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THE
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FOR THE PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

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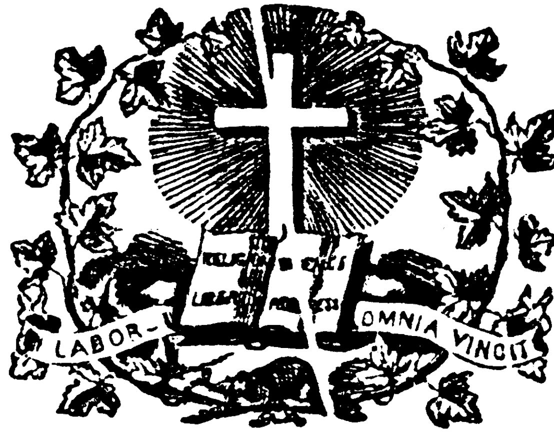

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Can Book-Keeping Be Practically Taught in Schools? (1)

The most prominent feature at present in the educational world—the great characteristic which shall distinguish this era of instruction from all others—which shall mark the close of the nineteenth century as a landmark in the map of educational progress—is the grand demand which has arisen, and is still arising with irresistible impulse that education should be pre-eminently practical. At no period of educational life has there been such rapid progress, such a complete laying aside of old plans, such an entire forsaking of the old beaten tracks in which former instructors have been content to walk, such a development of new plans and ideas, often sudden and spasmodic like the burst of an Arctic summer. But amid all these transcendent discoveries, amid a chaos of new-spun theories, amid all the din and clanking of boards and institutions, one cry makes itself distinctly and painfully audible ; and that one cry, in imperative tones, calls for Practical Education. We are nationally begining to recognize that education, the great panacea of all our mortal woes, has an end, an aim, an object ; that it is to be a part and parcel of the entire life of man ; that, instead of its former—ay, present—desultory character, it shall be destined to tell on a man's immediate future. How these truths have at length shot up with vivid conviction across the human mind,—why obscured from mortal gaze for so many revolving years,—I think that these and similar questions admit of a variety of reasons. Very likely it is that education, as propounded in Parliament, has turned out a terribly costly affair ; and that it threatens to develope into a still more costly process ; so, to satisfy the British ratepayer with a *quid pro quo* for his money, it was suddenly discovered that education has an immediate mundane advantage—*i. e.*, that of placing a youth in a position to begin the future career of his life on better terms. And when we educators thus suddenly find ourselves violently taken off our feet, and hurried irresistibly along by the rush of a grand onward movement, it becomes us at once to respond willingly to the outward and upward pressure, or else we shall be left only a stranded wreck. For, mind, than practical education no finer fruit has ever blossomed on the tree of education ; no more practical phase in humanity has ever been recognized than that, in the early period of a man's life, he should be fitted as completely as possible for entering advantageously on his future career. That this is so, we educators must, and do admit, or else we form very erroneous opinions of the peculiar object of our calling. But we may rest assured that practical education will ultimately have to fall, for material success and progress, on the schoolmaster. Already he is feeling his way gradually to its adoption ; preliminary obstacles are being rapidly swept away ; and if we can only discuss the way in which one of us can forward more than hitherto so desirable an object, we shall be wanting neither to the profession nor to ourselves, but shall come forward

(1) A paper read by J. Bell, Esq, before the College of Preceptors, England.

boldly, and grapple manfully and successfully with the difficulty. Have we at hand any materials capable of being wielded for this purpose? Is it of such a novel nature that no part of old school teaching answers the demand? Has it burst upon us quite unprepared, or have we not something to show of our teaching having a direct bearing on the future career of those under our charge? The great and apparently insuperable difficulty in the way of practical results seems to lie in the total inapplicability of our present systems and subjects of teaching to adapt themselves to the immediate requirements of those who have to be educated in view of an expected career. And yet this question of practical results has never been fully mooted as regards upper and middle schools. It has been considered as the peculiar property and privilege of lower class schools. But if practical or technical education be good for the poor, certainly, by parity of reason, it is equally good for those above them. If it is advisable to initiate the future employee into the practical details of his trade, it is much more important for the future employer to be so also. Now the generality of pupils under our immediate charge, in middle-class schools, are capable of receiving this very kind of instruction in a way and to a degree which the propounders of it never surmised,—*i. e.*, we middle-class educators can anticipate several years of their life, and can smooth all difficulties by placing before them, in almost its actual shape, their future employment, and enable the pupil to step with boldness and confidence from the school to his future post in life. Here we find Book-keeping stepping in for the middle-class school-master as offering a most tangible reply to this demand for practical results. Here in our very schools we either have, or might have, a subject in its very nature pre-eminently practical. Why should it not claim for itself all the numerous advantages and privileges claimed for technical teaching? It is the very essence of such teaching.

It can, I may safely say, be asserted with perfect truth, that the bulk of middle-class scholars are placed, on leaving school, in positions where the knowledge acquired in the generality of schools is of little or no avail; and that the pupil finds himself very often not only encumbered by a certain knowledge perfectly useless to him in his new career, but, as a necessary consequence, he discovers that he is also destitute of knowledge really indispensable to him. He is also conscious to himself that this knowledge might have been acquired with far less difficulty and drudgery than were employed in uselessly loading him with unecessary accomplishments. He is in the position of David in Saul's armour: he has never tried it; it encumbers him; he thrusts it aside with the utmost celerity; and, with a sigh of regret at hours wasted in its acquisition, he abandons himself to his inborn wit and to experience, the latter often to be very bitterly bought. Hence who can deny the imperative necessity which exists that we should, in the education of the middle classes, assimilate, to the furthest pitch possible, the school to the arena on which the pupil is to carry on the now terribly close struggle for existence. If a poor man's child shall not leave school until technically educated by the rich man's money for the carpenter's bench or the workman's lathe, why should the rich man's child quit the school until he also knows how to deal with the materials on which he is to spend his life?—in fact, why should he not have a perfect mastery of the art of keeping books, accounts, and all commercial transactions, usually embodied in the term "Book-keeping"?

Thus far have I endeavoured, and I hope successfully, to show the general necessity which exists that this subject should be taught to youths in schools: and also that at the present time, in answer to the rational and wide-spread inquiry for practical results from education, there exists an additional weighty reason for the extension of a subject which has already pre-occupied the ground now claimed as virgin soil by the claimants for *Practical* Education. I shall, before proceeding to the exposition of the method of teaching this subject, take up *seriatim* various minor reasons which render it advisable, if not imperative, that Book-keeping should form an important part of the curriculum of education. And I think one very important consideration is that, in spite of the innumerable objections and the numerous objectors, it has ever been found impossible for many schools to exist without it. There will always crop up that irrepressible boy whose parents require that he should be taught Book-keeping. The fact cannot be ignored. There he is in the country school, as well as in the town school; sometimes a tradesman's son, sometimes a farmer's son, often a professional man's son. It is from no single class of society that this incovenient demand comes; all parents recognise in Book-keeping a subject greatly tending to improve their son's status in the world. Hence the principal must give way, and the difficulty be met. Granted that, in many cases, this youth acts as a regular damper in a school; that he is totally isolated from all surroundings; that he is shunned equally by principal and assistants; that furnished with an interminable set of books, he is placed apart, like an educational leper, to copy—copy—copy, floundering away without a single word of guidance or instruction; for who can advise him? Granted that, at his departure, hastened by the consciousness of not being efficiently taught, all feel as if an incubus had been removed from the place—all breathe more freely;—yet, in face of all this, and more so on account of all this, do I assert that that youth should have been taught what he required; that whoever requires this kind of education for his son only demands a fair return for his money; and that the master who shirks this requirement fails as an educator.

To continue: the bulk of pupils on leaving our schools may be divided into two main classes; the first, consisting of those who will at once enter the counting-house as junior clerks, and the second, of those who will have to turn their attention to the learned professions, &c. To which of these two classes is the acquisition of Book-keeping at school not only a desideratum but also a positive need? Take the first class—and their name is legion—who are about to enter as clerks. These again may be most conveniently subdivided into two main divisions; the first including those who enter the mammoth business-houses of our large cities; and the latter those entering houses of a minor character. In the large houses the subdivision of labour in accounts is carried out to an infinitesimal scale, and each clerk for years may be occupied in the same routine over one book, or even one portion of a book. When is a youth in such a firm to acquire a knowledge of Book-keeping as a whole? When is he to acquire a full idea of that system in which he will for years move only in a limited groove? When will he be able to take enlarged views of his work, and feel a relief to the monotony of his daily existence by the knowlege that he is filling a part--a subordinate part it may be—but still absolutely necessary to the completion of the whole? This comprehensive view he will be able to take only from school instruction. Many clerks are to be found, of long standing in such large firms, who have but little knowledge of the principles of Book-keeping except so far as their own limited routine requires. Again, how needful it often is for a junior to be able to take up at once a senior's work; and how often it happens that such a change is either a failure, or effected at great inconvenience, owing to the perfect ignorance which the younger has of the elder's work, an ignorance to be entirely ascribed to the lack of instruction in this subject during school life.

And if such knowledge is requisite to a youth entering a large establishment, it is of no less importance to him when entering a minor house. There almost from the moment of entrance he is presumed to be able to attend to various

kinds of books; there the staff is limited; all kinds of knotty points are presented to him when quite a novice; and how completely dumbfounded the present entering clerk often finds himself, is perhaps one strong reason why the majority fail to obtain that one start in life which is the sure forerunner of success. If a youth can be by a school experience enabled to surmount these preliminary difficulties, it will be to him a great boon; so far his education has been practical, and all education with a practical tendency deserves our warmest support. Thus then have I dealt with that preponderating class of boys who leave school to enter the counting-house, and have shown how advantageous it is for them to be equipped at school ready for at once entering into actual life; and how important the study of Book-keeping is for this purpose. I now proceed to prove the still greater necessity of this study for those who take up various other pursuits, such as professions, trades, &c That all professional men and tradesmen should keep their accounts in some systematic and recognized form, is a point conceded by all. If any one should be found to controvert it, let him only enter our Bankruptcy Courts, to see how disadvantageous to any one who has the misfortune to figure there, is a failure in being able to produce satisfactory books; or let him be a party to a negotiation for the transfer of some business or practice, and then he will readily admit the decided superiority of books kept practically and in order. Now, at what period of life can the knowledge be imparted in the case of these persons, presuming that, whilst at school, it was thought incompatible with the high character of the teaching of the school, or with the erudition of the masters, and was deemed unworthy to alternate even with the attempt, generally abortive, of the acquisition of Greek particles and Latin verses. I repeat that no period of life is so pre-eminently suitable to acquire this practice as during school attendance.

The further necessity of teaching Book keeping is shown by the fact that the question of its acceptance or rejection has already been taken out of the power of the schoolmaster by the various examining boards in the kingdom; so that pupils presenting themselves for an examination require some knowledge, and often a very extensive knowledge. of this subject. First in national importance stand the Examinations for the Home Civil Service, now almost all open and competitive, and therefore attracting a much larger number of candidates. Here we have this subject recognized as of very high importance; a high number of marks is assigned to it, and it is regarded as furnishing, by its very nature, the best possible criterion to test the efficiency of the candidates in future office work. The Papers set at these examinations are to be highly valued: they are replete with sound common sense; they discard all absurd questions; they evince a thorough knowledge of what can be attained by good teaching in this subject; and for a guide in examination-work there can be nothing better than the Papers of these examinations. Following them, we find that the Incorporated Law Society requires all candidates for the Intermediate Examination to satisfy the examiner in Book-keeping. Again the University of Cambridge, in its Local Examination, has laid it down as a subject of study both for boys and girls; and the Council of the College of Preceptors has long adopted it, and proclaimed openly its approval of it in its examination of pupils. We may safely conclude that these powerful and efficient examining bodies would never have grafted into their schemes of education a subject respecting the advisability of teaching which there could ever exist the shadow of a doubt.

Again, I think that a large proportion of the scholastic profession would be acting more honourably in regard to this subject if they adopted one of two alternatives. We all know well that in many establishments Book-keeping is made a most prominent feature of the prospectus, almost rivalling that uniform maternal care, those home comforts, and those invariable three acres of good playground, so universally figuring in these documents. I presume that it is recognized as a study, the advantages of which, so patent to the world, are likely to enhance the value of these establishments in the eyes of parents. But while we know this to be the case on the one hand, we are also fully conscious, on the other, that in this respect very few act up to their profession, and that it is only in a minimum of such professing schools that the subject is taught, except casually, erratically, and entirely on sufferance. This should not be. Common honesty requires that it be excluded altogether from the circular, or that it be taught, by efficient teachers in an efficacious manner. One powerful incentive there certainly is to its introduction, and one to the importance of which we teachers are most keenly sensitive; it is that no subject exerts so powerful an influence to prevail over boys to prolong their stay at school. Whatever can produce this result must be hailed by all as a decided desideratum. That the successful prosecution of the subject of Book-keeping answers this purpose, admits of no doubt. For how could a youth be employed more advantageously at that time of life, when, although his education is no doubt very limited, yet his parents begin to desire, and he himself also desires, to see an opening into the active business of life. How much more advantageous for him, in a parent's eye, to be initiated into the business rules, forms, and formulæ which, without a shadow of a doubt, he will immediately require, than to be mastering some abstruse point in classical education, which he as certainly will never need.

We have now arrived at that stage of the enquiry where we have fully proved the great desirability and necessity which exist, that Book-keeping shall become a recognized department of education. We have shown that it is both the business and duty of the educator to supply, in a thorough and efficient manner, instruction in this science; and we have also seen the great and special reason now existing why it should take its stand as one of the most important branches of study, and not be suffered any longer to linger on in a kind of living death. We now take a step further in advance, and proceed to consider why the study of Book-keeping has not made greater progress than it has, and why in most schools it continues still to occupy such peculiarly unenviable ground. In the course of this enquiry we shall meet many of the objections frequently alleged against the prosecution of this study, and answer them as pointedly and succinctly as possible, hurrying, however, over this part to come to practical details. I am somewhat afraid that a great part of the objections so fiercely levelled against Book-keeping are to be traced to the inability of the masters to impart the information. That this is so, admits of but little doubt; that it should be so, reflects but little credit on the scholastic profession, into which teachers are drafted indiscriminately and unceremoniously. These, taking upon themselves the task of teaching that of which they themselves know not even the rudiments, bring into discredit the subjects so terribly maltreated. I think if teachers only knew how interesting this subject could be made, how capable of arresting the attention of boys, and how thoroughly conducive it is to the cultivation of habits of thought and judgment, they would shake off their lethargy on this subject, and proceed without delay to make themselves, first and foremost, masters of the subject. Then would they, and not till then, be able to give it a fair trial in the school-room. Then they could and would discover how peculiarly apt a subject it is for practical tuition. They would no longer confine their instruction in it to one or two isolated youths; but they would make it a regular class lesson. All would have to learn it, as being a subject which would be required by all; and masters would soon reap a plentiful harvest fort the little exertion they had exercised in mastering the subject.

Another objection, considered as finally fatal to its introduction—the one most relied upon by its opponents, the one by which the very name of the subject is generally banned—is that most ridiculous assertion that there are many different ways of keeping books in precisely the same manner. This argument, absurd and shallow as it is, is relied upon as the final argument, against which even the most energetic supporters of the subject cannot make headway. And yet, when we consider, we shall soon discover on how weak and fallacious foundations it rests. For consider against what possible or probable study cannot a similar objection be brought. Take arithmetic, for instance a subject respecting the urgency of teaching which all, I presume, are equally agreed. How incomprehensibly unlike school arithmetic is that actualy required in business or in a profession! Whoever can be found who carries on his work by means of a Rule of Three sum, with its formal and prim statement, its ponderous reductions, and its logical principles; or what bank clerk falls back, in actual fact, on the formulæ acquired at school for working questions of interest, &c. And yet I think none would object to our teaching arithmetic simply because it is carried on in different ways by different houses; so also I think that neither can this objection lie against its near subject,—*i. e.*, Book-keeping. In both cases the main principles are the same; the application will certainly vary slightly. These main principles are what must be taught to youths at school, and all the chief varieties of practice. Any diversity which may arise in various houses can never be variations from or transgressions against this practice, nor antagonistic to those principles. I take, for instance, two merchants dealing in ports, sherries, and brandies. One may include all these under one general head "Goods" in the Ledger, the other may keep separate accounts for these items. Here we have a difference of method; but where is the youth who, if properly taught Book-keeping at school, would not be able to take up either method, and perhaps to show one or the other principal how to improve his system, and make the accounts of his affairs more efficient, and so prove himself a thoroughly efficient servant.

The true and formidable objection against the study is that, as generally treated, it is emphatically desultory, seeming to require as many teachers as there are boys, each pupil working either from different books or from different parts of the same book, and no two pupils being on the same footing with regard to the stage either of work or of knowledge. And if this objection could be attached inseparably to the subject itself,—if it could be shown that these evils are essentially concomitants of its working,—the question would be a much more debateable one, and those who clamour loudly for its expulsion would have a thorough justification for their opposition. But so far is it from being a system which is antagonistic to the unity of school-work, that I know no lesson which can be taught with greater regularity and uniformity. If through indifference or want of method, masters will allow pupils on taking up this subject each to do what is right in his own eyes, then the blame must be attached entirely to themselves.

One great canse of the present unsatisfactory status of the study is discoverable in the nature of the manuals till quite recently supplied. They consisted as a rule only of one single set of examples of an interminable length and complicated nature; quite impossible to be grasped in their entirety by mature minds totally bewildering to a youth who, at the beginning, never got a glimpse even of the middle, much less of the end; and who in the middle saw neither beginning nor end, and who, should he never have been lucky enough to reach the end, forgot that there ever was such a thing as a beginning. This system has much to answer for, as obstructing the prosecution of the study of Book-keeping. It was too cumbersome and unwieldy, totally unbefitting the working of a youth's mind, and either generally presenting a monotonous tameness and repetition of transactions, or forging, for the sake of variety, abnormally crude and outlandish transactions, which could scarcely occur in any house of business, such as receiving left legacies, or the very fictitious case of an adjudged bankrupt of an old date unexpectedly paying up the balance of his accounts. At present, excellent manuals containing the transactions of a few days or of a month are published, and it is by their means that the subject can be most effectually taught.

Another great drawback to understanding properly the mode of teaching this subject is due to the fact that Book-keeping has been hitherto considered as a mere copying exercise. Certain books have been given to the pupils merely to be filled *seriatim* from a printed book. No opportunity has been presented for the exercise of judgment in the matter—for the pupil to determine in what books such and such transactions are to be entered; nay, he generally has been totally ignorant of the nature of the work he is performing. To examine always the different bearings any transaction has to each of the two parties—how it affects in a totally different manner these two parties; to weigh carefully the meaning of debit and credit, words so full of meaning; to trace from its earliest introduction some transaction through the various books: all these points have been long totally ignored, and the subject has been allowed to degenerate into mere mechanical copying. Some again consider Book-keeping as another form of commercial arithmetic. This a decided mistake. The correctness of all the transactions must be assumed as arithmetically true, and it is no part of the Book-keeping lesson to perform the drudgery of calculation. All these and similar misconceptions have arisen from a want of proper knowledge of the province of Book-keeping, either by confining it within too narrow bounds, or else by extending it to embrace subjects that are altogether extraneous to its true province.—(*The Educational Times.*)

(*To be Concluded in our next.*)

A Series of Lessons on the Geography of Canada.

I.

POSITION, BOUNDARIES, EXTENT, &C.

(By E. T. D. CHAMBERS, Chambly, P. Q.)

After calling those children together to whom I intended to teach Geography, I would tell them that they were now to learn something about the country in which we live, and would ask them to name it. Some of them would answer correctly, others, especially among the younger ones who do not know the difference between a country and a town, would probably give Chambly (1) as their country. I would convince such of their error, by putting the following questions to the class.—"Have any of you friends in the United States?" "Yes Sir, my brother is there": and from another child "I have an uncle there."—"Very well, and in what part of the States, Mary, is your brother?" "He is in Boston, Sir."—"And your uncle where is he, John?" "In Detroit, Sir."—"Now (to the class) are these two people living in different *countries*?" If any reply in the affirmative, I continue.—"But we heard John and Mary say that both their friends were in the States, and all the

(1). Of course in different places, different names and situations must be used to illustrate the lesson. I have taken such answers as are generally given by children in order to make this as near as possible a picture of a practical lesson instead of mere notes.

United States form but one country, so that though one person may be in Boston and another in Detroit, they are still in the same country but only in different—?" The ellipsis will now be supplied by some child who has heard Boston and Detroit spoken of as *towns*. "Now, (to one of the boys) if you wished to go and see your brother William who is in Montreal, need you go into another country?" "No, Sir, only into another town."—"And if he came to see you would it be the same?" "Yes, Sir."—"Then Chambly is not a country but a—?" "Town, Sir."—"But what is the name of this country in which both Chambly and Montreal and Quebec and many other towns are?" "Canada."—"Yes, Canada is the name of the country in which we live, but there are many other countries besides Canada; can you tell me the name of any other country?" If no one answers I proceed—"What is the name of the country you used to live in before you came here, Sarah?" (this is a little girl who has recently come out from England) "Salford, Sir."—"No, Salford is the *town* you lived in, not the *country*, the name of the country is—?" "England"—"And what other country did we mention a few minutes ago, where John's uncle lives?" "The United States." (Frequent exercises of this kind are needful to fix on the minds of the children any important fact they have just learned.) "Well (to the class) as there is a great number of different countries in the world, the first thing to learn about each, is in what part of the world it is. Now Canada forms part of America or the New World." (Tell of its discovery by Columbus). "This part coloured red here (pointing out Canada on the map of America) is where we live; what part of America would you then say it is in?" (All the children together). "In the Northern part." (They are supposed to know the four cardinal points, and the use of a map before this.)

"Now, look at the map and tell me if Canada reaches to the very north of America." No, Sir." "Do any of you know the name of this country which lies just to the north of Canada? Well I will tell you but you must be sure to remember it, for it is always important to know what places lie next to any country. It is called the Hudon's Bay Territory, and therefore, we say that Canada is *bounded* on the North by that country, (Tell them of the origin of its name, and give them a short account of the Hudson's Bay Company in an interesting manner). I would now, on the black-board, draw the northern boundary line of Canada, saying to the children,—"I have made this crooked line to represent the place where the Hudson's Bay Territory ends towards the south and Canada begins. We call such a line the—?" "Boundary line." "Now which side of this line, is Canada?" (By a little boy). "The bottom side." "Yes, Canada lies on the lower or southern side of this boundary line, and to the North of it, is the—?" "Hudson's Bay Territory." (To the class) "I will now make the other boundary lines of Canada, just as if I was drawing a picture of the shape of Mr. Smith's field over here." (He finishes his outline map on the board.) "We will now suppose Canada to be enclosed by these lines I have drawn." (The children should now be directed to take their slates and copy, as near as they are able, the outline map on the board, making additions to it as they proceed. This will amuse and interest them in the lesson, and at the same time help to fix on their minds the general shape of the country.) (To the children.) "Over the top line viz., to the North of Canada write *Hudson's Bay Territory*, so that you may remember the name of the country which forms the northern boundary of Canada. On this side (pointing to the east) is no land at all, but a large body of water; it is called a gulf, but is as large as a sea. The largest river in Canada flows into it and gives it its name. Can any one tell me the name of that large river and gulf? The river is the same one that some of you may have seen at Montreal with that very large bridge over it, by the bye, the longest one in the world."(Most likely some of the children have heard its name before, and will be encouraged by this interesting sort of conversation to think of it, but if they cannot answer it must of course be given to them.) "Well then as the Gulf of St. Lawrence occupies great part of this space out here (pointing beyond the eastern boundary of Canada). I will write its name where we suppose it to be in this picture on the board, and you may all do the same on your slates."

"We have now learned how Canada is bounded on the north and east, but must try to find out what borders on the south of it also. Let me see you point to the south." (Any of them that may make mistakes must be at once put right, by being shown that the south is where the sun is at 12 o'clock in the day.) "But the direction you are pointing in is the same as yonder macadamized road (1) takes, and the canal (2) too. Do they both lead towards the south then?" "Yes, Sir." "And with what country do they communicate?" In case no one knows the teacher proceeds. "Where does all that timber go which passes through the canal towards the south, Robert?" Robert (whose father works on the canal) replies. "To Lake Champlain, Sir." "And where is Lake Champlain, is it in Canada?" "No, Sir, in the States." "Then if the canal leads to the south, and timber sent through it from Canada arrives in the States, what country must be to the south of Canada?" After a little hesitation, some thoughtful child will doubtless give the correct answer. The teacher would now say. "Then the United States form part of the southern boundary of Canada, but mind I only say a *part* of it, for when we come to that part called Upper Canada, we shall find that two large lakes lie between it and the United States. One of them has recently given its name to the whole province, so that district is now called the Province of—?" "Ontario," "Yes, you are right, and Ontario is one of the great lakes which bounds Canada on the south. The other is Erie, also a very large lake" (Tell of the Falls of Niagara the largest in the world.) "You may now mark on your slates the names of the places which bound Canada on the south, as I have done the board."

"We have next to learn what places border on the western side of Canada. The northern half of its western boundary is formed by the same country that bounds it on the north; what country is that, John?" "The Hudson's Bay Co's Territory." "This remaining part of Canada (pointing to the south-west), is bounded by two very large lakes,—the first two formed by the St. Lawrence: can any one tell me their names?" If the children do not know, they must of course be told, and the names of these boundaries must be written on the black-board, for them to copy off on their slates.

"Now, (to the class) look on the map all of you. Do you see this line here? (pointing to the boundary line between the two provinces): well this line divides Canada into two parts. This part (point to the eastern side), is where we live, it is called the Province of—?" "*Quebec, Sir.*" "And this other part is called—?" "Upper Canada." "Yes it was formerly known by that name, but is now called after a large lake, which I told you forms part of its southern boundary. What is its name?" "*Ontario, Sir.*"

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(1). This road passes from Longueuil through Chambly to some place near Lake Champlain.

(2). The Chambly and St. Johns canal, which is used to avoid the rapids of the Richelieu between these two towns. Of course it does not reach into the States as might perhaps have been inferred from the succeeding questions in this lesson; this supposition of the children is simply allowed for the present to explain more easily the direction of Canada from the United States; all cargoes for this latter country being conveyed from St. Johns into Lake Champlain via the River Richelieu.

"You are right and Upper Canada is now called the Province of Ontario. Draw this boundary line all of you on your slates and write on each side of it the name of the Province."

"Look at the map again, and tell me which is the largest, Quebec or Ontario?" "*Quebec, Sir.*" "Now would you like to know the size of these two provinces?" "Oh! yes, Sir." (quite eagerly). "Well rule some lines across your maps as I direct you; first one from the east to the west of Quebec, on which line write *about* 600 *miles*, then one from north to south, on which you may write 300 *miles*. Across the Province of Ontario draw one line from north-west to south-east and write on it 750 *miles*, and another one from north to south on which you may write—*rather more than* 200 *miles*. You have now on your slates the length and breadth of each province, and I would like you all to learn them so as not to forget them again, and in a few days, if you try to remember what I have told you to day, I shall teach you more about Canada.

(*To be Continued.*)

The Bishop of Exeter (England) on Education.

The Bishop of Exeter, at Bradford, limited his speech chiefly to a vindication of the Endowed Schools Commission. He entirely approves of the plan of grading schools in their relation one to another, and without doubt that policy is, within certain limits, a sound one. But it is to be regretted that, while the general features of that policy are sound, some of the particular regulations by which they are put in force press with a hard injustice upon the very classes who ought to be benefited. We will mention only one of them — the prohibition of Greek in any second-grade schools. We quite concur in the wisdom that gives proper prominency to the sciences and modern languages; but it cannot be denied that the ancient languages, and especially Greek, are the key to a vast field of literature and learning in which it is to be hoped that thousands of our grammar-school boys will yet distinguish themselves. Now, that being so, why should a clever boy in a second-grade school be prevented from trying whether he can learn Greek? And if he can, and have a genius that way, why is he to be prohibited learning it on easy terms at the endowed school in his neighbourhood? Why is he to be compelled either to abandon Greek altogether, or to seek it in some first-grade school at a distance, and most likely at a cost which to him is tantamount to a prohibition? The Bishop eloquently said, referring to the roll of distinguished men whom the old grammar schools had reared, that "one of the great objects borne in mind in the reconstitution of these schools was still to do that service; still to enable boys, from every rank in life, in spite of all obstacles—in spite of that greatest of all, the poverty of their parents—to cultivate the faculties which God had given them, and to go on with their studies until they had made themselves what it was quite plain God intended them to be." This is admirable as far as it goes; but we wish to ask, supposing it is the intention of Providence that a given poor boy should become a great Oriental scholar, why is he to be prevented from learning Greek in the grammar school of his native parish? Our complaint, is not that Greek is not forced upon boys, not that every boy is not compelled to learn Greek, but that, except in the first-grade schools, the master is not permitted to teach Greek, however clever any of his boys may be, or however desirous of distinguishing themselves in that study, with a view to admission to a higher-grade school, or one of the universities. It is unfortunate that, when able men like Bishop Temple stand up to vindicate public measures in which they have assisted, they confine themselves to the general features of the scheme, about which there is very little difference of opinion, and omit all mention of the details, on which often the good or ill that is done must turn. The Bishop has shown the utility of grading schools; we wish he would show on what ground Greek as a permissive subject may not be taught in schools of the second grade. The result of the present regulation is to make a classical education an impossibility to a poor man's son, however great his abilities, however great his aspirations. He cannot rise in a certain field of learning without Greek. He cannot learn Greek in a second-grade school. He cannot afford to go to a first-grade school. *Ergo*, he cannot learn Greek at all. It is quite true that if he be a genius he will contrive to pick up Greek through some other channel; but that he should be driven to that consists but ill with the Bishop's laudation of the recent changes. The case, however, would be quite met by simply taking off the prohibition, and leaving the master free to teach Greek to such boys as wished it, without requiring it to be taught to any.—*Morning Post.*

—The speech of the Bishop of Exeter at the Bradford Mechanics' Institute was no unworthy or inappropriate sequel to that of the Vice-President of the Council. The one is, indeed, the natural supplement of the other. How is the nation to be educated? That was the one supreme topic of discussion to which Mr. Forster and Dr. Temple alike addressed themselves. Mr. Forster, as was fitting and natural, dwelt almost exclusively upon the duties of the State in the great work of the instruction of the people. Those duties are, in truth, paramount. But the conscientious discharge of these duties by the State in no way relieves the individual of his own due share of responsibility. This is a matter in which it is of the highest importance that there should be no mistake. National systems of instruction are things of inestimable value. But the most valuable knowledge of all is the knowledge which is self-acquired. Let us not be misunderstood. We assume for this particular and incalculably precious learning an organised system of methodical instruction. This methodical instruction, it is well, should be given by the State. The finishing touch—and it is often these finishing touches which do everything—must be the result of individual effort. The parent who sends his child to school, pays masters for his teaching during the "school terms"—in these superfine days they have abolished the good old words "halves" and "quarters"—and, possibly, a private tutor for the holidays, or, we should say, the vacations, is apt to think he has done everything. It is not so. There can be no vicarious discharge of an essentially parental duty. We get other persons to teach our sons, but it is our duty to see that they are properly taught.

It is pleasant to be able to discuss the question of education on a purely neutral ground, and we are glad to find ourselves able to give the heartiest adhesion to the fundamental proposition of Dr. Temple's speech. That proposition is briefly this—State education may do much, but it cannot supersede private and individual effort. Who are the men who have made their way in life, and have left a name? It will be found that they are just those persons who have worked for themselves and by themselves. A very well-known Oxford tutor once said, "lack of inclination for work is lack of ability for work." No doubt the proposition is open to discussion, but it is eminently wholesome, even in its most literal acceptation. The higher education, the reading which is to make a man what he is, which is to educe his secret capacities and his latent power—this no system of State education can guarantee.

This is a fundamental truth, and we thank Dr. Temple heartily for dwelling on it. The only thing which we regret

is, that he did not devote more of his expository power to insisting on the view. State education by all means; but it is, and must be, self-education which crowns the intellectual edifice. Mechanics' institutes are the strongest expressions and the most solid recognitions which we have of this fact They are to the artisan what the finishing school is to the fashionable young lady. Indeed, they are more, because they offer the opportunity of a selection of departments of study and knowledge which the fashionable young ladies' school does not. It is the business of our schools to place every one in a fair way of doing well—to give him the general elements of knowledge. It is the business of mechanics' institutes to supply a man with the materials of building upon this basis of acquirement, and to enable him to cultivate his special powers at the same time that he adds to his general store of knowledge. The State may do much, but the individual does more.—*Standard.*

Free-hand Drawing in Elementary Schools.

(BY E. T. D. CHAMBERS, CHAMBLY, P. Q.)

First of all *is* there any free-hand drawing, or indeed drawing of any kind, in our Elementary Schools? In the majority of them, it is well known that there is *nothing* of the kind. But why do our teachers overlook so important a subject as this? Is it because its value, is underrated by the public? Or because it does not happen to be one of the subjects in which our schools are examined by the Government Inspector?

Under the old educational laws which existed in England prior to the passing of the Right Hon. Robert Lowe's Revised Code, provision was made for drawing to be taught in schools as an extra subject, and a special grant was made by the government to those teachers, who presented a certain number of children for examination in it; but unfortunately this was all done away with under the Revised Code, and drawing has actually been again rejected as an extra subject in the code of 1871.

I will now endeavour to prove the utility of teaching drawing in schools, by narrating some of the advantages which I have seen reaped from its study in the old country, and also by considering the principal reasons that are urged against it.

It has often been stated that to teach drawing in elementary schools is sheer waste of time, that it will prove of no practical use to the children, and that it would be far better to employ the time devoted to it, in the acquisition of some more useful branch. This latter assertion would undoubtedly be true, if the same amount of time was given to drawing as to the study of the more primary branches of an elementary education, but this is neither requisite nor desirable. The drawing lesson should rather be considered as a kind of *recess* from harder study, and the time allotted to it should vary from half an hour to an hour and a half, some two or three times a week, according to the application displayed by the children to their other lessons; for they should be given to understand that the quicker they get through their appointed tasks, the longer time will be devoted to drawing, which is always a favourite study with children, if properly managed by the teacher.

No one will, I think, fail to perceive, that by this plan, very little or no time, will be *wasted* on drawing, even though the acquisition of that science should prove of no practical use to the student. But this latter supposition also I deny, for I have particularly noticed that the beneficial results of cleanliness, neatness and order which are always attendant upon a proper course of drawing lessons, invariably pervade the whole of the studies of the enthusiastic young draughtsman. Such a boy will not generally be amongst those who in solving their arithmetical problems for instance, endeavour to cram the working of their sums into the smallest possible space on their slates, either surrounding them by those zig-zag lines so offensive to the eye, or running them one into another, so as to be perfectly unintelligible either to themselves or to any one else, but he will endeavour by that taste which a practice of drawing has conferred upon him to do everything "decently and in order." Surely drawing cannot be said to be of no practical use, if it produces, as I am fully persuaded it does, such an effect as this.

Nor are *neatness and order the only* immediate advantages, to be derived from its study: such a phenomenon for instance, as a bad writer being able to draw well, is rarely to be met with, for drawing by calling attention to general neatness, especially in the formation of so-called lines and angles, and to (what might almost be called) *geometrical* proportions in the length and breadth of any and every figure, must eventually lead to a corresponding neatness and exactness, in the hand-writing of the individual who makes it his study.

Two instances will here suffice to show what *may* be effected by a young man who leaves school with a fair knowledge of practical drawing, and whose mind, is impressed with the value of those orderly and useful habits, which are inseparable from its study. A son of a poor gardener, in England, some twelve or more years ago was a scholar of the (1) school in which I was trained as a teacher. This lad showed such an aptitude for drawing of every description, that his teachers soon perceived that with careful instruction and practice he would greatly excel in the art. Great care and attention was therefore devoted to this particular branch of his education, till on leaving school he was enabled to obtain an excellent situation in the Staffordshire Potteries as a painter of that beautiful china for which this county is so noted. Advancement being the just reward of his improved talents, he rose rapidly in his business, till, having previously carried off several prizes which were offered by his employer for the best designs for ornamenting various china sets, he became I believe some few years ago a first class designer. Nor does he now forget to trace his success in life, not to any great natural *genius* of his own, but to ordinary talents improved by the study of drawing, while a lad at school.

At the same time with him, another boy, the son of a tavern-keeper was attending this school. The neatness and clearness both of his drawing and handwriting, were so exemplary that they attracted the notice of Lord Hatherton, the patron of the school, who took him into his own office, and set him to work under the direction of his agent. Here the neatness and excellence of his work gained him still more the esteem of his master, till after a few years his Lordship found means to recommend him to another nobleman (2) who was in want of a land agent and steward, and who engaged him at a salary of some £300 sterling per annum.

I think that the early history of these two young men prove beyond a doubt to the scholastic profession, that drawing, if not a necessary study in schools, will more than repay the time and trouble spent on it. I do not of course mean to infer that every child who studies it, will rise in the world or make his living by it as these two boys did, but I *do* say that a knowledge of drawing will always be found of use through life, and that the useful habits of cleanliness, neatness, order and exactitude, which I have before spoken of, cannot be better taught and fixed on the mind of the young pupil, than by a constant and systematic study and practice of this art.

(1) Lord Hatherton's school at Penkridge near Stafford
(2) The Earl of Coventry.

Remuneration of Teachers.

A nation's weal depends upon the mothers and school-teachers. This is an acknowledged fact in the matter of others, but is not so fully recognized in relation to teachers. The influence of those who have charge of the young and the responsibility of such, cannot be overestimated nor too highly appreciated. Who can tell how much the nation's home and glory now, and in the coming time, may have been enhanced by the influence shed by such men as the late Dr. Arnold, and the present Bishop of Exeter, over boyish minds at Rugby? All that those boys, now in their collegiate or life's course, hold noble, pure, manly and Christian was implanted in their school days, and will remain with them and their children from generation to generation, to preserve the high and honorable name of the British Empire. Let good men have the training of our children and we need not be very careful of those who may exercise influence over them in their maturer years. It will be seen at once, then, that the calling of a teacher is a very high and responsible one; and a people who value their national status will estimate it as such, and will be very careful in their selection of men and women for that office; and, when selected, will pay them the respect due to them; and should, moreover, make them such pecuniary recompense for their labors as should enable them to maintain a position in accordance with their high vocation, and such as should enable them to pursue their onerous duties without one monetary anxiety. Many persons, in considering the position of teachers and the reward due to them for their services, too often forget another important thing, and that is, the long, expensive and arduous course of training they have to undergo. It is not sufficient that teachers should be well educated in the subjects which they have to teach, but their knowledge and study must extend over a far wider and higher field. Before any subject can become one to form part of youthful education, it must be recognized by all the world as true. Truth, in this sense, must be reflected from the world to the schools, and not from the schools to the world. The teacher's thought, therefore, has to range over the wide world of knowledge and his eye must watch every step in the progress of civilization.

Seeing how great the responsibility attached to this office is, and how manifold and elevated must be its culture, it would seem to follow, as a matter of common sense, that the remuneration accorded to it should be most liberal. But what is the fact? Let any one examine the newspaper advertisements, and he will see school authorities seeking teachers, and offering the munificent salaries of $300, $400 and $500 per annum, and in some very rare cases as much as $700. This is not right. We put a man with a responsibility second to none, and an education far above the requirements of ordinary occupations, on a level with second-rate clerks, with day laborers, with young men who are just commencing their career, and who would no more think of being contented with such salaries as a permanency than they would of fly in in the air. How can an educated man unite himself to one who can be a true help-meet to him and a support to him in his great mission, on such salaries as prevail in this country? It may be said that some schools ar so small that more cannot be paid. This objection will not hold in the least; because, in the first place, small schools should never be made the standard of payment; and, in the second, the consideration should not be what the number of pupils may be but the great importance of the work. A few pupils may be under instruction at one time, but the master or mistress of even the smallest school will have a vast number of pupils under training in the course of twenty years or more. Let it be remembered, then, that all these are going forth into the world for good or evil, and if we desire it should be for good we must take care that those entrusted with their training are qualified to inspire them with nobleness of purpose. To attain this end we must increase our teachers' salaries to something far beyond what they are at present.—*Toronto Telegraph.*

Sir Roundell Palmer on Legal Education.

If we were to draw our conclusions as to the amount of zeal for legal education existing in the ranks of the profession from the number and influence of the learned gentlemen who formed the audience of Sir Roundell Palmer last week in Middle-Temple Hall, we should say that the stock was unlimited in quantity and in quality. Many a good cause has perished for the want of a leader; but this cause in our opinion, owes its amazing vitality and force to the energy and ability of its chief; and, genuine as may be the desire in the main body of the profession for the promised school of law, we think that the realisation of that desire is probable, just because Sir Roundell Palmer has made up his mind that the thing that is sought for after all shall come to pass. When the learned president of the Legal Education Association said that the Benchers of the Inns of Court were too busy to carry out reforms, he hit the right nail on the head. The difficulty which obstructs all reforms connected with the law, whether they touch the substance of the law, the procedure, the judicature, the education of future generations of lawyers, or whatever may be their precise object, is simply this, that men cannot be found to do the work. There are men able and men willing. But the able men have no time, and the willing men have no authority. Hence a hundred sound, honest, and wise schemes collapse. At last we have an exception to this rule of failures. Sir Roundell Palmer enjoys authority at the Bar which is paramount, and he has determined to make or find time for the exercise of that authority upon the subject-matter for the furtherance of which he has formed the association. His speech last week was a proof of this. Ex-chancellors, judges, law officers of the Crown, now and then deliver speeches in Parliament, at dinners, and at amateur debating clubs, on what ought to be done. But, as a rule, these speeches are as fruitless as they are ambitious. They are speeches in fact, and nothing else; and, what is more, they are intended to be nothing else. But Sir Roundell Palmer's address last week was altogether a different affair. It was not talk, but action. The president had made up his mind what he and his colleagues meant to do, both in promotion of their scheme and in demolition of adverse schemes and he so explained how his purpose was to be achieved as to leave no doubt that it would be achieved. He proved himself to be not an ornamental, but a working reformer, and presented so great a contrast to many predecessors in the art that, if he does not ultimately succeed, we shall despair of any one hereafter doing so.

It is unnecessary for us to go step by step through the speech of the president or the report of the executive committee of the council. We shall take them as read, learned, and digested. But there are two points in the speech to which we ought to advert. The Inner Temple had put out an order establishing two things: first, a compulsory examination for all candidates for calls to the Bar; second, a system of lectures for students. We need not fathom motives or trouble ourselves to decide whether the Benchers were anxious to co-operate with the association or take the wind out of the sails of Sir Roundell Palmer. But of one thing we are certain, that the president was justified in denouncing the action of the Benchers as retrograde, for the reason that the education to be given at these lectures was to be restricted, not merely to students for the Bar, but even to the students of the particular Inn. If the direct

purpose were to secure feeble lecturers and drowsy audiences, we should think that the scheme would answer that purpose. The only excuse which we can imagine for so poor a plan is that the Benchers may have thought that the other Inns would follow suit, and then that reciprocity treaties could be made. But the order gives no hint of any such expectation or intention. In Sir Roundell Palmer's eyes there was the additional objection to the order that it was altogether prohibitory of any hope that students for admission as attorneys should be allowed to take advantage of the course of instruction laid out for the Bar, and this last is an object which the association has so much at heart that it may be pardoned for resolutely setting its face against any plan that will militate against its accomplishment. We must say that, though the criticisms on the Inns of Court advanced by the president, coupled with very broad hints of extinction, were somewhat harsh, the provocation to hit out sharply at the Benchers of the Honorable Society of the Inner Temple was excessive.

The other point in the president's speech to which we wish to draw attention is that of the monopoly of education. Upon this point we are glad to say that the president spoke in language which cannot be misunderstood. A school of law would hardly be a proper title for a mere system of examination, however exalted might be the authority under which that system was to be conducted. A school is supposed to teach as well as test, the latter province of a school being indeed an invention of the nineteenth century. But if there was to be a school of law, was there not a fear lest the promoters of it should lay down the theory that everybody who wanted to be "learned in the law" must go to that school? If that fear were justified, then we should be contemplating a monopoly of legal education vested in the new school, with all the crying evils that inevitably await monopolies, aggravated by divers physical and legal impossibilities too serious to be even thought of But Sir Roundell Palmer has dispelled this cloud of prejudice. He says in effect, "We hope to have a school of law, and in it we hope to teach law better that any one else can do it. But we shall rejoice to see any number of provincial associations competing with us in teaching, and we shall trust to the excellence of our instruction, and to that alone, for our success. We believe that, if we teach well we shall have plenty of pupils. If it turns out that we teach badly, and no one comes to our school, we shall at once discover that we must mend our ways. At any rate, our teaching is not to be compulsory. The examination alone is to be a monopoly."

Now it is obvious that, as soon as the school of law is established on these principles, we shall be on the eve of some very curious experiments. Will students go to the school of law to be taught? We assume, of course, that really good men, with hearts in their work and not in their salaries, will teach. Will they "draw?" At first, of course, there will be a regular run on the school. But will it maintain its popularity? It is impossible to dogmatize on such a question, but it may safely be assumed that a large mass of students will, under any circumstances, occupy itself more with success in examination than with sound and genuine learning in the laws of England. We shall then have a host of "coaches" springing into life, and will these not surpass the lecturers in preparing students for the ordeal? At the universities this has been the case to an enormous extent, and human nature is much the same in the Inns of Court as in the colleges—older and shrewder perhaps, but not wiser.—*Law Journal.*

—Sir Roundell Palmer, in his recent address in Middle Temple Hall, pointed out the example of Scotland as proving the practicability and the convenience of a common education for barristers and attorneys. In addition, however, to these considerations, which apply still more strongly to the Inner Temple scheme of education for its own students than to the plans of the Inns of Court, other matters remain to be taken into account. The Council of Legal Education has not hitherto proved itself so competent to enforce a useful training before the Bar that we can have much confidence in its future success. It is true that it will possess an authority which it did not possess before; that its numbers, and probably its consideration, will be increased in consequence; and that the compulsory examination will give it the means of establishing, if it pleases, a high standard of competency among the junior members of the Bar. At the same time we are afraid that it will always be tainted with the inherent infirmities of the self-elected and irresponsible bodies from which it takes its origin. We should certainly prefer to see legal education provided and legal acquirements tested under the auspices of an academic body more representative in its character than any Council composed of Benchers of the Inns of Court can be. Not only practical success in the profession, which the Benchers, indeed, as a body, may be taken fairly to represent, but theoretical knowledge and acquaintance with special branches of jurisprudence, should have a place in a general school of law. The junior members of the Bar, the association of attorneys and solicitors, and the legal faculties, of our universities should not be excluded. The time has gone by for any such narrow compromise and mere measure of international reform as that which the Inns of Court now offer, and they have only themselves to blame that their concessions come too late. We must not forget that for years past revenues have been wasted and high responsibilities disregarded; that the warnings of prudent men and the remonstrances of enlightened men have alike been spurned; that the Benchers of the Inns of Court have taken no single step to promote legal education since the adoption of the regulations of 1853; and that the tardy and grudging measure now conceded has been clearly wrung from the ruling party of the Inns of Court by the fear of a Parliamentary inquiry. Remembering all this, we are justified in believing that it will be better to come before Parliament, as Sir Roundell Palmer proposes, with a plan for the constitution of a new superintending power in legal education, rather than repose confidence in those who have abused and neglected their trust so long.—*Times.*

Counsel for Teachers.

(BY BISHOP DOANE.)

Children are tender in their nature. It is the petulance and impatience of parents that harden them; and teachers too often complete, by captiousness, what parents have begun. A child is a tender thing.

It should always be presumed, with children, that they tell the truth. To suggest that they do not, is to them to lie. They think that, if it were so bad a thing, you never would presume it.

From want of sympathy with children, much power with them is lost. You traverse a different plane from theirs, and never meet.

That is good which is said of Agricola by Tacitus, "Scire omnia, non exsequi;" he saw every thing, but did not let on. This is great in managing children.

Teachers underestimate their influence with children. In this way, they commonly lose much of it. A child is instinctively disposed to look up to a teacher with great reverence. Inconsistencies weaken it: by unfaithfulness it is lost.

Every thing is great where there are children—a word, a gesture, a look. All tell. As, in the homœopathic practice,

to wash the hands with scented soap, they say, counteracts the medicine.

Nothing is more incumbent on teachers than perfect punctuality. To be late one minute is to lose five. To lose a lesson is to unsettle a week. Children are ready enough to "run for luck." They count upon a teacher's failures, and turn them into claims. At the same time, none are so severe, in their construction of uncertainty in teachers, as those who take advantage of it. It is with children as with servants—none are such task-masters.

Manner is much with all, but most with teachers. Children live with them several years. They catch their ways. Postures, changes of countenance, tone of voice, minute matters, are taken and transmitted, and go down through generations. Teachers should think of these things. Carelessness in dress, carelessness in cariage, are all noticed, often imitated, always ridiculed. Teachers should have no tricks.

There is great need of prayer for teachers. Parents should pray for them. Their scholars should pray for them. They should pray for themselves and for their scholars. That is well for them to do, which the Son of Sirach says of physicians: "They shall also pray unto the Lord that He would prosper that which they give for ease and remedy to prolong life." When teachers lament small progress with their children, may it not be, as St. James saith, "Ye have not, because yet ask not?" Pastors and teachers, beyond all others, should be "instant in prayer."

Few things are so important in life as a just estimate of the value of time. Every thing in a course of education should promote its attainment. It will be learned or unlearned, practically, every day. If a teacher is in his place at the minute; if he has every scholar in his place; if he has all the instruments and apparatus ready, down to the chalk, the pointer, and the blackboard wiper; if he goes steadily on, without interval or hesitation; if he excludes all other topics but the one before him; if he uses his time up to the last drop—such a one is teaching the true value of time as no sermon can teach it.

Gossip is the besetting sin of some good teachers. The thread of their association is slack-twisted. It is *apropos* to every thing. Gossipping should be banished from every recitation room.

Nothing can be more radically wrong, in education, than the attempt at false appearances. It rots the heart of children, and makes them chronic hypocrites; and it fails of its immediate end. The children know and tell it. The teacher who has crammed his scholars for an examination—assigning this proposition to one, and that passage in an author to another—is like the silly bird that hides its head, and thinks it is not seen.

In all good teaching "*multum, non multa*" is the rule—*not many things but much.*

Teachers must not lose courage at slow progress. The best things come little by little.

Teachers that *are* teachers can not be paid. Alexander's conquests would have been no compensation for Aristotle's instruction. Their name is written in heaven.

Irony, sarcasm, and the like, should never be employed with children. They only irritate. Oil softens better than vinegar.

Teachers err by giving too long lessons at first. If necessary, occupy the whole hour with a single sentence or a single rule. The next hour you can take two or three. Let nothing be passed that is not mastered. It will seem slow at first: afterwards it will be fast. "*Festina lente.*"

There are teachers who say the lessons for their pupils. They learn the trick of it and lean on it. They have but to hesitate, and the master gives the word. It is partly from impatience in the teacher, partly from over-easiness. Such a master will spoil the best scholars. It is the office of a teacher to help his scholars, not to do their work.

To be a teacher is either the most odious or the most delightful occupation. It is the heart that makes the difference. The years that Jacob served for Rachel seemed but few to him. The reason was—*he loved her.*

The London School Board and Corporal Punishment in Schools.

The administration of corporal punishment in schools is the most disagreeable of a schoolmaster's duties. There is not a master who would not gladly be rid of this most unpleasant and irksome task; nay, there is not one worthy of the name who does not rack his brain and exercise his ingenuity to the utmost to provide efficient substitutes and so minimise its employment. Yet the evidence given before the School Board Committee showed that corporal punishment was *necessarily* employed. Stern necessity alone would cause them to use it. It was their *dernier ressort*—yet appealed to it must be. Were a ballot taken, we believe that not one per cent of the whole body of schoolmasters would dissent from this evidence. We were rather surprised to find that neither of the witnesses asked for a definition of corporal punishment before giving their answer. The ideas conveyed by the term to the minds of the Committee and those understood by the witnesses, were, we are persuaded, very different. To the witnesses, one or two strokes with a cane, more or less severe according to the character of the offender, was the idea presented; while the indecencies, barbarities, and even blood-letting of a public birching would be visibly recalled by the members of the Committee. From this misconception of the character of corporal punishment in modern elementary schools have arisen the uncalled-for outcries and fulminations againts it, which have been so subversive of subordination and good discipline. These outcries suggest at once the idea that their authors would have been less unjust and more charitable had they possessed a more intimate acquaintance with the milder form of punishment in their youth.

With the first regulation of the School Board on the subject—that corporal punishment be administered by the head teacher alone—we have no great fault to find, although we are aware that by such avowal we do violence to the opinion of many able and experienced masters of large schools, where the sections are taught in different rooms, under certificated assistant masters.

With the second regulation—that the particulars of each administration be entered in a book—the case is far different. Both regulations, it is evident, are a compromise between the ideas stated above. The frequency of corporal punishment in a school will be determined by the character of the scholars, the quality of the assistant teachers, and the size of the school. Now in all these particulars the new Board schools with be at a disadvantage, and much valuable time will be lost in carrying out this regulation, which might be employed with infinitely more advantage, and to the well-being of the scholars. We are aware that it has been urged that the object is to do away with "little punishments:" but we have always held as a fundamental principle that the efficacy of punishment depends not upon its severity but upon its certainty.

The new regulation violates a general principle of all sound legislation; viz., that to have an inoperative law upon the statute book is not only useless, but mischievous. Now this regulation, from its very nature, must become inoperative. No master within our ken has a stated flogging-time like the paid flagellator of a county gaol, and it is quite certain that amid the multitude of details requiring attention in large schools the black book and its entries would be much more frequently forgotten than remembered.

The most serious objection to the regulation is that it evidences distrust of the teacher, and a disposition to hamper him in his work. This is countrary to the judgment of all competent men, and we should be surprised, did we not remember that many of the members of the School Board are mere educational theorists, and that the majority of them are much more intimately acquainted with the best means of obtaining wealth, than with dealing with knotty questions of school management. But how such men as Dr. Barry, Dr. Rigg, and Canon Cromwell, could allow such a regul tion to pass without public protest we are at a loss to imagine.

Professor Cowie, himself a witness before the Committee, appears to have foreseen the mischievous direction in which the zeal of our " educational reformers" would hereby lead them ; and in his last report pens this suitable warning— " When our " educational reformers " have secured a thorough teacher,it will be wise not to hamper him too much with suggestions and rules, but leave him to work out the best system by himself. We have learned in other things that minute regulations invented by persons of no practical experience generally are disastrous, we reduce the amount of harness for our carriage horses to a minimum. Free action, when there is vigour and a good head, will generally produce the best result."

If they have confidence in their master, let them leave the entire management in his hands, and not worry him by vexatious intermeddling, convinced that he will act for the best ; if they cannot trust him, let them at once follow the only straightforward course, and dismiss him.

The Board place themselve in this dilemma—they trust a man to record the particulars of a punishment which they dare not trust him to administer without the safeguard of such a record.

Teachers have been anxiously scanning the horizon, and debating the advisability of taking charge of Board schools ; but as straws proverbially show which way the wind blows, masters begin to think such a change may be a leap from the frying pan into the fire. They read the regulation as betokening a policy of meddlesome, mistrustful, and disastrous interference, and we do not doubt that they will act accordingly.—(*Papers for the Schoolmaster*).

Opinions from the English Educational Blue Book.

ALTERATION OF HOLIDAYS SUGGESTED, (REV. W. H. BELLAIRS. M. A.)

To meet some of the objections to compulsory attendance on the score of removing boys from agricultural labour, it has occured to me that certain modifications in the present plans for holidays and hours might be introduced : *e. g.*, if schools commenced work at 8.30 a. m., instead of at 9, and at 1.30 p. m., instead of at 2, and if a half instead of a whole holiday was given on Saturday, and the Easter and Whit suntide holidays stopped, and the Christmas holidays reduced to a day or two, a sufficient gain of school would accrue, to allow boys to go to work in the spring and summer months, compelling attendance only through the winter and early spring.

MEANS OF CHECKING IRREGULARITY. (REV. E. W. CRABTREE.)

Much may be done by making the school itself thoroughly pleasant and attractive to the children. If their sympathies are thoroughly in favour of attending, one very great point is gained. A great deal can also be done by the teacher's personal influence with the parents. This can only be the case, as a rule, where the teacher has been many years in one place, and established a name and reputation. It requires qualities on his part in some respects quite different from those necessary to success in school, but it is an important part of his qualifications that he should be able to stand well with the parents without unduly giving way to them.

A good effect may also in some cases be produced by enlisting the interest of the parents, by furnishing them with some facts about their children's attendance and conduct. One master of great experience informed me that he was in the habit of sending round to the parents a little printed paper, duly filled up with a few figures about each child's attendance and other particulars. At first he sent them once a month, but afterwards he found once a quarter sufficient. He had found them of the greatest service. Parents themselves were often amazed, when they had fancied a child had only been away a day here and a day there, to find what a number these had amounted to. In this school also considerable pains are taken by the master and managers to find good situations for children who stay long enough in it, and this is an additional motive, both to parents and children, to make the most of their opportunities. The result of all these measures is, that in this school, at any rate, although in a purely agricultural place, there is little or no complaint about the attendance. Another scheme which has in some places been tried with success is to encourage, by a small allowance as discount, the payment of fees quarterly in advance. Where this can be done, parents of course find it to their interest to make a child attend every possible time, instead of keeping it away the rest of a week because, perhaps, a Monday has been missed, and thus one great temptation to irregularity is removed. Whatever may be attempted or accomplished of a more stringent nature, con siderations of this kind will never, I think, cease to be of importance, nor shall we be able wholly to dispense with them and and rely exclusively on sterner measures.

A MEANS OF ENCOURAGEMENT OF GOOD WRITING. (REV. N. GREAM.)

I have seen in one school a copy-book kept by the master in which the boys, when they could write sufficiently well, were allowed to write a page. This induced the boys to take pains and try to improve, so as to be eligible for this honour. This book was not confined to boys of the first class only, but in any of the classes if a boy wrote well he was allowed this privilege ; then his name, age, and class were written at the bottom of his copy, and the book was kept in the school to show the inspector and any visitors.

Teachers and managers of schools should bear in mind that if they desire to see good writing they must supply their scholars with good writing materials. Good desks, good pens, good ink, and good paper are as necessary for good writing as daily food is for the sustenance of life. I have seen great failures in writing caused by the want of such necessaries.

COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE. (REV. H. SANDFORD, M. A.)

I have little doubt that if the more intelligent members of the working class are properly represented on the School Boards, the clauses of the Education Act for compulsory attendance will be carried out. Such men, who see more than others the evil which their own class suffer from the want of mental training and discipline, and who are liable to have their own children corrupted by the degraded children of careless parents, have always, at every discussion on the subject which I have attended, expressed themselves strongly in favour of regulations to secure education to the young. Money spent on increased grants, in paying school fees for the poorer class of children, or in providing fresh school accommodation, will all be so much money wasted, at least in the town districts, until school attendance is secured by law.—(*Ibid.*)

The Appointment of School Inspectors in England.

Not long since, we drew attention to this subject, (1) and urged the importance of its consideration upon the teachers of the country. No apology, however, can be required from us for again alluding to the question. The President of the Council, in whose hands the appointments actually rest, seems determined to continue and extend the old practice of appointing to the offices men who both by their education and experience can show no *prima faciæ* evidence of special fitness for the places they fill, and this to the exclusion of those who could best serve the public interest, and who have the clearest right to the promotion which such appointments would create for them. The damage already done to the cause of National Education by the existing system is scarcely to be exaggerated; the damage it will do, now that teachers know their legitimate rights and are prepared to claim them will be incalculable The appointment of Inspectors' Assistants from the ranks of teachers is a confession on the part of the Education Office, of the fitness of teachers for the work of inspection, but it is, at the same time, in its restrictions and emoluments, an insult to the intelligence and merit of a whole profession. The Inspectors' Assistants are, in many cases better men, professionally, than their superiors, and have frequently to exercise their old calling by teaching Her Majesty's Inspectors their business. This is particulary true of our recent appointments. While such an outcry for technical instruction is being raised, is it not singular that so important a Department of State as the Education Office should so practically belie the principle ?

We observe with pleasure that the National Union and other educational bodies are determined to labour for the removal or abatement of this great abuse. For an abuse it is; it places family or social qualifications where experience and merit should be, and thus deprives the country of a fair return for the money which it expends. — (*Ibid.*)

Toys as Teachers.

The primary use of toys to children, says a writer in *Chambers' Journal*, is to keep them occupied. A mother thinks what her infant, even when only a few months old, requires to amuse it, and she selects a bright-colored bird, or a rattle, or something which it can feel, shake, and look at. An elder child complains of having nothing to do; and a toy or game is found, or a book of pictures or little stories with which it may amuse itself. The great aim of all those who understand the bringing up of children is to keep them constantly engaged, and at the same time, though encouraging them to play as long as possible with one toy, yet to change and vary their occupations and amusements as soon as they show signs of mental fatigue or weariness. This constant employment is not only desirable for children, but is really essential for them; they must be doing something, and, as has been well remarked, even mischief is but misapplied energy. Toys are the natural instruments on which this energy and activity should be expended. It is the province of the toy dealer to find objects for the exercise of ther minds and fingers, just as much as for the baker to supply them with bread, or the shoemaker with shoes.

Children are essentially active in every sense; and toys can not properly be called toys at all if they are merely capable of being looked at, and do no more than amuse the eye for a few moments. This fact will often account for the peculiar way in which children take fancies to their toys. Of course the glitter of a new thing, whatever it may be, lasts for some time; but it will be remarked how they generally return to some old plaything, long since bereft of its beauty, because they can *do something with it.* A broken doll, even with no legs and arms, may be dressed and handled as a baby; a horse without legs may be dragged about the floor, and sat on; whereas, a new picture book is soon put aside, after the novelty of the illustrations is forgotten; and a very elaborate mechanical toy, too delicate even to be handled, is not much cared for after it has been exhibited a few times and has ceased to be a novelty.

While carefully avoiding the mistake of making play a lesson, some few toys, if well selected, may impart a vast amount of instruction, and that without the child having to undergo any undue mental strain. It would, of course, be undesirable to give a little boy five or six years old a direct lesson on the principles of the bridge and the use of the keystone. Give him, however, a box of bricks capable of making a bridge with the centring, and show him how to put it together; he will puzzle over it for days, try every sort of arrangement, and unwittingly become gradually and practically acquainted with some important mechanical laws. Again a little model of a steam-engine made to work by gas or spirit, which may be bought for a few shillings, is a most attractive toy. Children will watch it for hours. They see the water poured in; they remark that it is made to boil, and has to be replenished; they notice the action of the valves, the piston, the crank, and all the parts. When they come to study the theoretical laws of steam and machines, half the difficulty of their first lessons vanishes. If, during his play, the child is so fortunate as to have a really educated nurse or mother, herself acquainted with the outlines of such general knowledge, the child's play may be made, by simple toys, far more educational and interesting than any set lesson, and the result of the instruction far more fixed on the mind than the simplest theoretical idea could ever be by any number of repetitions and learnings by heart.

What is true concerning the box of bricks and the model engine, is also true of a number of other toys; that is, they depend for their action on certain laws, with which, by a little skill, children may be made practically familiar without any undue taxing of their minds, and during the time they are engaged in play. Of these may be mentioned the kite, magnetic fish; hydrostatic toys, with water-wells, fountains, etc; pneumatic toys, such as pop-guns, etc.; tops of all sorts, the kaleidoscope, the magic wheel, etc. All these involve scientific laws, which a child may understand familiarly, with no more difficulty, if properly put before him, than he usually finds in learning to read.

Cookery, as a regular subject of instruction in girls' schools has hithertoo been looked upon as one of those things which though no doubt desirable, is, unfortunately, impossible. Toys, however, seem to prove that this is a mistake. Judging from the collection of cooking stoves, which Mr. Cremer has brought together in his International collection of toys in the Exhibition this year, it is clear that "pretending to cook" is largely played at by children of all countries. These stoves, though in miniature, are made large enough, and are so fitted for gas, as to be capable of dressing a small dinner. It would seem that, by a regular course of instruction in practical play cooking, a most agreeable and permanently useful *game* might be introduced in all schools, to the immense advantage of all classes.

The dressing of dolls may be made a most pleasant mode of teaching a little girl to work. All girls are found of dressing their own toy babies, though they soon weary of hemming dusters. By making dolls' clothes exact miniatures of children's garments, so that they will take on and off, agreeable occupation in needle-work will be found for a little girl. The child will easily be made to take a pride in

(1) See our September number for this article.

having all her doll's wardrobe as neat and well worked as she can ; and good habits of care, neatness, and order may thus be inculcated. In this way, as has already been pointed out, play, useful instruction, and training may be combined through the agency of toys. In watching a little girl play with her doll, an insight may often be obtained into the mode in which the child herself is being brought up. When young we imitate more or less the habits and manners of our elders ; and whichever way a child is seen using her doll, whether it be roughly, kindly, or gently, or by making a great fuss over its appearance, such as thinking chiefly of the fashion of its dress and ornaments, so may the characteristic features of the treatment that the child herself receives at home be frequently inferred.

The cost of toys cannot be taken as a guide to their usefulness or value. To a certain extent, as in all other articles, it is true that good playthings are by no means necessarily the best. Nothing is more desirable than to encourage children as much as possible to make some of their own toys ; when they do this it affords them immense pleasure and amusement. It should also be borne in mind that the fewer playthings a child has in use at the same time the better. Too many at once encourage restlessness and a continual want of change and variety, and prevent habits of attention and contentment being developed.—(*Scientific American.*)

Planning a Career.

I judge that most human beings float or *drift* through life. They " aim at nothing, and hit it." They may have desires, or hopes, or impulses, at one time or another, but no definite, coherent, symmetrical plan, formed in early youth, matured with growing knowledge and ripened judgement, and tenaciously adhered to, through favoring or seemingly adverse fortune, to the end.

Vague aspiration is common enough. Nearly every youth desires and hopes in time to win fame or fortune—often both. Nearly every one would be a Girard or Astor in wealth, a Webster in intellectual might, if wishing would make him so. But the would be Astor has other desires as well as that which wealth will gratify : he covets ease, luxury, and divers sensual gratifications, as well as riches ; and Nature says to him decisively : " You may achieve something, but " not everything : choose !" He does not choose ; but, aspiring to every thing, attains nothing. He falls a victim to his own anarchy of purpose, just as the fowler who fires a bullet at a flock, but at no particular bird, will generally hit no one.

The cruellest mistake of Youth is neglect to acquire skill and dexterity in some useful calling. Many fancy themselves too rich (prospectively) to need proficiency in some handicraft : they expect to live on what others have earned before them, not what they shall earn themselves. But Nature sternly vetoes this miscalculation—sends tornadoes, earthquakes, Chicago fires, to baffle it. Were I an Astor or a Vanderbilt, I would have my every child taught a trade even though ever so confident that he would not probably need it. If only to arm him for the remote contingency of being cast away on some isle previously unpeopled, I would fortify him against disaster by imbuing his hands with skill, and his brain with resources and provisions for defying want.

Carlyle says the saddest sight on earth is a man able and willing to do useful work, yet needing and vainly seeking employment. I realise that this is sad ; but sadder far to my apprehension is the too familiar spectacle of men and women seeking work in vain, not because there is no work to be done, but because they know not how to do it. For the skilful artisan or tiller of the earth, who has no work to-day, may find it in plenty to-morrow : at all events, he is ready to do it when required, and does not feel that he is essentially a pauper. But for that vast, forlorn multitude, who tell us they are " willing to do anything," but who really know how to do nothing that others or themselves stand in need of, what hope can exist ? What alternation of seasons, what improvement in the mony market, what amelioration of the times, can relieve their sore distress ? Especially if they *will* crowd into cities. where living is so dear and competition for employment so superabundant, what *can* be done for them ?

I hold induction into some calling which is essential to the satisfaction of our imperative wants, the first need of every human being. Let the youth be a poet or painter, if he will ; let his sister become proficient in music or geometry, if her tastes so dictate ; but let her first be taught how to cook, or sew, or keep a house in order, and let him be taught to grow corn, or build habitations, or make shoes. Not because manual labor is more useful or more honorable than any other, but because it can never be dispensed with or go out of fashion--because siege or famine, cholera or conflagration, can never supersede or supplant it, do I insist that every child should be trained to efficiency in some inevitable trade or handicraft, as the most indispensable part of a true education. Add as much intellectual or literary culture as you will, but first in importance, but not necessarily in time, be sure to arm and train your child for that conflict with physical want which is the only unfailing heritage of all the children of Adam.

Now encourage and aid him to choose wisely his pursuit, which need not be that which is to stand between him and starvation, in case of failure in the vocation of his choice. Ask him to choose, with due respect for his own tastes and aspirations, but not in entire indifference to the needs of the community, the dictates of the general weal.

I have more than once, offended a stranger who enquired of me, " Would you advise me to study law ?" by responding, Yankee-like, with the question, " Do you think the "country now in need of more lawyers ?" I surely had not intended any sarcastic or other reflection on the inquirer's meditated calling ; I had purposed only to draw his attention to a point which he seemed to have overlooked. Why should any deem this inquiry irrelevant ? Why not consider, in contemplating the study of law, whether there be or be not at present public need of more lawyers ?

Perhaps the silliest thing a young man can say is, " I have resolved never to marry." Even though the resolve were ever so proper, it is one with which others have no probable or obvious concern, and your proclaiming it is a virtual intimation that you are so attractive to the other sex that you are obliged to warn them off from a hopeless quest—a starward aspiration—whereby their peace of mind is likely to suffer shipwreck.

I deem it of the first moment to a true plan of life to give to the acquisition of worldly gear its just position, as an important incident, not the chief object, of a manly career. He who has reached his thirtieth, fortieth, fiftieth year, yet is still poor and needy, may possibly have been kept poor by unusual burdens or successive misfortunes ; but, in the absence of these, the natural presumption is strong that he has been idle, or luxurious, or dissipated, and misused or neglected his opportunities. He had no moral right to become a husband and father without earnestly striving to make that reasonable and just provision for the legitimate wants of his household, in the absence of which, the great Apostle would regard him as " worse than an infidel."

A comfortable home that does not belong to any other (husband, wife and children excepted) ; a calling or pursuit whereby a livelihood may to a moral certainty be gained ; a vicinage which, however rude and repulsive at first, shall at

length become agreeable and attractive; the approbation of the good and the dislike or dread of the irreclaimably profligate and depraved—so much, at least, should be included in the plan of life of every thoughtful youth. There be those whose hatred honors its object; there be some whose defamation is praise. He who aspires to please every one, will be sure to deserve the hearty approbation of none. Let him rather resolve and strive so to fear himself that his enemies alike shall be such that, whoever is acquainted with both, shall *know* that his heart is pure and his life noble, and he cannot fail to die conscious and thankful that he has not lived wholly in vain.—(Horace Greely in *Wood's Household Magazine.*)

POETRY.

RETROSPECTIVE.

Come, gentle muse, and by thy power
Guide my frail pen in this lone hour.
Aye, give me thoughts of saddest tone,
That I may mourn the year just flown.
But dost thou say, "Weep not, my friend,
Thou knowest each year must have an end:
And since 'tis fate each year must leave
'Tis folly great to mourn and grieve?"
Oh, chide me not with words like these:
My grief thou canst not thus appease.

The space that's past I do not mourn,
For heavenward fast it has me borne,
'Tis not for friends, who've left the earth,
And now in heaven praise God with mirth:
'Tis not for wealth I toiled to get,
Nor pleasures gone, I have regret:
'Tis not for fame nor great renown,
Nor yet indeed for honor's crown:
'Tis not my lot, its all desired—
These days I pass by hope inspired.
No, no, sweet muse, not one of these;
Nor all combined do me displease.
They're other things of greater worth,
Whose deep effects end not with earth.

'Tis how I failed, in duty's way,
To honor God and truth display.
He gave me life and health preserved;
In gracious love he strength conferred.
He gave me food and drink supplied,
Nor once were home and friends denied—
I cannot now recall to mind
A gift withheld nor act unkind.
But how have I these gifts improved?
To what great acts have I been moved?
What kind return to God have given,
For such great gifts sent down from heaven?
Yes, what have I,—so greatly blessed,
In earnest done for poor, oppressed?
True, now and then, with willing mind
I served the lame and helped the blind.
All men, indeed, who've called on me
And told their wants, I've tried to free.

But is this all that God commands?
Oh! is it half his love demands?
The way of life to dying men
God's Holy word makes plain again.
His word to teach and spread abroad
My duty is to man and God.
Have I this word of life replete,
Proclaimed with power and wisdom meet?
Have I, in earnest tones and grave,
Showed freedom to the sin-bound slave?
Have I sought out, in hovels mean,
The wretched, poor, despised, unclean
And to them spoke in words of love
Of Jesus Christ who dwells above?
Have I in lanes and highways gone,
Held up the cross that such be drawn?
Have I, through love, to Jesus led
A single soul, in sin once dead?
How far, come short, how greatly failed,
From fellow-workers may be veiled;
But God, who knows my whole life through,
Knows well how much I failed to do.
Then, sluggish self, arise, awake—
Shake off dull sloth, to zeal betake!
If with the past thou'rt not content,
Let future days be better spent;
Let resolutions, firm and deep,
At once thy soul possess and keep;—
Be bold, be active, wise, sincere,
And God will crown thee this NEW YEAR.

—(*United Presbyterian*).

Books Published in England in 1871.

The *London Publishers' Circular* has recorded during 1871 the full transcript of the title-pages, with size, price, publishers' names, and number of pages of 5,317 books. This gross number includes 160 of mere reentries for changes of price, and 320 imported new American works, leaving a total of new books and new editions published in Great Britain from January 1 to December 31, 1871, of 4,835, in the following proportions of 3,547 new books and 1,288 new editions.

An examination of the corresponding table in our (*Weekly Trade Circular.*, N. Y.) issue for December 31, 1870, in connection with the present, will demonstrate a few notable features. The number of *American importations* has sensibly diminished, last year's supply being 426, against 322 for this year. We have no explanation to give of this, it not being our intention, in the present article, to state anything but facts—theories are reserved for a future writing. The number of new *novels* has decreased from 200 in 1870 to 155 in 1871, but the number of new editions of novels has increased from four-fifths of the number of new novels in 1870 to 5 beyond what they amount to in 1871. The increase in *Educational Works* is well marked, the new books being 479 in 1871, against 406 in 1870. The proportion of new editions is about the same. There is a marked increase in new editions of works on *Political Economy*, the number being 45 or nearly one-half of the new books on that subject in 1871, against 26, or one-third, in 1870. There is a decrease in the number of new books on *Travel and Research*. Last year's record showed 245—this year's shows only 144; but the number of new editions in this division is larger than in 1870, thereby raising the average to about one-half of the new books. There is a decrease in the division of *History and Biography*, in both new books and new editions. The division of *Poetry* records 176 new books in 1871, against 212 in 1870, but there is no falling off in the number of new editions. Among *Miscellaneous* we have included all the pamphlets and brochures connected with the *Tichborne Case* (20), *Dame Europa's School* (about 35), *Battle of Dorking* (30). These tend to augment the gross number of new works in this division.

We are disposed to state the opinion that there have been published during 1871 fewer poor books, and more good and valuable books, than has been the case in previous years. We shall be able to test our opinion in this respect by the number of new editions in 1872 Certainly we have had in almost every branch of literature additions of rare value; and authors and publishers alike have reason to congratulate themselves upon a condition of affairs, both moral and political, which has made it possible for English literature to place many means of social and intellectual progress before the world at the close of 1871 that the world did not possess at the close of 1870. We do not say this in any spirit of boasting or confidence, but with a most devout and thankful recognition of the source of all wisdom and intelligence. We proceed to mention some of the most important books of the year.

In ARTS, SCIENCE, and ILLUSTRATED BOOKS: Proctor's The Sun, etc.; Wood's Strange Dwellings; Darwin's Descent of Man (second instal-

ment) ; Boiton's Telegraph Code Dictionary ; Clark's Electric Formulæ ; Tyndall's Fragments of Science ; De Morgan's The Book of Almanacs ; Rollwyn's Astronomy of Spectrum Analysis ; Crowe and Cavalcaselles Painting in North Italy ; Davies's Saturn's Rings ; Proctor's Light Science for Leisure Hours ; Armour's Power in Motion ; Wood's Insects at Home ; Williams's Comets ; Wooster's Alpine Plants ; Thudickum and Dupré on Wine.

In BELLES-LETTRES, ESSAYS, etc. : Wood's Changes in the English Language (Le Bas Prize 1870) ; Arthur Helps' Conversations on War, etc. ; Taine on Intelligence (translated from French) ; Lowell's My Study Windows (American reprint) ; The Coming Race ; Kavanagh's Origin of Language ; Freeman's Historical Essays ; Mackay's Under Blue Sky ; Rosetti's Shadow of Dante ; Taine's English Literature, Vol. 1 (translated from French) ; Blackie's Four Phases of Morals ; Guizot's Christianity Reviewed ; Hawthorne's French and Italian Note-Books ; Robert Dale Owen's The Debatable Land (American reprint) ; Edkins's China's Place in Philology.

In EDUCATIONAL and CLASSICAL : Translation of Plutarch's Morals (American) ; Church and Brodripp's Letters of Pliny ; Canon Wordsworth's A new Greek Primer ; Conington's Virgil, volume third ; Professor Jowett's Plato ; Seeley's Livy, Book I. ; Nikal's History of France, Sargent's Material for Greek and Latin Prose Composition ; Rossiter's Elementary Handbook of Physics ; Nicholson's Text Book of Zoology ; Pope's Text Book of Indian History ; Hiley's Mensuration ; Wilkins's Classical Geography ; Beeton's Classical Dictionary ; Tate's Rudimentary Geology ; Earle's Philology of English Tongue ; Guizot's France (translated from the French) ; Williams's Euripides.

In HISTORY and BIOGRAPHY : Ihne's History of Rome ; Dixon's Her Majesty's Tower, Vols. 3 and 4 ; Hugh Miller's Life and Letters ; Autobiography of Lord Brougham, 3 volumes ; Earle's English Premiers ; Mrs. Hall's Royal Princesses ; The third volume of Allibone's Dictionary (American) ; Helps's Life of Cortez ; Thomas's Kings of Delhi ; Memoir of Maclise ; Masson's Milton, Vol. 2 ; Phillips's Dictionary of Biography ; Life of Young the Tragedian ; Bewick's Life ; Rogers's Century of Scottish Life ; Senior's Journals ; Chambers's Life of Scott ; Fitzgerald's The Kembles ; Grant's The Newspaper Press ; Rev. W. Harness's Autobiography ; Memoirs of Chief Justice Lefroy ; Forster's Life of Charles Dickens, Vol. I.

In LAW : Ortolan's History of the Roman Law ; Campbell's Law of Negligence ; May on Conveyances ; Letters on International Relations (reprinted from the *Times*) ; Goddard on Law of Easements ; Lee on Bankruptcy ; Elphinstone on Conveyancing ; Weightman's Law of Marriage ; Glenn's Manual of Medical Law ; Seaboard on Vendors, and the first volume of Sleigh's Criminal Law.

In MEDICINE and SURGERY : Allen's Aural Catarrh ; Tanner's Practical Midwifery ; Oldham's What is Malaria ; Richardson on Diabetes ; Crooke's Chemical Analysis ; Dillnberger's Women's and Children's Diseases ; Milne on Midwefery ; Spence on Surgery, Vols. 3 and 4 ; Meyhoffer on Respiration, Vol. 1 ; Mackensie on Growth in Larynx ; Sansom's Antiseptic System ; Simpson's Obstetrics, Vol 1 ; Reynolds's System of Medicine, Vol. 3 ; Green's Pathology ; Williams's Pulmonary Consumption ; Anstie's Neuralgia ; Huxley's Manual of Anatomy ; Reynolds's Clinical Electricity.

In POETRY and DRAMA : Swinburne's Songs Before Sunrise ; Ford's Translation of Dante ; Bickersteth's The Two Brothers ; Miller's Songs of the Sierras ; Browning's Balaustion's Adventure, and The Saviour of Society ; Bayard Taylor's Translation of Faust (American) ; Mortimer Collin's Inn of Strange Meetings ; Ballantine's Lilias Lee ; Buchanan's Drama of Kings.

In POLITICAL ECONOMY : Virginia Penny's How Women Can Make Money (American reprint) ; Maine's Village Communities ; Macdonall's Political Economy ; Jevon's Political Economy ; Fletcher's Model Houses for the Industrial Classes ; Wheeler's Choice of a Dwelling.

In THEOLOGY, etc. : We have had some invaluable contributions to Biblical Exegesis ; Lightfoot on a fresh revision of the New Testament ; the first volume (the Pentateuch) of the Speaker's Commentary ; Lange's Commentary on Jeremiah, (translated) ; M'Caul's Epistle to the Hebrews ; Gardiner's Harmony of the Four Gospels ; Boutell's Bible Dictionary ; Neale's and Littledale's Commentary on the Psalms, Vol. 3 ; Girdlestone's Synonyms of the Old Testament ; and the 6th volume of Bishop Wordsworth's Bible. Beecher's Life of Christ, Vol. 1, is reprinted from America, and is a valuable contribution to religious literature : the first volume of Mercier's Life of Christ ; Higginson's Ecce Messias ; and Casper's Footsteps of Christ are devoted to Messianic Biography. Pocock's Records of the Reformation, reprinted from records in the British Museum ; Jacob's Ecclesiastical Polity of the New Testament ; Dorner's History of Protestant Theology ; Bannerman's Essays on Church Unity — are among the numerous works on Church Polity. The first volume of Professor Hodge's Systematic Theology is reprinted from America, and is a most valuable addition to religious metaphysical literature.

In TRAVEL and GEOGRAPHICAL RESEARCH : Hare's Walks in Rome ; Tollemache's Spanish Towns and Pictures ; Leslie Stephen's Playground of Europe ; Buchanan's Land of Lorne ; Oxenden's First Year in Canada ; Russell's Pau and Pyrenees ; Raymond's Mines of the Rocky Mountains ; Herbert Barry's Russia in 1870 ; Stanley's New Sea and Old Land ; Elliott's Mysore ; Guinnard's Patagonians ; Mrs. Harvey's Turkish Harems ; Macleod's Peeps at Far East : Huyshe's Red River Exploration ; Kingsley's At Last (West Indies) ; Tyndall's Hours in Alps ; Campbell's How to See Norway ; Bowring's Eastern Experiences ; Harcourt's Himmalayan Districts of Kooloo ; Brown's Coal Fields of Cape Breton ; Ogier's The Fortunate Isles ; Shaw's High Tartary ; Murray's Hand-Book of Asia.

ANALYTICAL TABLE OF BOOKS PUBLISHED IN 1871.

☞ *a* New Books ; *b* New Editions ; *c* Am. Importations.

Class		Number	Total
Theology, Sermons, Biblical, etc	*a*	562	
	b	164	
	c	42	768
Educational and Classical	*a*	479	
	b	166	
	c	16	661
Juvenile Works and Tales	*a*	496	
	b	198	
	c	22	716
Novels and other Works of Fiction	*a*	155	
	b	160	
	c	17	332
Law, Jurisprudence, etc	*a*	75	
	b	44	
	c	22	141
Political and Social Economy, Trade and Commerce.	*a*	101	
	b	45	
	c	11	157
Arts, Science, and finely Illustrated Works	*a*	203	
	b	80	
	c	36	319
Travel and Geographical Research	*a*	144	
	b	62	
	c	27	233
History and Biography	*a*	213	
	b	73	
	c	39	325
Poetry and the Drama	*a*	176	
	b	133	
	c	16	325
Year-books and bound volumes of Serials	*a*	359	
	b	11	
	c	15	385
Medicine and Surgery	*a*	117	
	b	48	
	c	13	178
Belles-lettres, Essays, Monograms, etc	*a*	180	
	b	84	
	c	44	308
Miscellaneous, including Pamphlets, not Sermons.	*a*	287	
	b	20	
	c	2	309
Total			5,157

SUMMARY FOR EACH MONTH.

	New Books.	*New Editions.*	*Am. Importations.*
January	275	76	48
February	215	89	21
March	304	121	28
April	308	97	29
May	284	123	2
June	274	90	28
July	221	95	40
August	240	75	23
September	174	114	25
October	263	86	38
November	476	172	40
December	513	150	
	3,547	1,288	322

Making the total during the 12 months, full titles, 5,157.

AMERICAN IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF BOOKS, ETC.

Imports of books, pamphlets, maps, engravings, and other publications :

1869	$1,607,201
1870	1,769,180
1871	1,868,228

Exports of books, pamphlets, maps, engravings, and other publications :

1869	$385,850
1870	341,045
1871	334,312

For the United States, fiscal year ending June 30.

Modern Architecture.

The following letter from E. Welby Pugin, recently appeared in the London *Times:*

SIR.—The present system of architecture will be an inheritance of misery to our successors as it is now a source of regret to ourselves. So serious have things become that to fall out among ourselves as to style at the present stage would be somewhat analogous to quarrelling with our neighbor regarding the character of his furniture when his house was in flames.

What calls for our first consideration is, " How to make our buildings more real and more sure to last ? "

There are numbers of architects who can reproduce the beauties o antiquity, from the Flavian Amphitheatre to Westminster Abbey but where is the one who, with given requirements before him, can produce a work answering its purpose, and suitable to place and period, in the same manner and with the same freedom as did the architects of old when they produced the works which are still the marvel of the world ?

These architects were familiar with the alphabet and grammar of Architecture. Ours of to-day, ignorant of the first principles to which such wonderful results are due, collect and collate the choicest bits of antiquity from every part of the known globe, glue them together and imagine they have made a whole. In fact, our buildings are but mere odds and ends brought together sometimes with, but generally without care. At the best, this is not architecture ; at the worst, it is charlatanism.

These remarks are as applicable to the Government buildings, to the halls of our public companies, to the mansions now being erected at the west-end of London, as they are to the crowded and overdone so-called Gothic buildings fringing our new City streets. Some of these buildings contain so many beauties, so huddled and crowded together, that one is driven to wonder, to use a homely expression, how the bread is able to hold the plums.

Now, there will be no hope of a better state of things until our architects recollect that architecture is nothing more than the material expression of the age in which it is erected, and remember that style in architecture is simply the peculiar form which expression takes under the influence of requirements, climate, and materials ; and further, until they deal with the wants of the age in the natural manner, — for who, for instance, would reproduce a suit of steel armor as an appropriate *costume de voyage* for a journey to the Lakes ?

During the last twenty years the profession has forgotten much and learnt nothing. The ecclesiastical buildings, which were produced at the time of the Revival, possessed every element of future promise, those of the present day, as a rule, exhibit nothing but weakness, poverty of conception, and forgetfulness of principle. But what is most to be wondered at is, that in face of our present requirements being ten times more than they have been in any past age and while our buildings are more ornamental, our houses more than double in height, size, and splendor, no corresponding step has been taken, either to keep them dry or preserve their costly *façades.* The architects of our ancient buildings which have lasted would never have thought of subjecting one story to the down-pour from seven. Did they not take every care that no story should have to bear more than the rain received on its own superficial surface ? Yet turn to our town mansions, the *façades* are of Portland, enriched with stones of various colours, its columns are of granite, and the enrichments are profuse. Yet here is not to be found one effective breakwater from the attic to the base. Windows piled over window, vitrified and non-absorbent surfaces placed one on the other and what is the result? The rain, which gently trickles from the upper almost useless sill, flows like an avalanche down the various stages on to the balcony ; the balcony (without protection or guttering) again discharges this destructive agent, which soon saturates the porch and floods the area : hence, before the end of the year, these buildings, finished with so much care and cost, almost appear as if they had been subjected to a second Deluge. What is the remedy ? Every sill, every coping should be made impervious, and convey the various stages of the water to their various down-pipes. By such means our houses would be kept dry, decay averted, and their exteriors preserve a fresh and wholesome appearance.

This is, however, but one of the remedies I would suggest as imperative under existing circumstances ; other remedies are just as necessary, in regard both to drainage and ventilation.

If architects are to know their craft they must commence by working the materials for which they will afterwards have to give designs. The present system of architectural students beginning and ending their studies in the office of their master is the primary cause of the evils which exist. They may draw to perfection, but unless they understand what is practicable, and what would be the effect of what they do draw, they can never become more than mere artists. Hence so many of our buildings are realizations or models of fantastic and imaginary pictures, instead of being true buildings constructed from plans, the result of practical knowledge and of deep thought. The remedy for all this is simple. Send every architectural student to the bench, the banquer and the anvil ; thence to the laboratory of the chemist and to the lecture-hall of the geologist ; only after such a training is he fit to enter the architectural drawing office. Having served his indentures, a year's travel is essential before commencing practice. Then in ten years England would possess a school of architects second to none ; and thus, by harking back to the fountain-head of first principles, renew the architectural fame of our forefathers.

Your obedient servant,

E. WELBY PUGIN.

OFFICIAL NOTICES.

Ministry of Public Instruction.

APPOINTMENTS.

MEMBER OF GASPÉ BOARD OF EXAMINERS.

The Lieutenant-Governor, — by an Order in Council, dated 22nd December, 1871, — was pleased to appoint the Revd. William Gore Lyster, of Percé, a Member of the Board of Examiners for the county of Gaspé, in the room and stead of Louis Boucher, Esqr., resigned.

The Lieutenant-Governor,—by an Order in Council, dated the 22nd December, 1871,—was pleased to appoint the following

SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.

St. Denis (No. 2), Co. of St. Hyacinthe: Mr. Joseph Phénix dit Dauphinois, in the room and stead of M. Pierre Charon ;

Ste. Marguerite de Blairfindie, Co. of St. John : The Revd. Joseph Brissette, in the room and stead of Dr. Basile Larocque.

The Lieutenant-Governor,—by an Order in Council, dated the 17th January 1872,—was pleased to appoint the following

SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.

St. Moïse, Co. of Rimouski : MM. Clovis St. Armand, Ephrem Harvey, Thomas Morrisset, Romuald St. Armand, and François-Xavier Saucier ;

St. Joseph, Co. of Chicoutimi : The Revd. M. D. Roussel, in the room and stead of the Revd. M. François-Xavier Delâge ;

Cap Desespoir, Co. of Gaspé : The Revd. M. Pierre Saucier, in the room and stead of the Revd. M. N. Thivièrge ;

St. Sylvester (North), Co. of Lotbinière : M. George Camden, in the room and stead of M. John Doonan.

ERECTION OF SCHOOL MUNICIPALITY.

The Lieutenant-Governor, by an Order in Council, dated the 17th January, 1872,—was pleased

To erect, into a School Municipality to be known under the name of " St. Moïse, " the lands bounded as follows : — Starting West and running to the division line between St. Moïse and the School Municipality of Ste. Angèle de Mérici ; East, to the lateral line west of the Seigniory of Matapédiac ; North, starting from the line South-East of lot 34, running South-West and North-East of Kempt Road, thence to the division line between Ranges 11 and 12 of the Township of Cabot, running East-North-East to the division line between said Township and that of McNider, in part of lots 1 to 8 inclusive of the 10th Range of McNider, of lots 1 to 14 of the 11th Range, and of 6 to 14 of the 12th Range ; running towards the South to the line between the 2nd and 3rd Ranges of the Township of Awantsish, from lot No. 15, running East-North-East to the Seigniory of Matapédiac.

DIPLOMAS GRANTED BY BOARDS OF EXAMINERS.

CHARLEVOIX AND SAGUENAY.

Session of November 7, 1871.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, *2nd Class*, (F.) :—Miss Marie Côté.

CHARLES BOIVIN,
Secretary.

BEDFORD (CATHOLIC).

Session of May, 1871.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, *1st Class*, (F.) : — Miss Georgiana Vel dite Sansoucy.

2nd Class (E.) :—Bridget Monaghan.

J. F. LEONARD,
Secretary.

Session of August, 1871.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, *1st Class* :—Misses Elizabeth A. Carter (E.), M. R. Solime Dubrule (F. & E.), Marie Odile Gagnon (F.), Martha M. Mahedy (E.), and Mathilde Sénécal (F.)

2nd Class, (F.) :—Miss Célanise Papineau.

J. F. LEONARD,
Secretary.

MONTREAL (CATHOLIC).

Session of November 7, 1871.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, *1st Class* (F.) : — Mr. Joseph Martin.

2nd Class :—Misses Leocadie Brosseau, Euphémie Letourneau, and Mr. Gilbert Goulet.

F. X. VALADE,
Secretary.

QUEBEC (PROTESTANT).

Session of November 7, 1871.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, *1st Class* (E.) : — Mr. William Mortimer.

2nd Class :—Misses Mary Ferguson and Margaret Gallagher.

D. WILKIE,
Secretary.

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

QUEBEC, (PROVINCE OF QUEBEC,) JAN. & FEB., 1872.

Amendment to School Law.

Following will be found the Act, passed during the last Session of the Provincial Legislature, amending the School Law of this Province in a few particulars. The changes are so few and simple that explanations are unnecessary.

Clause seven being general in its application, we would draw the attention of School Commissioners, School Trustees, and Teachers to its provisions. It will be observed that the amendment differs from the Departmental Regulation hitherto in force, —requiring that *three* months' notice should be given prior to the expiration of an agreement, when it was not desirable either to renew it or reengage,—inasmuch as the law as it now stands amended, requires only *two* months' notice to be given by either party.

Clause eight expressly provides against any evasion of the preceding one, by declaring that " All notices given collectively or simultaneously by Trustees or Commissioners with the view of evading the foregoing provision, and all agreements made with them, (Teachers) for such purpose, shall be deemed to be null and of no effect."

An Act Further to Amend the Law Respecting Education in this Province.

(Assented to December 23rd, 1871.)

Her Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Legislature of Quebec, enacts as follows :

1. The Twenty-Third Section of the Act Thirty-Second Victoria, Chapter Sixteen, to amend the law respecting Education in this Province, is amended, in so far as the city of Quebec is concerned, by substituting for the words " a sum equal to three times the amount of the share of the Government Grant," the following words : " a sum equal to the Government Grant, together with fifty per cent in addition thereto."

2. The said Corporation may discharge the arrears due by it on the first day of January, to the Roman Catholic and Protestant Boards of School Commissioners of the said city of Quebec, under the said Act by paying unto the Protestant Board the sum of six thousand six hundred dollars, and to the Roman Catholic Board, a proportionate sum on the said arrears, according to the provisions of the said Act, after deducting therefrom the sum which shall have been paid to the said Roman Catholic Board in excess of and contrary to the provisions of the said Act ; but the said payments to have such effect must be made within the four months next after the passing of this Act, in default whereof the rights of the said Boards shall subsist, as if this Act had never been passed, and nothing in this Act contained, so long as the said payment shall not have been made, shall be read or interpreted against any suit now pending or which may hereafter be instituted against the said Corporation, under the said Act, which suit shall proceed as if this Act had never been passed ; and nothing in this Act contained shall apply to the costs of any such suit.

3. The payment of the said arrears may be made in and by debentures of the said Corporation, and the said Corporation is hereby authorized to issue debentures for the amount aforesaid, bearing interest not exceeding seven per centum, and payable in ten years from this date.

4. It shall be lawful in each year for the said Roman Catholic and Protestant Boards respectively, to cause an additional sum to be levied by the said Corporation, not to exceed, however, either with that already paid by the Corporation for the same year, the sum to which either Board would have been entitled under the Act hereby amended, which additional sum shall be levied solely upon the real estate designated in panel number one, if the Roman Catholic Board is concerned, and solely upon the real estate designated in panel number two, if the Protestant Board is concerned, but the said Corporation shall not be bound to levy such additional sum, unless for the year eighteen hundred and seventy-two, two months after the passing of this Act, and for every subsequent year, before the first day of January, there be presented to it a requisition to such end, signed by the majority of the members of the Board desirous of obtaining such additional sum, and a part of such additional sum, in proportion to the total amount, may be levied on panel number three, but such levy shall be made in such manner that the Board of Commissioners, which shall not have made the demand, shall receive the share to which it is entitled on the said panel, according to the provisions of the said Act ; and the amount to be levied on the said panel shall be therefore computed and levied and paid over to the said Boards of Commissioners, according to the provisions of the said Act.

5. In the case of such demand having been made, if any real estate entered upon the panel used for the purpose of levying such additional assessment, has changed or is about to change owners, before the time in which such assessment shall become due, in such manner that in accordance with the spirit of the Act, such real state has ceased to belong to the panel, of which it forms part, the new proprietor may refuse payment of the said assessment.

6. The first Section of the said Act respecting the Council of Public Instruction is amended by substituting the word " twenty-four " for the word " twenty-one," the word " sixteen" for the word " fourteen," and the word " eight" for the word " seven."

7. Every Male or Female Teacher engaged by the School Commissioners or by the Trustees of Dissentient Schools, whom the said School Commissioners or Trustees shall not have notified two months before the expiration of his or her engagement, that they do not intend to continue such engagement during the year following, shall be deemed to have been re-engaged for the same school and upon the same terms ; but nothing contained in this provision shall prevent the Commissioners or Trustees from removing any male or female Teacher, for the causes set forth in Chapter Fifteen of the Consolidated Statutes for Lower Canada.

8. All notices given collectively or simultaneously to Teachers by Trustees or Commissioners, with the view of evading the foregoing provision, and all agreements made with them, for such purpose, shall be deemed to be null and of no effect.

9. Section one of Chapter Thirty-One of the Statutes of Canada, Twenty-Ninth and Thirtieth Victoria, is hereby amended in the manner following :

The following words, contained in paragraph number nine of the said First Section of the said Statute, " the two arbitrators shall conjointly appoint a third, within the eight days next after their appointment ; and in case of disagreement between the said two arbitrators, or," are struck out, and the following substituted therefor : " a third shall be appointed by the Judge or one of the Judges of the Superior Court of the District, within which the said site for a school-house is situated, at the instance of either of the parties, and ; " and after the words : " by the Judge," in the said paragraph, the words : " or one of the Judges," shall be added, and after the words ; " of the Judge," in the said paragraph, the words : " or of the said Judges," shall be added ; and the following words shall be inserted at the end of the said paragraph, number nine : " and shall tax such costs."

10. The words " payment or tender," contained in paragraph number twelve, of the said First Section, of the said Act, are struck out, and the following substituted therefor : " deposit in the hands of the Prothonotary of the District, " within the limits of which the said site for a school-house " is situate," and the following words shall be added at the end of the said paragraph, number twelve : " and the " Superior Court for the said District, or one of the Judges " thereof, shall distribute the sums so deposited by ordering " that it be paid to the party or parties entitled thereto, and " the same shall be done after all interested parties, creditors " or assigns, have been called in, in the manner and form " and after the delay, which the said Court or Judge or one " of the Judges shall deem expedient and just."

11. The two preceding Sections shall be interpreted for all ends and purposes whatsoever, as forming part of Chapter Fifteen of the Consolidated Statutes for Lower Canada.

More Thorough and Systematic Inspection of the Ontario Schools.

The Report of the Chief Superintendent of Education for Ontario, for 1870, has been on our table for sometime, but we have been unable to prepare such a synopsis of it for this issue as would give any adequate idea of the importance of the document

in an educational point of view. The following article on Inspection of Schools, we transfer to our columns in its entirety, and for which we are sure no apology is necessary :

It has been well said by Dr. Fraser, the present Bishop of Manchester, *inspection is the salt of elementary education.* He goes on to insist upon its application to the higher schools of England, and says : " The publicity with which " all material facts," relating to each school, " are annually made known to the State," through the machinery of the Board of Education, is considered in Massachussetts to be the secret of the immense progress that has taken place in education in that commonwealth in the last thirty years."

Examples and Warnings of other Countries.

1. In all educating countries, the *thorough inspection* of schools is regarded as *essential* to their efficiency and improvement ; and this cannot be done except by men who are competent to *teach* the schools themselves. The want of practical and *thorough inspection* has undoubtedly been a serious impediment to any improvement in the schools in many parts of the Province ; nor can any improvement be expected in the schools generally without an improved inspection. It is an anomaly, in our school system, on which I have remarked more that once that while a legal standard of qualification is prescribed for teachers of schools, no standard of qualification whatever had been prescribed for the Superintendents of teachers and schools. In the efforts which have hitherto been directed to organize the machinery of the School System, and to provide the apparatus necessary to render it effective, the people of the country have most nobly co-operated and done their part in bringing the whole system, into efficient operation. But as long as the inspection of the schools was in the hands of men who were not paid or expected to devote their studies and time to the duties of their office, and who, for the most part, were not practical teachers and who formed their standard of good schools and good teaching from what existed twenty or thirty years ago, and not from what the best schools have been made, and the improved methods of school organization, teaching and discipline which have been introduced during the present age, we could not expect any considerable improvement in the internal state and character of the schools, except from the improved character of the teachers, and instances where regularly trained teachers, or teachers who have kept with the progress of the times, have been able to do little in comparison with what they might have done, had their hands been strengthened and their hearts encouraged by the example, counsel and influence of thoroughly competent Inspectors.

2. As to the felt necessity of a better system of School Inspection in Ontario, we have the testimony of the present Bishop of Manchester, who, 1865, visited the Province, and made his Report to the English Commissioners upon our schools. He remarks :—

" Thorough inspection of schools, such as we are accustomed " to in England, is a great desideratum both in the States and " Canada (page 8). * * * Something like our English " mode of inspection of schools, *by a body of perfectly independ-* " *ent and competent gentlemen,* would be a great and valuable " addition to the school system both of the United States and " Canada, * * * In fact, *the* great desideratum of the " Common School system, both in Massachusetts and generally " in the States, is *adequate, thorough, impartial independent* " *inspection of schools.* In New-York and Pennsylvanya, a system " of supervision by counties or wide districts has been introdu- " ced, and is at work with tolerable success ; but even here, the " Superintendents (or commissioners, as they are called in New- " York) appear, from their reports, so be more or less ham- " pered by local prejudices and jealousies, and their salary is in " part provided by the district which is the sphere of their " labours. They are elected, too, in Pennsylvania, by the " "school directors" of the several townships ; in New-York, by " the electors of the assembly districts, by ballot. A similar " organisation is strongly recommended by the Ohio State Com- " mission. * * * The agent of the Massachusetts Board of " Education, in a lecture, says :—" My observations, on visiting " thousands of schools throughout Massachusetts, and many in " twelve others States, have clearly proved to my mind the " wisdom of maintaining a Superintendent in all our cities and " large townships, *who shall devote his whole time to the care* " *and improvement of the schools.*" (Page 25.) In discussing the defects in the Administration of schools in the United States, Dr. Fraser says : " The supreme control of the schools " is too absolutely in the hands of local administrators, with no " *absolute guarantee of competency.* The inspection, even, of " County Superintendents and Commissioners is often found to be " nugatory and ineffective. Legal requirements are constantly " ignored are evaded, and a properly authenticated and *inde-* " *pendent* officer, like Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools among " ourselves, armed with visitorial powers, and with means provided " for giving effect to his recommendations, appears to be the " element wanting in the machinery of the system, to give it " that balance which the complication of its parts requires." (Pages 61, 62,)

3. The English Commissioners, in their report of 1861 declare that,—

" The superiority of inspected schools may be stated as " beyond dispute ; and though this is partly attributable to " inspected schools possessing an apparatus of trained teachers " and pupil teachers, which in other schools is unknown, yet " much is due to the activity and carefulness which are the " results of a system of constant supervision. This is clearly " expressed by Mr. Hare, who examined a large number of " witnesses, and who assures us that " on the beneficial effects " of inspection, especially as carried on by Her Majesty's In- " spectors, the agreement is more general than on any other " subject. Nearly all consider it as a wholesome stimulus to all " concerned—managers, parents, pupil-teachers, and scholars."

" The great advantages of inspection appear still more clearly " expressed, if we examine the opinions which have been sent " to us from different parts of the country. Thus the Hon. " and Rev. T. Best, after criticising as " faulty" several details " of the Government system of aid, speaks thus :—" Having " dwelt thus long on the deficiencies of the system, let me make " amends in a single sentence. The schools under Government " inspection are, as a rule, *the only good schools in the country,* " and we cannot too highly appreciate the assistance the system " renders and has rendered." "

" We have strong testimony to the marked superiority of " inspected over uninspected schools, and to the stimulus which " inspection supplies, subject to the remark that the Inspectors " often lead the teachers to dwell on matters of memory, " rather than of reasoning, and rather on details than on gener- " al principles, or on general results, and also subject to a " further remark, as to the inconvenience of differences in the " standards adopted by different Inspectors. As a remedy for " these defects, we recommend the appointment by the Commit- " tée of Council of one or more Inspectors-General, whose duty " it shall be to superintend the Inspectors, to notice their " deficiencies, and to correspond on the subject directly with " the Committee of Council. We have found that while inspec- " tion quickens the intellectual activity, and raises the condition " of the whole school, the Inspectors are tempted to attend to " the state of the upper, more than that of the junior, classes in " schools, and to estimate the whole school accordingly."

4. The English Commissioners, in their report of 1868, say: " *Even the best masters will not do so well without this aid* " *as with it.* On the Continent all Schools that in any degree " claim a public character, and sometimes even private schools, " are required to submit to such a review of their work. In this " country, inspection *has been the most powerful instrument in* " *the improvement of elementary education.* * * * Inspec-

" tion is necessary to prevent waste, to secure efficiency, to " prepare the way for improvement. The regulations for " examination should be governed by two principles. One is " that the examination should not be competitive, but a fair " test of average work. It should, as far as possible, follow the " Prussian rule, and be such as a scholar of fair ability and " proper diligence may, toward the end of his school course, " come to with a quiet mind and without a painful effort."

5. Our American neighbours have thoroughly tried the systems of both Township and County Superintendents. The State Commissioner of Schools in Ohio says: " Our system of township supervision of schools has proved a lamentable failure. Similar systems in other States have uniformly failed. Any system of supervision for the country schools must necessarily fail that does not make provision for the employment of *competent Superintendents, whose entire energies are given to the work.*" The value of local supervision, through the agency of competent County Superintendents, has been tested in other States. Pennsylvania adopted the system in 1854, New York in 1856, Illinois, Wisconsin, Maryland, West Virginia, California, and several other States subsequently; and the testimony from each of them is, that it has proved a most valuable feature of their School System. The Superintendent of Public Instruction in Pennsylvania says: " County Superintendents were " first elected in this State in 1854, and it is not claiming too " much for the office to say that it has vitalized the whole " system. To it, more than to any other agency, or to all other " agencies combined, we owe our educational progress of late " years." I may observe that more than four-fifths of the County School Convention held in the several counties of this Province, two years since, desired duly qualified County Superintendents in place of Township Superintendents.

6. The travelling agent of the Board of Education for the State of Massachusetts uses the following forcible language in regard to this matter:

" It has been said, and with great truthfulness, that ' the " most important branch of administration, as connected with " education, relates to school inspection.' It is asserted by " some careful observers, that the Dutch schoolmasters are de" cidedly superior to the Prussian, notwithstanding the numer" ous Normal Schools of Prussia, and the two or three only in " Holland; and this superiority is *attributed entirely to a better " system of inspection. This is the basis on which the whole " fabric of their popular instruction rests.* The absence of such " a thorough supervision of schools as is maintained in Holland " with such admirable results, is the weakest part of our system.

" What is needed for all our schools, and what is essential to " their highest efficiency, is a constant, thorough, intelligent, " impartial and independent supervision. Comparatively few " persons possess the varied qualifications so indispensable to " success in this delicate and important work. So important " was it regarded by the distinguished author of the Dutch sys" tem of inspection, that, after a long life devoted to educational " labour, he said: ' Take care how you choose your Inspectors; " ' they are men whom you ought to look for lantern in hand.'

" A school," says Everett, " is not a clock, which you can " wind up, and then leave it to go itself. Nor can other " interests be thus neglected. Our railroads and factories " require some directing, controlling, and constantly supervising " mind for their highest efficiency, and do not our schools need the " same? To meet this great want, eleven of the fifteen cities of " our State, and numerous large towns, have availed themselves " of the provision of the Statute, and elected School Superin" tendents who devote their whole time and energies to this " work of supervision. I have visited all, these towns and cities, " and several of them frequently, and can bear my decided tes" timony to the great benefit that has resulted to their schools " in consequence."

Spirit in which Inspection should be Performed.

The regulations in regard to inspection, which have been adopted by the Council of Public Instruction, are sufficiently explicit as to the general details of inspection, and the mode in which it should be conducted. I will, therefore, only repeat here what I wrote on this subject in 1846 and 1850, when our present system of education was inaugurated. I said:

" To perform the duty of Inspector with any degree of efficiency, the Inspector should be acquainted with the best modes of teaching every department of an English school, and be able to explain and exemplify them. It is, of course, the Inspector's duty to witness the modes of teaching adopted by the teacher, but he should do someting more He should, some part of the time, be an actor as well as a spectator. To do so he must keep pace with the progress of the science of teaching. Every man who has to do with schools, ought to make himself master of the best modes of conducting them in all the details of arrangement, instruction, and discipline. A man commits a wrong against teachers, against the interest of school education, who seeks the office of Inspector without being qualified and able to fulfil all its functions. In respect to the manner of performing the visitorial part of the Inspector's duties, I repeat the suggestions which I made in my circular to local Superintendents of Schools, in December, 1846. They are as follows:

" Your own inspection of the schools must be chiefly relied upon as the basis of your judgment, and the source of your information, as to the character and methods of school instruction, discipline, management, accommodations, &c.: and on this subject, we ought not to content ourselves with exterior and general facts. * * * But it is not of less importance to know the interior regime of the schools—the aptitude, the zeal, the deportment of the teachers—their relations with the pupils, the trustees and the neighbourhood—the progress and attainments of our pupils, and, in a word, the whole moral and social character and results of the instruction given, as far as can be ascertained. Such information cannot be acquired from reports and statistical tables; it can only be obtained by special visits, and by personal conversation and observation—by an examination of the several classes, in their different branches of study; so as to enable you to ascertain the degree and efficiency of the instruction imparted."

The Great Value of Inspection to Public Schools.

" The importance of the question of Public School inspection" (remarks the *English Journal of Education*) " is much broader and deeper than at first sight appears. The history of that laborious transition which has occurred, first, from contented ignorance to discontent with ignorance, and then to strivings after intelligence, and attempts at education, fructifying in a very general effort to make school efficient, discloses to the practical observer, one gangrenous obstacle attaching to the whole progress of the movement, viz., a morbid desire to screen and palliate defects. We believe far less hindrance to education has arisen from the badness of schools, than from the folly of cloaking their badness. This jealousy of criticism has been exhibited greatly in proportion to the reputation of the school. It has always been found than an Inspector may, with much less chance of evoking the wrath of the manager, denounce a bad school in wholesale terms than he can insinuate a blemish, or hint a blot, in one which " has a name." It may be said that this is very natural, as no one likes the criticism of that which has obtained him credit, and ministered to his *amour propre*: but natural as this may be, it is not less injurious to the progress of education. The very best school is capable of improvement; and as the real value of a school is generally overrated, and its defects are more easily veiled than those of any other object of equal importance, it is greatly to be lamented that this intolerance of criticism should pit itself against the obvious means of improvement which skilled inspection affords. We repeat that, if it stops short of a full and faithful exposure of every fault and defect in the matter and methods of instruction, it betrays its trust, and falls short of its imperative duty. So far from there being ground for com-

plaint of the censoriousness of Inspectors of Schools, whether local or governmental proofs abound that they far oftener sin in being too mealy-mouthed, and in winking at defects they deem it ungracious or impolitic to expose. Education is by no means in need of such delicate handling. It is far from being a flame easily extinguished by the breath of censorship. On the contrary, nothing tends more directly to feed and nourish it; and Inspectors who have the manliness to set their faces against shams and rote systems, and to 'develop' errors, as well as 'aims,' in their right light, are deserving of the hearty thanks and support of every man who wishes education to be a reality, and a thorough mind-training in the duties and subjects essential for practical life. There are two ways of inspecting schools; one is to praise the teachers and please the managers; the other is to benefit the scholars and improve the schools. It will but seldom happen that those two courses can coincide. The Inspector must usually take his choice between them, and according to it is he worthy or unworthy of his office. We are no advocates of undue harshness, or a spirit of fault finding. He who takes pleasure in blaming, or who fails to apply just censure in kindly or Christian terms, is just as wrong as he who, from false lenience or truckling servility, praises where he ought to blame, or 'winks at faults he trembles to chastise.'

"We firmly believe that the progress of sound teaching is just now more entirely in the hands, and contingent on the faithfulness and courage of Inspectors of Schools, than any other human agency. None, so well as professional and experienced examiners, can detect glosses, extinguish effete systems, substitute right ones, or invert the pyramid now tottering on its apex. Those who, chafing under the wholesome correction of ther own schools, absorbed by the sense of personal grievance, and forgetting what is due to the great behests and eternal aims of education, rail at the remedy, and attack the physician instead of the disease, are real obstructives to the cause of sound secular and avaling religious instruction."

Protestant Teachers' Association of the Province of Quebec.

EIGHTH ANNUAL CONVENTION.

We are indebted to the courtesy of Principal Hicks, McGill Normal School, Montreal, for a copy of the *Montreal Weekly Gazette*, (Jan. 5, 1872) containing the following report:

The Eighth annual convention of the Protestant Teachers' Association of Quebec was opened on Wednesday, in the St. Francis College Building, Richmond, Professor Graham, president of the association presiding.

The convention was opened at 2 o'clock p. m. with rather a small attendance owing doubtless to the somewhat unsettled state of the weather.

After devotional exercises had been conducted by Rev. Professor McKay, the minutes of the last meeting which had previously been printed and circulated, were, on motion of Mr. Inspector Hubbard seconded by professor McKay, adopted.

The Secretary, Mr. Frank Hicks, M. A., read the subjects for discussion.

The President then rose and said that he was glad to see that so many academies throughout the country were represented. He was also delighted to have with them Hon. Treasurer Robertson. He was also especially pleased that they had with them a representative of one of the leading papers in the Dominion, and he was sure that a new interest would be created in the Montreal Gazette, which was one of the leading educational journals in the country. He wished also to convey to Mr. Frank Hicks, his hearty thanks for the manner in which he had transacted the business pertaining to his office, which, he assured his hearers, was very arduous. After some further remarks he proceeded with his address. He saw before him representatives of various sections of the Province, and of various interests, and he might therefore expect that they would take an interest in the subject which he was about to bring before them. This topic was one which it was time for teachers to consider, and the result which he arrived at he believed it was necessary for them to take action to bring about. The subject which he alluded to was the establishment and perfection of a system of common graded schools. The common school system of this country seemed to have had its birth in the Eastern Townships, whence it had extended to all parts of the country, Ontario included. The inherent excellence of the system, the hearty co-operation of the people, the fostering care of the government in directing it—all had contributed to make it the means of diffusing a very good elementary education throughout the country. Our system of common schools had, therefore, for these reasons, accomplished much. The teachers of common schools had comprised our best men and best women. Many of our common school teachers had but been fitting themselves for a higher position in the country. Our common schools had occupied a large place in the affections of the people. They had been considered as the colleges of the poorer classes, for they were the only places in which men and women in the lower walks of life could fit themselves for becoming good citizens. We must look upon our common school system as the foundation of our educational success. He thought that they might look upon the common school system as the very basis of our educational system, from which we might expect much more as it was developed and perfected. The establishment of model schools had not proved a success. The few established, especially in country places, had not fulfilled the expectations which they had created. In the cities and towns they had in a measure proved successful. In referring to our educational facilities, he must not forget to remark upon our academies, which had been very extensively adopted throughout the Eastern Townships. These had done a great deal for the country, they had in fact done more than could have been expected from them, considering the difficulties under which they labored. Few had ever received any endowments, the teachers having to rely for their support upon tuition fees, and had it not been for Government aid but little would have been accomplished compared with what had been done. The men and women who had taught academies had done their work well. But the time had now arrived when it would be impossible for our school system to do as much as it had done in former times; and we ought to consider a system of graded schools as an extension of our common school system. First there should be the common schools, to be followed by intermediate schools, and afterwards high schools. In some districts others, perhaps, would require to be added, but generally these would meet the wants of the people. When they considered that much more could not be done under our present school system, although no doubt it was doing as much as it possibly could, it was our duty to endeavor to bring about some improvement. Our present school system was certainly not sufficient to give to the youth of the country that education which they ought to have. It was utterly impossible for a teacher single handed to give instruction in all the branches which he was called upon to do in order to fit our youth to take the position which they ought to do in the country. Our model school system being separated from the common school system, and our academies being chiefly local, they were not able to do their work efficiently. In every department of humanity, a proper division of labour was being carried out. For instance, very little could be done in manufactures if different sets of men and women were not employed in different departments of work. To expect one teacher to give instruction in the whole circle of sciences, and the elementary branches as well, was to expect from a teacher what he was not able to do and do well. The graded schools would afford an opportunity of carrying on the work of teaching systematically. It would enable teachers to do their work much more rapidly; and when in these days time was so valuable, and when the work might be done with much less arduous labour, both to pupil and teacher, in less time and more thouroughly, a great advantage would of course be obtained. Not only, too, would the system prove more rapid, easier, and more thorough, but in an economical point of view very much would be gained. The present system afforded no opportunity for classification, which was one of its great deficiencies. As a means of fitting a pupil for the duties of life, as well as for the higher branches of instruction, would the graded schools be found invaluable. It was surprising to many that a greater number of scholars were not prepared for colleges. But academic teachers knew that with the duties which they had on their hands, it was impossible for them to fit young men and young women for higher educational institutions. He knew full well that many teachers, in order to fit a promising pupil for the college, were obliged to steal hours from their own time both morning and evening for that purpose. It seemed to him therefore, that from these and various other reasons we could not expect a much further improvement of our schools unless something were done to systematize the work. He fully

believed that it was the duty of the state to give to every child in the land such an education as would fit him or her to perform his or her duties as good citizens. This he thought was the lowest standard that we could adopt, and that with anything below this, we should fall below the standard of a civilized people. It seemed to him that it was time for them to take upon themselves the task of bringing before the people both in town and country the importance of establishing a system of public graded schools, to a great extent free. A system of graded schools, which would bring the pupil on step by step, would, he was sure, give to the youth of our land the most thorough, rapid and economical education which it would be possible for him to obtain. He fully believed, however, that we were not very much behind other countries, and thought that very likely, as much might be found fault with in foreign countries, even more favorably situated than our own. This system, of which he spoke, it was true, might not be very well adapted to the thinly-settled parts, but in the more densely settled parts of the country its perfect adaptability could not be doubted. One of the great defects of our present school system was that it did not provide for the examination of pupils in passing from the common school to the academy. Thus both time and money were wasted. A short residence in the United States, and a pretty wide observation not only in Massachusetts but in other States in the Union, of the graded school system, as conducted there, had led him to a belief in the efficiency of the system, and of its capability to give to a pupil a systematic and practical education. It did not appear to him that in this country we could expect private and denominational to supplement common school education. They had no doubt done much, and were perhaps the best of their class, but they were too expensive to reach the poorer classes. There remained, therefore, the intermediate and higher branches of education which did not reach the lower classes. He had already alluded to the efforts which were being put forth in England and in the United States in this direction, and he need not allude to the progress of the work in Prussia as that had been dwelt upon at considerable length by their former President at the last annual meeting. He thought that, should they agree with him, although not so favorably situated as other countries in regard to the homogeniousness of the people, it should be the duty of the Protestants of Lower Canada to do their very best to bring about such a state of things as would provide for the general education of our people. It seemed to him that in every village there should be at least an intermediate or model school to supplement the work of the common schools, and three or four graded schools in the cities and towns, supported, so far as possible, by public taxation. A pupil in these schools would pass from the lower to the higher grade as he was fitted for the change, thus receiving in a systematic manner a more thorough education than he could possibly receive from the somewhat hap-hazard manner in which our academies were now conducted. Something was now being done in this direction in the flourishing town of Sherbrooke. He thought that this town offered admirable facilities for carrying out the system of which he had spoken, and he trusted that those who had the school in charge, would see that the work was still perfected. Something had also been done, he understood, in the village of Waterloo. It seemed to him, however, that the time had come for still further efforts, and that the people were ready for the consideration of the subject if it were fully and fairly laid before them. He trusted then that the press, the teachers themselves, and all who were interested in the work of educational advancement, would strive to lay before the public the avantages of such a system, so that that which had been begun might be carried out to perfection. All of his hearers had doubtless looked with interest upon the work which had been so nobly begun in Montreal. The teachers in the country naturally looked with great interest upon improvements which might take place in the cities; and to Montreal they looked with especial interest, it being the Metropolitan city of the Province and of the Dominion. He was sure, therefore, that the efforts in Montreal had been looked upon with great interest by people from all parts of the country. From the success of the School Commissioners so far, it seemed almost certain that if they continued the work as it had been begun, they might ere long expect to see in Montreal a good system of public graded schools, and he trusted, also, schools which should be free to the people generally. He trusted, too, that the Commissioners would see that these schools were good enough for the wealthiest as well as the poorest in the land. He could not abstain from relating the course which a wealthy gentleman in Boston had pursued in the education of his children. He ceased to send his children to private schools and sent them to one of the public grammar schools of the city—schools which were quite equal to the best in the old world or in the new—and he found that those of his children who received their education entirely at the public schools were more thoroughly and rapidly educated than the others which had received the whole or a portion of their instruction at private schools. He thought that he said very much for the system when some of the wealthiest persons in the community preferred sending their sons and their daughters to the public school. One thing which had amazed him in Montreal was, the vast amount of work done by the Commissioners with their limited funds. He was also perfectly amazed that they should be able to go on as they did, without a common school Inspector in Montreal. It seemed to him one of the first requisites of the system was the appointment of a gentleman thoroughly acquainted with the working of the graded school system to this place. In the United States there was scarcely a town which had not a superintendent of schools, who lived entirely upon the salary which he received from his office, and was thus enabled to devote his whole attention to it. His duties were to have a general supervision over the schools, to counsel the teacher, settle all difficulties, etc. All this was quite sufficient to occupy, the whole time of an able and active man. He did not, however, in referring to this matter, intend to reflect in any way upon the Commissioners in Montreal. All these things would doubtless come in time; and the country looking to Montreal for example, would find that it was not behind hand in carrying out the work that had been begun, and would set itself to follow in the footsteps of the city. After all that it was possible for the Minister of Education and his Deputies to do in the line of supervision, much more was required to be done by Inspectors, and more by far under the present system than under a graded system. He might if he chose bring up many other arguments in favour of graded schools and in favour of their early establishment in this country, but he would not weary them. He would urge upon them the importance of an early and united effort, for the perfection of a school system on the excellent basis laid down for them by others who had preceded them. He feared that in this country there had been too much need to rely on the Government for support and advancement. The Government had its allotted work to do, and would be able to do it more efficiently if aided by the public. Members of the Government looked to the public opinion of the country to see what was best to be done. Unless the public were willing to do their part they could not expect the Government to do it for them. In fact he thought that a great share of the work of improvement must devolve on the teachers themselves. It should be their work to influence public opinion. People must be induced to tax themselves more highly. After all, the money which came from the Government was got from the public; and he believed that the people would see that the money was better laid out if it were raised by local taxation. He thought that it was a grave error to call so often upon the Government. Teachers, he thought, would desire more than any one else to obtain the result which they were now considering. Many a teacher of practical experience now felt that his work was in a good measure thrown away because it had not been done systematically. He thought, then, that this reform should begin with themselves. That they should begin to teach the people —being a sort of educational missionaries, scattered throughout all parts of the country, and visiting many firesides—that such a system as that proposed was better and more economical; and that it would be much better for them to devote the money now spent in sending their children to private schools, to the building up of a thoroughly good public school system. If they wished a teacher to give thorough instruction in the practical and scientific branches of education, they must give him time, not only that he might the more thoroughly instruct the pupil, but that he himself might study. If ever we hoped to become a progressive people we must lay hold on all the educational advantages which were to be found in other countries. Our school system should be such that the poorest could have no excuse for lacking education. It should be such that every youth would have an opportunity at the public schools of obtaining such instruction in literature and science as would fit him to perform well the duties of a citizen. He might perhaps go further and say that it was the duty of the state to provide such an education free; and they might look forward to the time, perchance, when we should have a perfected system of progressive education established, so that we might become as thoroughly an educated people as could be found in the most favored and progressive portions of the world. As a citizen, and as one who expected to be a permanent resident of this country, he would ever endeavour to promote the establishment of such a system of schools as he had described; and it was time for them as a class, to put forth a united effort for the establishment of a perfected system of public graded schools. The learned Professor sat down amid considerable applause.

Mr. Inspector Hubbard of Sherbrooke, adduced some facts with respect to the graded system as established at Sherbrooke. The

Sherbrooke Academy, which had been in existence for years had, to a great extent, proved a failure. It was found that it could not be carried on with success under the semi-private and semi-public system which formely prevailed, and a proposal was made to introduce a system something after the manner of that spoken of by the President. It was arranged that the Academy should be placed under the management of the town Board of School Commissionners, with the view of taking in scholars from the elementary schools in the town and outside, who in the opinion of the managers, had arrived at a sufficient stage of advancement to be admitted to such a school. The scholars were then taken on through the higher branches of education, the common schools being confined strictly to the common and preliminary branches. It was not at present supposed that things were sufficiently advanced to make the Academy of Sherbrooke a high school, but an intermediate as well a high school. He thought that in many other parts of the townships the system might be carried on with equal success. So far, a very favorable commencement had been made at Sherbrooke.

Mr. SMITH, Master of the Sherbrooke Academy, said that as far as the working of the graded system went at Sherbrooke, he found that it was at present in a very imperfect state. Just as had been very well said by the President, the academy was doing a preliminary as well as an intermediate work. It would be unfair to represent it as a graded school except in a most embryo form, for they had not as yet been able to introduce the principle of test examinations. No doubt they should one day be enabled to overcome some of the difficulties under which they laboured. He had already been trying the fireside system suggested by the President, he hoped with some success. He thoroughly believed in the graded system not only for Sherbrooke, but for every other place where it could be carried out. The Chairman had suggested the best means in favour of the system. Of course it was well understood that the great object of teaching was to make the diffusion of knowledge more extensive, and of systems to render teaching easier and more practical. In Sherbrooke be it remembered, that fully one half of the population was French, which rendered it impossible to carry on the work with anything like the same facility as could be done in an entirely English town.

M. Shonyo, of Coaticook Academy fully concurred in what had been said relative to graded schools. There had been some action taken in this direction in the academy to which he belonged. In his connection with academies in this country, which had extended over some ten years, he had always felt that the word was terribly disjointed. He had felt that they were doing the work of a lower grade of schools, there being no test examinations. Should test examinations be established, however, many of their schools would die. They were forced, therefore, to do the work of low grade schools or to give up altogether. Now, in larger places like Coaticook, they hoped to be able to introduce the graded system. He had found the officers of the municipality ready to co-operate with him in this effort. Should the Government support them, as he had recently been led to understand they would, they hoped soon to have the system in operation. To his mind, the greatest advantage of the graded system was the ambition which it excited in the pupil. When the pupil saw that he had to climb the ladder step by step, when his advancement depended on his own efficiency, he would be incited to further efforts. The community would also be led to take a greater interest in the schools. Now, in many of the academies, the people took very little, if any, interest. He had often made strenuous efforts to awaken interest in his schools, but they had fallen quite flat. In Ontario it was vastly different. So far as he had been able to follow the school system of Ontario, he had found it the best on the continent, the graded system being thoroughly carried out.

The matter was then dropped.

Rev. Professor Mackay followed with an interesting address on the Greek article, following it in its various changes through several dead and living languages.

Professor Graham, in remarking upon the address, recommended very strongly to teachers the study of the etymology of words. They would find a spirit and a depth of meaning in words if traced back to their original roots which would be perfectly astonishing. Indeed, he likened the transmigration of words to the transmigration of souls as believed in by the Brahmins. In some words there was more meaning and knowledge than in whole volumes of history. And if from the remarks of the learned Professor they should any of them be led to the study of etymology, they would find it a great source of pleasure and instruction. He hoped that in future more attention would be given to this study.

Mr. F. Hicks, Secretary of the Convention, said that in his own school he paid considerable attention to the study of the derivation of words, and the scholars thought the afternoons given to this study the next best thing to half-holidays.

After some remarks by Mr. Inspector Hubbard,

Mr. Emberson, of Bishops College, said that one point which had not been as yet touched upon in connection with this subject, and which it was important to bring out, was how, for instance, history, if he might so speak, was preserved by etymology. He showed that the Greek and Roman nations must have sprung from the same source, as many words for common objects were nearly the same in both languages.

The Convention was then adjourned until 7.30 o'clock.

EVENING SESSION.

The Convention was opened again in the evening at half-past 7 o'clock, with a considerably larger attendance than during the afternoon.

The Chairman remarked that he had received a communication from Hon. Mr. Chauveau, Minister of Public Instruction, to the effect that, owing to great pressure of public business, and to the fact that this was the first anniversary of a very great bereavement in his family, he was unable to be present. Those of his hearers who had been present at the last Convention held at Richmond, would regret this the more, as the presence of the Minister of Education and several other distinguished gentlemen had added much to the interest of the occasion.

The discussion on the subject of Graded Schools was then resumed.

Mr. Lee, of the Stanstead Academy, was sorry to occupy time which would perhaps have been better occupied by some one else. He could only supplement what had been said during the afternoon with regard to graded schools and their work. He believed that graded schools could not be called an experiment, because in all parts of the neigbouring country they had been introduced with success. He had had some experience in graded schools in the northern part of the State of Illinois, where they claimed that their school system could not be surpassed by any in the United States or elsewhere. In Chicago they had a system of graded schools which worked admirably, and in many of the smaller towns they had followed the system at Chicago with success. He thought that the strongest point in favour of the graded system had been brought out in the afternoon by Mr. Shonyo,—that was the ambition excited in the pupils. The children in our elementary schools had no direct end to look forward to until the time came for them to choose a profession, which must of course be when they had arrived at a pretty advanced age. This was not the case in graded schools. The pupil was here incited to labour ; he had a definite object before him from the commencement, and was enabled to see the progress he was making. They desired not only to excel in the department which they were in, but looked forward from the elementary school to the intermediate, and from the intermediate to the high school. As an instance of the estimation in which the public schools in Chicago were held, he said that a person in that city holding a high-school diploma occupied a better position than he would if he came with a diploma from one of the Eastern colleges. This, it was believed, was the result of the graded school system. They had the best of teachers in these schools, being for the most men who had came from the East, and taken these positions from various reasons, the principal, he thought, being that they were better paid.

Mr. Shonyo said that any one who wished thoroughly to understand the graded school system would find the fullest particulars concerning it in a little book published by S. Bonner of New York. The author was Mr. W. S. Wells. This little book contained more information on the subject under discussion than any other that he knew of. Mr. Wells, the author, was Superintendent of schools in Chicago, and had recently taken the management of the public scheme both in Chicago and Cincinnati.

Professor Hicks, Principal of McGill Normal School, could say very little upon this subject ; he came rather to be instructed than to impart anything. In fact he knew very little about graded schools. In England he saw that they were about introducing them, and he would wait very anxiously to see, how they would work. He wanted to ask a few questions concerning this system. He could not see his way clearly through it. It seemed to him that it was a system solely adapted to large towns and cities. He could not see how it could be worked in country places. Therefore, the town child would have a great many advantages over the country child, which seemed to him unfair. The advancement from one school into another had often been held out as an inducement to the child to study. For his part he did not think that any such inducement should be held out ; but if it were true that it was better and necessary to do so, then the country teacher must labour under very great disadvantages as compared with the teacher in the city It seemed to him that if they could make children understand that the object of edu-

cation was to fit them for their daily life in time to come, this would be the best inducement that could be held out to them. Was not the system too mechanical also? He had always looked upon all systems connected with large schools as being too mechanical. He had believed that they might find the very best schools in the world in the backwoods; and he should not like the opinion to prevail that the best schools were always to be found in large cities. He also feared that it would have the effect of doing away with a healthy competition whieh had hitherto existed between schools both private and public. These were some of the arguments which had struck him against private schools. They must mind, however, that he was not opposing them; he was merely putting questions in order to gain information.

Mr. Lee said that the ambition which he wished to create in the child was not of the nature of prize-winning. In life we all looked forward to bettering our positions, and this was the ambition which he wished to stimulate in children. From observation in schools of this sort he knew that scholars were stimulated to study by such an ambition. He believed that we were all naturally lazy, and that a boy who would say that he would rather, as a mere matter of choice, stay indoors and study, than go outside with his playmates, was either sickly or else was uttering a falsehood. It was only the ambition to learn and to acquire knowledge which made him study, and when so strong an inducement as he had spoken of was held out, he thought the ambition would be all the keener. Wherever this system had been tried it had been found to work very much more successfully than the system of giving prizes. In Chicago no scholar was allowed to receive a prize, nor was the teacher allowed to receive a present. The teachers' salaries being amply sufficient for all their requirements.

Principal Hicks asked if the graded schools in these places were supposed to take in all the children in the cities where they were situated. This would, he thought, do away with all private enterprise, and with the healthy rivalry which mightexist between schools of the same grade carried on by different teachers. In England it was thought that this rivalry would prove to the advantage of education in the long run.

Mr. Inspector Hubbard stated that he took occasion some two or three years ago, when in Boston and vicinity, to examine very closely into the public school system as conducted there. He had paid more especial attention to the public schools in the town of Lawrence. Then there were but two graded schools. Children that were of sufficient age to enter public schools at all were taken at first into the first room of the elementary school, where they were taught for a year or so in the primary branches. There were from forty to fifty scholars in each room. Each room was under the charge of a teacher and the whole was under the general supervision of a principal. The departments were of course separate from each other so far as instruction was concerned. At the end of the year the scholars in the first, or lower department, would be transferred to the next and so on; and it would be a humiliation to a scholar, to be deprived through incompetency from getting his step. After going through these schools the scholar would be well fitted to perform the ordinary duties of life. He would not of course be trained in classics. He was decidedly of opinion that in many places in their section of the province gradation might to some extent be very profitably used. He questioned, however, whether at present, without training the public mind in that direction, anything like a perfect system could be introduced, but in some places a beginning, as in Sherbrooke, might be made. In the ordinary towns he did not see that a perfect system could be used. The scholar might therefore be sent to the Common School, and older and more advanced scholars might be encouraged to go into the larger towns to obtain a higher education. The Common School, would, however, for some time to come have to be the people's college.

Mr. Lee said, in reference to the influence of graded schools, his own experience was that the private school was supplanted by the public model school. When he went to the West several years ago, he opened a private school in the vicinity of Chicago, with about 200 scholars. He subsequently gave up teaching, and went into business for two years, during which time he assisted in the establishment of public graded schools in that locality. The result was that the wealthiest people withdrew their children from private schools; and the gentleman who had taken the school which he gave up was soon obliged to close. In fact, private schools had almost been done away with in the western part of Illinois. As Mr. Hubbard had suggested, the ordinary branches were taught in these schools, and those who wished to reach to higher attainments went into the larger towns, to the high schools.

Mr. White, of the Montreal High School, had not come there with any intention of speaking, but as they had also been to Chicago he would bring them something nearer to hand. In Montreal they had a system of graded schools, so far as he understood the matter, under the management of the Commissioners. Each school was graded even to the High School, where they had an elamentary branch, from which the children passed into the higher branch as they were fitted for doing so, and passed on from them until they were fitted to enter McGill University.

Mr. Barwick said that so far as he understood the grading of schools, all the schools under the Protestant Board were graded. That was to say they had a primary department, from which pupils passed to a higher department, not in a given time, but as soon as they were fitted for doing so.

Mr. White wished to add to what he had previously said that, during the past year a considerable number of boys had been drafted from the Common School into the High School.

This closed the discussion upon the above subject.

THE TEACHER'S MEANS OF PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT.

Principal Hicks of the McGill Normal School then read a paper on the "Teacher's Means of Professional Improvement," in which, after speaking of the importance ef every teacher trying to fit himself for his duties, he drew attention, in the first place, to the benefits Normal Schools had conferred upon teachers in preparing them for their work, and the need there was for their endeavouring by all the means in their power to carry on that professional training which it was the province of the Normal School to begin. He then alluded to the value of school conventions as a means of improving the teacher, bore testimony to the good resulting from such meetings in different countries, and instanced the present meeting as calculated to produce beneficial results as far as Canadian teachers were concerned.

He strongly advocated, as one of the best means of professional improvement, the fostering among teachers of such a kindly feeling and *esprit de corps*, that they might be led to frequent interchange of school visitation among themselves for the purpose of mutual instruction in the best methods of school keeping; spoke of the benefits he had derived when a young teacher from witnessing the efforts of others in their daily labours, and the necessity for the cultivation of such intercourse, if teachers were determined not to fall into that apathy which is generally experienced by all those who exhibit a disinclination to measure themselves with others working in the same field. He then drew attention to the value of the teachers obtaining a knowledge of the educational literature of the day, the advantages to be derived from a study of the characters and systems of great educationists, and the need of the daily reading of educational periodicals, strongly recommending to notice the Educational Journals of the Province. He also drew attention to the study of mental philosophy as a powerful means of professional improvement to the teacher, and quoted a passage from the writings of Dugald Stewart in which he expresses his conviction that the teacher will never produce the benefit which might be derived from his labours until he has taken up to some extent the study of a science the principles of which are connected with the whole work of education. Bearing upon this he strongly advised all teachers to study in their schoolrooms that which is generally spoken of as "Child-nature," spoke of the condition of the child's mind as fitting him for the especial work of the teacher, and the pleasure resulting from a knowledge of mental characteristics which add so much to the success of those engaged in daily school training. He concluded his paper by calling attention especially as a means of professional improvement to the study of the use of language for the purpose of conveying instruction, and of teaching the child's mind; and lastly the cultivation of that teachableness of character which would lead every teacher to seek instruction from all around him in order that he might fit himself the better for an honourable, but at the same time a difficult profession.

Mr. Hubbard could not refrain from expressing his satisfaction with the paper which had just been read, especially with the last portion of it. One of the greates difficulties which a teacher had to contend with was to convey his meaning to children in words which they could understand. He related an anecdote illustrative of his meaning.

Mr. Emberson wished to say one word with regard to the professional improvement of teachers. He thought that throughout the Townships the hours of teaching were entirely too long. He thought that by shortening them a good deal might be done for the improvement both of scholars and teachers. He mentioned schools in the townships where the hours had been shortened with good results. Many school-masters found the work very trying; and were unable to take any steps towards improving themselves from this cause. Another very great reason for doing this was because it would induce better men to go into the business of teaching. Now what were the inducements for going into Academy teaching. Was it the salary? The salaries were very small, and he thought that could not be the

reason. If, then, money was not the object which drew such a noble and energetic class of men as were to be found teaching in the academies throughout the Townships; what was it? He thought that it was the desire of doing good. But he thought that even a better class of men might be got if the outside inducements were made more attractive. If the hours were made from nine to three, the teacher would find his life much more agreeable. He knew that after a half-holiday he had always been able to get through his work much more efficiently.

Rev. Mr. McKillican remarked, with respect to visiting schools, a friend from Ontario, who was in the room, had informed him that in the sister Province teachers were allowed five days in each year for visiting other schools.

Rev. Mr. McIntosh, from Ontario, at the request of the President, rose and said, that he thought it almost indispensable for teachers to have an opportunity to visit the schools in the section of the country where they were teaching. He had thought that this privilege was accorded to teachers in Quebec as well as in Ontario.

Rev. Mr. McKillican said that teachers too often forgot that they were speaking to juvenile minds. The little friends in whom they were all so deeply interested showed their simplicity and their credulity; and if they duly appreciated this, their words would be wiser, and more adapted to convey the simple truth. He had felt a great interest in these conventions, and esteemed it a great pleasure to have been present, and to have heard what he had done this evening. Indeed, he had often felt it a privation that he was not able to meet with those who were engaged in such a noble work. Teaching was a great and gracious work, and if it were duly appreciated by the public, there would be more visiting of schools and encouragement to the teacher than there was at present. He was persuaded that the teachers, as a class, were wronged. They ought to have the sympathies of every man, and especially of those who had the good of the country at heart.

The President here remarked that the hour for breaking up was close at hand, but he was certain that he would fail to express the desire of the meeting, if he did not call upon Hon. Treasurer Robertson to address them, although he had been almost forbidden by that gentleman to do so.

Hon. Mr. Robertson said that he had not come there for the purpose of making a speech, but to listen. Since he had been called upon, however, he would say a few words. He had had the opportunity of attending these school conventions very frequently, and had obtained a great deal of pleasure and profit from them. He thought that Mr. McKillican had come near the truth in his allusion to the lack of interest felt by our people generally in our common school system. The other day they had had an animated discussion in the House of Assembly on the propriety of having school Inspectors. Some people had objected to paying any money for the maintenance of a system of school inspection. But how our school system could be carried on without it he could not see. The Government had however persevered and carried the appropriation for this purpose by a large majority. The want of interest in our schools throughout the country was very marked. How many people in the country would they find visiting the schools during the year? He ventured to say that many of the schools scarcely had a visitor from year's end to year's end. How could they expect teachers to do their work satisfactorily, when it was a fact that many children were sent to school more for the sake of getting them out of the way than for the sake of any benefit which was likly to accrue to them in after life from their education. He felt that they ought to endeavor to instil into the people a greater sympathy with teachers and their work, than was manifested at present. He would almost go so far as to say that the State should provide that all children in the country should be educated: and it seemed to him that until something was done in this direction our common school system would be defective. He could not expect such results as had been achieved in Ontario and in the United States; but by individual effort very much might be done to assist the Government. Rapid advancement had, he thought, been made within the last ten years; and if they could only do anything towards educating the people up to a knowledge of something like the importance of the subject, they would have done a great deal towards furthering the interests of education in this country, and would be helping vastly to the attainment of a perfect end. The subject of education was so large that every point seemed very important. Let any one look back over the last ten or fifteen years and see the number of teachers sent out by the Normal Schools, and he could not fail to see a great progress. A return of the number of Normal School diplomas granted had been recently brought before Parliament; and he was astonished to find that the number was very large and much larger than he had expecten. He must say that he thougtht that the Normal Schools had proved a great assistance to the Common Schools. In conclusion he again alluded to the lack of interest which the public generally displayed.

After a doxology had been sung and a benediction pronounced, the Convention separated fort the night.

SECOND DAY.

The Convention was opened on Thursday at half-past 9 a. m. After religious exercices, the members of the Executive Committee present proceeded to arrange a programme for the day.

First came the election of officers for the ensuing year, which was at once proceeded with.

The first ballot resulted in the election of Professor Hicks as President, but as that gentleman declined to act, owing to lack of sufficient time to perform the duties of so important an office, another vote was cast, which resulted in the unanimous election of Dr. Dawson, of McGill College.

M. Franck Hicks, M. A., was then reelected to the office of Secretary, and Professor McGregor, of Montreal, to that of Treasurer.

After some discussion, it was resolved, on the motion of Mr. Hubbard, that the next annual convention should be held in Montreal on the first Thursday in October.

Montreal was then fixed upon as the next place of meeting.

M. Emberson then read the followng paper on

HOW TO TEACH SPELLING AND WRITING.

You may remember the story of the two officers in *Punch*. One writing a letter, says to the other, "I say, George, how do you spell, struggle—one or two g's?" "Spell it with three g's, old fellow." Now, this jest gives us the true way to teach spelling, viz., by making the pupil write out each word. The officer who once wrote struggle with three g's would immediately detect his mistake. The fact is, that to teach a boy to spell aloud by no means teaches him to write the word correctly, and I once took a class in spelling, and made them write the word on their slates: 80 per cent were written wrong. On making them spell aloud, hardly any mistakes were made. Now, about once in three months, according to my observation, we are asked the spelling of a word—asked to spell it aloud. On the other hand, most of those here present write, some 1,000 words at least a day, or one half hour at least at 30 words a minute. Hence the importance of teaching boys to spell correctly on paper, in writing, and not only, or not at all, by word of mouth. How miserably misspelt a schoolboy's letter is. I have known of "is i's" being written for "his eyes," and the word "stomach" spelt "stou mack." Now, most of these mis-spellers, if asked how to spell the word aloud, would do it correctly. I verily believe that the whole system of teaching spelling should be changed throughout the Dominion. The idea is not my own, but I am more and more convinced of it every day. There is another point which I fear is too often neglected in writing from dictation, which is at present the best means in use to teach spelling. When a boy has once written a word wrong, the mere force of habit makes him still more disposed to write it wrong again. The only plan to break the force of association is to make him write it out right six times at least, and it he the second time copies it wrong from the book or from your written correction, to make him write it twenty-four times at least. There is one more point which I should like to touch. Every book bought for a school-boy at school should be one likely to be of use to him in after life, if possible. He should be taught that his school-books are the germ of a future library, which it should be his pride and pleasure to amass. Now, what more useless than a spelling-book? I humbly suggest that the best spelling-book in the world is a little twenty-five cent dictionary, with meanings attached. The smallest child can begin with a few words, and go on to more and more, till he has mastered the whole language with its meanings, and by this means the pupils in our common schools can be taught one of the highest acquirements of our boarding schools— the apt and ready use of a dictionary. In writing, the main object should not be to write so that you can be read, but so that you cannot possibly be mis-read. There is a French epigram that words are an ingenious discovery made for the purpose of concealing one's thoughts.

To correct this the following rules are suggested:

1. To avoid flourishes, which are as confusing as they are vulgar.
2. To let their m's and n's join at the top and the u's at the bottom.
3. To write their w's like a Greek omega.
4. To be sure their pupils make loops to their e's and dot their i's.
5. To let 7's and 2's have two horns.
6. To write round, text and small hand letters, exactly the same in shape, though different in size.

I have seen a sum worked on a slip of paper I accidentally came across, in which the result was affected some 1,000 dollars by the

figures being badly written. In each case go and see for what each figure had been mistaken.

But, the real root of the whole evil is the imperfection of our common cursive characters. The only alphabets in the world now, of any universality, are the English and the Geman. All students of German know the utter illegibility of the German character. But still in compliment to their recent wholesale murders in France a few concessions might be made to them. I do not think it is dignified for a meeting like the present to separate without some protest in favor of a scheme to arrange a universal language. On this point I may be too zealous and too rampant in my peculiar hobby-horse. Indeed all the way through my opinions may have seemed to be offered without sufficient humility. But when a belief has been ground into a man by facts and his daily life—when it has become a part and parcel of his intellectual being—it is a false humility to preface its utterance with a perhaps. It would be false humility for the ministers of our different sects to preface their sermons with a perhaps or end them with an interrogation point. All we can say is that they should allow that others may be equally right subjectively to themselves though objectively they be diametrically opposed. All we can claim is that each individual mind should not take

The rustic murmur of his thought
For the great wave that echoes round the world.

M. White, of the Montreal High School said that his friend who had just spoken had thrown out some very good hints on writing. There seemed to be a general impression abroad that writing was one of the minor branches of education. Indeed, so far was this carried that it was supposed that a man must be a good scholar because he wrote a bad hand. With respect to the High School, when he first had the pleasure of belonging to it he did not think that more than four or five good writers could have been found in the school. In fact the school had become notorious for the bad writing of the scholars. Now they had three or four hundred as good writers as could be found anywhere ; and some of his best writers belonged to the classical side of the school.

The great difficulty in teaching writing generally throughout the country seemed to him to lie in the fact that most of the teachers were very inferior writers themselves, and, therefore, were incompetent to teach it. In fact he believed that one half of the teachers here as well as elsewhere were not able to make a good stroke. When pupils first came into the High School he began by instructing them in the position which they should occupy, for unless the pupil sat in a proper position he could not made a stroke. In giving writing lessons he used the black board making use of letters of various size. To a youth beginning he gave what was called text. He first of all placed him in a position in which he could not help making a stroke, and, having taught him how to make a stroke, he taught him how to make curves. Some men said that they could never become good writers. This was wrong: it was ridiculous to suppose that any man could not become a good writer. All might not excel, but all could be taught to write good legible hands. One of his first attempts was to give his pupils some command over their pens. He then imparted to them a knowledge of letters, and made them keep at a letter until they were thoroughly conversant with the principle and made it well. In letters he generally began with capitals, as this gave the pupil command over his pen, and freedom ; afterwards going on with the small letters. In this way their eye and mind were both exercised, and they obtained a good idea of form. He never gave long lessons, but short ones, and saw that every letter was formed according to the copy. He recommended teachers never to allow a scholar to pass over a character without having made it properly. He always imposed a penalty when the boy would not do so. Formerly in the High School it had been the custom for masters to give pupils from 100 to 200 lines to write by way of *penas*, when of course they would scribble fearfully, destroying all the work which he had begun so successfully. He (Mr. White) therefore went to the head-masters, and said that he would not submit to this state of things, and he finally arranged with them that the *penas* were to be reduced to 20 lines or so, but that they were to be carefully written, and none were to be accepted by the masters until he had put his initials upon them. By following this course they got penas which were really beautifully written, and the pupil was benefited instead of injured by the change. He continued still further to speak of his method of teaching, and said that if teachers both in town and country would pay a little more attention to the teaching of writing we should not see so much bad writing as we now do. He also apologised for the disconnectedness of his remarks which had been the result of want of preparation, and, in conclusion, said he hoped if they were spared to meet again, to give them a paper on the teaching of phonography in school.

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION.

Professor Bernier, of St. Francis College, then read a paper in French on the above subject, of which the following is a brief synopsis. He said : The general conclusion as to the origin of progress in humanity has come to be that there is in the mind of man a latent progressive force—a force as mysterious and enigmatic as electricity, vegetation and generation. The mineral progesses into the vegetable, the vegetable into the animal, the animal into man. Man alone requires to be instructed by others. Instruction then is the true civilization. Education teaches self government. A nation when uneducated breaks out into public crimes just as the uneducated man is almost sure to expose himself to the action of the law. Consider the difference between the nations called savage and those generally esteemed to be civilized. How much nearer the former are to the brute and animal creation. Is not then the true conclusion to be derived from the foregoing ideas that the progress of humanity is education, and education the truest progress of humanity.

The Chairman then introduced the subject of

COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

Principal Hicks, who was first called upon, said that, to tell the truth, he had not as yet been able to form an opinion upon the subject ; and he had come there to listen to the opinions of others. It seemed to him that there was a great deal of difficulty connected with the subject. In the first place, it was argued, in favor of compulsory education, that the Government had the power of making any enactments for the benefit of the public generally ; and he believed that it had been proved that the great class of those who were detrimental to the State—those who, in other words, were criminal—came from the uneducated masses; which of course, being proved, seemed to indicate that a law should be made to force parents to educate their children. Then, too, there was the individual argument that the child should be taken care of. All must agree that the child should be protected ; and if the parent refused to educate him, then the State would step in and compel the children to be sent to school. On the other hand, it was said that compulsory education would interfere with the liberty of the subject. It was also urged that many very young children contributed largely to the support of their parents in the manufacturing districts, and if the State deprived the parent of this means of support, it must supply something in its place. If he were asked to say on which side he should lean, he thought it would not be on the side of compulsory education. He thought that if they compelled children to go to school that the education which they would get would not be so beneficial as that which might be got by some voluntary system. We did not get much from that which was got by compulsion. He thought that they might better wait until, profiting by the experience of other countries, they could devise some system which would be preferable to compulsion. He believed that, from late enquiries, it had been ascertained that in the City of London there were about one hundred and fifty thousand children who did not go to school at all. Of course this was a very dreadful thing, and something must be done there to remedy it.

Principal Howe was then called upon, but said that he had not expected to be able to be present at this meeting, and was therefore not prepared to state his views in any connected form.

Hon. Mr. Robertson, who was also requested to speak by the Chairman, said that he would prefer to listen to what others had to say, lest he might, commit himself to some course of action which he might regret hereafter.

The President.—I think Mr. Robertson committed himself pretty effectually last night. (Laughter.)

Professor McKay said that it occurred to him to say that it was right to make any law which would secure the best interests of the people generally ; and that supposing such a law as that spoken of were made no real hardship could arise, as in all probability it would not be rigorously enforced. At the same time he did not see much necessity for it, as in this country, at any rate, the people were all glad enough to send their children to school.

Mr. Emberson, in answer to the objection raised by Principal Hicks, that the liberty of the subject would be interfered with by a compulsory law, said that Mill, in his book on liberty, had come to a solution of this point. He said that any man had a perfect right to do what he pleased so long as he did not interfere with another man. Therefore, if the public saw that people, by persistence in not sending their children to school, were raising up a lot of thieves, who might endanger the property of others, they had a perfect right to compel them to send their children where they would be taught not to steal. In this way he thought that the only theoretical objection to compulsory education was done away with.

Principal Hicks said that it compulsory education became law, it

must be binding on the rich as well as the poor ; and, if a compulsory law was made, the rich man must be compelled to send his children to school as well as the poor man. But, supposing a rich man were to say, " I do not wish to send my children to school. I prefer to educate them at home." Would the rich man be allowed to do this? He should say that if this privilege were given to the rich man it should be given to the poor man also.

Mr. F. Hicks, M. A., remarked upon the practical difficulties in the way of the law. First of all, it was an entirely new style of legislation. All laws heretofore passed had forbidden the doing of certain things which were wrong, but, this was to force a man to do right. There would be very great difficulty in the working of the law. Suppose a case of sickness were to occur, it would be necessary to obtain a doctor's certificate in order to keep the child from school, entailing endless expense and bother. Another fault which was to be found with the law was that it was a sort of class legislation. In a discussion which had taken place in the Montreal Association a short time since, after long consideration it was put to the vote, when out of from forty to fifty persons present there were but two votes in favour of compulsory education, and several of those who had spoken in favor of it refrained from voting.

Hon. Treasurer Robertson thought that the fact that the law was difficult to carry out was not a good argument against it. If it was the duty of the State to provide education for the masses, it was the duty of the State to see that every advantage was taken of the facilities for education which it provided. In a mixed community like ours he certainly saw great difficulty in carrying out the law. It seemed to him that the greatest difficulty which might arise was that in some districts Protestants might be found to go to Catholic Schools, and *vice versa*. This would of course be a great hardship. In Boston the compulsory system was in force, and had worked well. Boys found loitering about the streets were forced to go to school, whence they were sent forth well fitted for the duties of life. It seemed to him that in our system we required something more—either to educate the parents, or to introduce a partial compulsory law, after the fashion of one which was formerly in force. The statistics of crime would, he believed, show that the great burden of crime was committed by persons who were uneducated, and he thought that it was as much the duty of the State to prevent crime as it was to punish it. He should say, then, that we ought not, perhaps, introduce a purely compulsory system ; but it did seem to him that we should act with a view of infusing into the minds of the masses of the people an idea of the importance of education ; and if they would not take advantage of the facilities provided for them, the State should find some way to drive them to it If our children were not educated and fitted to perform the duties of life, we must expect to fall back to a lower rank than other countries and the provinces adjacent to us.

Principal Howe said that if the compulsory system were introduced it would not do to allow parents to evade the law on pretence of educating their children at home, as such a system would require too expensive a system of inspection. He believed in having a compulsory system of education and that only. As to the question of religion, ti would be positively necessary, under such a system, that education should not touch upon religion at all. With regard to the practibility of enforcing such a law, he would not cite the Spartans as an instance, for in Sparta the child had been taken out of the hands of the parent altogether, and became the property of the State; but there were other countries at the present day, where compulsory education was effectively carried out—for instance, Prussia.

The President said that no doubt all teachers in the country had given special attention to the efforts that were being made on the continent of Europe in this direction. They had also doubtless looked with interest on what had been done in England. It seemed to him that it was the duty of a young country like this to try to avoid the fearful results which had fallen upon older countries owing to the want of education among the young. The question which presented itself to them was how they might best prevent the overgrowth of such a state of things in the province of Quebec; and more especially as we had two of the most important cities in the Dominion within our boundaries. It seemed to him that the best possible free education should be provided, and then, if those means were not improved, it would be their duty to take compulsory measures. The partial compulsory system adopted in the manufacturing districts in England had worked well. Here we had a similar system with regard to vagrants. He also referred to a visit to a reformatory school in Boston.

After some remarks by Mr. Smith,

The President announced that the discussion would be left open until next annual meeting of convention; and after a hymn had been sung and the benediction pronounced, the meeting broke up.

McGill University Intelligence.

REPORT TO THE VISITOR, JANUARY 1st, 1872.

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To the Right Honorable His Excellency Lord Lisgar, Governor-General of Canada, &c. :

MAY IT PLEASE YOUR EXCELLENCY.—The Corporation of the University beg leave to present to Your Excellency, as Visitor of the University under the Royal Charter, their customary Annual Report.

The number of students in the McGill College, in the present session of 1871–2, is as follows :

In the Faculty of Law	41
In the Faculty of Medicine	137
In the Faculty of Arts	97
	275

The students in affiliated Colleges are :

In Morrin College, Quebec	8
In St. Francis College, Richmond	10

The teachers in training in the McGill Normal School are 108.

The pupils in the Model Schools of the McGill Normal School are 345.

The total number of persons thus deriving benefit from the University, and students and teachers-in-training, is 401, and as pupils in schools 345, in all 746. Of the former 205 are persons not resident in Montreal, resorting thither for education from various parts of Canada, and from places beyond its limits.

The increase in the number of students in Arts is in part due to the establishment of the Department of Practical Science in that Faculty. That in the Faculty of Law is no doubt connected with the improvements and new arrangements made in that Faculty in the past year. The large increase in the number of teachers in training in the McGill Normal School is a gratifying indication of the demand now existing for trained teachers, and of the extent to which the school is appreciated in the country.

At the meetings of Convocation in March and May last, the following degrees were publicly conferred :

Doctor of Laws (*ad eundem*)	1
Doctors of Civil Laws (in course)	2
Doctors of Medicine	29
Master of Arts	1
Bachelors of Civil Law	8
Bachelors of Arts	9
	50

At the close of the session of the McGill Normal School in June, the following diplomas were granted by the Minister of Public Instruction for the Province of Quebec :

For Academies	4
For Model Schools	13
For Elementary Schools	45
	62

In the past year, W. H. Kerr, Esq., and Gonsalve Doutre, B. C. L., were appointed Professors in the Faculty of Law. These appointments, with those of the previous year, render the staff of that Faculty more complete than in any previous session.

No changes have occurred in the staff of the Faculty of Medicine. The new building for that Faculty, commenced last Spring, is far advanced toward completion, and will be ready for the classes at the beginning of next session. This building will place our Medical Faculty, already the first in Canada in other respects, in advance of all others in the country in the possession of the material appliances for medical studies. The new building is a substantial stone edifice of three stories, 80 feet by 84, and will afford ample accommodation for the Library and Museum of the Faculty, and for all the necessary class-

rooms and laboratories, while it occupies a high, well-drained and beautiful position in the College grounds.

The most important addition to our work of education in the past year has been the institution of the Department of Practical Science. In this as in other matters, we have been largely indebted to the liberality of citizens of Montreal. The subject was brought before the public in the University Lecture of Nov. 1870, and in a circular issued under the authority of the Board of Governors ; and the committee of the graduates undertook the work of soliciting subscriptions. The first donation was the very liberal one of Mr. Daniel Torrance, formerly of Montreal, now of New York ; and the subscription list stands as follows :—

PERMANENT ENDOWMENT.

Daniel Torrance, Esq	$5,000
George Moffatt, Esq	1,000
C. J. Brydges, Esq	1,000
R. J. Reekie, Esq	1,000

ANNUAL SUBSCRIPTIONS.

Hon. James Ferrier (per ann. for 7 years)	$100
Donald Ross, Esq., do	50
P. Redpath, Esq., (per ann. for 5 years)	400
J. H. R. Molson, Esq., do	400
G. H. Frothingham, Esq.. do	400
T. J. Claxton, Esq., (per annum)	100

Several of the above subscriptions, it is to be observed, are for a limited term of years : but of these some will no doubt be made permanent, and before the expiration of the others we trust that the utility of this department will be so proved as to draw forth new contributions from the public, while we cannot doubt that the liberality of the Legislature will also be extended to it.

With the sums thus placed at their disposal, the Board of Governors have been enabled to secure the services of G. F. Armstrong, M. A., Cantab., C. E., F. G. S., as Professor of Engineering, and of B. J. Harrington, B. A., Ph. D., as Lecturer in Assaying and Mining : and thus, with the aid of the classes already existing in the Faculty of Arts, to offer to students full courses of study extending over three years, and leading to suitable diplomas in the branches of Civil Engineering and Surveying, Mining Engineering and Practical Chemistry. The classes in these subjects are already attended by nineteen students, though they were commenced late last autumn under many disadvantages as to previous notice. Montreal has therefore the credit of opening the first organized School of Practical Science in British America. Though the beginning thus made is small in comparison with the large and richly endowed schools in other countries it has been, so far, successful, and we have no doubt is destined to grow and extend itself.

We have to regret the removal, by death, of Prof. George Forbes, M. A., whose appointment to the Assistant-Professorship of Logic and Mental and Moral Philosophy was noticed in our last report. He had, distinguished himself highly in his academical career at Edinburgh and had approved himself here as an able and successful teacher of the subjects to which he had devoted himself His early death is a serious loss to this University and to the cause of education in this country. In the present Session the duties of the chair have been provided for temporarily by the kind aid of the Revd. Henry Wilkes, D. D. LL. D., of the Congregational College of British North America, and of the Rev. D. H. MacVicar, LL. D. of the Presbyterian College of Montreal. Inquiries are now in progress for the purpose of securing a permanent professor.

Among the principal donations to the Library of the University in the past year, is that of 191 volumes of new and valuable books from the McGill College Book Club, a society organized for the purpose of procuring all the more important new publications, which after being read by the members, are deposited, on conditions beneficial both to the University and the members of the Club, in the College Library. Peter Redpath, Esq., has also continued his liberality to the Library, by the donation of 66 volumes, principally in continuation of the Public Records in the " Peter Redpath Historical Collection."

At the beginning of the year William Molson, Esq., already so large a benefactor to the University, again evidenced his thoughtful liberality in our behalf, by giving the sum of $4,000 to constitute a Library Fund, the income of which is to be devoted to annual additions to the Library.

We regret to state that the subscription for the general endowment fund has not advanced beyond the point indicated in the last report. The capital sum realized by the new subscription amounts only to about $50,000, exclusive of contributions for special objects, including the Department of Science, Library, Exhibitions and Scholarships, amounting to $15,667 more, and annual subscriptions for these special objects to the amount of $3,350. Though these amounts afford much reason for gratitude and encouragement, it is still greatly to be desired that the general endowment should be raised to at least $150,000, in order to enable adequate provision to be made for many branches of the work of the University now carried on under serious disadvantages.

It is a significant fact that while the subscriptions raised for the University within the last two years represent an increased income of about $7,000, no officer of the University has received any increase to his emoluments therefrom, nor has it been possible to provide for any further subdivisions of chairs or for the expenses of examinations. The whole has been employed in adding to the means of instruction in providing aids to students, and in meeting the deficit occasioned by the diminution, under the new Superior Education Act, of the aid formerly granted by the Legislature.

The subject of the higher education of women has often presented itself to the authorities of this University, but want of adequate means has hitherto prevented any practical steps from being taken in this important matter. It has, however, afforded the corporation much pleasure to learn that the Ladies' Educational Association recently established in Montreal, has organized with much success courses of lectures for young women, in which several of the Professors of the University have been able to take part. Another and important movement in this direction, has been the subscription of the Hannah Willard Lyman memorial fund, on the part of former pupils of that eminent and lamented teacher. This fund has been placed in the hands of the Board of Governors, its income to be applied to the encouragement of students in a college for women, should such be established, and in the meantime, in classes such as those of the Ladies' Association. The sum of $940 has already been paid in on account of this fund, which is memorable as the first endowment for the education of women ever entrusted to the Board of Royal Institution. It is to be hoped that it may be followed by others in sufficient amount to realise at length the idea of a college for women affiliated to the University.

C. D. DAY, LL. D.,
Chancellor.

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DONATIONS TO THE LIBRARY AND MUSEUM.

The Corporation of McGill University have pleasure in acknowledging the following donations to the Faculty of Arts during the Quarter ending January 24th, 1872 :—

1.—TO THE LIBRARY.

From the Lords Commissionners of the Admiralty—Greenwich Observations, 1869, 4to.

From Messrs. McMillan & Co.—Specimens of English Literature 8vo.

From Mrs. A. Simpson—Journals of the Legislative Assembly, with Appendices, 32 vols., 8vo. ; Petitions and Documents, fol. ; Jameson on Minerals.

From Mrs. W. C. Baynes—Abyssinian MS. 8vo.

From Principal Dawson, LL. D.—Fossil Plants of the Devonian and Upper Silurian Formations of Canada, pam. 8vo.

From the Government of Washington—Report of the U. S. Geological Exploration of the Fortieth Parallel, vols. 3 and 5, 4to ; Atlas accompanying vol. 3rd of the above-mentioned Report, fol.

From the Norwegian University of Christiana—Norejes Officielle Statistic, 1869-70-71, 19 pam. 4to. ; various other Publications, 9 pam.

2.—TO THE MUSEUM.

From Mrs. Baynes—Leaves encrusted with Calcareous Spar and other specimens.

From Professor Darey—Trilobites from Alburgh, Vt.

From Dr. Harrington—Specimens of Zinc Ores from New Jersey, and specimen of Limulus.

From Mr. Nighswander—Fossils from Cape Breton.

From Mr. Selwyn, F. G. S.—Internal support of *Virgularia*, from Fraser River.

THE FOUNDER'S FESTIVAL.

The annual commemoration of the birthday of Mr. Peter McGill, the founder of McGill University, took place in the William Molson Hall, and was graced by a large and brilliant assembly of ladies and gentlemen. The company numbered about four hundred, of whom seventy or eighty were graduates of the University ; the remaider were invited guests. Among those present were His Worship the Mayor, the Ven. Archdeacon Bond, A. Robertson, Esq., Q. C., one of the Governors of the University ; Rev. Canon Ellegood, Revd. Dr. Wilkes, Mr. Selwyn, Dr. Campbell, Dean of the Faculty ; Ed. Carter, Esq., Q. C. ; Prof. Darcy, and Prof. Armstrong.

Of the occasion of the commemoration it is unnecessary to speak. It were a more than twice told tale to tell the people of Montreal how Peter McGill, having carved his way to fortune, used a portion of it to lay the foundations of the magnificent University which now bears his name, and how the Graduates and Students in their gratitude for the noble gift resolved to institute an annual Commemoration in honour of the Founder. The celebration has been kept up with great spirit ever since. Originally it took place upon the birthday of the Founder, but of late the day has been fixed to meet the convenience of those who participate in it. This year it has been held later than usual, but with no diminution of the interest which the occasion always excites. The gathering was more varied than ordinary evening assemblies, the presence of a considerable number of graduates in academic costume affording an agreable relief to the sombre monotony of evening dress, and contrasting with the brilliant toilettes of the fair visitors.

An innovation upon the ordinary usage was the omission from the programme last night of all speaking or reading. It has been customary for some of the graduates to welcome the company with short addresses, but it was decided to omit these on the present occasion, and the deprivation was accepted by the company with much indulgence. They must have been captious indeed who were disposed to complain, for the company were afforded a treat of really very fine music, and songs, very effectively rendered by Mrs. Brailey, Mrs. Kedslie, and Prof. Armstrong of the Engineering School, Mr. B. J. Harrington, Ph. D., presided at the piano, and the orchestra was under the lead of Herr Gruenwald. The following were the selections :—

1. Overture............" Zampa, "................*Herold.*
2. Song.........." Quando a te lieta, "............*Gounod.*
MRS. KEDSLIE.
3. Quadrille ...." Fest, "..............*Jos. Strauss.*
4 Song..........." Notte e Giorno,"..............*Mozart.*
PROF. ARMSTRONG.
5 " Medley of Scotch Airs, ".................*R. Gruenwald.*
6 Song..........." Merry Birds, "..............*Gumbert.*
MRS. BRAILEY.
7. Overture ...." *Tancredi,* "...............*Rossini.*
8. Duet..... ......" *Crudel Perche,* "..............*Mozart.*
MRS. KEDSLIE and PROF. ARMSTRONG.
9. Valse.........." Wienner Kinder, "..........*Jos. Strauss.*
10. Song..........." Nightingale's Trail, "... ....*Ganz.*
MRS. BRAILEY.
11. Selections from " La gazza ladra,"...............*Rossini.*
12. Song............." Will he come, "..............*Sullivan.*
PROF. ARMSTRONG.

Supper was served in the Library which, as well as the Museum, was thrown open to the guests. After spending a very pleasant evening, the company broke up shortly after eleven o'clock.—(*Gazette.*)

MISCELLANY.

Education and Literature.

—*Good Readers Scarce.*—The *Pall Mall Gazette* of a recent date declares that educated men in England, as a rule, are unable to read prayers and chapters of the Bible decently, for the very simple reason, that as a rule, they cannot read aloud anything whatever in a clear, unaffected and intelligent manner. It goes on to say : " Take a score of the head-boys at Eaton, at Westminster, or Rugby, or any other public school ; or a score of fresh bachelors of arts at Oxford or Cambridge ; or a score of gentlemen assembled in any drawing-room, and set them to read aloud a few chapters of a novel, or a history, or an essay, and observe the result. Perhaps not one of the score will get through the task without mumbling, bad emphasis, slovenliness, or nervousness, or affectation so that his hearers shall at once be pleased and instructed."

—*Jefferson's Ten Rules.*—Jefferson's ten rules are good yet, especially so for those who have the training of children in public schools. They are so short and concise, and embody so much of value, that it would be well if they were clipped out and put up in some conspicuous place. They are as follows :—

1. Never put off till to morrow what you can do to-day.
2. Never trouble another for what you can do yourself.
3. Never spend your money before you have earned it.
4. Never buy what you do not want because it is cheap.
5. Pride costs more than hunger, thirst and cold.
6. We seldom repent of having eaten too little.
7. Nothing is troublesome that we do willingly.
8. How much pain the evils have cost us that have never happened.
9. Take things always by the smooth handle.
10. When angry, count ten before you speak ; if very angry count a hundred.

—*Letters of Recommendation.*—A gentleman advertised for a boy to help him in his office, and nearly fifty applicants presented themselves to him. Out of the whole number he in a short time selected one, and dismissed the rest. " I should like to know," said a friend, " on what ground you selected that boy, who had not a single recommendation ?" " You are mistaken," said the gentleman, " he had a great many. He wiped his feet when he came in, and closed the door after him, showing that he was careful. He gave up his seat instantly to that lame old man, showing that he was thoughtful and kind. He took off his cap when he came in, and answered my questions promptly and respectfully, showing that he was polite and gentlemanly. He picked up the book which I had purposely laid on the floor and replaced it on the table, while all the rest stepped over it or pushed it aside ; he waited quietly for his turn, instead of pushing and crowding, showing that he was honest and orderly. When I talked with him, I noticed that his clothes were carefully brushed, his hair in nice order, and his teeth as white as milk ; and when he wrote his name, I observed that his finger-nails were clean, instead of being tipped with jet, like that handsome

little fellow's in the blue, jacket. Don't you call those letters of recommendation ? I do, and would give more for what I can tell about a boy by using my eyes ten minutes than for all the fine letters he could bring me."

—*Children Should go to Bed Early.*—Many children, instead of being plump and fresh as a peach, are as withered and wrinkled as last year's apples, because they do not sleep enough. Some physicians think that the bones grow only during sleep. This I cannot say, certainly, but I do know that those little folks who sit up late at night are usually nervous, weak, small, and rickety.

The reason you must sleep more than your parents is, because you have to grow and they do not. They can use up the food they eat in thinking, talking, and walking, while you should save some of yours for growing. You ought to sleep a great deal ; if you do not, you will in activity consume all you eat, and have none or not enough to grow with.

Very few smart children excel, or even equal, other people when they grow up. Why is this ? Because their heads, if not their bodies, are kept too busy ; so that they cannot sleep, rest, and grow strong in body and brain. Now, when your mother says Katie or Georgie, or whatever your name may be, it is time to go to bed, do not worry her by begging to sit up "just a little longer," but hurry off to bed, remembering that you have a great deal of sleeping and growing to do to make you a healthy, happy and useful woman or man.

—*Night-School for Artisans.*—The city of Philadelphia has opened schools for the benefit of its artisans, and furnished instruction in the department of practical mathematics, mechanical drawing, steam engineering, business forms and penmanship, chemistry, natural philosophy, anatomy, physiology, and hygiène. The results of such efforts must be a high order of workmanship. In educating men and boys who are to become mechanical workmen, the State indirectly benefits itself. Educated and intelligent labourers, whether they are to be employed in the field, forest or workshop, will eventually lead to the advancement of all the mechanical arts by which civilisation will be promoted, and the country benefited.

The Legislature of Massachussetts has also provided for free instruction in mechanical and industrial drawing. Boston has begun the good work, by furnishing accommodations at the Institute of Technology for six hundred students.

—*Education and Labor.*—In the American Senate, December 13, Mr. Hoar from the Committee on Education and Labor, reported a Bill providing for a commission of three persons, to hold office for two years, unless their duties shall have been sooner accomplished, who are to investigate the subject of the wages and hours of labor, and the division of the joint profits of labor and capital between the laborer and the capitalist, and the social, educational, and sanitary condition of the labouring classes of the United States, and show how the same are affected by existing laws regulating commerce, finance and currency. The commissioners are to receive a salary of $5,000 each, and may employ a clerk ; they shall report the result of their investigations to the President, to be transmitted by him to Congress. The Bill was passed December 20.

—*Lord Stanley on the Study of English.*—No word will fall from me in disparagement of classical literature ; I know its value full well ; but it seems in a country where so many students are familiar with every dialect of Greek, and every variety of classical style, there should be so few who have really made themselves acquainted with the origin, the history and the gradual development into its present form of that mother tongue which is already spoken over half the world, and which embodies many of the noblest thoughts that have issued from the brain of man. To use words with precision and with accuracy, we ought to know their history as well as their present meaning. And depend upon it, it is the plain saxon phrase far more than any term borrowed from Greek or Roman literature that, whether in speech or in writing, goes straightest and strongest to men's heads and hearts.

—*American Items.*—In the new apportionment Bill, passed the House, the ratio of 137, 800 population has been adopted, which gives a House of 283 members, or an increase of forty. Under this new apportionment Vermont and New Hampshire each loses a member, while Massachusets gains one member, New Jersey two, and Pennsylvania two, while Illinois gains five and Missouri four. In the political division of the Union the New England States lose one member, the central Northern States gain five, the Southern border and late Slave States south of Missouri gain thirteen, and the Western States gain twenty-three. The electoral vote for the Presidency will be 357, of which the majority will be 179. The bill goes into effect March 3, 1873. The new distribution among the States will be as follows :—Maine, 2 ; Massachusetts, 11 ; Rhode Island, 2 ; Connecticut, 4 ; New-York, 32 ; New Jersey, 7 ; Pennsylvania, 26 ; Delaware, 1 ; Maryland, 6 ; Virginia, 9 ; North Carolina, 8 ; South Carolina, 5 ; Georgia, 9 ; Alabama, 7 ; Mississippi, 6 ; Louisiana, 5 ; Ohio, 20 ; Kentucky, 10 ; Tennessee, 9 ; Indiana, 12 ; Illinois, 19 ; Missouri, 13 ; Arkansas, 4 ; Michigan, 9 ; Florida, 1 ; Texas, 6 ; Iowa, 9 ; Wisconsin, 8 ; California, 4 ; Minnesota, 3 ; Oregon, 1 ; Kansas, 3 ; West Virginia, 3 ; Nevada, 1 ; Nebraska, 1.

The Secretary of the Treasury reports that the total expenditures for the last year amounted to $292,177,188, and the receipts for the same period to $383,323,944.

The Post-master General reports that the revenue of his department during the last fiscal year amounted to $20,037,045, the expenditures to $24,390,104.

Science.

—*Catalogues of Scientific Works.*—Among the most useful aids to those engaged in scientific research are well digested catalogues of all the books and memoirs bearing upon the subjects of their inquiry. Nearly all branches of science have such indexes which, indeed, are indispensable works of reference. Amongst the most important of such works is one undertaken several years ago by the Royal Society of London, and mainly, according to the preface of the first volume, in consequence of a suggestion to that effect made by professor Henry of the Smithsonian Institution. This is intended to contain a list of all scientific papers or articles published in private serials or the transactions of societies, from the earliest period of logical research down to the present date, the names of authors being arranged in alphabetical sequence, with the titles under each in chronological order. Of this gigantic work, five volumes, each as large as a volume of the "Encyclopœdia Britannica," have already been published, and the sixth and last is now in press, and will appear in the course of the coming year.

—*German Fishery Association.*—Among the various organizations established for the promotion of national industry and welfare, one of the most important is the German Fishery Association, recently organized, with its head-quarters at Berlin. This is directed by some of the most eminent naturalists in the country, assisted by men of practical experience in fish-culture and other allied pursuits; and it has already done a great deal towards accomplishing the mission for which it was established.

Many inquiries have been initiated in reference to the proper mode of the culture of oysters, crabs, and other marine invertebrates, as also in regard to the hatching and rearing of edible fish, both fresh water and marine. Its transactions embrace original memoirs and translations from Scandinavian authorities whose experience is considered of value to other parts of Europe. There is no association precisely similar to this in the United States,—says *Harper's Weekly*,—although the harmonions cooperation of the Fishery Commissioners of the Union, which has been so frequently exhibited, perhaps answers the purpose to a certain degree. There is however, nothing in the way of Official Reports in America that at all correspond in thoroughness and extent to those of the German Association, documents emanating from the Department of Fisheries in Canada coming nearest to them.

—*Russian Polar Expeditions.*—Preparations continue to be made on the part of the Russian Government, assisted by its scientific men, for the great polar expeditions of 1872–73. Among the points to which special attention is to be directed are, in the region west of Nova

Zembla, first the determination of the cold and warm currents between the coast and Nova Zembla; second to decide the limit of the polar ice, and to take measurements of the deep seas; third, to ascertain the extension of the Gulf Stream, and what becomes of it when it meets the polar ice; fourth, to learn especially the distribution of the Gulf Stream along the coast of Nova Zembla; fifth, to affix accurately the extension of certain parts of North-Western Nova Zembla. To the East and North-East, the points to be inquired into are, first, the expansion of the Kora, and all that portion of the sea nearest to it on the East; second, to penetrate north-easterly to the limit of the polar ice; third, at least to make an effort to get as far as possible to the East, and to explore the regions along the mouths of the Siberian rivers; fourth, to make accurate geographic determinations along the least known portions of the Siberian coast; fifth, to prosecute studies in regard to the hunting ventures of the Norwegians and Russians in Nova Zembla. These two regions of country will be intrusted to two different sailing vessels respectively each provided with a competent commander, a specialist in physical geography, and a zoologist. The experience gained by these expeditions during 1872 is to be utilized still further in a much more extended and more completely equipped exploration in 1873, in which the same persons will take part.

—*Meteorological Storm-Warnings.*—A motion was made in the British Parliament, just before its last adjournment, for the appointment of a committee to report upon the practical effect of the storm-warnings issued by the Meteorological office, specifying how many had been verified by the results, and how many the contrary. The return has, we believe, not yet been made although the general subject has been discussed at considerable length in the London journals. Under the administration of the government meterological system of storm-warnings conducted by Admiral Fitzroy, the attempt was made to indicate the probable approach of gales and storms, with the general direction from which the storm was to be expected. These were announced during the day time by two large bodies in the shape of a drum and a cone variously adjusted, and at night by means of lights. After Admiral Fitzroy's death, and the reorganization of the system, but one drum was used, and that only raised to show that a serious atmospheric disturbance existed somewhere on or near the British coast. This is exhibited for thirty-six hours after the telegraphic message directing it to be hoisted, and is merely intended to give an intimation to seamen to be on the look-out for approaching bad weather.

At the present time there are 74 drum signals in England and Wales, 32 in Scotland, 12 in Ireland, 3 in the Isle of Man, and 2 in Jersey.

A similar system has quite recently been adopted by the signal service of the United States, under General Meyer. The day signal here consists of a flag instead of a drum, and is likewise intended only to indicate the probable approach of a storm blowing at the rate of thirty miles an hour. The short time during which this system has been in operation has been sufficient to prove its value; and during the late severe gales all over the country much loss of life and property has been prevented by proper attention to the indications given. For a considerable time the signal-office has given telegraphic announcements of the probabilities of the weather; and we learn from an abstract of the report of the Chief Signal Officer, General Meyer, that 65 per cent of these prognostications have been verified by the results; and as the theory of atmospheric disturbances is better understood the percentage of verifications will continually increase.

—*Disinfectants.*—Coming now to pass under review the chief disinfectant agent, we shall begin with chlorine as indubitably one of greatest intrinsic power and widest sphere of application. Nevertheless circumstances occur positively incompatible with the employment of chlorine; these will be made obvious as we proceed. Chlorine itself is a gas heavier than air, and of yellow colour, or rather yellowish-green; hence the name chlorine from "chloros," a Greek designation for that tint. It is violently irritating to the throat and lungs, hence cannot be breathed without injury except under circumstances of extreme dilution. For this reason pure chlorine is rarely used as a common or popular disinfectant, although in cases permitting its application strongly to be recommended. More generally, the desinfecting power of chlorine is applied through the substance known in commerce as cloride of lime, though advancing no chemical title to that designation. The excellence of chloride of lime regarded as a desinfectant is, that it evolves chlorine so slowly as to be no longer incompatible with safe inspiration. Proportionally, however, to this modification, this taming down of the pure agent, is its disinfective inefficiency; so that whenever the fullest action of chlorine is desired, and circumstances do not forbid, pure chlorine should preferentially be used. Take the following as a suitable case. An uninhabited chamber has lodged patient or patients suffering from infectious or contagious disease. Furniture, bed-clothes, hangings, are one and all contaminated, or supposed to be contaminated. In this case, fumigation with pure chlorine may be applied with good effect; but the operator should bear in mind that all dyed and printed textile fabrics will be bleached more or less, chlorine being the most powerful of all bleaching agents. Oil-polished articles of furniture, such as dining-tables, will not suffer perceptibly, but French-polished surfaces will be more affected. Having resolved on chlorine fumigation, the following routine should be adopted. Windows should be shut, the fire-place also, by letting down the register-door if a register-stove, or, if not, by some means equivalent. These precautions taken, the chlorine may be generated. Two or three pounds of black oxide of manganese being mingled with half as much common salt, the mixture is to be thrown into an iron pan, for which purpose nothing is better than a frying-pan. The latter is to be set in another vessel containing hot sand, and both placed in the middle of the room to be fumigated. A mixture of oil of vitriol and water in equal parts is next to be poured on the salt and maganese, the whole stirred round with a stick or iron rod; then the operator should leave, shutting the door behind him. During this operation no chlorine must be breathed, or the effect will be very plainful, not to say even more serious. The operation is not difficult to conduct, under the precautions indicated. Chlorine, being a heavy gas, takes some time to rise to the level of the operator's nose and mouth, and, being coloured, is visible. The apartment should not be entered for twenty-four hours at least, and then carefully. If, on opening the door, the smell of chlorine be very preceptible, the door should be allowed to remain open, the operator retiring. Amongst all means of disinfection by chemists, this is without doubt the one of greatest power, but is also one that from its very nature cannot often be applied. Chloride of lime, however, may always be used. Mixed with water, floors and walls can be profitably scrubbed with it. Linen and cotton articles can be steeped in this solution with advantage to their colour as well as their sanitary purity. Chloride of lime is injurious to textile fabrics, however, by acting on the fibre, and diminishing its strength. This fact some of us find illustrated by our washerwomen, who are too well aware of the bleaching power of chloride of lime. If a recommendation of ours could be of avail, chamber walls would always be scrubbed with a solution of chloride of lime in water previous to repapering. It is alarming for one acquainted with miasms, their nature and effects, to reflect on the germs of disease imprisoned on house-walls in the process of repairing. In addition to surface impurities, the paper-hangers' paste adds others, and a pabulum of growth for yet another series. It is much to be regretted that some ingenious person has not invented an ornamental washable wall-paper. Beyond the varnished varieties of paper-hangings only adapted to offices and coarse wall-work, nothing in this way has been done.—*Tinsleys' Magazine.*

—*Electricity.*—Electricity has achieved, the *Pall Mall Gazette* says, a new triumph. Already employed to restore vigour and nimbleness to the gouty limbs of decrepit *bons vivants*, the recent discoveries of Dr. Bernier, a French physician, show electricity to be an efficient remedy for the evil effects of excessive drinking on the human nose. The doctor maintains that, by application of an electric current to noses even of the most Bacchic hue, the flesh may be made "to come again as the flesh of a little child," and supports his assertion by a case performed on a female patient of his own, a woman of high rank. "Knights of the burning lamp," who have still some regard for personal appearance, will appreciate Dr. Bernier's discovery, as it promises them immunity from the dreaded outward testimony to their pet vice. There is one danger, however, in the discovery—namely, its tendency, if confirmed, to encourage the growth of secret intemperance.

—*Chloral in Cholera.*—Dr. von Reichard has employed chloral in the recent epidemic of cholera at Riga—first to calm the cramps at the outset; secondly, to lessen the præcordial anguish in the last stage; thirdly, to arrest the vomiting; fourthly, to induce sleep, for which the patients have earnestly prayed. It has successfully fulfilled all these indications. In one case, in which the patient was *in extremis*, and had apparently not three hours to live, sixty grains of chloral gave calm sleep; the temperature rose; the pulse fell from 130 to 90, and regained a certain fulpess; the *facies cholerica* disappeared; and the patient was, as it were, snatched from the jaws of death. Dr. Blumenthal, in three cases of severe cholera saved two out of three patients. The doses administered were sixty grains in half-an-ounce of water twice or thrice in an hour.—*Berlin Clin. Wochenschrift; Gazette Méd. de Strasbourg.*

Meteorology.

From the Records of the Montreal Observatory, Lat. 45° 31' North; Long. 4h. 54m. 11 sec. West of Greenwich. Height above the level of the sea, 182 feet. For the month of December, 1871. By CHARLES SMALLWOOD, M.D. LL. D., D.C.L.

DAYS.	Barometer corrected at 32°			Temperature of the Air.			Direction of Wind.			Miles in 24 hours.
	7 a. m.	2 p. m.	9 p. m.	7 a. m.	2 p. m.	9 p. m	7am	2pm	9pm	
1	29.900	29.886	29.834	−2.5	19.2	10.0	W	W	W	289.74
2	.997	30.051	.994	1 0	27.0	22 2	W	W	W	221.11
3	.996	29.988	.860	28.0	46.0	33.0	S W	S W	S W	77.81
4	.601	.284	.132	35.0	37.3	55.5	W	N E	W	66.15
5	.397	.504	.711	3 0	2.8	−1.0	W	W	W	102.17
6	.900	.852	.647	−10.7	10.9	· 9.8	W	W	S W	124.10
7	.320	.416	.452	20 1	27 0	24.0	W	W	W	90.64
8	.999	.974	.930	20.4	24.8	24 0	W	W	W	67.20
9	.766	.984	.971	17.5	19.0	18 2	N W	W	W	104 10
10	.788	.701	.637	24.0	26.3	26 0	W	S W	W	86.27
11	.726	.732	.747	19 2	30 0	23.0	W	W	W	91.12
12	.898	.984	30 090	20.2	30.1	25.0	N W	N W	W	99.12
13	.961	.824	29.781	10.9	21.0	15 1	N E	N E	N E	71.26
14	.894	.946	.994	17.2	19.0	12.0	W	W	W	84 29
15	30.021	30.026	30.030	8.7	15.1	12.0	W	W	N W	161.74
16	.025	.001	29.993	10.3	14.3	14.1	W	W	W	67.71
17	29.849	29.930	30.080	26.3	32 0	32.0	S W	W	S W	59.12
18	30.050	.767	29.850	28.5	29.2	39 0	W	N E	W	26.10
19	29.991	.667	.551	11.7	16.6	13.1	W	N E	N E	87 71
20	.448	.473	.632	3.8	9.1	−1.6	N W	N W	N W	89.20
21	.759	.946	30.280	−22.4	−2.2	−12.9	W	W	W	166.14
22	30.360	30.176	.104	0.0	18 2	12 0	S W	S W	S W	210 71
23	.100	29.660	29.380	14 5	34.0	39.0	S E	S W	S W	91.11
24	.000	30.160	.964	31.1	30.0	31.0	W	W	W	114.12
25	29.801	29.798	.989	34.8	39.6	30.0	S W	S W	S W	84.10
26	30.181	30.162	30.000	8.0	10.0	10.0	W	N E	N E	24 12
27	29.614	29.663	29.904	11.4	18.6	10.0	N E	W	W	125.17
28	30.149	30.162	30.170	0 0	24.9	15.0	W	S W	S W	206 14
29	.045	.004	.250	16.6	26 3	19.0	S W	S W	W	79.12
30	.462	.425	.311	−1.0	6.0	15.0	N E	N E	N E	104.12
31	29.996	29.941	29.900	31 5	32 0	25 3	S W	S W	S W	206 16

REMARKS.

The highest reading of the Barometer was on the **30th** day, and was **30.462** inches; and the lowest on the **4th** day, **29.132** inches. The monthly mean was **29.885** inches, and the monthly range **1.330** inches.

The highest temperature was observed on the 3rd day, **46°**; the lowest **22° 9'** (below zero), on the **21st** day. The montly mean was **18° 50'**, which is two-tenths of a degree lower than the "Isotherm" for Montreal for the month of December.

Rain fell on **3** days, amounting to **0.413** inches. Snow fell on **21** days, amounting to **26.79** inches.

—Observations taken at Halifax, N. S., during the month of Dec. **1871**; Lt.**44° 39** n.; Lg. **63° 36** w.; height above the Sea **175** feet by Sergt. Thurling, A. H. Corps, Halifax.

Barometer, highest reading was on the 25th .... 30.524 inches
" lowest " " 20th 28.997
" range of pressure 1.527
" mean for month (reduced to 32°) 29.755
Thermometer, highest in shade on the 24th .... 49.7 degrees
" lowest " " 22nd .... −4.0
" range in month .... 53·7
" mean of all highest 34.4
" mean of all lowest 15 7
" mean daily range 18.7
" mean for month 25.0
" maximum reading in sun's rays 97.2
" minimum reading on grass .... −6.0
Hygrometer, mean of dry bulb 26.4
" mean of wet bulb 24.8
" mean dew point 16.7
" elastic force of vapour .... .093
" weight of vapour in a cubic feet of air .... 1.1 grains.
" weight required to saturate do 0.6
" the figure of humidity (Sat. 100) 65
" average weight of a cubic feet of air .... 568 5 grains.
Wind mean direction of North .... 14.25 days.
" " East 0.25
" " South 2 25
" " West 14.25
" mean daily force 2.3
" mean daily horizontal movement .... 265.2 miles.
Cloud, mean amount of, (0-10) 8.1
Ozone, mean amount of, (0-10) 3.9
Rain, No. of days it fell .... 6 days.
Snow, No. of days it fell 18
Amount collected on ground .... 3.93 inches.
Fog .... 3 days.

From the Records of the Montreal Observatory, Lat. 45° 31' North; Long. 4h. 54m. 11 sec. West of Greenwich. Height above the level of the sea, 182 feet. For the month of January, 1872. By CHARLES SMALLWOOD, M.D., LL. D., D.C L.

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1	30.100	30.575	30.530	34.5	25.0	19.0	W	W	W	94 17
2	.611	.041	.004	16.6	21.3	7 2	N E	N E	N E	81.27
3	.251	.162	.125	8.6	18.2	18.0	N E	N E	N E	98.74
4	.021	.001	.090	19.1	26.0	31.0	N E	N E	N E	90 64
5	.020	29.994	29.846	29 0	32 0	31.0	N E	N E	W	84.61
6	29.601	.863	30.071	31.0	30.0	5.0	W	W	W	79.24
7	30.175	30.218	.327	−9.9	3.6	3.5	W	N W	N W	284.20
8	.366	.309	.261	7.6	16.0	4.0	W	W	W	287.91
9	.067	29.989	.000	2.3	26.2	23 0	W	W	W	104.12
10	.080	30.041	.025	23.1	28.5	28.0	W	W	W	96 66
11	29 912	.642	29 411	27.5	32 5	32.5	W	S W	S W	104.12
12	.399	.548	.551	30.5	42.0	34.0	W	W	W	118.17
13	.532	.724	975	34.0	30.0	16.1	W	N	N E	91.12
14	30.100	30.112	30.150	5.0	26.0	8 0	N	N	W	104 20
15	.082	.036	.025	−1 2	16.0	6.5	W	N W	W	84.12
16	.000	.017	.149	0.4	20.0	16.0	N E	N E	N E	52 10
17	.201	.097	.051	7.6	24.2	17.6	W	N	W	109.24
18	29 862	29.776	29.830	7.5	23.7	27.0	W	W	W	184.12
19	.974	30.000	.831	26.5	30.5	28 0	W	W	W	94.24
20	.421	29.401	.636	12.4	34 0	25.0	S W	W	W	86.29
21	.750	.682	.700	15.2	33.1	24.6	W	W	W	114.12
22	.610	.522	.475	26.6	31.0	30.2	W	W S W	W	129 00
23	.261	.612	.752	31.0	16.1	11 0	S W	W	W	201.17
24	.886	.671	.711	−3.4	19.7	2.1	W	W	W	251.19
25	.550	.502	.475	2.0	22 0	12 1	W	W	W	97 14
26	.402	.416	.430	9.8	32.0	20 0	W	W	W	209.17
27	.460	.519	.601	14.8	23.8	21.0	W	W	W	110.14
28	.500	.511	.500	·19 5	23.2	20.0	W	W	W	96.00
29	.451	.530	.742	14 9	18.2	8 0	W	W	W	186.13
30	.961	30.000	30.025	0 5	26.0	16.2	W	W	W	204.17
31	.980	29.999	.010	10.1	31.1	12.0	W	W	W	181.16

REMARKS.

The highest reading of the Barometer was on the **1st** day, and was **30.530** inches; the lowest on the **23rd** day, **29.260** inches. The monthly mean was **29.747** inches.

The highest temparature was on the **12th** day, **42° 0**; the lowest on the 7th day, **9° 9** (below zero). The monthly mean was **19° 34**, which is **5° 34** higher than the "Isotherm" for Montreal for the month of January.

Rain fell on **3** days, amounting to **0.576** inches. Snow fell on **11** days, amounting to **13.60** inches.

—Observations taken at Halifax, N. S., during the month of Jan. **1872**; Lt. **44° 39**n. Lg. **63° 36** w.; height above the Sea **175** feet by Sergt. Thurling, A. H. Corps, Halifax.

Barometer, highest reading on the 3rd .... 30.385 inches.
" lowest " " 26th .... 29.125 "
" range of pressure .... 1.260 "
" mean for month (reduced to 32°) .... 29 588 "
Thermometer, highest in shade on the 5th .... 46.0 degrees
" lowest " " 25th .... −3 0 "
" range in month .... 49.0 "
" mean of all highest .... 32.0 "
" mean of all lowest .... 15.1 "
" mean daily range .... 16.9 "
" mean for month .... 23.5 "
" highest reading in sun's rays .... 86.0 "
" lowest on grass .... −5.0 "
Hygrometer, mean of dry bulb .... 25.4 "
" mean of wet bulb .... 23 7 "
" mean dew point .... 14.3 "
" elastic force of vapour .... .083 "
" weight of vapour in a cubic foot of air .... 1.0 grains.
" weight required to saturate do .... 0.6 "
" the figure of humidity (Sat. 100) .... 61 "
" average weigt of a cubic foot of air .... 566.4 grains.
Wind, mean direction of North .... 20.75 days.
" " East .... 0.50 "
" " South .... 3·25 "
" " West .... 6.50 "
" daily horizontal movement .... 276.7 miles.
" daily force .... 2.4 "
Cloud, mean amount of (0-10) .... 7 1 "
Zone, mean amount of (0-10) .... 3.7 "
Rain, No. of days it fell .... 4 days.
Snow, No of days it fell .... 13 "
Amount of rain and melted snow collected .... 3.27 inches.

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