn, offered up prayer, after which he advanced, and taking hold of the trowel and mallet, the stone was lowered and the foundation formally laid. He then addressed the assembly at some length in regard to the objects of the institute, characterizing the work in which they were engaged as one in which they all ought to be interested. The foundation of a college in which a high character of commercial and classical education could be obtained was a want long felt by many. It would on this account be a great cause of rejoicing to all who had the cause of the youth of the country at heart, that to-day the foundation of an institution had been laid which would in a measure do away with the want hitherto so much a cause of regret in the community. The educational course conducted in the school would be on Christian principles; it would not be a mere secular education, but would combine religious teachings with the arts and sciences. His sincere wish was that God would bless the work, and trusted that the Christian public would unite in aiding the work which has begun with a desire to aid the cause of education among us. Archdeacon Brough could say little more. He believed the erection of the institution a boon to the inhabitants of the district, and should be looked upon with a great deal of satisfaction by the Christian public generally. Notwithstanding the great many advantages possessed by the province, he thought there was a niche which the institution was calculated to fill, and if it would not be so, it would not be the fault of those who institute it. The erection of such an institute was not entered into in a spirit of rivalry, and he hoped, under God, that it would be eminently calculated to benefit the entire Province. The Reverend Archdeacon closed with a fervent supplication to the Almighty for the success of the objects contemplated. The Reverend W. H. Halpin, Professor of Divinity in Huron College, was next called upon. He said, though still almost a stranger to your diocese and the city of London, it is, I assure you, with very great pleasure that I congratulate you on the commencement of this institution, set on foot by Archdeacon Hellmuth, and so auspiciously inaugurated by your Lordship to-day. It is, in one sense, a good sign for a society comparatively young when it finds itself able to turn its attention to education. So long as the forest remains to be cleared and the soil to be brought into subjugation, so long as men must provide for the necessaries of life, they cannot naturally devote attention to the refinements of life—and it is a good sign that this Province has advanced in material wealth and prosperity when men feel the necessity of education and the want of such an institution as this. To Archdeacon Hellmuth I consider the diocese in general, and the city of London in particular, owe a deep debt of gratitude—the city, because he is bringing home to their very doors a first class education for their children, and you, my Lord, and the diocese in general, may be grateful to him for establishing an institution which, I trust, will prove a feeder to our college, and enable us to send forth a body of clergy who in education shall be second to none. Rev. John McLean, being called upon, was sure that every friend of education would feel pleased at the erection of the London Collegiate School. From the guarantee given by the Archdeacon, he was confident that it would meet the object contemplated. From the energy displayed by the Rev. Dr. Hellmuth, in connection with Huron College, he could not forget the energy displayed by the Archdeacon in its aid. His exertions were next directed to the raising of funds for the building of a college chapel, which being completed, he is now laying the community under a new debt of gratitude by the erection of another

building, where an educational course, equal to any on the continent, or even England and Germany, will be taught. Ven. Archdeacon Hellmuth also said: I do not wish to be personal, because I have no personal motives in view in the carrying out of this design. All I wish to do on this occasion is to thank those friends who have so nobly aided me towards the erection of this school; which is to be supplied with first class teachers, and to be second to none for education on this continent. It is to be a thorough classical, commercial and scientific training, based on religious principles. Again thanking your Lordship, and also those friends of other denominations who have so readily aided me in this undertaking, I close my remarks by praying God's blessing to attend our efforts. The proceedings were then closed by singing the doxology, and pronouncing the benediction by the bishop.—*Prototype*.

— VERY REV. PRINCIPAL SNOODGRASS.—Last evening, 26th October, an interesting event took place in the Mechanic's Hall. In the centre at the front of the platform was displayed the very handsome testimonial to be presented to the Rev. gentleman, consisting of a silver tea, coffee, sugar and cream set of elegant pattern bearing the following inscription: "Presented to the Rev. William Snodgrass, by the Congregation of St. Paul's Church, Montreal, October, 1864." Also a large silver salver of oval pattern elegantly chased and engraved bearing a crest consisting of an eagle with wings extended and the motto "I rise", beneath the centre portion bearing the following inscription: "Presented to the Rev. William Snodgrass, by the Congregation of St. Paul's Church, Montreal, on his leaving them to enter upon the duties of his appointment as Principal of Queen's University and College, Kingston, Upper Canada, as a grateful token of their deep sense of his faithful services as their Pastor during eight years. "Montreal October, 1864." On the right of the room a long table was laid out with fruit and cake for the refreshment of the audience. Mr. T. A. Gibson, Principal of the High School, having taken the chair, made a few introductory remarks to the effect that since the Congregation of St. Paul's had been organized in 1834, they had had three pastors, the Rev. Dr. Black and the Rev. Dr. McGill being removed by death and in regard to the third, the Very Rev. Principal Snodgrass, they were met that evening to testify their appreciation of his services and to bid him farewell on his departure to a more extended field of labour. In conclusion he trusted the great head of the Church would answer the united prayers of the Congregation in his own good time and send them a worthy successor. The Chairman then requested the audience to join the choir in singing the 100th psalm. The singing being concluded, the chairman proceeded to read the address on behalf of the office-bearers, members and adherents of St. Paul's Church, to the Very Rev. Principal Snodgrass, who occupied a seat on his right. The address stated that the Board of Trustees of Queen's College composed of 27 members, representing nearly equally the laity and clergy of the Presbyterian church in Canada, had by their selection of the Rev. gentleman to the Principalship and Primarius Professorship of Divinity, given proof of their full appreciation of his high qualification for those important offices. After stating the appointment was enhanced by the distinguished rank as a writer on science and theology, of the Very Rev. Principal's predecessor, the address offered some suggestions relative to the new sphere to which the Rev. gentleman was called with regard to the training of the students. It then referred more immediately to the testimonial, expressing a hope that the Rev. gentleman and his family and friends might long be spared to partake from the vessels composing the testimonial, of the "drinks that enliven but do not inebriate," and that when he had gone to his reward they might serve as an incitement to his representatives to tread in his footsteps. The Very Rev. Principal Snodgrass then rose to reply, stating he was extremely obliged to the Chairman for the remarks addressed to him on this occasion, and that he would not soon forget them or the spirit in which they were addressed. He would, above all, make it his constant endeavour to recommend to those preparing for the holy ministry an experimental and practical knowledge of Him who was the sum and substance of the sacred writings, whom to know was life eternal. The Rev. gentleman then went on to say that he thought it best to candidly confess he was overcome, and could not find words to express his emotions; but that in accepting the affectionate testimonial presented to him he had no cause to feel ashamed that he had no fitting response to make. He received it with a mingled feeling of gratitude and undeservedness, and observed that while in the family circle it would recall many pleasant recollections of the past, it would yet contain an ingredient of bitterness at the thought of the feebleness with which his duties as a pastor had been fulfilled. The Reverend gentleman then addressed himself, at considerable

length, more generally to those present relative to his connection with St. Paul's church during the last 8 years and the new sphere to which he was called. At the conclusion of the Rev. gentleman's reply an anthem was sung, after which the Hon. John Rose made an interesting speech highly laudatory of the Very Rev. Principal, and was followed by the Rev. Mr. Black and the Rev. Dr. Wilkes. At this point of the proceedings an interval occurred during which the audience partook of refreshments. Other addresses were afterwards delivered by the Rev. Dr. Muir of Georgetown, Alex. Morris, Esq., M. P. P., Dr. Taylor and Dr. Bancroft. The Chairman then made a few concluding remarks, and the Doxology being sung by the choir, the proceedings closed with a benediction.—*Montreal Gazette*

— QUEEN'S UNIVERSITY, KINGSTON.—A meeting of the Trustees of Queen's University was held according to adjournment, in the Senate Chamber of Queen's College, on the 31st of August last. Letters were read from the Rev. William Snodgrass, and the Rev. John H. Mackerras, accepting their appointments to the offices of Principal and Interim Professor of Classical Literature respectively. Mr. Snodgrass being present, subscribed the declaration required of Trustees, and took his seat as a member of the Board, agreeably to the provisions of the Royal Charter.

— UNIVERSITY OF VICTORIA COLLEGE.—At the examination of students at the University of Victoria College, on the 14th ult., the degree of M.D. was conferred upon the following gentlemen:—Messrs. J. B. Johnston, Brampton; E. H. Merrick, Merrickville; R. W. Stone, Bond Head; J. E. Tamlyn, Port Hope; J. Benham, Guelph; J. D. Walker, Simeoe.—*Leader*.

— MARKHAM GRAMMAR SCHOOL PRESENTATION.—Dr. Crowle being about to leave Markham, where he has ably filled the office of Master of the Grammar School, several influential friends attended a meeting to express their regret at parting with him and his excellent wife. In addition, another meeting was held on the 15th ultimo, and a handsome silver tea service presented to him by his pupils, previous to his departure to Peterborough. Hon. David Reesor presided. Mr. John Milne, formerly a student of the Grammar School, on behalf of the pupils, read a very complimentary address to Dr. Crowle, expressive of the respect and esteem they entertained for him, their appreciation of his abilities as a teacher, and the regret they felt at his departure. The tea service bore the following inscription: "Presented to Dr. Crowle, M.A., L.R.C.P., Principal of the Markham Grammar School, by the pupils, as a sincere expression of their affection and esteem. September, 1864."—*Globe*.

— PARIS GRAMMAR SCHOOL PRESENTATION.—A week or two ago, some of those who were formerly Mr. Acres' pupils in our Grammar School, suggested that his pupils should present him with a photographic album, as a token of their gratitude and personal respect. The proposition was acted upon at once; and, necessary arrangements having been made, quite a number of them assembled at the Central School yesterday (Tuesday) afternoon, after school had been dismissed. Though Mr. Acres himself was totally ignorant of what was about to take place, his fellow-teachers in the Central, aware of the movement, remained to see the honour, well earned, conferred on their chief. Mr. Anderson having been called to the chair, after a few preliminary remarks called upon the gentleman and lady, who had been designated for that purpose, to read the address and present the album; upon which H. E. Buchan, Esq., B.A., and Mrs. Nichols advanced and performed the duty assigned them. Mr. Acres, who was much affected by the kindness of his pupils, made a very suitable reply. We may remark that the album is intended for 200 photographs, and is very handsomely bound. The whole affair does honour both to the donors and to our respected principal, Mr. Acres.

BRITISH AND FOREIGN.

— RAGGED SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND.—During the last seven years Mr. H. E. Gurney has invited the whole of the teachers of the ragged schools in London to spend a day with him at his seat at Nutfield. About 2,208 of the teachers from 165 schools have partaken of that gentleman's hospitality. On Saturday last about 400 of the teachers assembled at the London bridge station, where a special train had been provided by Mr. Gurney, the party starting at a quarter to eleven o'clock, and reaching Nutfield about twelve. Here, as usual, they received a cordial welcome from their host, who informed them that the house and grounds were their own during the day, expressing at the same time his high sense of the important services which by their voluntary efforts they had rendered to the

neglected and outcast children of the wretched localities whose cause they had espoused. After dinner the Rev. J. Cohen, the Rector of Whitechapel, Mr. F. Cuthberston, and Mr. H. R. Williams addressed the teachers. Mr. Williams traced the progress of ragged schools in London, which in the course of twenty years had increased from 20 schools with 200 teachers and 2,000 children, to 175 schools with more than 2,800 teachers and 28,000 children.—*London Paper.*

— THE ROMAN CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY IN IRELAND.—The new Roman Catholic University of Ireland is intended to be erected on the lands of Conliffe, near Dublin, from the designs of Mr. J. J. McCarthy, R.H.A., architect, and professor of architecture in the university. The buildings will consist of two large quadrangles, the greater of which, called the university quadrangle, will contain, on the ground floor, the principal entrance, the *aula maxima* for the public exhibitions, examinations, conferring of degrees, &c.; the lecture theatres, and schools of the various faculties. The upper floor will contain the libraries, manuscript room, the museums of natural history, and comparative anatomy, mineralogy, and antiquities, with residences for the rector, vice-rector, deans, and directors of the institution, and board and council rooms. A church will hereafter be erected, connected by a cloister with the university quadrangle. The smaller, or college quadrangle, will consist entirely of houses, calculated to accommodate three hundred resident students. The contractor is Mr. William Connolly.

— FRANCE.—The Minister of Public Instruction in France, in order to encourage young people to continue their studies after leaving school, proposes to found a prize in every canton for the child of 15 or the youth of 18 who, while employed in manual or agricultural labour, shall have best retained or improved the instruction he received at school. The prize is to consist of a deposit in the savings' bank. The expense is to be defrayed by the Minister of Public Instruction or by the department, if sufficient funds are not provided by private contributions.

IX. Departmental Notices.

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

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

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

NOTE.—Before the trustees can be supplied, it will be necessary for them to have filled up, signed and sealed WITH A PROPER CORPORATE SEAL, as directed, a copy of the approved Form of Application. On its receipt at the Education Office, the *one hundred per cent.* will be added to the remittance, and the order, so far as the stock in the Depository will permit made up and despatched. Should the Trustees have no proper corporate seal, the Department will, on the receipt of \$2 additional, have one engraved and sent with the articles ordered.

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

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

ASSORTED PRIZE BOOKS IN PACKAGES,

Selected by the Department, for Grammar or Common Schools, from the Catalogue, in assorted packages, as follows:

Package No. 1.	Books and Cards,	5cts. to 70cts each.....	\$10
No. 2.	Ditto ditto	5cts. to \$1-00 each.....	\$16
No. 3.	Ditto ditto	5cts. to \$1-25 each.....	\$20
No. 4.	Ditto ditto	10cts. to \$1-50 each.....	\$26
No. 5.	Ditto ditto	10cts. to \$1-75 each.....	\$30
No. 6.	Ditto ditto	10cts. to \$2-00 each.....	\$36
No. 7.	Ditto ditto	15cts. to \$2-25 each.....	\$40
No. 8.	Ditto ditto	15cts. to \$2-50 each.....	\$46
No. 9.	Ditto ditto	15cts. to \$2-75 each.....	\$50
No. 10.	Ditto ditto	20cts. to \$3-00 each.....	\$56
No. 11.	Ditto ditto	20cts. to \$3-25 each.....	\$60
No. 12.	Ditto ditto	20cts. to \$3-50 each.....	\$66
No. 13.	Ditto ditto	25cts. to \$3-75 each.....	\$70
No. 14.	Ditto ditto	55cts. to \$4-00 each.....	\$76
No. 15.	Ditto ditto	25cts. to \$4-25 each.....	\$80
No. 16.	Ditto ditto	30cts. to \$4-50 each.....	\$86
No. 17.	Ditto ditto	30cts. to \$4-75 each.....	\$90
No. 18.	Ditto ditto	30cts. to \$5-00 each.....	\$96
No. 19.	Ditto ditto	35cts. to \$5-25 each.....	\$100
No. 20.	Ditto ditto	35cts. to \$5-50 each.....	\$120

☞ *Special Prizes*, in handsomely bound books, singly at from \$1.05 to \$5.50. In sets of from two to six volumes of Standard Literature, at from \$3.00 to \$10.00 per set. Also Microscopes, Drawing Instruments, Drawing Books, Classical Texts, Atlases, Dictionaries, Small Magic Lanterns, Magnets, Compasses, Cubes, Cones, Blocks, &c. &c.

* * * Trustees are requested to send in their orders for prizes at as early a date as possible, so as to ensure the due despatch of their parcels in time for the examinations, and thus prevent disappointment.

LARGE MAP OF BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.

New Map of British North America, including Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Newfoundland, Vancouver Island, British Columbia, Red River, Swan River, Saskatchewan; a Map of Steamship Routes between Europe and America, &c. &c. 7ft. 9in. by 3ft. 9in. Constructed and just published under the supervision of the Educational Department for Upper Canada. Price \$6.

CANADIAN SCHOOL MAPS AND APPARATUS.

Sets of the two new series of maps of Canadian manufacture are now ready, and can be had, by school authorities, at the Educational Depository, Toronto, either singly, in wall cases, or on rotary stands, embracing Maps of the World; Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, of two sizes; the British Isles, Canaan and Palestine, and British North America.

Terrestrial and Celestial Globes, of Canadian manufacture, of the following sizes: *three* (hemisphere), *six*, *twelve*, and *eighteen* inches in diameter, and on various kinds of frames.

The Canadian School Apparatus embrace, among other things, Planetariums, Telluriums, Lunarians, Celestial Spheres, Numeral Frames, Geometrical Forms and Solids, &c. Also, a great variety of Object Lessons, Diagrams, Charts, and Sheets. Magic Lanterns, with suitable slides, from \$2.40 to \$1.20 with objects, Telescopes, Barometers, Chemical Laboratories, beautiful Geological Cabinets, and various other Philosophical Apparatus in great variety. Catalogues, and printed Forms of Application, may be had at the Depository.

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

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