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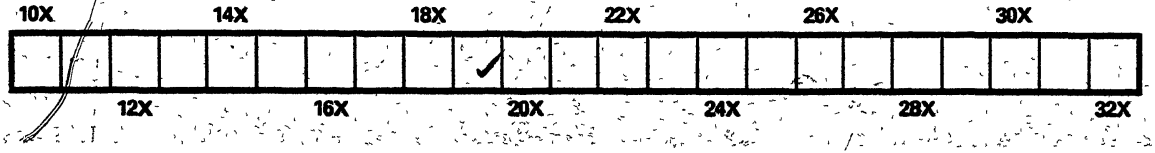


REPORT

ON

A SYSTEM

OF

PUBLIC ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION

FOR

UPPER CANADA:

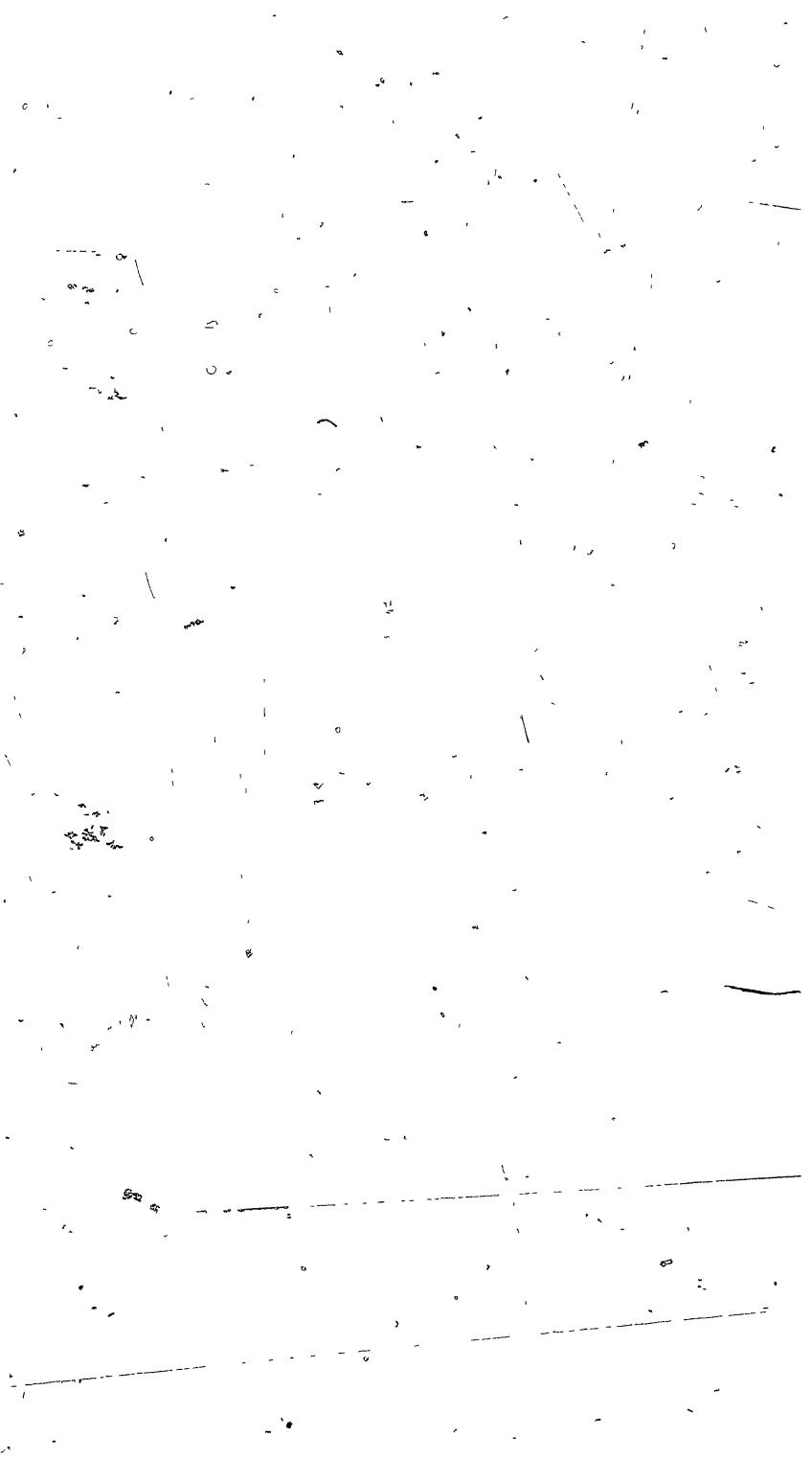
BY

THE REVEREND EGERTON RYERSON, D.D.,

CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS FOR UPPER CANADA.

Printed by order of the Legislative Assembly.

MONTREAL:
PRINTED BY LOVELL AND GIBSON, ST. NICHOLAS STREET.
1847.



The Honourable
Edward Everett LL.D
with the compliments of the Author

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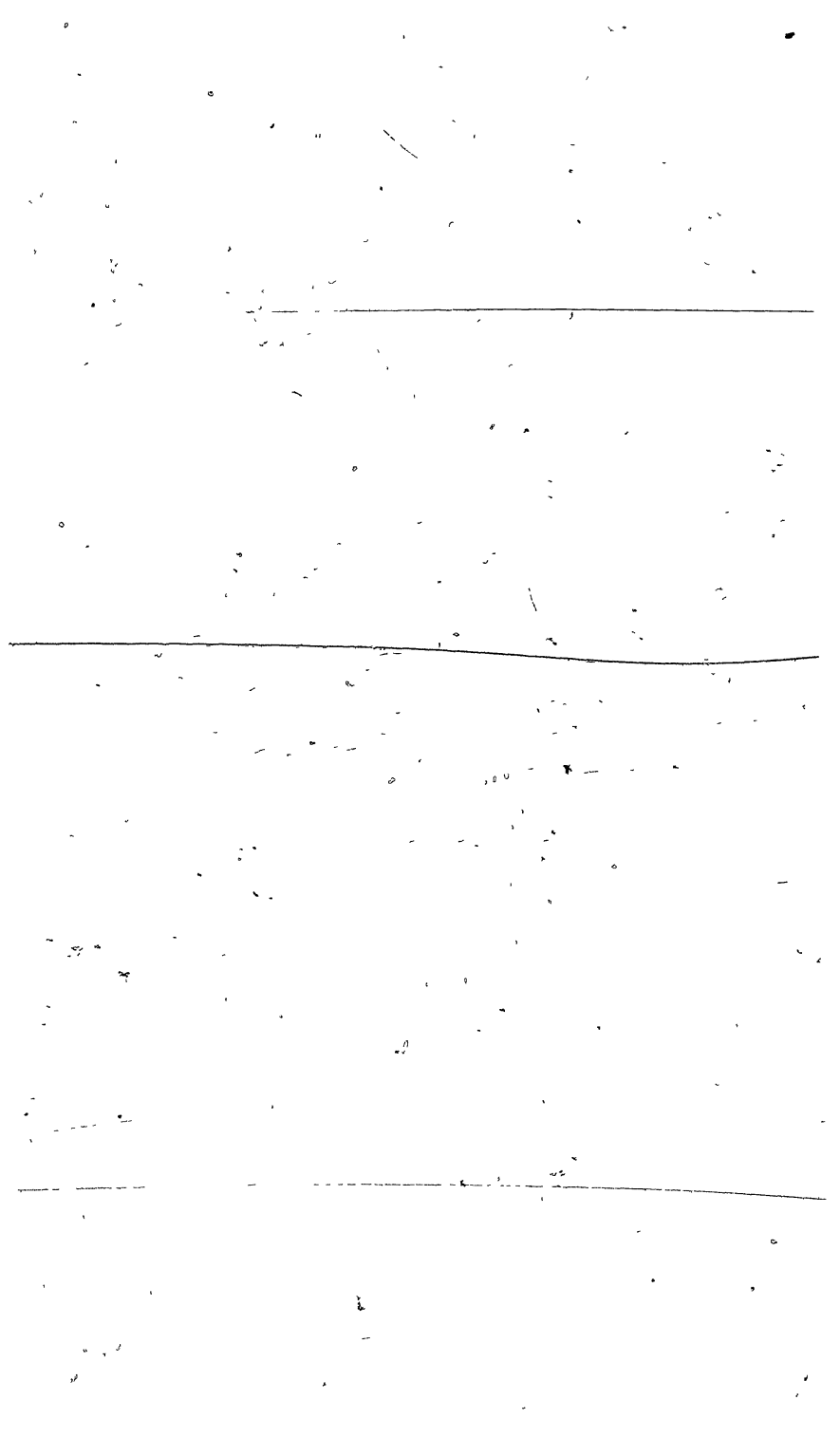

PREFATORY LETTER TO THE PROVINCIAL SECRETARY.

EDUCATION OFFICE, WEST,
Cobourg, March 27th, 1846.

SIR,—I have the honour to transmit herewith, to be laid before His Excellency, a Report on a system of Public Elementary Instruction for Upper Canada, —the result of my observations in Europe, and the commencement of the task assigned me by the late revered Governor General.

A previous Report on the Common School law of Upper Canada.

Having some time since communicated all the remarks and suggestions I had to offer relative to the Common School Act, I have made no reference to it in the following Report; nor have I given any historical or analytical view of the systems of Public Instruction which obtain in any of the countries that I have recently visited. I have only referred to them in as far as appeared to be necessary to illustrate the conclusions at which I have arrived, in respect to a system of Elementary Instruction for Upper Canada.

I cannot expect that an implicit and unqualified assent will be given to every remark which I have made, or to every opinion I have expressed; but I trust the general principles of my Report will meet

the approbation of His Excellency, and that the several subjects discussed will be deemed worthy of the consideration of the public.

Example of Educationists in other countries.

In availing myself as far as possible of the experience of other countries, and the testimony of their most enlightened Educationists, I have not lost sight of the peculiarities of our own country, and have only imitated distinguished examples of other nations.

Europe.

Prussia herself, before adopting any important measure or change in her system of Public Instruction, has been wont to send School Commissioners into other countries, to collect all possible information on the subjects of deliberation. France, England, and other European Governments, have done the same. Three enlightened Educationists from the United States

America.

have lately made similar tours in Europe, with a view of improving their own systems of Public Instruction. One of them spent upwards of two years in Europe, in making educational inquiries,—aided by a Foreign Secretary. I have employed scarcely half that time in the prosecution of my inquiries; and without having imposed one farthing's expense upon the public. Though the spirit of censure has been in some instances indulged on account of my absence from Canada, and my investigating, with practical views, the Educational Institutions of Governments differently constituted from our own, I may appeal to the accompanying Report as to the use which I have made of my observations; and I doubt not but that His Excellency, and the people of Upper Canada

generally, will appreciate the propriety of such inquiries, and respond to the spirit of the remarks which that distinguished philosopher and statesman, M. Cousin, made on a similar occasion, after his return from investigating the systems of Public Instruction in several countries of Germany: M. Cousin.

"The experience of Germany, (says M. Cousin,) particularly of Prussia, ought not to be lost upon us. National rivalries or antipathies would here be completely out of place. The true greatness of a people does not consist in borrowing nothing from others, but in borrowing from all whatever is good, and in perfecting whatever it appropriates. I am as great an enemy as any man to artificial imitations; but it is mere pusillanimity to reject a thing for no other reason than that it has been thought good by others. With the promptitude and justness of the French understanding, and the indestructible unity of our national character, we may assimilate all that is good in other countries without fear of ceasing to be ourselves. Besides, civilized Europe now forms but one great family. We constantly imitate England in all that concerns outward life, the mechanical arts, and physical refinements; why, then, should we blush to borrow something from kind, honest, pious, learned Germany, in what regards inward life and the nurture of the soul?" Germany.

But I have not confined my observations and references to Germany alone; the accompanying Report is my witness, that I have restricted myself to no

one country or form of Government; but that I have "borrowed from all whatever" appeared to me to be "good," and have endeavoured to "perfect," by adapting it to our condition, "whatever I have appropriated."

I have the honour to be,

Sir,

Your most obedient humble servant,

EGERTON RYERSON.

The Honourable D. Daly,
Secretary of the Province,
&c., &c., &c.

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TO HIS EXCELLENCY

LIEUTENANT GENERAL THE RIGHT HONOURABLE

CHARLES MURRAY, EARL CATHCART,

OF CATHCART, IN THE COUNTY OF RENFREW, K.C.B.,

GOVERNOR GENERAL OF BRITISH NORTH AMERICA,

AND

CAPTAIN-GENERAL AND GOVERNOR-IN-CHIEF

IN AND OVER THE

PROVINCES OF CANADA, NOVA SCOTIA, NEW BRUNSWICK, AND THE ISLAND OF PRINCE EDWARD,

AND VICE-ADMIRAL OF THE SAME, &c. &c. &c.

MAY IT PLEASE YOUR EXCELLENCY,

PART I.

THE letter of the Secretary of the Province, which informed me of my appointment to my present office, contains the following words:

Instructions.

"His Excellency has no doubt that you will give your best exertions to the duties of your new office, and that you will lose no time in devoting yourself to devising such measures as may be necessary to provide proper School Books; to establish the most efficient system of Instruction; to elevate the character of both Teachers and Schools; and to encourage every plan and effort to educate and improve the youthful mind of the country; and His Excellency feels assured that your endeavours in matters so important to

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the welfare of the rising youth of Western Canada, will be alike satisfactory to the public, and creditable to yourself."

Preparatory inquiries.

Before undertaking to assume a charge so responsible, and to carry into effect instructions so comprehensive, I felt that the most extended examination of already established systems of Education was desirable, if not indispensably necessary.

Accordingly, I applied, and obtained leave, without any expense to the Province, to visit the principal countries of Europe in which the most approved systems of Public Instruction have been established.

Having devoted upwards of a year to this preparatory part of my task, during which time I have pursued my inquiries in the dominions of nearly twenty different Governments, I now submit to Your Excellency the general conclusions at which I have arrived.

The leading and fundametal part of my assigned task was, "*to devise such measures as may be necessary to establish the most efficient system of Instruction.*" I will, therefore, submit to the consideration of Your Excellency, first, what I have been led to conclude "the most efficient system of Instruction," and secondly, the machinery necessary for its establishment, so as to "elevate the character of both the Teachers and Schools, and to encourage every plan and effort to educate and improve the youthful mind of the country."

Example of other Governments.

In adopting measures so decided for the advancement of the education of the people, the Administration of Canada is but following the example of the most enlightened Governments, and, like them, laying the foundation for the strongest claims to the esteem of the country and gratitude of posterity. On the part of both the free and despotic Governments of

Europe, no subject has latterly occupied more attention than that of Public Instruction. The whole subject has undergone the most thorough investigation; and systems both public and private, which had been maturing for ages, extending from the lowest Elementary Schools up to the Colleges and Universities, have been carefully digested and brought into efficient operation.

The improvement and wide extension of the systems of Elementary Instruction form the most prominent, as well as the most interesting feature of this extraordinary developement in the policy of both the European and American Governments.

Adequate provisions for Elementary Instruction exist not only in Prussia, Denmark, Sweden, Holland, Belgium, France, Switzerland, Bavaria, Saxony, Austria, and the minor States of Germany, but even in Russia a similar system has been commenced; the whole of that vast empire has been divided into Provinces, with a University in each; the Provinces again divided into Districts, each of which is provided with a Classical Gymnasium;—each Gymnasial District divided again into School Districts, and in each an Elementary School; so that, as a recent traveller observes, "from Poland to Siberia, and from the White Sea to the regions beyond Caucasus, including the Provinces recently wrested from Persia, there are the beginning of a complete system of Common School Instruction for the whole people, to be carried into full execution as fast as it is possible to provide the requisite number of qualified Teachers."

The investigations on this subject which have for several years past been instituted by our own Imperial Government, have been of the most extensive and practical character, and have already resulted in the

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adoption of measures unprecedentedly energetic and comprehensive, to supply the intellectual wants of the labouring classes.

Example of other Governments.

The northern States of the neighbouring Rupublic have also made laudable efforts to improve their systems of Elementary Education; to promote which object, no less than three of their most distinguished citizens have, during the last nine years, made extensive tours in Europe.

But the vast amount of legislation which has been expended in these States, the numerous modifications and amendments of the School Laws,—the complaints that are still made by the most competent judges and administrators of them, of the defects in their operations,—no less than the nature and importance of the subject itself, admonish, and seem to require on the part of the Government of Canada, the most careful consideration of the whole subject; so that the wants, interests and circumstances of the country may be consulted as far as possible, and that the progress of education may not be retarded by uncertainty, doubt, and frequent change.

The instructions which have been given me, and the facilities of acquiring information with which I have been favoured, evince that the Canadian Government is second to no other in its desire and determination to promote in every possible way the education of the people.

Authorities adduced in confirmation of the Author's views.

In obedience then to my instructions, I proceed to the explanation of that system of Education which I conceive to be required by the circumstances of the country. In doing so, I shall strengthen and illustrate my own views by references to the best authorities, both European and American, in order that the Government and the people of Upper Canada may be

satisfied—against objections which may be urged from any quarter—that the sentiments which I may advance, and the recommendations I may venture to submit, are not rash novelties or crude speculations, but the result of the largest experience, and the deepest investigations on the part of the best judges resident in both hemispheres, and under different forms of Civil Government.

What meant by Education.

By Education, I mean not the mere acquisition of certain arts, or of certain branches of knowledge, but that instruction and discipline which qualify and dispose the subjects of it for their appropriate duties and employments of life, as Christians, as persons of business, and also as members of the civil community in which they live.

Basis and extent of the System.

The basis of an educational structure adapted to this end should be as broad as the population of the country; and its loftiest elevation should equal the highest demands of the learned professions, adapting its gradation of schools to the wants of the several classes of the community, and to their respective employments or professions, the one rising above the other—the one conducting to the other; yet each complete in itself for the degree of education it imparts; a character of uniformity as to fundamental principles pervading the whole: the whole based upon the principles of Christianity, and uniting the combined influence and support of the Government and the people.

The branches of knowledge which it is essential that all should understand, should be provided *for all*, and taught to all; should be brought within the reach of the most needy, and forced upon the attention of the most careless. The knowledge required for the scientific pursuit of mechanics, agriculture and com-

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merce, must needs be provided to an extent corresponding with the demand, and the exigencies of the country; while to a more limited extent are needed facilities for acquiring the higher education of the learned professions.

Comparative neglect of Elementary Education.

Now, to a professional education, and to the education of the more wealthy classes, no objection has been made, nor even indifference manifested. On the contrary, for these classes of society, less needing the assistance of the Government, and having less claims upon its benevolent consideration than the labouring and producing classes of the population, have liberal provisions been made, and able Professors employed: whilst Schools of Industry have been altogether overlooked, and primary Instruction has scarcely been reduced to a system; and the education of the bulk of the population has been left to the annual liberality of Parliament. Nay, even objections have been made to the education of the labouring classes of the people; and it may be advisable to shew, at the outset, that the establishment of a thorough system of primary and industrial Education, commensurate with the population of the country, as contemplated by the Government, and as is here proposed, is justified by considerations of economy as well as of patriotism and humanity.

General Education a preventative of pauperism.

First, such a system of general Education amongst the people is the most effectual preventative of pauperism, and its natural companions, misery and crime. To a young and growing country, and the retreat of so many poor from other countries, this consideration is of the greatest importance. The gangrene of pauperism in either cities or states is almost incurable. It may be said in some sort to be hereditary as well as infectious,—both to perpetuate and propagate

itself,—to weaken the body politic at its very heart, —and to multiply wretchedness and vice.

Now, the Statistical Reports of pauperism and crime in different countries, furnish indubitable proof that ignorance is the fruitful source of idleness, intemperance and improvidence, and these the foster-parent of pauperism and crime. The history of every country in Europe may be appealed to in proof and illustration of the fact,—apart from the operation of extraneous local and temporary circumstances,—that pauperism and crime prevail in proportion to the absence of education amongst the labouring classes, and that in proportion to the existence and prevalence of education amongst those classes, is the absence of pauperism and its legitimate offspring.

To adduce even a summary of the statistical details which I have collected on this subject, would exceed my prescribed limits; and I will only present the conclusions at which competent witnesses have arrived after careful and personal inquiry. F. Hill, Esquire, Her Majesty's Inspector of Prisons in Scotland, at the conclusion of a statistical work on National Education in Great Britain, Prussia, Spain and America, states the following amongst other inferences, as the result of his investigations:

General Facts.

"So powerful is education as a means of national improvement, that, with comparatively few exceptions, the different countries of the world, if arranged according to the state of education in them, will be found to be arranged also according to wealth, morals and general happiness; and not only does this rule hold good as respects a country taken as a whole, but it will generally apply to the different parts of the same country.

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Agricultural labourers in England.

Thus in England, education is in the best state in the northern Agricultural District, and in the worst state in the southern Agricultural District, and in the Agricultural parts of the Midland District; while in the great Towns, and other manufacturing places, education is in an intermediate state; and at the same time, the condition of the people and the extent of crime and violence among them follow in like order."*

J. C. Blackden, Esquire, of Ford Castle, Northumberland, England, in concluding his evidence before the Poor Law Commissioners, expresses himself thus: "In taking a short review of my answers to the Commissioners' Queries, the advantageous position of our labouring population, when compared with the position of those in the more southern districts of the country, must be manifest. It is impossible to live among them without being struck by their superior intelligence, and their superior morality. I am fully justified in this assertion by the Parliamentary Returns of criminal commitments in the several Counties of England, which prove Northumberland to be very much more free from crime than any other County. A principal cause of this I have no doubt arises from the education they receive at the Schools scattered over the country."†

The Reverend W. S. Gilly, Vicar of Norham Parish, Northumberland, states the following facts in evidence before the same Commissioners:

"I scarcely know an instance in this Parish in which the children of an agricultural labourer have not been sent to School, for the most part at their own

* National Education; its present state and prospects, by Frederick Hill, vol. ii, pp. 164 and 165.

† Report of Poor Law Commissioners. *Appendix.*

expense. I believe the parents set a greater value on that education, the expenses of which they defray themselves; they watch their children's progress more narrowly. From prudence and education results the prosperity of this District; and it is not here as in some places, that the absolute plenty of the land, and the relative poverty of the people who live in it, keep pace one with the other! A high standard of character has raised the standard of comfort here: and for many years useful education, combined with Christian education, has been diffusing its blessings."*

Prussian Provinces of the Rhine.

The same causes have produced the same effects in other countries. Prussia is a conspicuous example. The following is the statement of Thomas Wyse, Esquire, Member of the British Parliament, and author of an elaborate work on Education Reform, who has made extensive tours of personal inspection on the Continent. Personal observation enables me to attest to the correctness of that part of Mr. Wyse's statements which relate to the recently acquired Prussian Provinces on the Rhine. Mr. Wyse says—"What is the real social result of all this?—How has it affected the population for good or for ill?—How is it likely to affect them in future?—The narratives given by Pestalozzi, De Fellenberg, Oberlin and the Père Girard, of the singular revolution, mental and moral, and I may also add, physical, effected by the application of their system of teaching on a hitherto ignorant and vicious population, though admitted to be isolated experiments, ought not the less to be considered evidences of the intrinsic force of the instrument itself, and of its power to produce similar results, wherever and whenever fairly tried,

* Report of Poor Law Commissioners. *Appendix.*

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without reference to country or numbers; that is, whenever applied with the same earnestness, honesty and skill in other instances as in theirs. And of this portion of Prussia—of the Rhenish Provinces—it may surely be averred, that it has now been for some time under the influence of this system, and that during that period, whether resulting from such influence or not, its progress in intelligence, industry, and morality, in the chief elements of virtue and happiness, has been steadily and strikingly progressive. In few parts of the civilized world is there more marked exemption from crimes and violence."

Opinion of the Right Rev. Dr. Potter, present P. E. Bishop of Ohio.

A judicious American writer observes, that "nearly nine-tenths of all the pauperism actually existing in any country, may be traced directly to moral causes; such as improvidence, idleness, intemperance, and a want of moderate energy and enterprise. Now it is hardly necessary to add that education, if it be imparted to all the rising generation, and be pervaded, also, by the right spirit, will remove these fruitful sources of indigence. It will make the young provident, industrious, temperate and frugal, and with such virtues, aided by intelligence, they can hardly fail in after life to gain a comfortable support for themselves and families. Could the paupers of our own State be collected into one group, it would be found, I doubt not, that three out of every four, if not five out of every six, owe their present humiliating positition to some defect or omission in their early training."*

* School and Schoolmaster. By Alonzo Potter, D. D., of New York. Eleven thousand copies of this work have been circulated gratuitously in the State of New York, by the Honourable James Wadsworth, and three thousand in the State of Massachusetts, at the expense of Mr. Brimmer, late Mayor of Boston.

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Manufacturing labourers—testimony of A. G. Escher, Esq., a wealthy manufacturer and experienced engineer.

What has been stated in respect to agricultural labourers, and of the labouring classes generally, is equally and specially true of manufacturing labourers. From the mass of testimony which might be adduced on this point, one or two statements only will be selected. The first is from the evidence before the Poor Law Commissioners, by Mr. A. G. Escher, of Zurich, Switzerland, who has been accustomed to employ hundreds of workmen. In reply to the question, as to the effects of a deficiency of education on success in mechanical employments, Mr. Escher says: "These effects are most strikingly exhibited in the Italians, who, though with the advantage of greater natural capacity than the English, Swiss, Dutch or Germans, are still of the lowest class of workmen. Though they comprehend clearly and quickly any simple proposition made, or explanation given to them, and are enabled quickly to execute any kind of work when they have seen it performed once, yet their minds, as I imagine from want of developement by training or School Education, seem to have no kind of logic, no power of systematic arrangement, no capacity for collecting any series of observations, and making sound deductions from the whole of them. This want of capacity of mental arrangement is shewn in their manual operations. An Italian will execute a simple operation with great dexterity; but when a number of them is put together, all is confusion. For instance: within a short time after the introduction of cotton spinning into Naples in 1830, a native spinner would produce as much as the best English workman; and yet up to this time, not one of the Neapolitan operators is advanced far enough to take the superintendence of a single room, the Superintendents being all Northerns, who, though less gifted by nature, have

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had a higher degree of order and arrangement imparted to their minds by a superior education."

In reply to the question, whether Education would not tend to render them discontented and disorderly, and thus impair their value as operatives, Mr. Escher states: "My own experience and my conversation with eminent mechanics in different parts of Europe, lead me to an entirely different conclusion. In the present state of manufactures, where so much is done by machinery and tools, and so little done by mere brute labour, (and that little diminishing,) mental superiority, system, order, punctuality and good conduct,—qualities all developed and promoted by education,—are becoming of the highest consequence. There are now, I consider, few enlightened manufacturers, who will dissent from the opinion, that the work-shops, peopled with the greatest number of well informed workmen, will turn out the greatest quantity of the best work, in the best manner. The better educated workmen are distinguished, we find, by superior moral habits in every respect.

Domestic comfort.

"From the accounts which pass through my hands, I invariably find that the best educated of our work people manage to live in the most respectable manner, at the least expense, or make their money go the farthest in obtaining comforts.

"This applies equally to the work people of all nations, that have come under my observation; the Saxons, the Dutch, and the Swiss, being however decidedly the most saving without stinting themselves in their comforts, or failing in general respectability. With regard to the English I may say, that the educated workmen are the only ones who save money out of their very large wages.

"By Education I may say, that I, throughout, mean not merely instruction in the art of reading, writing and arithmetic, but better general mental developement; the acquisition of better tastes, of mental amusements, and enjoyments, which are cheaper while they are more refined."*

The same Report contains the evidence of many English manufacturers to the same effect, as also the *Report to the Secretary of State for the Home Department on the training of Pauper Children*, 1841.

The same causes produce the same effects among the labouring population of the manufacturing towns of the United States.

Massachusetts.

In 1841, the Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education made a laborious inquiry into the comparative productiveness of the labour of the educated and uneducated manufacturing operatives in that State. The substance of the answers of the manufacturers, and business men to whom he applied, is as follows: "The result of the investigation is the most astonishing superiority in productive power on the part of the educated over the uneducated labourer. The hand is found to be another hand when guided by an intelligent mind. Processes are performed not only more rapidly, but better, when faculties which have been cultivated in early life furnish their assistance. Individuals, who, without the aid of knowledge, would have been condemned to perpetual inferiority of condition and subjected to all the evils of want and poverty, rise to competence and independence by the uplifting power of education. In great establishments, and among large bodies of labouring men, where all services are rated according to their pecu-

* Report of Poor Law Commissioners.

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From the preceding facts, may be inferred the importance of a sound Common School Education, among even the lowest class of agriculturalists and mechanics, in respect both to employers and the employed.

The general diffusion of such an education even in the poorest country is the precursor and companion of the general diffusion of industry and virtue, comfort and happiness. Of this Switzerland—naturally the least productive, and the most difficult of cultivation of any country of central Europe—is an indubitable example.

Switzerland. In several of the Cantons of Switzerland I have lately had the opportunity of witnessing the substantial correctnesss of what is thus stated by a recent traveller: "The intermixture of classes is wonderfully divested of the offensive familiarities which would infallibly arise from it in less educated countries. Deferential respect is paid, rather perhaps, to age, and moral station, than to mere affluence; but I have seldom witnessed any departure from a tone and manner of affectionate courtesy on the part of the poorer towards the higher classes. This may, however, be mainly attributable to the habitual and kindly consideration shewn to the working classes by their superiors. Whether this results from a higher sense of doing to others as we would be done by, whether

*Report of the Secretary of the Massachusetts Education Society for 1841.

from natural kind-heartedness, or whether from the knowledge of the power possessed by each man, I know not; but be it from love, or be it from fear, certain it is, that a kindly feeling is evinced by employers to the employed in Northern Switzerland, of which few other countries afford an example. Switzerland is clearly indebted to the highly educated, or, to speak more correctly, to the extensively educated mind of her people, for her singular prosperity and advancement.

"Brilliant talents, or any eminent powers of intellect, are very rarely found among the Swiss; but for sound good sense, and general proficiency in the common branches of education, I do not think that there is a people equal to them.

"A family in one of the villages I visited in the Canton of Zurich, was pointed out to me as unusually disreputable, and I was cautioned not to take any thing I saw there as a sample of the rest. One of the heaviest charges made against the conduct of the master was, that he had been repeatedly warned by the *gemeindamann* to send two of his children to school who were turned of eight years of age; that he had proved so refractory, that at length, the Stadholder had been informed of his conduct, and it was only when he found he was about to be fined that he complied with the law."

Bishop Berkeley.

One may well ask, then, with Bishop Berkeley, "whether a wise State hath any interest nearer at heart than the education of youth?" Independent of the answer furnished by the foregoing facts, the safety of a constitutional State may, in the words of M. Girardin, late Educational Inspector of the French Government to Austria: "The instruction of the people endangers Absolute Governments; their ignorance on the con-

M. Girardin.

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trary imperils Representative Governments; for the Parliamentary debates, while they reveal to the mass the extent of their rights, do not wait until they can exercise them with discernment: and when a people know their rights there is but one way to govern them, to educate them:" A sentiment which is still more strongly enforced by the present enlightened Archbishop of Dublin: "If the lower orders are to be the property, the slaves of their Governors, and to be governed not for their own advantage, but entirely for the benefit of their rulers, then, no doubt, the more they are degraded towards the condition of brutes, the more likely they are to submit to this tyranny. But if they are to be governed as rational beings, the more rational they are made the better subjects they will be of such a Government."*

Archbishop Whately.

System of Education should be universal.

1. The first feature then of our Provincial system of Public Instruction, should be *universality;* and that in respect to the poorest classes of society. It is the poor indeed that need the assistance of the Government, and they are proper objects of its special solicitude and care; the rich can take care of themselves. The elementary education of the whole people must therefore be an essential element in the Legislative and Administrative policy of an enlightened and beneficent Government.

Should be practical.

2. Nor is it less important to the efficiency of such a system, that it should be *practical*, than that it should be universal. The mere acquisition or even the general diffusion of knowledge, without the requisite qualities to apply that knowledge in the best manner, does not merit the name of education. Much knowledge may be imparted and acquired without any addition

* Archbishop Whately. Sermon for the benefit of Halesworth and Clondalkin National School, p. 15.

whatever to the capacity for the business of life. There are not wanting numerous examples of persons having excelled even in the higher departments of knowledge, who are utterly incompetent to the most simple, as well as the most important affairs of every day life. History presents us with even University systems of Education (so called) entirely destitute of all practical character; and there are elementary systems which tend as much to prejudice and pervert, not to say corrupt, the popular mind, as to improve and elevate it.

The very end of our being is practical, and every step, and every branch of our moral, intellectual, and physical culture should harmonize with the design of our existence. The age in which we live is likewise eminently practical; and the condition and interests, the pursuits and duties of our new country, under our free Government, are invested with an almost exclusively practical character. Scarcely an individual among us is exempt from the necessity of "living by the sweat of his face." Every man should therefore be educated to practice.

The changes and developements which have been made in the arts, modes of labour, methods of business, systems of commerce, administrations of the Government, and indeed every department of civilization, involve the necessity and importance of a corresponding character in our whole system of public instruction. The same amount of skill and knowledge which would have enabled an artizan or a tradesman, or merchant, or even a professional man, to have excelled in former years, would be by no means adequate to success in the present stage of mental developement and of keen and skilful competition.

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The state of society then, no less than the wants of our country, requires that every youth of the land should be trained to industry and practice,—whether that training be extensive or limited.

What involved in practical Education.

Now, education thus practical, includes religion and morality; secondly, the developement to a certain extent of all our faculties; thirdly, an acquaintance with several branches of elementary knowledge.

Under these heads will be embraced a summary view of what I deem it necessary to say on this subject. Nor shall I be very particular in treating them separately.

Religion.

3rd. By religion and morality I do not mean sectarianism in any form, but the general system of truth and morals taught in the Holy Scriptures. Sectarianism is not morality. To be zealous for a sect and to be conscientious in morals are widely different. To inculcate the peculiarities of a sect, and to teach the fundamental principles of religion and morality, are equally different. Indeed Schools might be named, in which there is the most rigorous inculcation of an exclusive sectarianism, where there is a deplorable absence of the fruits of both religion and morality. As there may be a very careful teaching of some of the ornamental branches of learning, while the essential and practical departments of it are very carelessly, if at all taught; so it notoriously occurs that scrupulous and ostentatious maintenance and teaching of the "mint, anise, and cummin" of a vain and grasping sectarianism, is accompanied with an equally notorious disregard of the "weightier matters of the law" of religion and morality.

Not Sectarianism.

Such teaching may, as it has done, raise up an army of pugilists and persecutors, but it is not the way to create a community of Christians. To teach a child

the dogmas and spirit of a sect, before he is taught the essential principles of religion and morality, is to invert the pyramid,—to reverse the order of nature,—to feed with the bones of controversy instead of with the nourishing milk of truth and charity.

Separate Schools not condemned.

In these remarks I mean no objection to Schools in connection with a particular religious community,—wholly controlled by such community, and where its worship is observed, and its creed taught. Nor would I intimate that such establishments may not in many instances be more efficient and more desirable than any other differently constituted; nor that the exertions to establish and maintain them, are not most praiseworthy, and ought not to be countenanced and supported. I refer not to the constitution and controul of Schools or Seminaries, but to the kind of teaching—a teaching which can be better understood than defined,—a teaching which unchristianizes four-fifths, if not nine-tenths, of Christendom,—a teaching which substitutes the form for the reality,—the symbol for the substance,—the dogma for the doctrine,—the passion for sect, for the love of God and our neighbours;—a teaching which, as history can attest, is productive of ecclesiastical corruptions, superstition, infidelity, social disputes and civil contentions, and is inimical alike to good government and public tranquillity.

What religious instruction may be given in mixed Schools.

I can aver, from personal experience and practice, as well as from a very extended inquiry on this subject, that a much more comprehensive course of biblical and religious instruction can be given, than there is likely to be opportunity for in Elementary Schools, without any restraint on the one side, or any tincture of sectarianism on the other,—a course embracing the entire *History of the Bible*, its *institutions, cardinal*

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doctrines and *morals*, together with the *evidences* of its *authenticity*. In the sequel, this statement will be illustrated and confirmed by facts.

The misapplication and abuse of religious instruction in Schools have induced many to adopt a contrary error, and to object to it altogether as an element of popular education. In France, religion formed no part of the Elementary Education for many years, and in some parts of the United States the example of France has been followed. Time is required fully to develope the consequences of a purely *godless* system of public instruction. It requires a generation for the seed to germinate,—a second or third for the fruit to ripen.

Evils of a godless system of Education.

However, the consequences have been too soon manifest both in France and America.

The French Government has for many years employed its most strenuous exertions to make religious instruction an essential part of Elementary Education; and experienced men, and the most distinguished educational writers in the United States, speak in strong terms of the deplorable consequences resulting from the absence of religious instruction in their Schools, and earnestly insist upon its absolute necessity.

Testimony of the Superintendent of Common Schools for the State of New York.

The Honorable Samuel Young, the present Superintendent of Education in the State of New York, thus pourtrays the character of the popular mind in that country, in the utter absence of all religion in their system of Public Instruction. The length of the extract will be amply justified by the importance of the subject, and the high authority from which it emanates:—"Nothing is more common than for public journalists to extol in unmeasured terms the intelligence of the community. On all occasions, accord-

ing to them, *Vox populi est vox Dei.* We are pronounced to be a highly cultivated, intellectual and civilized people. When we, the people, called for the exclusion of small bills, we were right; when we called for the repeal of the exclusion, we were equally right. We are divided into political parties nearly equal, but we are both right. We disagree respecting the fundamental principles of Government; we quarrel about the laws of a circulating medium; we are bank, and anti-bank, tariff and anti-tariff, for a national bankrupt law and against a national bankrupt law, for including corporations and for excluding corporations, for unlimited internal improvement, judicious internal improvement, and for no internal improvement. We have creeds, sects, denominations, and faiths of all varieties, each insisting that it is right, and that all the others are wrong. We have cold water societies, but many more that habitually deal in hot water. We are anti-masonic and masonic, pro-slavery and anti-slavery; and are spiced and seasoned with abolitionism, immediateism, gradualism, mysticism, materialism, agrarianism, sensualism, egotism, scepticism, idealism, transcendentalism, Van Burenism, Harrisonism, Mormonism, and animal-magnetism. Every public and private topic has its furious partizans, struggling with antagonists equally positive and unyielding, and yet we are told that we are a well informed, a highly civilized people. If we look to our Legislative halls, to the lawgivers of the land, to the men who have been selected for the greatest wisdom and experience, we shall see the same disagreement and collision on every subject. He who would play the politician must shut his eyes to all this and talk incessantly of the intelligence of the people. Instead of attempting to lead the com-

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munity in the right way, he must go with them in the wrong.

"It is true he may preach sound doctrine in reference to the education of youth. He may state the vast influence it has upon the whole life of man. He may freely point out the imperfections in the moral, intellectual, and physical instruction of the children of the present day. He may urge the absolute necessity of good teachers, of the multiplication of libraries, and every other means for the diffusion of useful knowledge. He may expatiate upon the superstitious fears, the tormenting fancies, the erroneous notions, the wrong prepossessions, and the laxity of morals which most children are allowed to imbibe for want of early and correct instruction, and which in the majority of cases last through life. He may, with truth and freedom, declare that the mental impress at twenty gives the colouring to the remainder of life; and that most young men of our country, of that age, have not half the correct information and sound principles which might with proper care have been instilled into their minds before they were ten years old. But here the politician must stop his censures, and close his advice. At twenty-one, the ignorant, uneducated and way-ward youth is entitled to the right of suffrage, and mingles with a community composed of materials like himself. He bursts the shell which had enveloped him; he emerges from the chrysalis state of darkness and ignorance, and at once becomes a component part of a highly intelligent, enlightened, and civilized community!

"If we honestly desire to know society as it is, we must subject it to a rigorous analysis. We must divest ourselves of all partiality, and not lay the flattering unction of vanity to our souls. The clear

perception of our deficiences, of the feeble advances already made in knowledge and civilization, is the best stimulus to united, energetic and useful exertion. Bitter truth is much more wholesome, than sweet delusion. The gross flattery which is weekly and daily poured out in Legislative speeches, and by a time-serving press, has a most pernicious influence upon the public mind and morals. PART I.

"The greater the ignorance of the mass, the more readily the flattery is swallowed. He who is the most circumscribed in knowledge, perceives not a single cloud in his mental horizon. Attila and his Huns doubtless believed themselves to be the most civilized people on earth; and if they had possessed our editorial corps, they would have proved it to be so. Weak and vain females in the days of their youth have been charged by the other sex with an extraordinary fondness for flattery, but, judging by the constant specimens which are lavishly administered and voraciously swallowed, the male appetite for hyperboles of praise, is altogether superior. The vain-glorious boastings of the American press excite the risibility of all intelligent foreigners.

"According to the learned and philosophic De Tocqueville, this is the country of all others where public opinion is the most dictatorial and despotic. Like a spoiled child it has been indulged, flattered and caressed by interested sycophants until its capriciousness and tyranny are boundless. When Americans boast of their cultivated minds and human feelings, foreigners point them to the existence of Negro slavery. When they claim the civic merit of unqualified submission to the rules of social order, they are referred to the frequent exhibitions of duels and Lynch law. When they insist upon the prevalence among De Tocqueville.

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us of strict integrity, sound morals, and extensive piety, they are shown an American newspaper which probably contains the annunciation of half a dozen thefts, robberies, embezzlements, horrid murders, and appalling suicides.

"Burns, the eminent Scotch poet, seems to have believed that good would result,

> 'If Providence the gift would gie us,
> 'To see ourselves, as others see us.'

"If we had this gift, much of our overweening vanity would doubtless be repressed, and many would seriously ponder on the means of reformation and improvement. But that any great improvement can be made upon the moral propensities of the adults of the present day is not to be expected. The raw material of humanity, after being even partially neglected for twenty years, generally bids defiance to every manufacturing process.

"The *moral education*, that is *the proper discipline* of the *dispositions* and *affections* of the mind, by which a reverence for the Supreme Being, a love of justice, of benevolence, and of truth, are expanded, strengthened, and directed, and the conscience enlightened and invigorated, must have its basis deeply and surely laid in childhood.

"Truth, in the most important parts of moral science, is most easily taught, and makes the most indelible impressions in early life, before the infusion of the poison of bad example; before false notions and pernicious opinions have taken root: before the understanding is blunted and distorted by habit, or the mind clouded by prejudice." *

* Lecture on Civilization.

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Testimony of the Superintendent of Schools for the County of Albany, N. Y.

The Superintendent of Schools for Albany County, —the metropolitan County, including the Capital, of the State of New York,—speaks still more definitely if not forcibly, on the consequence of non-christian Schools. He says: "We are suffering from the evils of imperfect and neglected education. Want, vice and crime in their myriad forms bear witness against our Educational Institutions, and demand inquiry whether they can prevent or remedy the evils which are sapping the foundations of society.

"That the Schools have not accomplished the object of their creation, if that object were to nurture a virtuous and intelligent people, unfortunately requires no proof. Their moral influence has undoubtedly ameliorated our social condition; but it has failed to give that energy to virtue which is essential to virtue and happiness. It has been an accidental effect, rather than a prominent and distinct object of School Education; and while by its agency intellect has generally been developed, the moral sense has been neglected, and the common mind, though quick and schemeful, wants honesty and independence. The popular virtues are the prudential virtues, which spring from selfishness, and lead on to wealth and reputation, but not to well being and happiness. Were their source moral feeeling, and their object duty, they would not only distinguish the individual but bless society. Man has lost faith in man; for successful knavery under the garb of shrewdness, unblushingly walks the streets, and claims the sanction of society.

"It is said that the moral condition of a people may be conjectured from the vices and virtues that prevail, and the feelings with which they are regarded. What must be the state of public sentiment where

PART I. frauds, robberies, and even murders excite little more than vague surprise, but lead to no earnest investigation of the general cause or possible remedy. And the most alarming consideration is, not that crime is so common as hardly to be a noticeable event in the history of the day, but that from this state of public feeling must be engendered a still greater and more fearful harvest of social and public evils. If there is any truth in those familiar maxims, which in every form, and in every tongue describe the child as the 'father to the man,' then much of this moral degradation and social danger must be charged on the neglected, or perverted culture of the Schools. Indeed, it is not unusual to refer in general terms the vices and misery of society to this source, but it excites little more attention than the statement of the philosophical fact, that the fall of a pebble affects the motion of the earth; and many would as soon anticipate the disturbance of physical order from the one cause as of moral order from the other. Dissolute company, gambling, intemperance, neglect of the Sabbath, are the popular, because the apparent, and sometimes the proximate causes of moral degradation; but to attribute to each or all these, is but putting the elephant on the tortoise. For why was the gaming table resorted to, the Sabbath profaned, or dissolute company loved? Because the early impressions, the embryo tastes, the incipient habits were perverted by that false system of education which severs knowledge from its relations to duty. And this false education is found in many of those Schools which are the favorite theme of national eulogy, the proud answer of the patriot and philanthropist to all who doubt the permanence of free institutions or the advancement of human happiness.

"Were we not misled by the great and increasing number of these primary institutions, and did we inquire more carefully into their actual condition, the tone of confidence would be more discriminating, and less assured."*

Such statements are as conclusive and as free from suspicion as they are painful and full of admonition.

Defects in Canadian Schools.

The practical indifference which has existed in respect to the Christian character of our own system of popular education is truly lamentable. The omission of Christianity in respect both to Schools, and the character and qualifications of Teachers, has prevailed to an extent fearful to contemplate. The country is too young yet to witness the full effects of such an omission,—such an abuse of that which should be the primary element of education, without which there can be no Christian Education; and without a Christian Education, there will not long be a Christian Country.

Dr. Channing.

An American writer, whose standard of religious orthodoxy has been considered as questionable as his talents were exalted, has nevertheless said on this subject: "The exaltation of talent, as it is called, above virtue and religion, is the curse of this age.—Education is now chiefly a stimulus to learning, and thus men acquire power without the principles which alone make it a good. Talent is worshipped; but, if divorced from rectitude, it will prove more of a demon than a god."

Dr. Potter.

Another American writer states, that "unbounded pains are now taken to enlighten a child in the first principles of science and letters, and also in regard to the business of life. In the meantime, the culture of

* Annual Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools for the State of New York.—Jan. 1844, pp. 127, 182.

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the heart and conscience is often sadly neglected; and the child grows up a shrewd, intelligent, and influential man, perhaps, but yet a slave to his lower propensities. Talents and knowledge are rarely blessings either to the possessor or to the world, unless they are placed under the controul of the higher sentiments and principles of our nature. Better that men should remain in ignorance, than that they should eat of the fruit of the tree of knowledge, only to be made more subtle and powerful adversaries of God and humanity."*

Christianity the basis and cement of a good system of public Education.

On a subject so vitally important, forming, as it does, the very basis of the future character and social state of this country—a subject too respecting which there exists much error, and a great want of information,—I feel it necessary to dwell at some length, and to adduce the testimony of the most competent authorities, who, without distinction of sect or country, or form of Government, assert the *absolute necessity of making Christianity the basis and the cement of the structure of public education.*

How its principles may be inculcated in mixed Schools.

I propose to show also how the principles of Christianity have been, and may be carried into effect, without any compromise of principle in any party concerned, or any essential deficiency in any subject taught.

De Fellenberg.

Mr. De Fellenberg says, "I call that Education which embraces the culture of the whole man,—with all his faculties,—subjecting his senses, his understanding, and his passions to reason, to conscience and to the evangelical laws of the Christian Revelation." Mr. De Fellenberg, a patrician by birth, a statesman and a Christian philanthropist, has, during

* School and School Master. By Dr. Potter, late Professor of Union College.

a quarter of a century, practically illustrated his own definition of education in a series of classical, agricultural and poor Schools, which were originally established at Hofwyl, in Switzerland, and which have been maintained solely at the expense of the founder. This establishment is perhaps the most celebrated in Europe. It contains pupils not only from different parts of Switzerland and Germany, but from England, and from Hungary, from France and America,—of different forms of religious faith, yet thoroughly educated in Mr. De Fellenberg's sense of the word, as I have had the opportunity of satisfying myself by personal inspection and inquiry.

English Protestants.

The sentiments of English Protestant writers, and of all classes of British Protestants, are too well known to be adduced in this place; and the fact that the principal objection which has been made on the part of the authorities and members of the Roman Catholic Church to certain Colleges proposed to be established in Ireland, relates to an alleged deficiency in the provision for Christian Instruction, evinces the prevailing sentiment of that section of our fellow subjects. A few references will be sufficient. Thomas Wyse, Esquire, a Roman Catholic Member of the British Parliament, in his work on *Education Reform*, already referred to, thus expresses himself on this point:—

Thomas Wyse, Esq. M. P.—R. Catholic.

"What is true of individuals, is still truer of societies. A reading and writing community may be a very vicious community, if morality (not merely its theory, but its practice,) be not as much a portion of education as reading and writing. Knowledge is only a branch of education, but it has too often been taken for the 'whole.'" "When I speak of moral education," (continues Mr. Wyse,) "I imply religion; and when I speak of religion, I speak of Christianity. It

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is morality, it is conscience *par excellence*. Even in the most worldly sense it could easily be shown that no other morality truly binds, no other education so effectually secures even the coarse and material interests of society. The economist himself would find his gain in such a system. Even if it did not exist he should invent it. It works his most sanguine speculations of good into far surer and more rapid conclusions, than any system he could attempt to set up in its place. No system of philosophy has better consulted the mechanism of society, or joined it together with a closer adapation of all its parts, than Christianity. No Legislator who is truly wise,—no Christian will for a moment think—for the interests of society and religion,—which are indeed only one,—of separating Christianity from moral education."*

Holy Scriptures.

Mr. Wyse observes again, "In teaching religion and morality, we naturally look for the best code of both. Where is it to be found? Where, but in the Holy Scriptures? Where, but in that speaking and vivifying code, teaching by deed, and sealing its doctrines by death, are we to find that law of truth, of justice, of love, which has been the thirst and hunger of the human heart in every vicissitude of its history. From the mother to the dignitary, this ought to be the Book of Books; it should be laid by the cradle and the death-bed; it should be the companion and the counsellor, and the consoler, the Urim and Thummim, the light and the perfection of all earthly existence."†

Recognized by the French Government.

The authorities of the French Government have most distinctly recognized the Holy Scriptures as the basis and source of moral instruction in the Schools

* Education Reform. By Thomas Wyse, Esq. M.P., pp. 59, 62, 63.
† Ib., p. 258.

and Colleges of France. In respect to the secondary Schools or Colleges, the law requires that "in the two elementary classes, the pupils are to be taught during the first year, the History of the Old Testament; and the second year, the History of the New Testament. This lesson given by the elementary Masters, is to be taught during one hour every day, and to conclude the study of the evening."* The same code makes moral and religious instruction an essential part of education in the primary Schools.† The language of the late Minister of Public Instruction in France is very decided and strong on this point.—Mrs. Austin's translation of his Report on Public Instruction in Prussia is well known; the untranslated part of his Report on Education in other German States is not less interesting. In his account of the Schools in the City of Frankfort-on-the-Maine, M Cousin says, "instead of the first lesson book, the more advanced children have as books of reading and study, Luther's translation of the Bible, the Catechism, and Biblical History. The Bible is not entire, as you might imagine, except the New Testament. These three books constitute here the foundation of Public Instruction; and every rational man will rejoice at it, because religion is the only morality for the mass of mankind. The great religious memorials of a people are their school books; and I have always viewed it as a misfortune for France, that in the sixteenth century or beginning of the seventeenth, when the French language was simple, flexible and

M. Cousin.

* Dans les deux Classes Elémentaires on fait apprendre aux élèves, la première année, l'Histoire de l'Ancien Testament; la seconde année, l'Histoire du Nouveau. Cette leçon, donnée par les Maîtres Elémentaires, a lieu tous les jours pendant une heure, et termine l'étude du soir. Code universitaire, p. 571.

† L'instruction primaire élémentaire comprend néeessairement l'instruction morale et religieuse. Ibid p. 265.

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popular, some great writer, Amiot, for example, did not translate the Holy Scriptures. This would have been an excellent book to put into the hands of the young; whilst De Sacy's translation, otherwise meritorious, wants energy and animation. That of Luther, vigorous and lively, and circulated throughout Germany, has greatly contributed to develope the moral and religious spirit and education of the people. The Holy Scriptures, with the History of the Bible which explains them, and the Catechism which embodies a summary of them, ought to be the Library of childhood and of the Primary Schools."*

How taught in Prussian Schools, as attested by

The manner in which this branch of Education is taught in the Prussian Schools is worthy of special notice. I cannot describe it better than in the words of two American writers, Professor Stowe and the

* "Au lieu de ce Lesebrich, les enfans un peu plus âgés ont pour livres de lecture et d'étude la Bible,—traduction de Luther, le Catéchisme et l'Histoire Biblique. La Bible n'est pas entière, comme vous supposez bien, excepté le Nouveau Testament. Ces trois livres composent ici le fond de l'instruction populaire; et tout homme sage s'en réjouira, car il n'y a de morale pour les trois quarts des hommes que dans la religion. Les grands monumens religieux des peuples sont leurs vrais livres de lecture; et j'ai toujours regardé comme une calamité pour la France, qu'au seizième siècle ou au commencement du dix-septième, quand la langue française était encore naïve, flexible et populaire, quelque grand écrivain, Amiot par exemple, n'ait pas traduit les Saintes Ecritures. Ce serait un excellent livre à mettre entre les mains de la jeunesse, tandis que la traduction de Sacy, d'ailleurs pleine de mérite, est diffuse et sans couleur. Celle de Luther, mâle et naïve, répandue d'un bout à l'autre de l'Allemagne, y a beaucoup fait pour le développement de l'esprit moral et religieux, et l'éducation du peuple. Les Saintes Ecritures, avec l'Histoire Biblique qui les explique, et le Catéchisme qui les résume, doivent faire la bibliothèque de l'enfance et des Ecoles Primaires." Rapport sur l'état de l'Instruction Publique dans quelques pays de l'Allemagne, et particulièrement en Prusse. Par M. V. Cousin, &c. p. 28.

It may be observed that De Sacy's translation is now printed by the French University Press, and cheaply and extensively sold throughout France.

Hon. Horace Mann. The former visited Europe in 1836-7. The General Assembly of the State of Ohio requested him during the progress of his tour "to collect such facts and information as he may deem useful to the State in relation to the various systems of public instruction and education which have been adopted in the several countries through which he may pass, and make report thereof, with such practical observations as he may think proper, to the next General Assembly." Professor Stowe's Report was printed by the Legislature of Ohio, afterwards by those of Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, in English, and in German; it has also been reprinted in several other States. Mr. Mann, Secretary of the Board of Education for the State of Massachusetts, obtained the permission of the Government of that State to make a similar tour in Europe in 1843. PART I.

Professor Stowe, of Cincinnati;

Professor Stowe, after having referred to the results of his enquiries relative to the teaching of drawing and music, makes the following important statement on the subject of moral and biblical instruction:—

"In regard to the necessity of moral instruction, and beneficial influence of the Bible in Schools, the testimony was no less explicit and uniform. I inquired of all classes of Teachers, and of men of every grade of religious faith, instructors in Common Schools, High Schools, and Schools of Art, and Professors in Colleges, Universities, and professional Seminaries, in Cities and in the country, in places where there was an uniformity, and in places where there was a diversity of creeds, of believers and unbelievers, of Catholics and Protestants; and I never found but one reply: and that was, that to *leave the moral faculty uninstructed, was to leave the most important part of the human mind undeveloped,* and to strip edu-

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cation of almost everything that can make it valuable; and that the Bible, independently of the interest attending it as containing the most ancient and influential writings ever recorded by human hands, and comprising the religious system of almost the whole of the civilized world, is in itself the best book that can be put into the hands of children to interest, to exercise, and to unfold their intellectual and moral powers. Every Teacher whom I consulted repelled with indignation the idea that moral instruction is not proper for Schools; and spurned with contempt the allegation, that the Bible cannot be introduced into Common Schools without encouraging a sectarian bias in the matter of teaching; an indignation and contempt which I believe will be fully participated in by every high-minded teacher in Christendom."*

The Hon. Horace Mann, of Boston.

Mr. Mann observes: "Nothing receives more attention in the Prussian Schools than the Bible. It is taken up early and studied systematically. The great events recorded in the Scriptures of the Old and New Testament; the character and lives of those wonderful men who from age to age were brought upon the stage of action, and through whose agency the future history and destiny of the race were to be so much modified; and especially, those sublime views of duty and morality which are brought to light in the Gospel;—these are topics of daily and earnest inculcation in every School. To these in some Schools, is added the History of the Christian Religion, in connexion with contemporary Civil History. So far as the Bible lessons are concerned, I can ratify the strong statements made by Professor Stowe, in regard to the absence of sectarian instruction or endeavors at proselytism.

* Report, &c., &c. pp. 22 and 23.

"The Teacher being amply possessed of the knowledge of the whole chain of events, and of all biographical incidents; and bringing to the exercise a heart glowing with love to man, and with devotion to his duty, as a former of the character of children, has no necessity or occasion to fall back upon the formulas of a creed. It is when a Teacher has no knowledge of the wonderful works of God, and of the benevolence of the design in which they were created; when he has no power of explaining and applying the beautiful incidents in the lives of the prophets and apostles, and especially the perfect example which is given to men in the life of Jesus Christ; it is then, that, in attempting to give religious instruction, he is, at it were, constrained to recur again and again to the few words or sentences of his form of faith, whatever that faith may be; and therefore when giving the second lesson, it will be little more than the repetition of the first, and the two hundredth lesson, at the end of the year, will differ from that at the beginning only in accumulated wearisomeness and monotony."*

The Author's observations.

My own examination, not only of Prussian but of German Schools generally, and conversations with Directors, Inspectors, and Teachers, throughout Germany, Holland and France, enable me to corroborate the statements of Professor Stowe and Mr. Mann. The instruction is substantially the same under both Roman Catholic and Protestant Governments,—the same whether the Teachers be Roman Catholics or Protestants. The French Government itself avows its position not to be the headship of a sect, but that of a supporter of Christianity, irrespective of sect. In a work on Education which obtained the prize ex-

* Mr. Mann's Seventh Annual Report, &c. pages 144, 145.

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traordinary from the French Academy in 1840, it is said, "France has not proclaimed a State Religion. To have done so, would have been an absurdity under a form of Government the component parts of which are the direct representatives of public opinion. But it has guaranteed protection and countenance to all forms of Christian worship; and therefore in such a relation to the various religious Communions, the Governement takes its stand simply upon the Truth. It has avowed before the world, that the French Nation professes the Christian Faith, without any exclusion of Church or Sect. France, after having in the Constitutional Charter declared itself Christian, and after having stated as an important fact, that the Catholic Religion is professed by a majority of the French people, cannot consistently forget the first principle of its Charter in organizing a system of public Education. In founding establishments which concern the moral education of the young, it cannot disregard the moral principles which it professes itself; but it forgets not the supreme importance which it attaches to liberty of conscience. The members of all Christian Communions will therefore find in its establishments of Public Education that cordial reception which is assured to them in the Charter. We rejoice to see that in the eyes of the State all Christian Sects are sisters, and that they are objects of equal solicitude in the administration of the great family of the nation. In regard to those who desire to educate their children in the systematic contempt of every thing sacred, the State would leave that impious work to themselves; *but never for the sake of pleasing them, could it become unfaithful to its own moral principles.*"*

Constitutional Charter of France.

* "Elle (la France) n'a pas proclamé une religion de l'Etat, ce

Similar testimonies in respect both to the same and other countries might be indefinitely multiplied; but those already adduced are sufficient to show, that religious and moral instruction should be made an essential part of public education, and that such instruction can be, and has been, communicated extensively and thoroughly, for all purposes of Christian morality, without any bias of sectarianism, and without any interference whatever with the peculiarities of different Churches or Sects. Such are the sentiments of enlightened writers, Roman Catholic and Protestant, as well Republican as Monarchical;

qui eût été mensonge, sous une forme du Gouvernement où les grands corps de l'Etat sont les représentans directs de l'opinion publique; mais elle a assuré protection et secours à tous les cultes chrétiens, et ainsi, sous ce rapport, elle s'est tenue dans le vrai. Elle a constaté aux yeux du monde que les croyances chrétiennes, sans exception d'Eglise ou de Secte, sont celles de la Nation Française. La France, après s'être déclarée chrétienne dans la Charte, après avoir constaté, comme un fait considérable, que la religion Catholique est professée par la majorité des Français, ne peut pas, sous peine d'inconséquence, oublier ce point de départ quand il s'agit pour elle d'organiser l'Education publique. Lorsqu'elle fonde des établissement qui intéressent l'éducation morale de la jeunesse, elle ne peut pas les placer en dehors du principe moral qu'elle affirme elle-même; mais elle n'oublira pas non plus qu'elle est tolérante et qu'elle aime par-dessus tout la liberté de conscience; toutes les Communions Chrétiennes trouveront donc, dans ses établissemens d'éducation publique, l'accueil hospitalier qu'elle leur a promis dans la Charte. Nous aimons à voir, qu'à ses yeux toutes les Sectes Chrétiennes sont sœurs, et qu'elle leur accorde la même sollicitude dans l'administration de la grande famille.—Quand aux hommes qui veulent élever leur enfans dans le mépris systématique de tout ce qui est saint, l'Etat pourrait leur laisser la charge de cette œuvre impie; mais jamais pour leur complaire, il ne fut permis de manquer à ses croyances morales." *De l'Education Populaire et des Ecoles Normales Primaires, considérées dans leurs Rapports avec la Philosophie du Christianisme. Par M. P. Dumont. Ouvrage auquel l'Académie des Sciences morales et politiques a décerné un prix extraordinaire en* 1840,—*pages* 40, 41, 42, 43.

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and such are the views and pratice of both Protestant and Roman Catholic nations.

Here is neither laxity nor compromise of religious principle; here is the establishment and administration of a system on the part of Government which is founded upon the fundamental principles of Christian truth and morality, but which interferes not with the dogmas and predilections of diversified sectarianism; and here is a co-operation of members of different religious persuasions in matters which they hold and value in common—in which they have a common interest—and in which co-operation is in most instances even essential to existence,—the same as Legislators or Merchants, Agriculturists or Soldiers cooperate in measures and enterprises of common agreement and necessity. The points of agreement between the two great and most widely separated divisions of Christendom,—Protestants and Roman Catholics,—are thus forcibly enumerated by the Bishop of Worcester, England, in a late Charge to the Clergy of his Diocese.

Points of agreement between Protestants and Roman Catholics.

"Conscientiously do I believe that in no part of Christendom is our religion observed in greater purity than in this country; but believing this, I cannot shut my eyes to the fact that we form but a small minority of the Church of Christ; nor can I venture to say that Christianity as professed by the great majority, is so full of error as to make it a sin in a Protestant State to contribute towards the education of its Ministers. Let us see what are the doctrines we hold in common with our Roman Catholic brethren. We both believe in God the Father, the Author and Maker of all things; we both believe that man fell from his primeval state into sin; we both believe that to redeem mankind from this fallen state, it

pleased this Almighty Being to send his only begotten Son into the world to become a sacrifice for our sin; that through His atonement we might be considered as justified before God; we both believe that the Son of God who was sent into the world as a propitiation for our sins, is co-equal and co-eternal with the Father; that having performed this office of love and mercy he ascended into heaven, and that he will come at the last day to judge the quick and the dead; we both believe that this Redeemer, to assist us in the way of salvation, sends the Holy Spirit to those that diligently seek him; and that the Holy Spirit with the Father and the Son is one God, blessed for ever; we both believe that the Church was originally founded by this Saviour, and that in her the doctrines of the the Gospel have been handed down by a regular succession of ordained Ministers, Priests and Deacons; and we both believe that two Sacraments are binding on Christians."

How far Protestants and Roman Catholics can unite in School Education.

The proceedings of the National Board of Education in Ireland present an illustration of the extent to which there may be a cordial co-operation between even Roman Catholics and Protestants, in a country as proverbial for the warmth and tenacity of the religious differences, as for the generous hospitality of its inhabitants. Several systems of public instruction had been tried; and each in succession proved unsuccessful, as a national system, and was abandoned by the Government. In 1828, "a Committee of the House of Commons to which were referred the various Reports of the Commissioners of Education, recommended a system to be adopted, which should afford, if possible, a combined literary and separate religious education, and *should be capable of being so far adapted to the views of the religious persuasions which*

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Irish National Board.

With a view of accomplishing this noble object, the Government, in 1831, constituted a Board, consisting of distinguished members of the Churches of England, Scotland and Rome.

The Board agreed upon and drew up some general maxims of religion and morals which were to be taught in every School, agreed to "encourage the Pastors of different denominations to give religious instruction to the children of their respective flocks out of School-hours," &c.; and in addition to provide that one day in a week should be set apart for that purpose.†

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*Letter of Lord Stanley, Secretary of Ireland, to the Duke of Leinster, Oct. 1831.

† The following is one of these "General Lessons," which are hung up in every National School, and required to be taught and explained to all the children. It relates to social duties. "Christians should endeavour, as the Apostle Paul commands them, 'to live peaceably with all men,'—(Romans, c. 12, v 18,) even with those of a different persuasion.

"Our Saviour, Christ, commanded his Disciples to 'love one another.' He taught them to love even their enemies, to bless those that cursed them, and to pray for those who persecuted them. He himself prayed for his murderers. Many men hold erroneous doctrines; but we ought not to hate or persecute them. We ought to seek for the truth, and hold fast what we are convinced is the truth; but not to treat harshly those who are in error. Jesus Christ did not intend his Religion to be forced on men by violent means. He would not allow his Disciples to fight for him. If any persons treat us unkindly we must not do the same to them; for Christ and his Apostles have taught us not to return evil for evil. If we would obey Christ, we must do to others, not as they do to us, but as we would wish them to do to us.

"Quarrelling with our neighbours and abusing them is not the way to convince them that we are in the right, and they in the wrong. It is more likely to convince them that we have not a Christian spirit.

The Board have also published a series of Biblical Histories, complete on the New Testament, and on the Old to the death of Moses. It is understood that the whole series in the Old Testament will soon be completed. PART I. Their Religious Books.

These histories are more literal and more comprehensive than Watt's Scripture History, or any of the many similar publications which have been most used in Schools. These histories are likewise prepared according to the Irish National Board's improved methods of teaching—useful as reading books, and as admirable introductions to the study of the Holy Scriptures, —being for the most part in the very words of the Scriptures, and containing the chronological dates of the principal epochs and events of Sacred History.

The Board has also published an excellent and appropriate little book on the truth of Christianity. I dare say the series of this kind of books will be completed by one or more publications on our duties to God, to the State, to our fellow men, &c.

On a certain day of the week, Ministers of the different persuasions *catechise* the children of their respective forms of faith. Religious Instruction.

Thus are the children in the Irish National Schools not only taught the elements of a secular education, but they are instructed in the fundamental priciples of Christian truth and morals; and facilities are afforded for their being taught the Catechism and Confessions of the religious persuasions to which they severally belong.

I am inclined to believe that there are few elementary Schools in Great Britain—those in Scotland ex- School in 1844.

"We ought to show ourselves followers of Christ, who, 'when he was reviled, reviled not again,' (1 Pet. c. 2, v. 23,) by behaving kindly and gently to every one."

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cepted,—in which so much religious knowledge is imparted as in the 3,150 Schools, containing 395,550 children, which have been established by the Board of National Education in Ireland. This great and good work must, in the course of a few years, produce a marked change in the intellectual and social condition of Ireland. Yet the Board does not profess to give a thorough religious education.

Biblical and Religious Instruction in Prussian Schools.

In Prussia, while provision is made, and Teachers are thoroughly trained, to give an extended course, or rather several courses of Biblical instruction, covering a period of eight years, (from six to fourteen) in regard to even primary Schools, and children of the poorest classes, and embracing in succession an elementary view of the *biography*, *history*, cardinal *doctrines*, and *morals*, and in some instances *evidences* of the *authenticity* of the Bible: provision is also made for teaching the Catechisms of the Protestant and Roman Catholic Churches. The Catechism, however, is not generally, if ever taught until after the pupil has received Biblical instruction for five or six years. It is usually taught the year, or the year before, the pupil completes his elementary education; and during the few months which are allotted to the teaching and learning of the Catechism, the pupils receive separate religious instruction from the Pastor or Clergyman of the Church to which they belong.

When there are separate Schools,—as is the case in those parts of Prussia where the whole population is either Catholic or Protestant, or where each class is very numerous,—the whole course of religious instructions in harmony with the Church for whose members the School is established.

This is likewise the case where the great body of the population is of one religious community with only

a few dissenting from it. But even these Schools, established for particular classes of society, aided by the Government and subject to its inspection, are not permitted to violate the tolerant and catholic principles and spirit of the National School system. "The Masters and Inspectors (says the law) must avoid with the greatest care, every kind of constraint or annoyance towards the children on the subject of their particular form of worship. No School may be made abusively subservient to any views of proselytism; and the children of a different form of worship from that of the Schools shall not be compelled against the will of their parents, or against their own, to attend the religious instructions and exercises. Private Masters of the same worship will be charged with their religious instruction; and whenever it would be impossible to have as many Masters as there are forms of worship, the parents ought to watch with so much the more care, to fulful those duties themselves, if they do not desire their chidren to attend the religious lessons of the school."

Prussian Law.

The fundamental principle of public education in Prussia, and that which constitutes the key-stone of the mighty arch on which has been erected for an entire population so proud, and as yet so unrivalled a superstructure of moral intellect, is thus expressed in the general law of Prussia: "The chief mission of every school is to train the youth in such a manner as to produce in them, with the knowledge of man's relations to God, the strength and desire to regulate his life according to the principles and spirit of Christianity. Early shall the School form the children to piety, and for that purpose will it seek to second and perfect the instructions of the family. Thus in all cases shall the labours of the day be commenced, and

Religious bases of the Prussian system.

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concluded by a short prayer and pious reflections, which the Master must be able so to conduct, that this moral exercise shall never degenerate into an affair of habit. Furthermore the Master shall see (in the case of Boarding-schools) that the children attend punctually at the services of the Church on Sabbaths and Holydays. There shall be intermingled with the solemnities of the School, songs of a religious character. Finally, the period of the communion should be as well for Pupils as for Masters, an occasion of strengthening the bonds which ought to unite them, and to open their souls to the most generous and elevated sentiments of religion."*

Programme Biblical and Religious Instruction in the Prussian Schools.

* The following is the course of religious instruction pursued in the Dorothean City School in Berlin:

Class 6th. (Lowest Class) Stories from the Old Testament.
Class 5th. Stories from the New Testament.
Class 4th. Bible History.
Class 3rd. Reading and explanation of select portions from the Scriptures. (Doctrinal and Practical.)
Class 2nd. The Evidences of Christianity.

There is at present no First Class in the School. Each class includes a period of from one to two years. The Stories taught the Elementary Classes (including children from six to eight years of age) are, the most remarkable Scripture Biographies,—narrated chiefly by the Teacher, with various practical remarks and illustrations of the Geographical and Natural History of the Bible. The pupils thus familiarized with the Geography and incidents of the Bible, are prepared in the following year (4th Class) to study and appreciate its general history and beautiful simplicity of language. The general history of the Bible taught in the third year (or 4th Class) is an appropriate introduction to the study of those select portions of the Scripture (in the fourth year) in which are stated and explained the principal institutions, doctrines and morals of the Bible—the study of the Evidences of Christianity forming a natural and proper conclusion of the whole course. About four hours per week are devoted to religious instruction during the whole period of six years. This School is common to both Roman Catholic and Protestant children.

The Protestant Seminary School of Berlin,—a burgher or mid-

No one can ponder upon the import of such a law —a law carried out with all the thoroughness of the German character,—without feeling how far below such a standard we sink in our accustomed estimate of the character and attributes, the objects and duties

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dle School attached to the Teacher's Seminary, and in which the candidates for teaching practice,—has the following course of religious instruction. In Roman Catholic Schools of the same class, subjects corresponding to the Church of Rome, take the place of those subjects in the following programme which relate to the Church of the Reformation.

Class 6th. (Lowest Class) Four hours per week. Narration by the Teacher of Stories from the Old Testament, nearly in the words of the Bible, and repeated by the pupils.—Easy verses learned by heart.

Class 5th. Four hours per week. Stories from the Gospels taught in the same way. Church Songs and Bible verses learned.

Class 4th. Three hours per week. The Old Testament in a more connected form. The moral of the history is impressed upon the minds of the children. The Ten Commandments and Church Songs learned.

Class 3rd. Two hours per week. Life and Doctrines of Christ, Four weeks set apart for learning the Geograghy of Palestine. Church History.

Class 2nd. Two hours per week. The Protestant Catechism committed to memory and explained. Church Songs and verses committed.

Class 1st. Two hours per week. Compendium of the History of the Christian Church, especially after the Apostolic age. History of the Reformation. Review of the Bible. Committing to memory Psalms and Hymns.

Dr. Diesterweg,—the Director of the Seminary, is one of the most celebrated Teachers in Germany.

Author's observations.

I witnessed exercises in both of the Schools above mentioned.—The teaching is for the most part by lecture, mingled with questions. The pupil is prompted to exertion; his curiosity is excited; he is taught to observe carefully, and to express himself clearly and readily in his own language. The teacher is of course able to teach without a book, and to elicit the knowledge of the pupil by proper questions. Thus the memory of the pupil is not overburthened; and it is at the same time enriched, and the perceptive, reflective

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of Schools and Schoolmasters. Indeed—judging from passages already quoted,—how entirely must we acknowledge the superiority of the moral standard of School-Teachers and School-teaching which obtains in what some have been wont to term lax and sceptical France! Yet France, like Prussia, places religion and morals at the very foundation of her system of public education.

The American authors heretofore quoted, present in lively colours the consequences of a total abandonment of Christianity in many of the United States public Schools. Surely we cannot fail to profit by such examples and warnings. *A Government that practically renounces Christianity in providing for the education of its youthful population, cannot be Christian.*

Duty of the Government of Canada.

The creed of our Government, as representing a Christian people of various forms of religious worship, is Christianity, in the broadest and most comprehensive sense of the term. The practice of the Government should correspond with its creed. With the circumstantials of sectarianism it has nothing to do; they form no article of its creed; they involve no one commandment of the Moral Law, either of the Old or New Testament; it is under no obligations to provide for the teaching of them, whatever importance individuals may attach to them; its affording different parties facilities for teaching them is the utmost that can be

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and reasoning powers are constantly exercised. It may be observed that, neither in Protestant nor mixed Schools, and of course not in the Roman Catholic Schools, did I see the Bible degraded and abused to the purposes of a common reading book. It was given to man, not to teach him how to read, but to teach him the character, and government, and will of God, the duty of man and the way of salvation.

To these sacred and important purposes should it be applied in the Schools.

required or expected of it. The members of the various sects are alike its subjects; they contribute alike to its defence and support; they are alike entitled to its protection and countenance. PART I.

The inhabitants of the Province at large, professing Christianity, and being freely represented in the Government by Members of a Responsible Council—Christianity, therefore, upon the most popular principles of Government, should be the basis of a Provincial system of Education. But that general principle admits of considerable variety in its application.—Such is the case in the countries already referred to; such may and should be the case in Canada.

The foregoing observations and illustrations apply for the most part to a population consisting of both Protestants and Roman Catholics. The law provides against interfering with the religious scruples of each class in respect both to religious books and the means of establishing separate Schools.

In School Districts where the whole population is either Protestant or Roman Catholic, and where consequently the Schools come under the character of *Separate*, there the principle of religious instruction can be carried out into as minute detail as may accord with the views and wishes of either class of the population; though I am persuaded all that is essential to the moral interests of youth may be taught in what are termed mixed Schools.

The great importance of this subject and the erroneous or imperfect views which prevail respecting it, and the desire of explaining fully what I conceive to be the most essential element of a judicious system of Public Instruction, are my apology for dwelling upon it at so great length. Religious differences and divisions should rather be healed than inflamed; Apology.

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and the points of agreement and the means of mutual co-operation on the part of different religious persuasions, should doubtless be studied and promoted by a wise and beneficent Government, while it sacrifices neither to religious bigotry nor infidelity the cardinal and catholic principles of the Christian religion.

Fourth characteristic of a sound system of Public Instruction.

4. With the proper cultivation of the moral feelings, and the formation of moral habits, is intimately connected the corresponding *developement of all the other faculties both intellectual and physical.* The great object of an efficient system of instruction should be, not the communication of so much knowledge, but the developement of the faculties. Much knowledge may be acquired without any increase of mental power; nay, with even an absolute diminution of it. Though it be admitted that "knowledge is power," it is not the knowledge which professes to be imparted and acquired at a rail-road speed; a knowledge which penetrates little below the surface, either of the mind or of the nature of things—the acquisition of which involves the exercise of no other faculty than that of the memory, and that not upon the principles of philosophical association, but by the mere jingle of words;—a mere word knowledge learned by rote, which has no existence in the mind apart from the words in which it is acquired, and which vanishes as they are forgotten,—which often spreads over a large surface, but has neither depth nor fertility,—which grows up as it were in a night and disappears in a day,—which adds nothing to the vigour of the mind, and very little that is valuable to its treasures.

Superficial methods of teaching deprecated.

United States Schools.

This is the system of imparting, and acquiring knowledge which notoriously obtains in many of the Academies, Schools and other Educational Institu-

tions in the neighbouring States, though it is lamented and deprecated by all the American authors who have examined the educational Institutions of other countries, and many others who are competent witnesses of its defects and evils, and who have the virtue and patriotism to expose them. The author of the excellent work heretofore quoted,—*School and Schoolmaster*—remarks: "The grand error is, that that is called knowledge, which is mere rote-learning and word-mongery. The child is said to be educated, because it can repeat the text of this one's grammar, and of that one's geography and history; because a certain number of facts, often without connexion or dependance, have for the time being been deposited in its memory, though they have never been wrought at all into the understanding, nor have awakened in truth one effort of the higher faculties. PART I.

"The soil of the mind is left by such culture really as untouched and as little likely therefore to yield back valuable fruit, as if these same facts had been committed to memory in an unknown tongue. It is, as if the husbandman were to go forth and sow his seed by the way side, or on the surface of a field which has been trodden down by the hoofs of innumerable horses, and then when the cry of harvest-home is heard about him, expect to reap as abundant returns as the most provident and industrious of his neighbours. He forgets that the same irreversible law holds in mental as in material husbandry; '*whatsoever a man soweth, that shall he also reap.*'"*

U. S. School Books.

The superficial and pernicious system of teaching and learning thus exposed and deprecated, forms the basis on which a large portion of the American Ele-

* *School and Schoolmaster.* By Dr. Potter, Union College, pp. 32, 33.

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mentary School Books are composed,—professing to be so constructed as to require very little intellectual labour on the part of either Teacher or Pupil. In the old Cities, and oldest educational Institutions in the United States, this anti-intellectual method of teaching, and the books which appertain to it, are very properly condemned.

Many of the most wealthy youth of that country have gone to Europe, either for their education or to finish it; and there is a gradual return there to the more solid and practical system of Instruction.

Their pernicious influence in Canada.

Yet in their second-rate Colleges and Village Academies, and most of their country Schools, this "word-mongery" system prevails; and many of the books which are essential to its operations, and many of the delusive opinions on which it is founded, have been introduced into this Province, and have excited a pernicious influence in some parts of it. It is with a view of drawing attention to the evil, and its appropriate remedy, that I make these remarks. The Secretary of the Board of Education for the State of Massachusetts, after a visit to Europe, contrasts this sparkling and worthless system with that which obtains in Prussia. He speaks with reference to the method of teaching some of the higher branches; but his remarks are equally applicable to the method of teaching Grammar, Geography, History, &c. The principle and animus of the method are the same in all departments of instruction.

Mr. Mann's Remarks on superficial teaching and learning.

Mr. Mann says: "With us it too often happens that if a higher branch,—Geometry, Natural Philosophy, Zoology, Botany,—is to be taught, both Teacher and Class must have text books. At the beginning of these text-books, all the technical names, and definitions are set down. These, before the pupil has

any practical idea of their meaning, must be committed to memory. The book is then studied chapter by chapter. At the bottom of each page or at the end of the sections, are questions printed at full length. At the recitations the Teacher holds on to these leading strings. He introduces no collateral knowledge. He exhibits no relation between what is contained in the book, and other kindred subjects, or the actual business of men and the affairs of life. At length the day of examination comes. The pupils rehearse from memory with a suspicious fluency; on being asked for some useful application of their knowledge—some practical connexion between that knowledge and the concerns of life,—they are silent or give some ridiculous answer, which at once disparages science, and gratifies the ill-humour of some ignorant satirist. But the Prussian Teacher has no book; he needs none, he teaches from a full mind. He cumbers and darkens the subject with no technical phraseology. He observes what proficiency the child has made, and then adapts his instructions both in quality and amount to the necessity of the case. He answers all questions; he solves all doubts. It is one of his objects at every recitation so to present ideas, that they shall start doubts and provoke questions. He connects the subjects of each lesson with all kindred and collateral ones, and shows its relations to the every-day duties and business of life; and should the most ignorant man ask him of what use such knowledge can be, he will prove to him in a word, that some of his own pleasures or means of subsistence are dependent upon it; or have been created or improved by it.

Thorough teaching.

"In the mean time the children are delighted. Their perceptive powers are exercised; their reflec-

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tive faculties are developed; their moral sentiments are cultivated. All the attributes of the mind within, find answering qualities in the world without. Instead of any longer regarding the earth as a huge mass of dead matter, without variety and without life,—its beautiful and boundless diversities of substance,—its latent vitality and energies gradually dawn forth, until at length they illuminate the whole soul, challenging its admiration for their utility, and its homage for the bounty of their Creator."*

Practical remarks.

Thus the harmonious and proper developement of all the faculties of the mind is involved in the very method of teaching, as well as in the books used, and even irrespective, to a great extent, of the subjects taught. This system of instruction requires of course more thorough culture on the part of the Teacher. He must be able to walk in order to dispense with his "leading strings" in relation to the most simple exercise. It is not difficult to perceive, that although passing over comparatively few books, and indeed with a very subordinate use of books at all, except the voluminous one of the Teacher's mind, a child under such a system of instruction will, in the course of a few years, acquire particularly and thoroughly a large amount of useful and various knowledge, with a corresponding exercise and improvement of the higher intellectual faculties; and thus become fitted for the active duties of life. The mental symmetry is preserved and developed; and the whole intellectual man grows up into masculine maturity and vigour. It cannot be too strongly impressed, that Education consists not in travelling over so much intellectual ground, or the committing to memory so

* Honorable Horace Mann's Seventh Annual Report. (*Education in Europe,*) pp. 142, 143.

many books, but in the developement and cultivation of all our mental, moral, and physical powers. The learned Erasmus has long since said: "At the first it is no great matter how *much* you learn, but how *well* you learn it." The philosophic and accomplished Dugald Stewart observes, that "to instruct youth in the languages and in the sciences is comparatively of little importance, if we are inattentive to the habits they acquire, and are not careful in giving to all their different faculties, and all their different principles of action, a proper degree of employment. The most essential objects of Education are the two following: first, to cultivate all the various principles of our natures, both speculative and active, in such a manner as to bring them to the greatest perfection of which they are susceptible; and, secondly, by watching over the impressions and associations which the mind receives in early life, to secure it against the influence of prevailing errors, and, as far as possible engage its prepossessions on the side of truth."

Dugald Stewart.

"It has been disputed (says Dr. Potter) whether it be the primary object of Education to discipline and develope the powers of the soul, or to communicate knowledge. Were these two objects distinct and independent, it is not to be questioned, that the first is unspeakably more important than the second; but, in truth, they are inseparable. That training which best disciplines and unfolds the faculties will, at the same time, impart the greatest amount of real and effective knowledge; while, on the other hand, that which imparts thoroughly and for permanent use and possession, the greatest amount of knowledge, will best develope, strengthen and refine the powers. In proportion, however, as intellectual vigour and activity are more important than mere rote-learning

Dr. Potter.

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in the same proportion ought we to attach more value to an Education which, though it only teaches a child to read, has, in doing so, taught him also to think, than we should to one which, though it may have bestowed on him the husks and the shells of half a dozen sciences, has never taught him to use with pleasure and effect his reflective faculties. He who can *think*, and *loves to think*, will become, if he has a few good books, a wise man. He who knows not how to think, or who hates the toil of doing it, will remain imbecile, though his mind be crowded with the contents of a library.

"This is at present perhaps the greatest fault in intellectual Education. The new power with which the discoveries of the last three centuries have clothed civilized man, renders knowledge an object of unbounded respect and desire; while it is forgotten that that knowledge can be matured and appropriated only by the vigorous exercise and application of all our intellectual faculties. If the mind of a child, when learning, remains nearly passive, merely receiving knowledge as a vessel receives water which is poured into it, little good can be expected to accrue. It is as if food were introduced into the stomach which there is no room to digest or assimilate, and which will therefore be rejected from the system, or like a useless and oppressive load upon its energies."

Physical training.

On the developement of the *physical* powers I need say but a few words. A system of instruction making no provision for those exercises which contribute to health and vigour of body, and to agreeableness of manners, must necessarily be imperfect. The active pursuits of most of those pupils who attend the public Schools, require the exercise necessary to bodily health; but the gymnastics, regularly taught as a re-

creation, and with a view to the future pursuits of the pupil, and to which so much importance is attached in the best British Schools and in the Schools of Germany and France, are advantageous in various respects,—promote not only physical health and vigour, but social cheerfulness, active, easy and graceful movements. They strengthen and give the pupil a perfect command over all the members of his body. Like the art of writing, they proceed from the simplest movement, to the most complex and difficult exercises,—imparting a bodily activity and skill scarcely credible to those who have not witnessed them.

Its importance.

To the culture and command of all the faculties of the mind, a corresponding exercise and controul of all the members of the body is next in importance. It was young men thus trained that composed the vanguard of Blucher's army; and much of the activity, enthusiasm and energy which distinguished them, was attributed to their gymnastic training at school. A training which gives superiority in one department of active life, must be beneficial in another. It is well known, as has been observed by physiologists, that "the muscles of any part of the body when worked by exercise, draw additional nourishment from the blood, and by the repetition of the stimulus, if it be not exercise, increase in size, strength and freedom of action. The regular action of the muscles promotes and preserves the uniform circulation of the blood, which is the prime condition of health. The strength of the body or of a limb depends upon the strength of the muscular system, or of the muscles of the limb; and as the consitutional muscular endowment of most people is tolerably good, the diversities of muscular power, observable amongst men, is chiefly attributable to exercise." The youth

PART I. of Canada are designed for active, and most of them for laborious occupations; exercises which strengthen not one class of muscles, or the muscles of certain members only, but which develope the whole physical system, cannot fail to be beneficial.

The application of these remarks to common day Schools must be very limited. They are designed to apply chiefly to boarding and training, to Industrial and Grammar Schools,—to those Schools to the masters of which the prolonged and thorough educational instruction of youth is entrusted.

Opinions of ancient and modern Educationists.

To physical Education great importance has been attached by the best educators in all ages and countries. Plato gave as many as a thousand precepts respecting it. It formed a prominent feature in the best parts of the education of the Greeks and Romans. It has been largely insisted upon by the most distinguished educational writers in Europe, from Charon and Montaigne, down to numerous living authors in France and Germany, England and America. It occupies a conspicuous place in the codes of School Regulations in France and Switzerland, and in many places in Germany. The celebrated Pestalozzi and De Fellenberg incorporated it as an *essential* part of their systems of instruction, and even as necessary to their success; and experienced American writers and physioligists attribute the want of physical developement and strength, and even health, in a disproportionally large number of educated Americans, to the absence of proper provisions and encouragements in respect to appropriate physical exercises in the Schools, Academies and Colleges of the United States.

Subjects for teaching for

5. Having thus stated that an efficient system of Public Instruction should not only be commensurate

with the wants of the poorest classes of society, but practical in its character, Christian in its foundation, principles and spirit, and involving a proper development of the intellectual and physical faculties of its subjects,—I come now to consider the *several branches of knowledge* which should be taught in the Schools, and for the efficient teaching of which public provision should be made.

which provision should be made.

1. The subject of *Christian Instruction* has been sufficiently explained and discussed; I will only add here, that in the opinion of the most competent judges —experienced Teachers of different countries that I have visited, and able authors—the introduction of Biblical Instruction into Schools, so far from interfering with other studies, actually facilitates them, as has been shown by references to numerous facts. Besides, it is worthy of remark, that apart from the principles and morals—perceptive and biographical—of the Bible, it is the oldest, the most authentic of Ancient *Histories*. Moses is not only by many ages the "Father of History," or as Bossuet in his *Discours sur l'Histoire Universelle*, eloquently says, "*le plus ancien des historiens, le plus sublime des philosophes, le plus sage des législateurs*;" but the grand periods of the Mosaic History form the great chronological epochs of Universal History; the standard indeed of general Chronology,—one of the "two eyes of History." Any one the least acquainted with Ancient History knows, that as there are no chronological data so authentic and authoritative as those of Moses, so there are none so easily remembered—none which associate in the mind events so remarkable, and important,—none which are fraught with so much practical instruction. The Bible History reaches back to an antiquity two thousand years more remote

Incidental advantages of Biblical Instruction.

PART I. than the fabulous periods of other histories. It is authentic and certain from the commencement; it contains the only genuine account of the origin and early history of the world, as well as of the creation and primitive history of man. As the best introduction to general history as well as the only Divine depository of truth and morals, the Bible is pre-eminent. The *London Encyclopedia* justly observes: "The most pure and most fruitful source of Ancient History is doubtless to be found in the Bible. Let us here for a moment cease to regard it as a Divine, and presume to treat it only as a common history. Now when we consider the writers of the books of the Old Testament, sometimes as authors, sometimes as occular witnesses, and sometimes as respectable historians, whether we reflect on the simplicity of the narration, and the air of truth that is there constantly visible, or whether we consider the care that the people, the governments, and the learned men of all ages have taken to preserve the text, or have regard to the happy conformity of the Chronology of the Scriptures with that of Profane History, as well as with that of Josephus and other Jewish writers; and lastly, when we consider that the books of the Holy Scripture alone furnish us with an accurate history of the world, from the Creation, through the line of Patriarchs, Judges, Kings, and Princes of the Hebrews; and that we may, by its aid, form an almost entire series of events down to the birth of Christ, or the time of Augustus, which comprehends a space of about four thousand years, some small interruptions excepted, which are easily supplied by profane history; when all these reflections are justly made, we must allow that the Scriptures form a series of books

which merit the first rank among all the sources of Ancient History."*

In the course of Christian Biblical Instruction, therefore, on which I have insisted, not only is the foundation of true morality laid, but the essential elements and the most entertaining and leading facts of chronology and history, are acquired.

In the lowest elementary Schools, *Reading*, *Spelling*, *Writing* and *Arithmetic* should, of course, be taught. They constitute the staple instruction of our Common Schools. In many instances, the elements of English Grammar, and Elementary Geography are taught, and in a few, Book-keeping, Algebra, Geometry and the elements of History.

Reading and Spelling.

1. Among the subjects to be taught in the Common Schools, *Reading* and *Spelling* are doubtless the first in importance, and usually the first in order. Sentences are composed of words, words of syllables, and syllables of letters. The letters of the alphabet then are, according to common opinion and practice, to be taught first—a task which is usually performed by pointing the letters out in succession, at each lesson, until they are learned. Nothing can be more tedious to the Teacher, and nothing more irksome and stupifying to the little pupil, than this unnatural process. The young prisoner is confined to his seat several hours in a day; he must be silent; he sees nothing to excite his curiosity; he hears and is required to do nothing to awaken mental activity; the only variation in the dull monotony of the school hours, is to be called up three or four times a day to repeat the names of twenty-six letters, of the use or application of every one of which he is entirely ignorant.

Bad method of teaching the Alphabet and Reading.

* Article, Chronology.

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The operation becomes purely mechanical, and is often protracted for many months, before the unhappy victim of it gets thoroughly from A to Z. A second edition of the same process is produced in teaching the child to spell syllables of two or three letters,—syllables which convey to the mind of the learner not a single idea, in which the sounds of the letters have no relation to those which have been applied to them in the alphabet, and no relation to those which are applied to the same syllables and spelt in the same way when forming parts of words. For example, the first two letters of the alphabet have both a different sound when they are repeated alone, from that which they have when forming the syllable *ab*; and what resemblance is there between the sound of the syllable *ble* taught in the three-letter lessons, and the same syllable in the word *noble* or *able*,—as taught in the two-syllable lessons. The second and third steps of the child's learning contradict each the preceding. Is this rational? Can it be according to nature? Is it not calculated to deaden rather than quicken the intellectual faculties? Is not such irrational drudgery calculated to disgust the subject of it with the very thoughts of learning? And is it not probable that it has done so to a fearful extent; and that it would do so to a much greater extent, was not the natural tendency of it counteracted by the child's fears, or emulation, or love of approbation.

A better method.

Now suppose that instead of going through the mechanical routine of repeating the alphabet some hundreds of times, the child is furnished with a slate and pencil, (as is the case with every infant pupil in Germany,) and imitates the forms of the letters (two or three at a time) either from the printing of them on a sheet, or on the black-board, or slate by the

master, how different are both his progress, and his feelings. He learns the letters by forming them as nature and experience dictate to older students when learning the alphabet of a new language,—the love of imitation peculiar to his age is gratified, and his imitative faculty is improved. His first efforts at learning are associated with pleasurable feelings; each lesson possesses the charm of novelty; learning is a pleasure, and the task an amusement; and the young beginner thus cheerfully learns more in three or four days, than he would sorrowfully drudge over in as many months according to the common repeating system.

Another method suggested by a Boston Teacher.

Or, suppose that a mode of instruction be adopted which now obtains more extensively than any other in the estimation of learned and experienced educationists. It is maintained that "a better way of learning to read, much and successfully practised of late, is to let children learn *words first*, and afterwards the letters of the alphabet of which they are made up. This is *nature's* method. A child learns to know his mother's face before he knows the several features of which it is composed. Common significant words should be selected, and repeated in different arrangements, until the child can distinguish them perfectly, and put them together to make sense. He should at the same time be taught to pronounce the words distinctly. He has thus the satisfaction of reading, —of seeing the use of his learning from the beginning. To make them still more familiar, he should be set to look for the words in a page where they are to be found, and to copy them on his slate. When he has become familiar with a good number of words, and is sensible of the usefulness and pleasantness of reading, he may be set to learn the letters. This he will

PART I. do with interest when he knows that by means of them he will soon be able to learn by himself and without help. He should not yet, if ever, be set to learn words which he cannot understand, but only such as will occupy at the same time his mind and his eyes. If a child be never allowed to read what he cannot understand, he will never form those bad habits of reading, called school-reading, now so universal. I have known several children, taught to read by their mothers on the principle of never reading what they did not understand, who always, from the beginning, read naturally and beautifully; for good reading seems to be the natural habit, and bad the acquired."*

Practice in Prussian Schools.

It may be remarked that the "First Book of Lessons" published by the National Board of Education in Ireland, is constructed upon the principle above stated. The Secretary of the Board of Education for the State of Massachusetts, makes the following statement, which I have reason to believe is perfectly correct. When I first began to visit the Prussian Schools, I uniformly inquired of the Teachers, whether, in teaching children to read, they began with the names of the letters as given in the Alphabet.—Being delighted with the prompt negative which I invariably received, I persevered in making the inquiry, until I began to perceive a look and a tone on their part not very flattering to my intelligence, in considering a point so clear and so well settled as this, to be any longer a subject for discussion or doubt.—The uniform statement was, that the Alphabet as such had ceased to be taught as an exercise preliminary to reading, for the last fifteen or twenty years, by every Teacher in the Kingdom. The practice of

* *The Schoolmaster*. By Geo. B. Emerson, Boston, Mass., pp. 420, 422, 423.

beginning with the names of the letters is founded upon the idea, that it facilitates the combination of them into words. On the other hand, I believe that if two children of equal quickness and capacity are taken, one of whom can name every letter in the Alphabet, at sight, and the other does not know them from Chinese characters, the latter can be most easily taught to read,—in other words, that the learning letters first is an absolute hindrance."* PART I

Objection answered.

In reply to the objection, that as the elements of a Science or Art should be taught first, so ought the elements of words, before words themselves; it is maintained, that the *names* of the letters are *not* the *elements* in the *sounds* of words, except in a comparatively small number of instances; that, for example, the six vowels have but six *names*, yet no less than thirty-three different sounds; that the variety of sounds of consonants into words is nearly as great in proportion to their number, according to the simplest account of them; but if critically analyzed, would probably amount to some hundreds. "Now," (says the acute observer just quoted, "how can twenty-six sounds be the elements of hundreds of sounds as elementary as themselves? Generally speaking, too, before a child begins to learn his letters, he is already acquainted with the majority of elementary sounds in the language, and is in the daily habit of using them in conversation. Learning his letters, therefore, gives him no new sound; it even restricts his attention to a small number of those which he already knows. So far then, the learning of his letters contracts his practice; and were it not for keeping up his former habits of speaking at home, and in the

* Seventh Annual Report, &c., p. 122.

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play-ground, the Teacher, during the six months or year in which he confines him to the twenty-six sounds of the Alphabet, would pretty nearly deprive him of the faculty of speech."*

Hence, according to this reasoning, in pronouncing in words a letter which having but one name, and yet,—as most of the letters of the Alphabet have,—has from two to six sounds, the young learner would be wrong from two to six times, to being right once. In a method of teaching which involves so many anomalies and contradictions, and occasions so much confusion to the learner in the very first steps of his progress, there must be some defect. The order of nature is more harmonious and less difficult.

Great importance of the Subject.

It is questionable whether there is any stage of learning at which more can be done, and perhaps is often *unhappily* done—to determine the future character of the pupil, than that of which I am now speaking. In illustration of this remark, and to show the qualifications which are required to *teach properly* the first elements of learning, I will introduce the following account of a Prussian School exercise on the Alphabet. I had the pleasure of witnessing several exercises in German Schools similar to that which is here described, and one at Leipsic on the same object and word, and of the same character with that which is thus narrated by Mr. Mann; whose testimony will be hereby added to my own.

Practically illustrated.

"In the case I am about to describe, I entered a class-room of about sixty children of about six years of age. The children were just taking their seats, all smiling and expectation. They had been at School but a few weeks, but long enough to have

* Seventh Annual Report, &c., pp. 121, 122.

contracted a love for it. The Teacher took his station before them, and after making a playful remark, which excited a little titter around the room, and effectually arrested attention, he gave a signal for silence. After waiting a moment, during which every countenance was composed and every noise hushed, he made a prayer consisting of a single sentence, asking that as they had come together to learn, they might be good and diligent. He then spoke to them of the beautiful day, asked what they knew about the seasons, referred to the different kinds of fruit-trees then in bearing, and questioned them upon the uses of trees, in constructing houses, furniture, &c. The manner of the Teacher was dignified though playful, and the occasional jets of laughter which he caused the children occasionally to throw out (but without ever producing the slightest symptom of disorder,) were more favourable to a receptive state of mind than jets of tears. Here I must make a preliminary remark, in regard to the equipments of scholars and and the furniture of the School-room. Every child had a slate and pencil, and a little reading book of letters, words, and short sentences. Indeed, I never saw a Prussian School above an Infant School, in which *any child was unprovided with a slate and pencil.* By the Teacher's desk and in front of the School hung a *black-board.*

"The Teacher first drew a *house* upon the black-board; and here the value of drawing,—a power universally possessed by Prussian Teachers,—became manifest. By the side of the drawing, and under it, he wrote the word *house*, in the German script hand, and printed it in German letter. With a long pointing rod,—the end being painted white to make it more visible,—he ran over the *letters*,—the children

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with their slates before them and their pencils in their hands, looking at the pointing rod, and tracing the forms of the letters in the air. In our good Schools, children are first taught to imitate the forms of letters on the slate before they write them on a paper; here they were first imitated on the *air*, then on the *slates*, and subsequently, in older classes, on *paper*. The next process was to *copy* the *word* house, both in *script* and in print, on their slates. Then followed the formation of the *sounds* of the letters of which the word was composed, and the spelling of the word. The names of the letters were not given as with us, but only their powers, or the sounds which those letters have in combination. Sometimes the last in a word was taken and sounded—after that the penultimate,—and so on until the word was completed. The responses of the children were sometimes individual, and sometimes simultaneous, according to a signal given by the master.

"In every such School, also, there are printed sheets, containing the letters, dipthongs, and whole words. The children are taught to sound a dipthong, and then asked in what words the sound occurs. On some of these cards there are words enough to make several short sentences; and when the pupils are a little advanced, the Teacher points to several isolated words in succession, which, when taken together, make a familiar sentence, and thus he gives them an agreeable surprise, and a pleasant initiation into reading.

"After the *word* 'house,' was thus completely impressed upon the minds of the children, the Teacher drew his pointing rod over the *lines which formed the house;* and the children imitated him, *first* in the *air*, while they were looking at his motions,—then on

their *slates*. In their *drawings*, there was of course a great variety as to taste and accuracy; but each seemed pleased with his own, for their first attempts had never *been* so criticised as to produce discouragement. Several of them were then called to the *black-board*, to draw a house with chalk. After this the Teacher entered into a conversation about houses. The first question was, what kind of a house was that on the black-board. Then the names of other kinds of houses were given. The materials of which houses are built were mentioned,—stone, brick, wood; the different kinds of wood; nails, how they were made; lime, whence it came, &c. &c. When the Teacher touched upon points with which the children were supposed to be acquainted, he asked questions; when he passed to subjects beyond their sphere, he gave information, intermingling the whole with lively remarks and pleasant anecdotes.

"And here one important particular should not be omitted. In this as well as in all other Schools, *a complete answer was always required.* For instance, if the Teacher asks 'what are houses made of?' he does not accept the answer, 'of wood' or 'of stone;' but he requires a full, complete answer; as 'a house is made of wood.' The answer must always contain an intelligible proposition, without reference to the words of the question to complete it. And here also the greatest care is taken that the answer shall always be *grammatically correct*, have the right terminations of the articles, adjectives, and nouns, and the grammatical transpositions according to the idioms and structure of the language.

"This secures from the beginning precision in the expression of ideas; and if, as many philosophers suppose, the intellect could never carry forward its

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processes of argument, or investigation to any great extent without using language as its instrument, then these children, in their primary lessons, are not only led to exercise the intellect, but the instrument is put into their hands by which its operations are facilitated. When the hour expired, I do not believe there was a child in the room who knew or thought his playtime had come.

"No observing person can be at a loss to understand how *such* a Teacher can arrest and retain the attention of his Scholars.

"Now it is obvious that in the single exercise above-described, there were the elements of reading, spelling, writing, grammar and drawing, interspersed with anecdotes, and not a little general information; and yet there was no excessive variety, nor were any incongruous subjects forcibly brought together. There was nothing to violate the rule of 'one thing at a time.' Compare the above method with that of calling up a class of Abecedarians, or, which is more common, a *single child*, and while the Teacher holds a card or book before him, and with a pointer in his hand, says *a*, and the child echoes *a*; then *b*, and the child echoes *b*; and so on, until the vertical row of lifeless and ill favoured characters is completed; and then remanding him to his seat, to sit still and to look at vacancy. If the child is bright, the time which passes during this lesson, is the only part of the day when he does not think. Not a single faculty of the mind is occupied except that of imitating sounds; and even the number of these imitations amounts only to twenty-six. A parrot or an idiot could do the same thing. And so of the organs and members of the body. They are condemned to inactivity; for the child who stands most like a post, is

Common method.

most approved; nay, he is rebuked if he does not stand like a post. A head that does not turn to the right or left, an eye that lies moveless in its socket, hands hanging motionless at the side, and feet immoveable as those of a statue, are the points of excellence, while the child is echoing the senseless table of *a*, *b*, *c*. As a general rule, six months are spent before the twenty-six letters are mastered; though the same child would learn the names of twenty-six playmates or twenty-six playthings in one or two days.

Benefits of the Prussian method.

"All children are pleased with the idea of a house, a hat, a top, a ball, a bird, an egg, a flower, &c., and when their minds are led to see new relations or qualities in these objects, or when their former notions respecting them are brought out more vividly, or are more distinctly defined, their delight is even keener than that of an adult would be in obtaining a new fact in science, or in having the mist of some old doubt dispelled by a new discovery. Lessons on familiar objects, given by a competent Teacher, never fail to command attention, and thus a habit of mind is induced of inestimable value in regard to all future study.

"Again, the method I have described necessarily leads to conversation; and conversation with an intelligent Teacher secures several important objects. It communicates information. It brightens ideas only before dimly apprehended. It addresses itself to the various faculties of the mind, so that no one of them ever tires or is cloyed. It teaches the child to use language,—to frame sentences,—to select words which convey his whole meaning,—to avoid those which convey either more or less than he intends to express; in fine, it teaches him to seek for thoughts

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upon a subject, and then to find appropriate language in which to clothe them. A child trained in this way will never make those absurd and ludicrous mistakes in which uneducated men of some sense not unfrequently fall, viz :—that of mis-matching their words and ideas,—of hanging, as it were, the garments of a giant upon the body of a pigmy, or of forcing a pigmy's dress upon the huge limbs of a giant. Appropriate diction should clothe just ideas, as a tasteful and substantial garb fits a graceful and vigorous form. The above-described exercise occupies the eye and the hand, as well as the mind. The eye is employed in tracing visible differences between different forms; and the hand in copying whatever is presented with as little difference as possible. And who ever saw a child that was not pleased with pictures and with an attempt to imitate them? Thus the two general objects so strenuously insisted on by writers, in regard to the later periods of education, and the maturer process of thought, are attained: viz, the power of recognizing analogies and dissimilarities."*

Common to the best European Schools generally.

The above vivid description of an Abecedarian, and first reading exercise, applies substantially to all German and Swiss, and many French Schools; and to the Model Schools in connexion with the Dublin Normal School of the Irish National Board, and to the best Schools in Scotland and in England. The Secretary of the British and Foreign School Society observes that "at the Borough Road School, (the great establishment, Normal and Model of the Society,) the principle of dispensing with *Alphabetic teaching* has long been adopted; the Alphabet Class has

* Seventh Annual Report, &c., 1844, pp. 117, 120.

merged into that of children of two letters; and all unmeaning combinations have been utterly excluded." PART I.

I have thus adverted to this subject, not with a view of advocating any particular theory; but to show how much importance is involved in this first step of elementary teaching, and how much *may* be done,—and has been done,—to convert this infant "bridge of sighs" into a charming passage, conducting from the prison of ignorance into the palace of general knowledge and wisdom, and how much may be done at this little noticed period of instruction, to introduce and develope the chief elements of intellectual excellence. Our senses are so many inlets of knowledge; the more of them used in conveying instruction to the mind the better; the more of them addressed, the deeper and more permanent the impression produced. Of all the senses, that of seeing is the best organ of communication with the mind, especially in childhood. It has been said that "the eye remembers. It is more attentive than the ear. Its object are not confused. It takes in a single and perfect image of what is placed before it, and transfers the picture to the mind. Hence, all illustrations in our teaching which can possibly be addressed to this organ should be so applied." Object of the foregoing remarks.

From the foregoing observations it might naturally be inferred, that *reading* ought to be taught before *spelling;* but the reverse is generally the case; and the unnatural and injurious practice of occupying months in teaching the young pupil to spell in order to read, is a second hindrance thrown in the way of his improvement, and his love of learning. Mr. L. J. Packhurst well observes: "Reading should invariably precede spelling. I do not mean that a child should Opinion of a Boston Teacher.

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be kept a long time learning to read, before he commences spelling; but that he should never be set to spell a word, until he has first become able readily to read it. The reason is, that reading is much easier than spelling, and that a person cannot spell by thinking how a word *sounds*, but he must recollect how it *looks*. The eye, therefore, as well as the ear, must become familiar with a word before it can readily be spelled. One thing that renders reading easier than spelling is, that perception is more vivid than conception. Hence it is easier to distinguish two familiar words, as *cat*, and *rat*, or *eat* and *tea*, when the eye is fixed upon them in reading, than it is to recollect the difference in their orthography, when they are absent from the eye."

Such is the prevalent opinion of the most distinguished Teachers both European and American. Their common language is: "Time must not be wasted on spelling, yet, as it is important, as early as practicable, to let a child learn to read fluently that he may be able to occupy himself with reading, and be prepared for all the other parts of his education."

Mechanical Reading—

To *teach reading* properly, attention to three things is requisite,—the mechanical, the intellectual, the theoretical exercise.

Taught by example.

The first consisting of articulation, pronunciation, emphasis, pauses, tones, is taught by example rather than by rule—at least before teaching the rules. Reading as well as singing, is, in the first instance, a mechanical exercise; and like other mechanical exercises, acquired by imitation. Hence a good reader is as necessary to teach reading, as a good musician is to teach music, or a good draughtsman to teach drawing. To each of these arts belong rules, and rules which are to be taught and learned; but skill

in them is acquired more by imitation than by rule. So in the early exercises of reading, *example* must be the principal teacher; and if the example be not good, early bad habits in the pupil must be the immediate and necessary consequence; and that consequence is often irremediable through life—whatever may be the subsequent attainments and talents of the unhappy victim of it. The author of "The Teacher taught," insists that "the Common School Teacher *must read*, and require the pupils to imitate his tones, emphasis, cadence, &c. Unless such an example be daily held up before the children, it cannot reasonably be expected that they will read mechanically well. Those Teachers, who hear a class read three or four times in a day, and direct one or another to read faster or slower, or to regard their pauses, but set before them no example for their imitation, do not teach them with any effect. It would be as well to omit reading entirely, for they would be sure to acquire no bad habits.

Hence for the proper training of pupils in even the mechanical art of reading, a skilful artist in the person of the Teacher is indispensable; and although an art may be mechanically acquired and practised without a knowledge of the principles of it—such for example as the use of the pulley, the inclined plane, or the wedge, or the speaking correctly without having been taught the principles of mechanics or of language,—yet no art can be properly taught, unless the Teacher understands both the principles and practice of it.

Intellectual reading.

But reading ought not to be regarded as a mere mechanical exercise. It is to be feared it is often nothing more, and that the length of its duration though extending to years, is only a continued repetition of the purely mechanical process. The *intel-*

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lectual part of teaching is the most important, though the most neglected. It consists in teaching children to understand what they read—and the meaning of the words used, the facts narrated, the principles involved, the lessons inculcated. This embraces the derivation, composition and import of the words, the author, the occasion, the connexion of the narrative, poem, speech, &c.,—the places, arts and customs referred to; in a word, the developement of what has been shown is taught in Prussian Schools while teaching the Alphabet itself.

This is the essence of what was some years since described as the *intellectual* system of the celebrated Sessional School of Edinburgh, the account of which by Mr. Wood, has pre-eminently contributed to introduce a new era in the elementary school-teaching system throughout the United Kingdom. It has long since obtained in the German Schools. It makes the reading-book the text-book of general knowledge. Under this intellectual process, the pupil acquires a knowledge of language, men and things; a desire to read is awakened and increased, as his skill in reading is improved by the practice.

Effects of bad teaching.

The knowledge of what is read is essential to good reading, and to the cultivation of a taste for it. The indifference and even aversion of many persons to reading is no doubt attributable, in a great measure, if not altogether, to the unintellectual manner in which there were taught to read, especially if they never learned to read fluently. The entire series of their attempts at learning to read is associated with so many painful and so few pleasant recollections, that they engage in it with reluctance, and only from necessity.

Mr. Edgeworth has remarked, that "learning to read is the most difficult of human attainments." That which is difficult in itself is rendered doubly so, if not imposible, by the absence of the essential requisites for teaching it. "The great essential point is," (says Mr. Wyse) "*understanding perfectly what you read.* But this is the last thing thought of. Our Teachers require the reading first, and promise the meaning afterwards."

Hints to Teachers.

The Archbishop of Dublin in his admirable "*Elements of Rhetoric*," maintains, that the clear understanding of what is read is essential even to *perspicuity* in reading. The reading lessons then should be thoroughly taught and understood, and be made the vehicle of general information. "The well prepared Teacher" (remarks the author of the *Boston School-Master*) "may make them the occasion of much useful instruction by talking to his pupils upon subjects suggested by the reading-lesson, and by interesting them, may lead them to desire to read for themselves upon the subject, and induce them to pay more attention to the lessons. It would be well if the Teacher would daily look forward to the reading exercises of his classes, and ask himself what useful fact, or interesting narrative or anecdote he can call up to arrest their attention, or to supply them with materials for common thought. Our common-reading books contain selections from orations. How much additional interest will the Teacher give, by telling something of the occasion on which one of them was delivered, and the effect it produced. Some of the selections are from histories. By a few introductory words, he may shew what was the state of things to which the passage refers, and by putting them into the current of history, prevent it from being to them

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a mere isolated fact. Satan's Address to the Sun losses half its sublimity to one who has not read the previous portions of the Paradise Lost; and how much more moving does the beautiful passage beginning "Hail! holy light!" become to the child who knows that they were uttered by one who had worn out his eyes and his health in noble exertions for liberty and truth."

Rhetorical reading.

The highest order of this exercise is *Rhetorical*.—But by rhetorical reading I do not mean pompous spouting, but *natural reading*—such as speaks the language of nature. It involves a participation of the spirit, and a reflection of the feelings of the author. It is absorbed in the subject; it forgets manner; and therefore speaks according to nature.

Dr. Whately forcibly remarks, "A reader is sure to pay too much attention to his voice, not only if he pays any at all, but if he does not strenuously labour to withdraw his attention from it altogether. This is not a common attainment. "It requires" (observes the elegant author of the *Fireside Friend*,) "not only knowledge of language, of the derivation and signification of words, but an acquaintance with the passions of the human heart, and with the different tones in which these should be expressed. It requires also, a quick perception, to seize upon the meaning of a passage, so that, for a moment, the author's spirit shall seem to be transferred to the breast of the reader. All this is necessary in order to read well; is it therefore wonderful that there are so few good readers? How common is it to hear a pathetic passage read with the coldness of indifference, a lively description without animation, or an argumentative discourse without either force or emphasis. Rules may do something; examples may do much; but after all,

good reading must be the effect of *feeling, taste and information.*"

In a former part of my remarks on this subject, I have given an account of the Prussian system of teaching a commencing reading-class. I will quote from the same author an account of a more advanced reading exercise in a Prussian elementary School. Mr. Mann says: "Having given an account of the reading lesson of a primary class just after they had commenced going to School, I will follow it with a brief account of a lesson given to a more advanced class. The subject was a short piece of poetry describing a hunter's life in Missouri. It was first read —the reading being accompanied with appropriate criticisms as to pronunciation, tone, &c. It was then taken up verse by verse, and the pupils were required to give equivalent expressions in prose. The teacher then entered into an explanation of every part of it, in a sort of oral lecture, accompanied with occasional questions. This was done with the greatest minuteness. Where there was a geographical reference, he entered at large into geography; where a reference to a foreign custom, he compared it with their customs at home; and thus he explained every part, and illustrated the illustrations themselves, until after an entire hour spent upon six four-line verses, he left them to write the sentiment and the story in prose to be produced in school next morning. All this was done without the slightest break or hesitation, and evidently proceeded from a mind full of the subject and having a ready command of all its resources."

Example of teaching reading in Prussia.

These brief remarks and statements are sufficient to show not only the order and importance of this primary department of Common School instruction,—

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the various knowledge which it may be made the instrument of communicating, the qualifications requisite to teach it properly; but also the imperative necessity, and the great advantage of establishing a Seminary for the training of Teachers.

Spelling.

Spelling is another essential department of the elementary School; and the common modes of teaching it are as liable to remark as those of teaching to read. The child is *wholly* confined to the *Spelling-book* for many months before he is taught to read; and the spelling-book is made his companion as long as he is at school. The order of nature has been shewn to be otherwise; and the matured opinions of the most experienced educationists are decidedy against *this* use of the spelling-book, and the common method of learning to spell. The mode of spelling orally columns of words, and in succession by members of classes is not sanctioned by the practice of the best European and American Schools; and is condemned by the most approved Teachers. Mr. Simpson, a distinguished Scotch Teacher, strongly insists that "the pupils ought not to be tasked and annoyed with the absurdity of that laborious and generally abortive exercise, learning to spell."

Common method of teaching spelling condemned by the best European and American Teachers.

The method advocated is, *that spelling should accompany reading from the commencement, and be taken from the reading lessons, and that the Teacher should as a part of the same exercises teach the sounds and powers of the letters.*

Better methods adopted.

The author of the *Schoolmaster*,—a work sanctioned by the Boston Board of Education—observes: "In every stage we should avoid as the bane of good habits of thought, the common use of nonsense columns of a spelling-book. Nothing more pernicious could be contrived. The use of them prevents think-

ing, without teaching them to spell. Still there are numerous anomalies in English which must be learned from a spelling-book. After the child has learned to read well and fluently, a spelling-book should be placed in his hands, and his attention particularly directed to the difficult combinations.* The simple words will have become familiar, and time need not be wasted on them. The whole attention should be given to the difficulties. What these are every Teacher must judge for himself. It will depend upon the skill with which pupils have been taught to use their slates in learning to read and write.

"When a lesson has been assigned, a few minutes may be appropriated for reading it over carefully.—Examination in it should be conducted in various ways. One is putting out words successively to different individuals. When this is practised, care should be taken never to begin twice in succession with the same individual, and to keep all on the look-out by calling on those who are in different parts of the class, leaving it always uncertain who shall be called next.

* A Book of the kind here referred to has been published (price 7½d.) by Professor Sullivan, Master of the Normal School of the National Board of Education in Ireland. This book is intituled, "*The Spelling book Superseded; or a new and easy method of teaching the Spelling, Meaning, Pronunciation, and Etymology of all the difficult words in the English language, with exercises on verbal distinctions, by Robert Sullivan, Esq., A. M., T. C. D. Eighth edition enlarged.*"—Professor Sullivan, after quoting several authorities, concludes the introductory observations of this little work in the following words:—"That spelling may be learned effectually without Spelling-books, must be evident from what we have said and quoted. And that a person may learn to spell without ever having had a spelling-book in his hands, is equally certain; for in teaching Latin, French or any other foreign language, there are no Spelling-books used; nor is the want of such a book ever felt. Nor do we ever hear that persons who learn any of these languages find any difficulty in writing or spelling the words."

A substitute for common spelling-books.

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This mode, however practised, costs much time. An agreeable mode of varying it will be to let the whole class spell simultaneously, in measured time. This is good for the voice, and, if care be taken to detect those who spell wrong, and such as depend on the rest, may be often very useful.

"A *much better* way is for each child to have a *slate* before him, and write each word as it is put out. When all the words are written, the slates may be passed up, one of them to be examined by the Teacher, and the others by the class, no one examining his own slate.

"A *still better* way is to give out sentences to be written containing the difficult words, or rather, to give out the words, and require the pupil to make sentences including them. They thus become fixed in the memory so as never to be erased. The objection that will be made to this is, the time which it takes.

"When, however, it is considered that by this exercise, not only is *spelling* taught, but *writing* and *composition*, and all of them in the way in which they ought to be taught, that is, in the way in which they will be used, the objection loses its weight.

Effects of the different methods contrasted.

"As *spelling* is *usually* taught, it is of no practical use; and every observer must have met with many instances of persons who have been drilled in spelling nonsense columns for years, who mis-spelt the most common words as soon as they were set to write them; whereas a person taught in the way here recommended, may not in a given time, go over so much ground, but he will be prepared to apply every thing he has learned to practice, and he will have gained the invaluable habits of always associating every word with a thought, or an idea, or a thing."

In "Wood's Account of the Edinburgh Sessional School," the following is stated as the method of teaching spelling in that Institution: "In the Sessional School, the children are now taught to spell from their ordinary reading lessons, employing for this purpose both the short and the long words as they occur. Under the former practice in the School, of selecting merely what are longer and apparently more difficult words, we very frequently found the pupils unable to spell the shorter and more common ones, which we still find by no means uncommon in those who come to us from some other Schools. By making the pupil, too, spell the lesson, just as he would write it, he is less liable to fall in future life into the common error of substituting the word *their* for *there*, and others of a similar kind."

How spelling is taught in the Edinburgh Sessional School.

The defectiveness and the absurdity of the common mode of teaching spelling is thus pointed out in *Abbot's Teacher*,—a work which has been revised and re-printed in London, by Dr. Mayo, late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. I quote from the London Edition. "One Teacher (says that excellent American Writer) for instance has a spelling lesson to hear, he begins at the head of the line, and putting one word to each boy, he goes regularly down, each successive pupil calculating the chances whether a word, which he can accidentally spell, will or will not come to him. If he spells it, the teacher cannot tell whether he is prepared or not. That word is only one among fifty, constituting the lesson. If he misses it, the teacher cannot decide that he was unprepared. It might have been a single accidental error.

Two methods compared.

"Another teacher, hearing the same lesson requests the boys to bring their slates, and as he dictates the

PART I. words, one after another, requires all to write them. After they are all written, he calls upon them to spell aloud as they have written them, simultaneously; pausing a moment after each, to give those who are wrong, an opportunity to indicate it by some mark opposite the words mis-spelt. They all count the number of errors and report them.

"He passes down the class, glancing his eye at the work of each one, to see that all is right, noticing particularly those slates, which, from the character of the boys, need more careful inspection. A Teacher who had never tried this experiment, would be surprised at the rapidity with which such work will be done by a class, after a little practice.

"Now, how different are these two methods in their actual results? In the latter case, the whole class are thoroughly examined. In the former, not a single member of it is. Let me not be understood to recommend exactly this method of teaching spelling, as the best that can be adopted in all cases. I only bring it forward as an illustration of the idea, that a little machinery, a little ingenuity in contriving ways of acting on the *whole*, rather than on individuals, will very much promote the Teacher's designs."

Whatever diversity of opinion there may be as to the comparative merits of the books best adapted to teach spelling, it is agreed that *writing* the words, either on a slate or black-board, by dictation from the Teacher, has, in every respect, the advantage over the common practice; and the above statements and illustrations are sufficient to show the irreparable losses, both as to time and opportunity, which are inflicted upon the pupils in most of our Schools in the ordinary mode of teaching *spelling* as well as *reading*.

Writing.

3. *Writing* is another essential part of common school instruction; and the manner in which it is usually taught, as illustrated in its results, is sufficiently evincive of the possibility and need of improvement in teaching this most desirable and important accomplishment. The negligence—even where there is no want of competency in the teacher—often indulged in, in this department, has inflicted irreparable wrongs and injuries on many youths in this Province. Writing being a species of drawing, is a purely imitative art. The attention as well as the skill of the Teacher is therefore absolutely necessary to its acquirement. It is true, that many persons having a feeble faculty and little taste for imitation, are as unable to learn to write as to draw well. Hence elegance in writing has come to be considered as no part of a learned education. But all can learn to write legibly and decently; and skill in it is indispensable to success in almost every department of life. The following description of the process of teaching and learning to write in the Common Schools of the State of New York, quoted from the *District School*, by J. O. Taylor, may be adopted in reference to many Common Schools in Canada, and is perhaps the best method of directing attention to its defects, —shewing at the same time, that blame rests with all parties, from the builders of the School-houses to the unfortunate pupils themselves. No work on Common Schools has received more praise from the highest quarters than Mr. Taylor's. He says; "it is to be regretted that our District Schools furnish so small a number of good writers. But a very few out of the great number who are now practising this Art in our District Schools will be able to execute a free, bold, and legible hand. The greater

Common bad methods of teaching writing described at length.

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"It is to be lamented that so much time is wasted in learning, what they never do learn, or what, at best, they feel ashamed or unable to make any use of; or, with others, what is so soon forgotten. There is, generally speaking, a sufficient quantity of time appropriated to writing, sufficient care, (though fruitless) to provide materials, (and a great quantity of them are used,) to make all of the scholars good writers. There is some fault on the part of the Teacher, or parent, or among the pupils themselves; and we will (from personal observation) describe the process of learning to write in our District Schools. The causes of so much imperfection may thus be developed.

"The child is (in most cases, for it is true that there are some exceptions to what I am about to say, I wish there were more) provided with a single sheet of foolscap paper, doubled into four leaves, a quill and an inkstand, which probably has nothing in it

but thick, muddy settlings, or dry, hard cotton, and thus duly equipped, sent to School. The thin small quantity of paper, is laid upon the hard desk, made full of holes, ridges and furrows by the former occupant's pen-knife. The writing desk in many instances so high that the chin of the writer cannot, without a temporary elongation of the body, be projected over the upper surface; this being done and the feet swinging six or eight inches from the floor, and half of the weight of the body hanging by the chin, the child with a horizontal view examines its copy of straight marks. It is then directed to take the pen, which is immediately spoiled by being thrust into the dry or muddy inkstand, and begin to write. The pen is so held, that the feathered end, instead of being pointed towards the shoulder, is pointed in the opposite direction, directly in front; the fingers doubled in and squeezing the pen like a vice, the thumb thrown out straight and stiff, the forefinger enclosing the pen near the second joint, and the inked end of the pen passing over the first joint of the second finger in a perpendicular line to that made by the finger. In this tiresome, uneasy, unsteady attitude of body, and the hand holding the pen with a twisted, cramping gripe, the child completes its first lesson in the art of writing.

"After such a beginning, the more the child writes the more confirmed will it become in its bad habits. It cannot improve; it is only forming habits which must be wholly discarded, if the child ever learns anything. But in this wretched manner the pupil is permitted to use the pen day after day, for two, or four, or six years. The Teacher shows the scholar how to hold the pen perhaps, by placing it in his own hand correctly, but does not see that the pupil takes

PART I. and *keeps* the pen in the same position when writing. If the pen should be held correctly for a moment, while the Teacher is observing, the old habit will immediately change it, when the Teacher has turned his back. Such practice and such instructions afford an explanation of so much waste of time and materials, of such slow improvement, and of so much bad penmanship.

"Another pupil who commences writing at a more advanced age, finds the desk too low, and from being obliged to bend somewhat, soon lies down upon the desk and paper. I have seldom entered a District School during the writing hour, without finding all who were using the pen or nearly all, resting their heads and shoulders on the desk, looking horizontally at their work, and the writing-book thrown half-round, making its lines parallel with the axis of the eye. In this sleepy, hidden position, it is impossible to examine and criticise what we are doing; and yet Teachers from carelessness, or from having their attention directed to some other part of the School during the writing season, almost universally allow it.

"Teachers seldom prepare their pens previous to their being called for, and are thus employed in mending them while they should be directing the scholars who are writing. They do not always specify and describe the frequently occurring faults in such a manner as to assist the child in avoiding them, and in improving the next time where he has previously failed. The criticisms are too general, too indefinite to profit the pupil, and he continues after this useless instruction to write in the same careless way that he did before. Teachers likewise do not preserve the writing-books which have been filled, and thus

they are not able to compare the one just finished with others written a few months before. If they should do this, the pupil would often be convinced of that which the Teacher is unable to make him believe, viz: that he makes no improvement. Teachers frequently set such copies as are very improper for the particular attainments or habits of the pupil: not discriminating or knowing what is required."

Writing should be early taught—Slate should be used.

If the method of teaching the alphabet and reading, which has been heretofore described, be adopted, the pupil will, from the very commencement of his going to School, have occasion to write. It is universally agreed that the child should early begin to write, and therefore he should be taught as early as practicable the written characters. This task is soon accomplished where the slate and black-board are used, and where the method heretofore recommenced is employed in teaching the alphabet. The use of the slate is strongly and almost unanimously recommended. Mr. Simpson observes, "Writing must be zealously practised according to the briefest and best system yet adopted, and the pupil habituated gradually to write down words on his slate."

Mulhaüser's method of teaching Writing—adopted in Switzerland, France and England—noticed and recommended.

I know of no system so simple and so admirably adapted to our Common Schools as that which has been recently adopted in England under the sanction of the Committee of the Privy Council on Education. It is founded on "Mulhaüser's method of teaching Writing." To describe this method in detail would be irrelevant to my present purpose; but to give some account of it may be appropriate and useful. The following account is abridged from the Preface of the Manual to which I have referred.

M. Mulhaüser is a resident of Geneva, in Switzerland. In 1827, he was appointed to inspect the

PART I. Writing Classes under the Superintendence of the Genevese Commission of Primary Schools. In the discharge of his duty, he observed that the Teachers of Writing were guided in their lessons by no rules, but those of their own discretion, or caprice; and that the children were required merely to aim at an exact imitation of the specimens by an operation purely mechanical. At the end of the year he presented a Report to the Commission, and was thereupon directed to prepare an improved plan for instruction in the art of writing.

M. Mulhaüser had in view the process by which nature developes the intellect; at first the senses merely of the infant are active; they are employed in collecting facts; then the mind gradually puts forth its powers; it compares, combines, and at length analyzes the facts collected.

He therefore analyzes the complex forms of the letters, and reduces them to their simplest elementary parts; which he has decided to be no more than *four!*

The pupil is first taught these four elementary parts of letters in the natural order of their simplicity: after which he is taught to combine them into letters, and then the letters into words.

The child recognizes each separate simple form, as well as the name of it in the most difficult combinations; and if he err, he is immediately able to correct his error. The method enables the child to determine with ease, the height, breadth, and inclination of every part of every letter. To give him this power by abstract rules would obviously be difficult; they would not easily be understood by the child, and would not be remembered without much effort; but by this method he is led by practical expedients

to the result required; and then such rules as are involved in the process can be taught, and are easily remembered after having them thus preceded by the practical demonstrations. The style of writing is at once easy of execution and very legible. It results from the observance of a few simple rules; and its chief merits are, 1st. The exact and well defined nature of all its parts. 2ndly. The harmonious proportions existing between them. 3rdly. Its consequent beauty and legibility. 4thly. The absence of ornaments. Simple forms are placed before the pupil, and he soon finds that any departure from them leads to inconvenience.

Mulhaüser's method, though apparently satisfactory in theory, was not sanctioned by the Commission of Geneva, without submitting it to the test of practice; when it was unanimously adopted. The Commission in their subsequent Reports, speaks strongly of the advantage which the Schools of the Canton had derived from the use of this method, and give some extraordinary examples of its success. It was soon introduced into the famous Normal School at Lausanne, and was from thence transplanted into all the Village Schools of the Canton de Vaud. Persons saw with surprise the rude children in those Village Schools learn to write in a few months. In the Infant School at Geneva, children five years old were found readily to comprehend and apply its principles, and one of the best known Inspectors, surprised at the ease with which they seemed to understand the system, studied it himself for the purpose of applying it to the instruction of his own son.

Effects of its adoption in Switzerland.

The Parisian Society of Elementary Education appointed Commissioners in 1834, to investigate and report on the method. Their report fully confirmed

How tested in France.

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One boy in particular, eight years old, excited some surprise by dictating to the class the elements of the difficult word *invariablement*, to be formed mentally, without the aid of slate or paper, when the whole class pronounced the word simultaneously. The Director of the Normal School reported on the experiment as follows:

"The Art of Writing presents two distinct parts: first, the theoretical part, which consists in a rational analysis of the forms of written characters: and, secondly, the practical, which gives the means of acquiring with rapidity, the habit, of forming the characters readily. Generally, attention has been almost entirely confined to the second part, under the impression that it is useless to reason with children, and that they are to be treated as machines, whose office is to move and not to reflect. The author of this new method is guided by an entirely different principle. Nothing is more simple or easy to comprehend than his analysis of writing. The method

generally adopted presents a useless multiplication of elementary characters. One method that has been introduced into several schools, has *seventeen* such characters. The author reduces them to *four*, and from these four elements, which are learnt with the utmost ease, are produced all the letters of the Alphabet. The advantage of this simplicity appears unquestionable. The child, accustomed to draw the elements of the letters with an exactness required by the rule impressed on his memory, cannot write badly if he has paid attention to the instruction. The Teacher does not dictate a letter which can leave the pupil in doubt as to the precise thing that is required of him, but pronounces in succession each element of the letter, which the writer follows, without thinking of the letter itself. The enigmas both amuse the children and accustom them to reflect. I am peculiarly pleased with this part of the system, which calls into action the intelligence of the pupil by an allurement resembling that of a game.

"The sixty children whom I placed under the tuition of the author, perfectly comprehended all his rules and precepts in less than twelve lessons. It is true that they could previously write tolerably, but the intention of M. Mulhaüser, who could remain only a short time at the School, was not so much to prove the progress that could be made in a given period, as to enable us to understand and appreciate the method he employed.

"Finally, I have to report that the trial we have made has had the most successful result, and the method of M. Mulhaüser appears to me every way calculated to ensure and hasten the progress of children, while his discipline and arrangement of the classes show, in my opinion, a remarkable knowledge

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of the qualities and faults of infancy. Our Schools cannot but profit by the entire adoption of the principles recommended by so experienced and able a Teacher."

This method of teaching writing was then recommended by the Minister of Public Instruction in France; and, after very careful inquiry, it has been sanctioned by the Education Committee of Her Majesty's Privy Council in England.

It has been adopted in various countries on the Continent; and the introduction of it into our Canadian Schools will, I am persuaded, be productive of the most beneficial results.*

Advantage of teaching linear drawing Simultaneously with writing.

In the German Schools, drawing is taught simultaneously with writing; as is also the case in the Schools of the Christian Brethren and other excellent Schools in France. In all these Schools the writing of the pupils was superior to any writing of pupils of similar ages that I had ever witnessed. Some specimens of writing from several of these Schools I brought with me; and they have excited the admiration and astonishment of every person to whom they have been shown. I concur most fully in the following statements of the Secretary of the Board of Education at Boston, and the great importance of the subjects to which they refer, will be an ample apology for their introduction in this place: "Such excellent hand-writing as I saw in the Prussian Schools, I never saw before. I can hardly express myself too strongly on this point. In Great Britain, France, or our own country, I have never seen any Schools worthy of being compared with theirs in this respect.

*The manual and models for teaching this system of writing have been imported, and are on sale at the Wesleyan Book Room, Toronto.

I have before said that I found all children provided with a slate and pencil. They write or print letters, and begin with the elements of drawing, either immediately, or soon after they enter School. This furnishes the greater part of the explanation of their excellent hand-writing. A part of it, I think, should be referred to the peculiarity of the German Script, which seems to me to be easier than our own. But after all due allowance is made for this advantage, a high degree of superiority over the Schools of other countries remains to be accounted for. This superiority cannot be attributed in any degree to a better manner of holding the pen, for I never saw so great a portion of cases in any Schools where the pen was so awkwardly held. This excellence must be referred in a great degree *to the universal practice of learning to draw, contemporaneously with learning to write.* I believe a child will learn both to draw and to write sooner and with more ease, than he will learn writing alone; and for this reason, the figures or objects contemplated and copied in learning to draw, are larger, more marked, more distinctive one from another, and more sharply defined with projection, angle or curve, than the letters copied in writing. In drawing there is more variety, in writing more sameness. Now the objects contemplated in drawing, *from their nature*, attract attention more readily, impress the mind more deeply, and of course will be more accurately copied than those in writing. And when the eye has been trained to observe, to distinguish, and to imitate, in the first exercise, it applies its habits with great advantage to the second.

"Another reason, is that the child is taught to draw things with which he is familiar, which have some significance, and give him pleasing ideas. But a

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child who is made to fill page after page with rows of straight marks, that look so blank and cheerless though done ever so well, has, and can have no pleasing associations with his work. The practice of beginning with making inexpressive marks, or with writing unintelligible words, bears some resemblance, in its lifelessness, to that of learning the Alphabet. Each exhales torpor and stupidity to deaden the vivacity of the worker.

"Again, I have found it an almost universal opinion with teachers of the art of writing, that children should commence with large hand rather than with fine. The reason for this, I suppose to be, that where the letters themselves are larger, their differences, and peculiarities are proportionally large; hence they can be more easily discriminated, and discrimination must necessarily precede exact copying. So to speak, the child becomes acquainted with the physiognomy of the large letters more easily than with that of the small. Besides, the formation of the larger gives more freedom of motion to the hand. Now, in these respects, there is more difference between the objects used in drawing and the letters of a large hand, than between the latter and a fine hand; and therefore the argument in favour of a large hand applies with still more force in favour of drawing.

"In the course of my tour, I passed from the countries where almost every pupil in every School could draw with ease, and most of them with no inconsiderable degree of beauty and expression, to those where less and less attention was paid to the subject; and, at last, to Schools where drawing was not practised at all; and after many trials, I came to the conclusion that, with no other guide than a mere inspection of the copy-books of the pupils, I could tell whe-

ther drawing were taught in School or not; so uniformly superior was the hand-writing in those Schools where drawing was taught in connexion with it.—On seeing this, I was reminded of that saying of Pestalozzi,—somewhat too strong,—that 'without drawing there can be no writing.'

"But suppose it were otherwise, and that learning to draw retarded the acquisition of good penmanship, how richly would the learner be compensated for the sacrifice. Drawing, of itself, is an expressive and beautiful language. A few strokes of the pen and pencil will often represent to the eye what no amount of words, however well chosen, can communicate. For the master architect, for the engraver, the engineer, the pattern designer, the draughtsman, moulder, machine-builder, or head mechanic of any kind, all acknowledge that this art is essential and indispensable. But there is no department of business or condition of life, where the accomplishment would not be of utility. Every man should be able to plot a field, to sketch a road or river, to draw the outlines of a simple machine, a piece of household furniture or a farming utensil, and to delineate the internal arrangement or construction of a house."

Arithmetic.

4. The importance of *Arithmetic* to the common interests of life can scarcely be over-rated. As a means of mental discipline also, being the lowest and simplest branch of mathematics, Educators have attached the highest importance to the study of it. It was a saying of Charles XII. of Sweden, that he who was ignorant of the arithmetical art, was but half a man; and Lord Bacon has said "if a man's wit be wandering let him study mathematics."—Viewed either as an instrument of mental discipline or of practical utility, Teachers of the greatest ex-

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perience agree that it should be commenced early—as early as reading and writing.

Nay, it is held to be less difficult for a child to learn to count than to learn to read, while it contributes more than reading to strengthen and discipline the mind. But the manner in which it is too often taught, renders the study of it an insupportable task, and not unfrequently an object of bitter aversion, without imparting any useful knowledge.

Bad methods of teaching it.

There are doubtless many exceptions; but the remarks of the Author of the *District School*, are scarcely less applicable to Canada than to the State of New York: "From this science very little is obtained in our District Common Schools, which is of any *practical use*. There is much compulsive, uncertain, and laborious study of arithmetic; but it is often in vain, from the manner in which it is taught, since the scholar gets very little in return for his labour that is valuable or practical. Those who have received nothing more than a Common School education, obtain their practical knowledge of the science of numbers, not from their instructions or study in the School, but from their own invention and the rewards of experience. There is in the country but a small part of arithmetic *in use* which came from the Schools; necessity has taught the people what they ought to have learned at School when young, and when they were wasting so much time and money to no purpose. The pupil learns nothing thoroughly; what he does not understand he feels little or no interest in; he sits with his slate before him most of the day, groping, guessing, doing nothing. Perhaps scarcely any two pupils are studying the same rule, or using the same book, instead of being formed in as few classes as possible."

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The Teacher has not time to hear each pupil separately, and to explain and illustrate to each the nature of the rule or operation, even if he be competent and disposed to do so. The consequence is that many who have, as the phrase is, "gone through the Arithmetic," are unable to perform the simplest calculations in the transactions of business; or they do so with hesitation and uncertainty.

Sensible method.

"In Teaching Arithmetic," observes the Secretary of the British and Foreign School Society, in his much valued work on the *Principles of Teaching*, "nothing must be considered as done, which is not thoroughly comprehended; a *meaning* and *reason* must be attached to *every step* of the process Begin therefore, first of all, by referring the pupil to sensible objects, and teach him to compute what he *can see*, before you perplex him with abstract conceptions. A mere infant may in this way be taught to add, substract, multiply and divide, to a considerable extent. Apparatus for this purpose, of various kinds, is already in use; but what need have you of apparatus? Everything around you and about you may be made subservient to this end. It will not do, however, to stop here. The mind must before long be accustomed to abstractions, and therefore the sooner you can teach the child to convert this tangible arithmetic into abstractions the better."

Intellectual method.

The practice of the best Schools in other countries suggests that children should first study *Intellectual* arithmetic. Its influence in awakening the curiosity of pupils, in exciting their mental energies, and training them to devise means for performing more intricate exercises on the slate, can scarcely be conceived by those who have not witnessed the results. In the Model Schools attached to the Dublin Normal School

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of the Irish National Board, I witnessed arithmetical operations performed by small boys and girls with the rapidity of thought, in addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, fractions, proportion, interest, discount, &c. I witnessed exercises equally surprising in Scotland, France and Germany. I will select two examples,—the one from Mr. Wood's account of the Edinburgh Sessional School; the other from Mr. Mann's Report on Prussian Schools.

How taught in Edinburgh.

Mr. Wood says: "It was in arithmetic we first succeeded in kindling that ardour, which has since diffused itself through every other department of the Institution. Arithemetic, which had hitherto been one of their dullest occupations, now became to the scholars a source of the highest interest and amusement. They, by degrees, obtained a rapidity of movement in this Art, which we should have previously accounted quite incredible, and along with that celerity a proportional accuracy in calculation. But this was not all. They obtained at the same time, what in our opinion, is infinitely more valuable than any arithmetical attainment,—that general energy and activity of mind which we find of so much service in the introduction of all our subsequent improvements, and which we doubt not has in a great measure formed the character of many of them for life." "Those who have not had an opportunity of witnessing the perfomance of our children in mental arithmetic, may form some estimate of it, when they are told, that on more than one occasion, when three or four of our best arithmeticians were employed to answer one question in every page of the '*Ready Reckoner*', and selected from every variety of column in that page, (that is to say, the first question being 13 yards at a farthing, the second 54, at a half-penny,

the third 95, at three-farthings, and so on to the last, being perhaps 10,000 at 19s. 6d.) the whole questions, being 147 in number, were answered *seriatim* within 20 minutes, including the time taken by ourselves in announcing the questions. Each boy was, of course, according to custom, allowed to take the method he found most easy for himself. We afterwards put the mental arithmetic in a more systematic train, commencing simultaneously with the State-arithmetic; which improvement has been found of the greatest advantage, and has clearly evinced that, though in the acquisition of this, as of everything else, there is a variety of aptitude in children, all may arrive at it to an extent which could not naturally be foreseen, and has been found highly beneficial."

In Prussia.

Mr. Mann says,—referring to the Prussian Schools, "I shall never forget the impression which the recitation of a higher class of girls produced upon my mind. It lasted an hour. Neither Teacher nor pupil had book or slate. Questions and answers were extemporaneous. They consisted of problems in vulgar fractions, simple and compound; in the rule of three, practice, interest, discount, &c., &c. A few of the first were simple, but they soon increased in complication and difficulty, and in the amount of the sums managed, until I could hardly credit the report of my own senses—so difficult were the questions, and so prompt and accurate were the replies.—A great many of the exercises consisted in reducing the coins of one State into those of another. In Germany there are almost as many different currencies as there are States; and the expression of the value of one coin in other denominations, is a very common exercise.

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Prussian and American method compared.

"It struck me that the main differences between their mode of teaching arithmetic and ours, consist in their beginning earlier, continuing the practice in the elements much longer, requiring a more thorough analysis of all questions, and in not separating the process or rules so much as we do from each other. The pupils proceed less by rule, more by an understanding of the subject. It often happens to our children, that while engaged in one rule, they forget a preceding. Hence many of our best Teachers have frequent reviews. But there, as I stated above, the youngest classes of children were taught addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, promiscuously, in the same lessons. And so it was in the later stages. The mind was constantly carried along, and the practice enlarged in more than one direction. It is the difference which results from teaching in the one case from a book, and in the other from the head. In the latter case the Teacher sees what each pupil most needs; and if he finds one halting or failing in a particular class of questions, plies him with questions of that kind until his deficiencies are supplied.

"In Algebra, Trigonometry, Surveying, Geometry, &c., I invariably saw the Teacher standing before the black-board, drawing the diagrams, and explaining all the relations between their several parts, while the pupils, in their seats, having a pen and a small manuscript-book, copied the figures and took down brief heads of the solution; and at the next recitation they were required to go to the black-board, draw the figures, and solve the problems themselves. How different this mode of learning a lesson from that of holding the text-book in the left hand, while

the forefinger of the right carefully follows the printed demonstration, under penalty, should the place be lost, of being obliged to recommence the solution."

Book-Keeping.

I cannot omit observing in this place, that the great practical end of studying arithmetic in the Common Schools, is the knowledge of *accounts*, and that this end should be had in view not only in the mode of teaching, but in the application of it. The knowledge of accounts is scarcely less necessarry for the mechanic, and the farmer, than for the tradesman or merchant. Every person, male or female, should be taught to keep personal accounts, and an account of the expenses of a family; the future farmer should be taught to keep accounts of a garden, particular field or crop, as well as of his whole operations; the intended mechanic should be taught to keep an account of the expenses and income of his shop or trade; and the contemplated merchant or trader should be taught book-keeping by double entry. Personal accounts may be taught to a whole School on the black-board. This neglected branch of Common School instruction is of the greatest importance to an agricultural population, as it is of course essential to a commercial community.

Farmers' Accounts.

On visiting the celebrated Agricultural School of the philanthropist De Fellenberg,—a few miles from Berne, in Switzerland,—I found that every pupil was required to keep an account of his work, receipts, and expenses,—balancing and posting it at the end of each week,—the Superintendent keeping a similar account of the affairs of the whole establishment, the expenses of cultivation, and even the products of each field. A part of every Saturday was devoted to teaching book-keeping, and to an examination of all the accounts and the manner of keeping them. The

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head of that famous establishment expressed his conviction, that he considered the habit of keeping accounts, punctually, minutely, and correctly, to be the primary element of a farmer's prosperity,—conducive alike to economy and industry, prudence and correctness in his plans, labours and dealings. He assured me, that to no part of the instruction of his agricultural pupils did he attach more importance than to that of teaching them a thorough system of keeping *farming accounts;* and he even stated, that he should hope for little success from everything else which he might teach, if they should neglect to keep regular accounts. He could show from the books, not only what related to every inmate of the establishment, and its general transactions, but the expense and profit of every kind of grain grown and stock raised on the farm, and that in the minutest detail. I doubt not but such a system of book-keeping would be a source of profit, as well as of instruction and pleasure to every farmer who might adopt it. Among the School-books published by the Irish National Board, there is a convenient elementary treatise on Book-keeping, with a section specially devoted to *Farming accounts.*

Such are the observations which I have thought proper to submit on the three cardinal subjects of Common School instruction,—Reading (including Spelling,) Writing and Arithmetic.

Why these subjects have been treated at so great length.

Without entering into minute details or attempting to lay down rules as to methods of teaching them, I have dwelt longer on these subjects on account of their surpassing importance,—constituting as they do, in a great degree, the roots of the tree of knowledge and the primary elements of intellectual power,—involving so deeply the interests and character of every

child in the land. The great object of our Common Schools is to teach the whole population how to read, to write and to calculate,—to make a good reader, writer and calculator of every boy and girl in Canada; and the other studies in the elementary Schools are important, as they teach how to employ these arts upon proper principles and in the most useful manner. Reading, Writing, and calculation are *practical arts*,—not so much knowledge as *skill* by which the practical resources of the mind, and the means of acquiring knowledge are indefinitely multiplied.—But the preceding observations,—brief and general as they necessarily are,—sufficiently show how much even of general useful knowledge may be imparted in the judicious and intelligent teaching of these three fundamental arts of social life. To teach these thoroughly is the chief object of the Common Schools, and should be the ambition and effort of every Teacher. Better to teach a few things well than to skim superficially over all the sciences. A popular writer quaintly remarks, that "teaching a pupil to read, before he enters upon the active business of life, is like giving a new settler an axe, as he goes to seek his new home in the forest. Teaching him a lesson in history is, on the other hand, only cutting down a tree or two for him A knowledge of natural history is like a few bushels of grain, gratuitously placed in his barn, but the art of ready reckoning is the plough, which will remain by him for years, and help to draw out from the soil an annual treasure."

There are, however, other subjects required to be taught in the Common Schools, and only second in importance to the three above mentioned.

Among the most conspicuous of these are Grammar and Geography,—the one acquainting us with the

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language we speak, the other exhibiting to us the world we inhabit. In many of our Common Schools they are not taught, at all; in others, very imperfectly; in very few, well.

5. The practical grammar of our language should be taught in every School, every day, and to every pupil, both by the example and corrections of the Teacher. Language existed before Grammar.—Language is not founded on rules of grammar, but the rules are founded on the usages of language.—

Grammar.

Many persons both speak and write correctly who have never studied a grammar, except that of living examples and of good authors. The rules of grammar will never make correct speakers or writers, without the *practice* of writing and speaking correctly.

How taught practically in the Prussian Schools.

It is thus practically taught in all good Schools; it is thus taught in all the elementary Schools of Germany. A recent traveller says: "The Prussian Teachers, by their constant habit of conversing with their pupils; by requiring a complete answer to be given to every question; by never allowing a mistake in termination, or in the collocation of words or clauses, to pass uncorrected, nor the sentence, as corrected to pass unrepeated; by requiring the poetry of the reading lessons to be changed into oral or written prose, and the prose to be paraphrased or expressed in different words; and by exacting a general account or summary of the reading lessons, are,—as we may almost literally say,—constantly teaching grammar, or as they more comprehensively call it—the German language. It is easy to see that composition is included under this head,—the writing of regular 'essays' or 'themes' being only a later exercise."

How taught theoretically.

But grammar is taught theoretically as well as practically in the Prussian Schools. Another late traveller in Prussia thus describes the manner of teaching the different parts of Speech: "Grammar is taught directly and scientifically, yet by no means in a dry and technical manner. On the contrary, technical terms are carefully avoided, till the child has become familiar with the nature and use of the things designated by them, and he is able to use them as the names of ideas which have a definite existence in his mind, and not as awful sounds, dimly shadowing forth some mysteries of science into which he has no power to penetrate.

"The first object is to illustrate the different parts of speech, such as the noun, the verb, the adjective, the adverb; and this is done by engaging the pupil in conversation, and leading him to form sentences in which the particular part of speech to be learned shall be the most important word, and directing his attention to the nature and use of the word, in the place where he uses it. For example, let us suppose the nature and use of the adverb are to be taught. The Teacher writes upon the black-board the words, 'here' 'there' 'near,' &c. He then says, 'Children, we are all together in this room, by which of the words on the black-board can you express this?'—Children. 'We are all *here*.' Teacher. 'Now look out of the window and see the Church; what can you say of the Church with the second word on the black-board?—Children. 'The Church is *there*.'—Teacher. 'The distance between us and the Church is not great; how will you express this by a word on the black-board?'—Children. 'The Church is *near*.' The fact that these words express the same sort of relations is then explained, and, accordingly,

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"The variations of these words are next explained. Teacher. 'Children, you say the Church is near, but there is a shop between us and the Church; what will you say of the shop?'—Children. 'The shop is *nearer*.' Teacher. 'But there is a fence between us and the shop. Now when you think of the distance between us, the shop, and the fence, what will you say of the fence?'—Children. 'The fence is *nearest*.' So of other adverbs. 'The lark sings *well*. Compare the singing of the lark with that of the canary bird. Compare the singing of the nightingale with that of the canary bird.' After all the different sorts of adverbs and their variations have in this way been illustrated, and the pupils understand that all words of this kind are called *adverbs*, the definition of the adverb is given as it stands in the grammar, and the book is put into their hands to study the chapter on this topic. In this way the pupil understands what he is doing at every step of his progress, and his memory is never burthened with mere names, to which he can attach no definite meaning."*

Different modes of teaching English Grammar and their results.

The grammar of no language is perhaps shorter or more simple than that of the English language. Scarcely any branch of knowledge is more easily acquired; yet none is rendered more tedious and difficult by the manner in which it is too generally taught. I have seen children nine years of age, after only a few months instruction, able, without hesitation, to analyze difficult sentences, and to correct those that were ungrammatical—giving the reason in every instance; and I have seen others approaching to man-

* Professor Stowe's *Report on Elementary Public Instruction*, pp. 44, 45.

hood who had studied grammar for years, and yet could not analyze a single sentence, or parse it correctly. In some cases I have seen persons who could fluently recite the *definitions* and *rules* in the *words of the grammar*, but who were ignorant of the *principles* of the language. The difference in these cases was not in the capacity of the pupils, but in the manner of teaching. The one pursued the simple order of nature; the other adhered to the letter of the book. The one taught the nature of things, deducing the definitions and rules as the result of the import and relations of the words employed; the other taught the definitions and rules as the laws by which words are governed. The one taught the principles and even subtleties of the language through the medium of the understanding; the other burdened the memory, but never reached the understanding. In the one case the pupil was delighted and instructed at every step, as one of a new discovery; in the other case, the progress was one of accumulated weariness and disgust.

Improvement in the modes of teaching Grammar.

In no department of elementary instruction has a greater change for the better taken place in the best Schools in Great Britain and Ireland, than in the method of teaching English Grammar. It has become a rational and intellectual exercise; and experience has shewn that the acquisition,—at least in its fundamental principles and general rules,—is as easy and interesting as it is important and useful. Though serious complaint is still made in the principal School publications in the United States of the prevalence of the dry, *memoriter* and useless system of teaching grammar, yet, there also, there are some pleasing indications of improvement. Few will question the correctness of the following remarks on this im-

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portant subject; "In Germany (says Mr. Mann of Boston) I heard very little of the ding-dong and recitative of gender, number and case, of government and agreement, which make up so great a portion of grammatical exercises in our Schools; and which the pupils are often required to repeat until they really lose all sense of the original use of the terms they use. Of what service is it for children to reiterate and reassert fifty times in a single recitation, the gender and number of nouns, about which they never made a mistake even before a grammar book was put into their hands? If the object of grammar is to teach children to speak and write their native language with propriety, then they should be practised upon expressing their own ideas with elegance, distinctness and force. For this purpose, their common every-day phraseology is to be attended to. As their speech becomes more copious, they should be led to recognize those slight shades of distinction which exist between words almost synonymous; to discriminate between the literal and the figurative, and to frame sentences in which the main idea shall be brought out conspicuously and prominently, while all the subordinate ones, mere matters of circumstance or qualification, shall occupy humbler or more retired positions. Grammar should be taught in such a way as to lead out into rhetoric as it regards the form of expression, and into logic as it regards the sequence and coherency of the thoughts. If this is so, then no person is competent to teach grammar, who is not familiar at least with the leading principles of rhetoric and logic."

Qualifications requisite for teaching Grammar.

It is not, however, to be expected that Teachers of our elementary Schools will be philologists; or that they will have occasion or opportunity to enter into

those subtleties in the science of language which have perplexed philosophers themselves. Like most other sciences, the elements of grammar and the practical uses of it, are easily comprehended; but the philosophy and refinements of it belong to the higher departments of learning and to matured intellects.

But in respect to common School Teachers, and to their teaching, I must observe, in the appropriate language of the *Fireside Friend:* "In order to be a grammarian, it is not sufficient that you can parse sentences, in that kind of parrot-like manner, which is acquired by those who study without much thought; you must be able to perceive the meaning of an author, the connection between the words of a sentence, however distant, and to supply words, in elliptical cases. Some of the English poets are peculiar, for the great use of ellipses; some, especially, in the expression of sudden passion, leaving not one word merely, but several, to be supplied by the reader. While employed in this study, you are giving exercise to your intellectual powers, invigorating them for new labours, and at the same time are gaining knowledge; which will be called into use with every sentence you speak or write. It is very important that those who are preparing themselves for Teachers, should obtain a thorough knowledge of English Grammar. In correcting inaccuracies, in spoken and written language, a Teacher should not only be able to point out defects, but the rules which are violated."

Mode of teaching Grammar in the Edinburgh Sessional School.

I will conclude my remarks on this subject with Mr. Wood's account of the mode of teaching the elements of grammar in the Edinburgh Sessional School:

"While we saw the importance of introducing a knowledge of grammar to a certain extent into our School, we perceived at the same time the necessity

PART I. of securing the attention of the pupils here, as in every other department of their education, far more to its principles, and their mode of application, than to teaze them with any servile repetition of its rules. At first we conceived that it would be sufficient for our purpose, to make them acquainted merely with some of its leading principles, and that this might effectually be done by an inductive method, that is to say, by illustration from the passages which they happened to read. If this method should succeed, the Institution would be saved the expense of furnishing the pupils with grammars; while they, on the other hand, would be relieved from the irksomeness of prescribed and dry tasks, and have full time left them at home for the gratification of that taste for useful reading, which had now manifested itself among them. It had the advantage also of being in accordance with all the rest of our system. The experiment accordingly was tried, and succeeded so far beyond our expectation, that we, in a very short time, made the children in this manner acquainted not only with the fundamental principles, (which was all we orinally intended) but with all the principles and even subtleties of the grammar of our language; so that Teachers, by no means friendly to the rest of our system, have been heard most candidly to acknowledge, that in acquaintance with grammar, they have never seen our pupils surpassed by any children of their years.

"As soon as we had ascertained by experience the practicability of the method, we began to put it in a more systematic form. At first the grammar, like most of our other improvements at their introduction, was confined exclusively to the highest class. Afterwards, the method was rendered more progressive,

and extended by degrees so low as the eighth class. In the commencement, nothing more is done than explaining the nature of a noun, and calling upon the pupil to pick out all the nouns, which occur in any passage he has been reading. He is next taught to distinguish their genders and numbers; but cases are reserved, till he has learnt the verb and preposition, and can thus be rendered acquainted with their object and use. If the technical names of *singular* and *plural*, &c., at first puzzle him, he is still made acquainted with the grammatical distinction, by varying the form of the question. Then in place of asking the *number* of the word *boys*, we may ask why it is boys, and not boy; and, on being told that it is because there are more than one, we may then, till the word becomes familiar, tell him that this is called *plural*. As soon as he can distinguish nouns tolerably well, the pupil is next instructed in the nature of *articles*, and called upon to illustrate what he has been taught, by its application to the passage before him. He is next in a similar manner taught, by means of examining the nature of *adjectives*, their application and their modes of comparison. Then, in like manner, *pronouns*, and afterwards *verbs*; leading him gradually by examples to understand their differences in point of *mood*, *time*, *number* and *person*. Then *prepositions*; after which the distinctions of *cases* in nouns are explained. Then *adverbs*, with the distinction between them and adjectives. Then *conjunctions*, and lastly *interjections*." PART I.

6. "*Geography*," said the great Burke, "though an earthly subject, is a heavenly study." Yet it is only within the last few years that it has been introduced to any considerable extent into the elementary Schools, or been made other than a fruitless drudgery to the pupils. The face of nature has been concealed Geography.

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from them; and without even a map, they have been sent to the cheerless catalogue of hard names to learn the features of the globe. As if this were not enough, the order of nature has been inverted. Instead of proceeding from the easy to the difficult, from the known to the unknown; pupils have been, at the outset, introduced to the elements of astronomy,—the mathematics of geography,—as a preliminary step to learning the place of their abode. Some of the Geographies which are still used in many Schools are constructed upon this principle.*

* Some American writers of elementary School Geographies have gone to the opposite extreme. The author of the *Teacher Taught* says, "Most of the text books now used make this study too easy. It seems as if the authors of them did not intend to exercise any faculty of the child's mind save the memory. The object of teaching the child is not merely to impart knowledge; education does not consist in distending and cramming the memory, but in developing every faculty and especially reason, whose 'comparing balance' is designed by the Creator to hold the most prominent place. Geographies have become scarcely anything else but a volume of questions, to be asked by the teacher and answered by the scholar. When these can be answered fluently, the study of grography is finished. In order to enable the scholar to skim over the earth's surface with great rapidity without perplexing the Teacher, the initials to the answer to each question are given. If the plan of such a book is undeviatingly followed, the memory of the child is exercised, but reason, the noblest faculty of the soul, remains untouched."

What is thus taught and learned, is also soon forgotten. Within a few months after going through such a text book in this manner, a pupil will know very little more about geography than if he had never studied it. Travelling is doubtless the most thorough method of studying geography, but as this cannot be adopted—at least to any great extent,—the next best method is that which most nearly resembles travelling,—namely, drawing maps of the countries studied,—distinguishing their natural and political divisions, marking the courses of their rivers, sketching their mountains, determining their chief cities and towns,—delineating with greater minuteness our own and other countries with which we are most intimately connected, and which are of the greatest historical importance.

But in this, as well as the other departments of elementary instruction, nature has been allowed to suggest the method of teaching and learning; and that which was before difficult for men, is now an amusement for children; and what was formerly the laborious study of years, is now the recreation of a few months. The earliest inhabitants of the world—and the earliest geographers—did not learn the physical history of the globe by first investigating the laws of the universe,—then surveying the vast continents and oceans which cover the earth's surface,—finally the physical aspect of their own country. They advanced by a process directly the reverse. Their attention was directed first to the hills and valleys, mountains and plains, lakes and rivers, productions and climate of their native place and country,—then to those of other lands, and to the phenomena on which the theory of the solar system is founded. This natural and inductive method of studying geography is now generally admitted to be the true one; it has obtained in all the best schools in Europe, and has been adopted in many schools in the United States,—though complaints are still made by their best School writers of the prevalence there of the old system, or trifling modifications of it. In all the Normal and Model Schools that I visited in Europe, the *Map* and the *Globe* are, in the first instance, the only Geography; the pupil commences his geographical tour from the very School-house in which he is learning,—makes a map of every country and ocean over which he travels, learns much of their natural and something of their civil history as he proceeds, and is made acquainted with the principles upon which their relative extent, distances, &c., may be determined, and their peculiar phenomena ac-

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counted for,—and is at length enabled to contemplate the laws of the Universe itself. He is thus by a process of induction, led on without either burdening the memory, or fatiguing the attention, from the simplest objects of every day observation to the most interesting and instructive facts in the history of the physical, intellectual and moral world.

How Geography is taught in the Prussian Schools.

In illustration and confirmation of these remarks, I might not only quote many authorities, but detail examinations which I have had the pleasure of witnessing in several countries of Europe. But lest the most moderate description that I could give should be suspected of extravagance, I will avail myself again of the following statements by the Secretary of the Boston Board of Education: "The practice seemed to be (says Mr. Mann,) of beginning with objects perfectly familiar to the child,—the School-house with the grounds around it, the home with its yards or gardens, (which each child is taught to draw,) and the street leading from the one to the other.

"First of all, the children were initiated into the ideas of space, without which we can know no more of Geography than we can of history without ideas of time. Mr. Carl Ritter, of Berlin, probably the greatest geographer now living, expressed a decided opinion to me, that this was the true mode of beginning.

"Children, too, commence this study very early,—soon after entering School,—but no notions are given them which they are not perfectly able to comprehend, reproduce and express.

"I found Geography taught almost wholly from large maps suspended against the walls, and by delineations on the black-board. And here, the skill

of pupils and teachers in drawing did admirable service. The teacher traced the outlines of a country on the suspended map, or drew one upon the black-board, accompanying the exhibition with an oral lecture; and, at the next recitation, the pupils were expected to repeat what they had seen and heard. And, in regard to the natural divisions of the earth, or the political boundaries of countries, a pupil was not considered as having given any proof that he had a correct image in his mind, until he could go to the black-board, and reproduce it from the ends of his fingers. I witnessed no lesson unaccompanied by these tests.

"I will describe, as exactly as I am able, a lesson, which I heard given to a class a little advanced beyond the elements,—remarking that though I heard many lessons given on the same plan, none of them were signalized by the rapidity and effect of the one I am to describe. The Teacher stood by the black-board, with the chalk in his hand. After casting his eye over the class to see that all were ready, he struck at the middle of the board. With a rapidity of hand which my eye could hardly follow, he made a series of those short divergent lines or shadings, employed by map engravers to represent a chain of mountains. He had scarcely turned an angle, or shot off a spur, when the scholars began to cry out, Carpathian Mountains, Hungary; Black Forest Mountains, Wurtemburg, Giants' Mountains (Riesen Geberge), Silesia; Metallic Mountains, (Erz-Giberge), Pine Mountains, (Sichtel Giberge);—Central Mountains, (Mittel Giberge), Bohemia, &c. &c. In less than half a minute, the ridge of that grand central elevation which separates the waters that flow North-West into the German Ocean, from those that flow

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"The next moment I heard a succession of small strokes or taps, so rapid as to be almost indistinguishable, and hardly had my eye time to discern a large number of dots made along the margins of rivers, when the shout of Lintz, Vienna, Prague, Dresden, Berlin, &c., struck my ear. At this point in the exercise, the spot which had been occupied on the black-board was nearly a circle, of which the starting point or place where the Teacher first began, was the centre; but now a few additional strokes around the circumference of the incipent continent, extended the mountain ranges outwards towards the plains,—the children responding the names of the countries in which they respectively lay. With a few more strokes the rivers flowed onwards towards their several terminations, and by another succession of dots, new cities sprang up along their banks.

"By this time the children had become as much excited as though they had been present at a world making. They rose in their seats, they flung out both hands, their eyes kindled, and their voices became almost vociferous as they cried out the names of the different places, which, under the magic of the Teacher's crayon, rose into view. Within ten minutes from the commencement of the lesson, there stood

upon the black-board a beautiful map of Germany, with its mountains, principal rivers and cities, the coast of the German Ocean, of the Baltic and Black Seas; and all so accurately proportioned that I think slight errors only would have been found had it been subjected to the test of a scale of miles. A part of this time was taken up in correcting a few mistakes of the pupils; for the Teacher's mind seemed to be in his ear as well as in his hand, and notwithstanding the astonishing celerity of his movements, he detected erroneous answers, and turned round to correct them.

"Compare the effect of such a lesson as this both to the amount of knowledge communicated, and the vividness and of course permanence of the ideas obtained, with a lesson where the scholars look out a few names of places on a lifeless Atlas, but never send their imaginations abroad over the earth; and where the Teacher sits listlessly down before them to interrogate them from a book, in which all the questions are printed at full length, to supersede on his part all necessity of knowledge.

"Thoroughly and beautifully as I saw some department of Geography taught in the Common Schools of Prussia, traced out into their connections with commerce, manufactures, and history, I found but few of this class of Schools, in which *Universal* Geography could with any propriety, be considered as a part of the course. The Geography of their own country was minutely investigated. That of the western hemisphere was very little understood. But this should be said, that as far as they professed to teach, they taught thoroughly and well."

Other subjects.

There are several other subjects which come legitimately within the range of Common School Education,—which have as yet been introduced into very

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few if any of our Common Schools, but which, I conceive, ought to be taught in all the Model Schools, and to as great an extent as possible, in at least every Village Common School. Nor do I despair of seeing them occupying an important place in many of the country Schools.

Linear Drawing.

7. The first of these is, *Linear Drawing*. What has been incidentally said on this subject, when speaking of writing and geography, shows its importance, and the facility with which it may be taught and learned. It is a delightful amusement for children; it contributes to good writing; it is essential to the proper study of Geography; it is an introduction to Geometry; it quickens the important faculty of observation; it teaches the eye to judge correctly of the dimensions of magnitude, and the mind to appreciate the beauty of form,—an element of cultivated taste; it gives skill to the hand, strengthens the memory, improves invention; enables one at once to understand all drawings of tools, utensils, furniture, machinery, plans, sections, views of buildings, and the power of representing them, as well as ability to execute all the drawings of the Surveyor and Engineer. All this may be done by lines, or linear drawing.

Beyond this Common Schools cannot be expected in general to advance.

But from outlines of perspective, many pupils will doubtless be disposed and enabled to advance to lights and shades, and colours.*

Course of drawing taught in the Swiss Schools.

* Mr. Wyse, in his *Education Reform*, remarks that "at Fribourg in Switzerland, the course of drawing forms three distinct series. The first is called the *Mathematico-Mechanical*. It consists of lessons of right lines, curves, planes; then copies of the cube, prism, cone, sphere, &c, &c., finally of instruments of general use,

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How taught in the *Glasgow Training Seminary.*

Mr. David Stow, in his account of the training system established in *Glasgow Training Seminary*, observes that "Linear Drawing and Sketching is done on slates and on paper, and may occupy half an hour twice or thrice a week, in an ordinary English School. Drawing simple lines, and outlines of the forms of objects, natural and artificial, especially of buildings and articles of furniture, exercises the eye, improves the taste, and gives correctness of observation, which may, in future life, greatly aid the mechanic in his particular trade or calling. Several boys have been apprenticed to calico-printers, in consequence of their sketching powers having been developed in the Model School of the Senior Department of this Institution."

The following important facts are stated by Prosor Stowe, in his Report on Prussian Schools, to the State of Ohio Legislature, and will supersede the necessity of any further remarks from me on this subject:—

"The universal success and very beneficial results, with which the arts of drawing and designing, vocal and instrumental music, have been introduced into the Schools, was another fact peculiarly interesting to me. I asked all the Teachers with whom I con-

machines, orders of Architecture. 2nd. The *Vegetable*.—It comprises the most simple and interesting plants, either indigenous or exotic, beginning with the parts most easy to copy, and gradually advancing to the more complicated. 3rd. The *Zoological*.—It presents the animals in a series analogous to the preceding. At the bottom of the scale is the caterpillar; at the head, man; these three are subsequently combined; the caterpillar or butterfly with the flower; man with Architecture, &c.

"Accompanied with a text, they are material assistants in the study of Geography, Natural History, &c. &c.

"They pursue these three courses both after models or copies, and after nature."

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versed, whether they did not sometimes find children who were incapable of learning to draw or sing. I have had but one reply; and that was, that they found the same diversity of natural talent in regard to those, as in regard to reading, writing, and the other branches of education; *but they had never seen a child who was capable of learning to read and write, who could not be taught to sing well, and draw neatly, and that, too, without taking any time which would at all interfere with, indeed which would not actually promote his progress in other studies.* The first exercises are in drawing lines, and the most simple mathematical figures, such as the square, the cube, the triangle, the parallelogram; generally from wooden models, placed at some little distance on the shelf before the class. From this they proceed to architectural figures, such as doors, windows, columns, and façades. Then the figures of animals, such as a horse, a cow, an elephant,—first from other pictures, then from nature. A plant, a rose, or some flower is placed upon the shelf, and the class make a picture of it. From this they proceed to landscape painting, historical paintings, and the higher branches of the art, according to their time and capacity. All learn enough of drawing to use it in the common business of life, such as plotting a field, laying out a canal, or drawing a plan of a building; and many attain to a high degree of excellence.*

How taught in Prussian Schools.

Programme of the course of drawing taught in the Normal and Model Schools of the *Brit-*

* It may be worth while to add the following programme of the course of drawing taught in the *British and Foreign School Society's* Borough Road School, where great numbers of the children of the labouring classes are instructed.

"1*st.* Geometrical drawing with instruments, intended to teach the boys the construction of such problems as are most required among carpenters, masons and handicrafts-men, in general.

"2*nd.* Lineal drawing, executed by hand alone. Here two ob-

8. *Music* is another department of instruction which I think, ought to find a place in every Common School. My own inquiries in Europe have confirmed in my own mind, the correctness of the foregoing statement by Professor Stowe, that the ability to learn to sing is universal, and that teaching singing in the School facilitates rather than impedes the pupils in their other studies.

Music capacity for vocal music universal.

In answer to my inquiries, the same facts were stated to me by the Teachers of Normal and Model Schools in London, Dublin, Edinburgh and Glasgow; and in the greater part of the Elementary Schools throughout the Kingdom, vocal music forms a part of the daily exercises.

Mr. David Stow, referring to the Glasgow Seminary,—remarks, that, "As the training or natural system has been applied to every branch of education taught in the Normal Seminary, it might be supposed

jects are specially aimed at, (1) the training of the eye; and (2) the training of the hand. The first is accomplished by questions from the monitor, as to the length of lines, the size of figures, and by requiring the boys to divide lines into halves, thirds and quarters. The second is of course secured by the practice of the boy in drawing any assigned copy. The monitor is furnished with a pair of compasses and a graduated ruler, and corrects the attempts of the boys with perfect accuracy.

ish and Foreign School Society.

"*3rd.* Botanical, animal, map, and general drawing from copies and specimens.

"*4th.* Drawing from objects, with the illustration of the main principles of perspective.

"*5th.* Architectural and plan drawing, including the various parts of a common building, such as stair-cases, closets, &c., as well as the different styles and orders of architecture.

"No 1 is practised with slate and pencil, and the others, in the first instance, on the black-board with chalk, and afterwards on paper with pencil and crayon. In connection with these, and especially with Nos. 2 and 4, mensuration, and some of the simpler elements of mathematics are taught, and when known submitted to a practical application."

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that *music* would not be overlooked. We believe this Institution was the first to introduce singing, as a distinct branch of popular education, which is now becoming all but universal throughout the country.

Why taught in the Glasgow Training Seminary.

Three great objects were in view: 1st. To train the child to worship God in the family. 2nd. In the public sanctuary; and 3rdly, by furnishing the young with interesting moral songs, to displace in their social amusements many of at least a questionable character. These great objects have been fully attained by the children attending the Model Schools. Without vocal music, the initiatory or infant department would be a failure; and both in it and in the other departments it proves a powerful instrument of moral culture. It is a fact that nearly every child learns to sing. No one, we believe, is entirely destitute of the natural power, and the frequent exercise of it in the initiatory department,—the variety and the social and pleasurable feelings it engenders, certainly call up in almost all a taste for music. Music tends to refine and humanize the pupils whether in the infant or juvenile department, and we are surprised that this powerful instrument for good (as well as for evil) has been permitted so long to be unused in the public Schools."

Proceedings of the Privy Council Committee of Education.

The Committee of the Privy Council on Education in London directed, several years ago, their serious attention to this subject; they became deeply impressed with its importance as a branch of elementary education, and at length determined to introduce it into the Schools for the labouring classes. The want of a suitable method of instruction was felt as a serious impediment. Their Lordships state in their Minute (1840) on this subject, "as a preliminary to the preparation of such a method, their Lordships had directed

their Secretary to collect or procure from the various parts of Europe where music has been cultivated in the elementary Schools, the books in most general use in Normal Schools, and in the Schools of the *Communes*, and of the Towns. The manuals of local music were accordingly collected in Switzerland, Holland, the German States, Prussia, Austria and France.

"These works were carefully examined in order that their characteristic differences might be ascertained, as well as the general tendency of the methods adopted in these countries.

"The common characteristic of the works is, that they are generally formed in the synthetic order, and proceed from the simplest elements, with more or less skill, to those which are more difficult and complex. The synthetic method appeared to be developed with the greatest skill in the work published by M. Wilhem, under the sanction of the Minister of Public Instruction at Paris.

"The accounts which their Lordships received of the success of this method at Paris, induced them to direct their Secretary to procure for them the assistance of Mr. Hullah, who was known to have given much attention to the subject, and to have been already engaged in making trials of the method. They were directed to proceed to Paris to examine in detail the expedients resorted to in the practical application of this method to elementary Schools, and also to communicate with the Minister of Public Instruction, and with M. Wilhem, previously to the preparation of this method for the use of elementary Schools in England. The method of M. Wilhem has been practised many years in Paris, and has been introduced into the Normal and Elementary

Wilhem's System adopted in France.

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Schools of France under the authority of the Minister of Public Instruction. Every lesson is adapted to the capacity of children, and so arranged as to enable a monitor of ordinary skill, with the aid of previous instruction, to conduct a class through the whole course.

Anglicized and adopted in England.

"The Committee of Council on Education have charged Mr. Hullah with the duty of preparing for the use of Elementary Schools and for publication under the authority of their Lordships, a course of instruction in vocal music, founded upon and embracing all the practical points of the method of Wilhem. This method is at once simple and scientific,—it contains no new or startling theories; makes no attempt at the very questionable advantage of new musical characters; and rests its only claims to novelty upon a careful analysis of the theory and practice of vocal music, from which the arrangements of the lessons result, and which ascend from lessons of the simplest character, on matters adapted to the comprehension of a child, through a series of steps, until those subjects which it might otherwise be difficult to understand, are introduced in a natural and logical order, so as to appear as simple and easy as the earliest steps of the method. These are the characteristics of all the processes in Elementary Education which deserve the name of method. This is the characteristic to which the method of Wilhem lays claim, as well as to a few very simple and ingenious mechanical contrivances.

"Methods are, however, of little use, unless put in operation by skilful and zealous teachers; and little progress can be made in the diffusion of a knowledge of music in Elementary Schools, until the Schoolmasters and Schoolmistresses themselves possess

at least knowledge sufficient not only to second the efforts of occasional instructors, where their assistance can be obtained, but also to supply the want of that assistance wherever it is not accessible."

Such are the sentiments and proceedings of the Education Committee of Her Majesty's Privy Council on this subject.

The system of Wilhem, so tested and approved, is now used by common consent in all the Normal and Elementary Schools throughout Great Britain and Ireland.

Opinions and Practice of American Educationists in regard to music as a branch of Common School Education.

The leading educationists in the United States, following in this as well as in other respects, the example of the most enlightened nations of Europe, in their patriotic endeavours to improve their systems of public education, have strongly advocated the introduction of vocal music as a branch of Common School instruction, and music is now regularly taught in a large proportion of their Schools in the New York and New England States. The Rev. Dr. Potter, of New York, in the Prize Essay already quoted—*School and Schoolmaster*—observes, that, All men have been endowed with susceptibility to the influence of music. The child is no sooner born than the nurse begins to soothe it to repose by music. Through life music is employed to animate the depressed, to inspire the timid with courage, to lend new wings to devotion, and to give utterance to joy and sorrow. The number of schools among us, in which music is made one of the branches of elementary instruction, is already great, and is constantly increasing, and I have heard of no case in which with proper training, every child has not been found capable of learning.

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Report of the Boston School Committee.

Vocal music, as a branch of Common School Education, is thus alluded to in a late Report of the School Committee of the City of Boston: "If vocal music were generally adopted as a branch of instruction in the eighty thousand Common Schools in this country, it might be reasonably expected, that in at least two generations, we should be changed into a musical people. The great point to be considered in reference to the introduction of vocal music into popular elementary instruction, is, that thereby you set in motion a *mighty power which silently but surely in the end, will humanize, refine and elevate a whole community.* Music is one of the fine arts; it, therefore, deals with abstract beauty, and so lifts man to the source of all beauty,—from finite to infinite, and from the world of matter to the world of spirits, and to God. Whence came those traditions of revered antiquity—seditions quelled, cures wrought, fleets and armies governed by the force of song,—whence that responding of rocks, woods, and trees, to the harp of Orpheus,—whence a City's walls uprising beneath the wonder working touches of Apollo's Lyre? These, it is true, are fables; yet they shadow forth beneath the veil of allegory, a profound truth. They beautifully proclaim the mysterious union, between music as an instrument of man's civilization, and the soul of man. Prophets, and wise men, large-minded lawgivers of olden time, understood and acted on this truth. The ancient oracles were uttered in song. The laws of the Twelve Tables were put to music, and got by heart at School. Minstrel and sage are in some languages convertible terms. Music is allied to the highest sentiments of man's moral nature: love of God, love of country, love of friends. Wo to the nation in which these

sentiments are allowed to go to decay! What tongue can tell the unutterable energies that reside in those three engines—*Church music,—national airs,—and fireside melodies!*"

Beneficial effects of teaching vocal music in Common Schools.

As to the beneficial results already realized from the introduction of vocal music into Common Schools, the most ample testimony might be adduced. Two or three statements will suffice. Her Majesty's Privy Council Committee on Education, state: "In this country of late years, the importance of teaching vocal music in Elementary Schools is generally acknowledged. The important and useful influence of vocal music on the manners and habits of individuals, and on the character of communities, few will be prepared to dispute. It is, however, satisfactory to know that the degrading habits of intoxication which at one time characterized the poorer classes of Germany, are most remarkably diminished (as every traveller in Germany can testify) since the art of singing has become almost as common in that country as the power of speech,—a humanizing result attributable to the excellent Elementary Schools of so many States in Germany."

In Germany.

In Switzerland.

A recent American traveller in Switzerland, states the following interesting facts:—"We have listened to the peasant children's songs, as they went out to their morning occupations, and saw their hearts enkindled to the highest tones of music and poetry, by the rising sun, or the familiar objects of nature, each of which was made to echo some truth, or point to some duty, by an appropriate song. We have heard them sing the 'harvest hymn' as they went forth before day-light to gather the grain. We have seen them assemble in groups at night, chanting a hymn of praise for the glories of the heavens, or joining in

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some patriotic chorus, or some social melody, instead of the frivolous and corrupting conversation which so often renders such meetings the scene of evil. In addition to this, we visited communities where the youth had been trained from their childhood to exercise in vocal music, of such a character as to elevate instead of debasing the mind, and have found that it served in the same manner to cheer their social assemblies, in place of the noise of folly, or the poisoned cup of intoxication. We have seen the young men of such community assembled to the number of several hundreds, from a circuit of twenty miles; and, in place of spending a day of festivity in rioting and drunkeness, pass the whole time, with the exception of that employed in a frugal repast and social meeting, in concerts of social, moral and religious hymns, and to devote the proceeds of the exhibition to some object of benevolence.

"We could not but look at the contrast presented on similar occasions in our own country, with a blush of shame. We have visited a village whose whole moral aspect was changed in a few years by the introduction of music of this character, even among adults, and where the aged were compelled to express their astonishment at seeing the young abandon their corrupting and riotous amusements, for this delightful and improving exercise."

History.

(9.) *History* is another branch of knowledge which should be taught in every Common School.

History is in close alliance with Geography, and often forms a branch of it, under the head of Civil and Statistical Geography. An acquaintance with the surface of the globe is the preface to the study of the human nature, manners and institutions which have figured upon it. The empire of Geography is

Its order and importance.

place: that of History is time—the one fixing the scene, the other delineating the events which have marked the progress of mankind. He that knows history adds the experience of former ages to his own. He lives the life of the world. Especially he learns the origin and character of his country's laws and institutions, the sources of its prosperity, and therefore the means and duties required for the advancement of its interests. Lord Bacon has therefore well said: "Histories make men wise." But it is to be feared that the remark of the Author of the *New York District School* is too applicable to Canada; "There is scarcely a primary School where history is taught, and but few of the higher Schools make it an important study." The importance of it, however, is universally acknowledged; and it now forms a branch of instruction in the Elementary Schools of the most enlightened countries.

Remarks on teaching History.

Comparatively little of history can be expected to be taught in a Common School. The principal object should be to show how it ought to be studied, and to excite a taste and interest for the study of it. Compends, or Catechisms of History, with printed questions, are not adapted for this purpose. They are little more than dry digests of general events, which do not interest the pupil, and which he cannot appreciate; and learning the answers to the questions is a mere work of memory, without any exercise of discrimination, judgment, taste or language,—forgotten almost as soon as learned. The synthetic method of teaching is as applicable to history as to every other branch of elementary instruction. Individuals preceded nations. The picture of the former is more easily comprehended than that of the latter, and is better adapted to awaken the curiosity, and interest

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the feelings of the child. Biography should therefore form the principal topic of elementary history; and the great periods into which it is naturally and formally divided,—and which must be distinctly marked,—should be associated with the names of some distinguished individual or individuals. The life of an individual often forms the leading feature of the age in which he lived, and will form the best nucleus around which to collect in the youthful mind the events of an age or the history of a period. Both sacred and profane history abound in examples.

Though text-books are used in connexion with the study of history, the best instructors teach it without them. Their examples illustrate the following remarks of an experienced Teacher:

"History is best taught without a text-book, the Teacher himself making the whole preparation. The pupils should be furnished with maps, or a large map should be suspended before them by the side of the black-board. If the pupils have no suitable maps, and that of the Teacher be on too small a scale for exhibition to a class, he should draw on the black-board a magnified outline of the seat of the event.

"Care should be first taken to give an idea of the remoteness of the event to be described, by tracing a line on the black-board, to represent two or more years, and shewing how long it would be necessary to draw it, to represent the period which has elapsed since the event occurred.

"The date may be given on the black-board, and the place may be pointed out upon the map or mentioned, and the pupil allowed to find it for himself. The Teacher may then read, or, what is better, narrate in familiar language, and in the manner of conversation, the event, or series of events, which he

intends to make the subject of the lesson. If his pupils are beginners, he should not speak long before asking questions, as to what he has been telling. If these are made frequent, the pupil will be encouraged to give his attention to the end. The questions, Who? and Where? and What? should be asked. When the Teacher's narrative is finished, he should ask if some one will not undertake to tell the whole story in his own language. Those who have the best talent for narrative will be ready to do this, and after some little practice nearly the whole class. Or the Teacher may say, 'I wish you all to write upon your slate or paper, and bring to me to-morrow, what you can remember of the story I have just told you.' Questions should be asked as to the moral right or wrong of the characters of the actors of the events. PART I.

"Let not the Teacher be discouraged at the slow progress he seems to make. In the usual mode of teaching history, two or three hours are often spent by the pupil out of School, and half an hour or an hour at the recitation in School, upon a single lesson of six or eight pages; and, after all, very little is learned except mere facts, and these perhaps distinct and barren; while in this way, in half an hour, two or three pages at first, and afterwards five or six or even ten, will be learned; and at the same time the attention will be improved, the moral taste elevated, the power of narration exercised, and the connexion between *history, and Chronology and Geography* will be shown."*

(10.) *Natural History* is now as generally taught in European elementary Schools as Geography. Indeed, it is taught to some extent in connexion with geo- Natural History.

* *The School Master.* By the Rev. G. B. Emerson, (Boston, Mass.) pp. 481, 483.

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graphy, as well as with drawing. It imparts a knowledge of the vegetable and animal kingdoms, and in many elementary Schools forms a most entertaining and useful series of instructions, under the title of *Object Lessons;* in the teaching of which pictures of flowers, trees, birds, quadrupeds, fishes, reptiles, &c., are used. The objects of Natural History are classified, and are taught in a manner perfectly comprehensible by the youngest pupil. The child is then made acquainted with the elements of *Botany*, and *Zoology*,—studies as delightful as they are instructive to Children and young people. To know the productions of the garden, the field and the Forest,—to be made acquainted with the characteristics and habits of the different species of animals, creates and gratifies curiosity, improves the taste, and prepares the mind and heart to contemplate, admire and adore the wisdom and beneficence of the Creator.

In many Schools that I have visited, this fascinating and useful study is extended—aided by illustrations, —to the leading principles and phenomena of *Vegetable* and *Animal Physiology* on the one hand, and of *Mineralogy* and *Geology* on the other. In some instances I have seen tolerable collections of specimens, procured and presented by the pupils themselves, in different branches of Natural History, forming an interesting cabinet. Upper Canada is not barren in materials for such collections; and in connexion with each School there might be not only a School Library, but a School Museum. The acquisition of such knowledge is of great practical utility, and the collecting of such specimens would often afford salutary and agreeable recreation. It is worthy of remark, that in the Schools where the elements of Natural History are taught, one part of the exercise consists

in sketchings or outline drawings of the objects studied.

Natural Philosophy.

(11.) The elements of *Natural Philosophy* have long formed a branch of instruction in the elementary Schools in Germany; and they are now being introduced into the National elementary Schools in England. It was remarked by Lord Bacon, "that there was more true philosophy in the work-shops than in the Schools,"—the former being practical, and the latter speculative; but even the elementary Schools are now acquiring their true character of gymnasia of instruction and discipline for the arena of practical life. Man from the beginning to the end of his earthly existence, has to do with the Laws of Nature, the investigation of which is the province of Natural Philosophy.

It is, however, only the simpler and more common application of physical science to the purposes of every day life that can be expected to be taught in elementary Schools,—such as the principles of Mechanics, and the leading phenomena of Chemistry and Astronomy. The last mentioned is indeed included in the study of Geography, and has long had a place in the Common School.

Elements of Astronomy.

Descriptive Astronomy is as easily comprehended as descriptive Geography, and is not less interesting, while it more strongly impresses the imagination and expands the mind.

Elementary Chemistry.

The properties of bodies,—which are only ascertained by experiments,—are no more difficult of comprehension than their colours. The words usually employed to express them are less common, and therefore more difficult; but chemical properties themselves, are the simples of which every thing around us is composed. The exemplification of the

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more obvious of them to the youthful mind is like the discovery of new worlds, and the presentation of even a few of their infinitely varied combinations, exhibits phenomena still more wonderful. And when it is considered that chemical processes are involved in the preparation of every meal, and the baking of every loaf of bread, and in every branch of manufactures as well as in the changes of the world within, beneath, and above us, some knowledge of them must be both interesting and highly important; and they should be understood by those with whose pursuits and employments in life they are inseparably connected. To no classes of the community is this knowledge of so much practical importance as to the agriculturists, the manufacturers, and the mechanics. It should therefore be brought within their reach.

Elementary Mechanics.

The same remarks apply with equal and perhaps more obvious force, to another branch of physical science—*Mechanics*,—including the laws of motion, the mechanical powers, and the mechanical properties of fluids. Nor is the science of vision or optics, less interesting or simple in its laws and phenomena; and the instruments to which it has given birth, and the many purposes to which it is applied, are of the greatest practical utility.

In a system of practical education, then, these departments of natural philosophy ought not to be overlooked. Their value upon the three great branches of industry,—agriculture, commerce, and the mechanic arts, cannot be over-rated. They make known the sources of wealth, and the best means of attaining it; they point out surrounding dangers, and suggest the remedies against them. "The whole circle of the arts (to use the words of a practical writer,) fur-

Their use in the three great departments of human industry.

nishes illustrations of these remarks. We might begin with the preventatives against lightning, by which the shafts of heaven are averted from our dwellings; the safety lamp which enables the miner to penetrate the bowels of the earth in safety, and bring up its treasures; the compass, the life-boat, and the light-house, that guide the toil-worn sailor in safety to the destined port; the steam-engine that propels the car across the land, the steam-boat along the river or the lake, or that bears the proud ship across the ocean; and descend to the various natural and artificial powers, to the moving of machinery through all the mechanic arts, down to the manufacture of a pin —one of the most beautiful of them all—and shew the economy and simplicity by which the greatest as well as the least results are attained, as the legitimate effort of the study of the natural sciences. In fine—by the skilful application of natural powers to the mechanic arts, we are enabled to diffuse over the whole earth the productions of every part; to fill every corner of the habitable globe, with miracles of art and labour, in exchange for its peculiar productions.

"'To give the pole the produce of the sun;' to concentrate around us in our dwellings all that luxury or necessity can desire, in the apparel, the utensils, the commodities which the skill of the present or past generations have wrought, or which any clime produces."

The study of them a means of mental development and discipline for practical life.

But apart from these directly practical objects, as a means of mental discipline and developement, which is the foundation of success in life, this elementary study of nature is of great practical importance. "The objects of nature (says another writer) are pre-adapted to the developement of the intellect, as the

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"The constant habit of observing natural objects, begun in youth, will prepare the mind for observation on every other subject. The pupil will carry this habit with him into every department of knowledge, and in the common business of life. Life is so short, and so many objects press upon our attention, that any considerable progress cannot be made without this habit. They who have become distinguished in any department, have cultivated it in an eminent degree. They have derived their knowledge from every source. The most trival occurrence has been carefully noted, and hence they have been constant learners. It is this habit which distinguishes the Philosopher and the Statesman from common minds. They gather their wonderful discrimination, not from books alone, but from close observations of the actual

physical, mental and moral changes which are going on around them,—tracing the sources of human action and the operations of civil government. But the natural sciences are peculiarly fitted to cherish this habit during the whole course of education; whilst the constant practice of contemplating metaphysical subjects often destroys that balance of the reflective faculties, which is a necessary pre-requisite to success in any department, and of which learned men are so often ignorant."* PART I.

(12.) *Agriculture*—the most important department of human industry—has not as yet been introduced in any form whatever as a branch of elementary Education in our Schools. Agriculture.

The Legislature has given some pecuniary assistance, and Societies have been formed with a view to encourage experiments and promote improvements in Canadian Agriculture; but experiments without a knowledge of principles will be of little benefit; and improvements in the practice of agriculture must be very limited until the science of it is studied.

There is reason to believe that the remarks of a Boston writer are too applicable to Canada: "How many farmers in Massachusetts know anything of the nature of their soils, so as to be able to apply the proper mode of tillage? Scarcely one, perhaps a few, but the great majority know absolutely nothing scientifically about the subject. Astounding as the fact is, they do not know the names and properties of a single ingredient of the soil from which they gain all their wealth. The title which Boyle has given to one of his Essays, applies with great force to this subject, 'Of man's great ignorance of the natural things.' This I regard as the most glaring defect

* *American Institute of Instruction*, 1841.

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in our system of popular instruction, and one which demands, from the magnitude of the interests involved, the immediate and earnest attention of all the friends of education."

The agricultural pupil should be made acquainted with the different kinds of soils, and their characteristic qualities; the modes of qualifying and improving each; different kinds of manure and other improving substances; the effects of different soils on different crops; rotation of crops, and the best methods of producing and securing them; agricultural implements and the machines which have been invented to save labour; different kinds of stock, the various modes of feeding them, with the economical advantages of each; the method of keeping full and accurate accounts, so that he may be able to ascertain precisely not only his gross profits and losses, but the profit and loss in each detail of the system, and from each field of his farm. Of course specimens, models, pictures or drawings, should be used in teaching these elements of Agriculture. Lavoisier, the celebrated Chemist, (says the *Bibliotheque du Chemiste*) is a remarkable example of the advantages which may be derived from the application of science to Agriculture, even without a minute knowledge of the art of farming. By following an enlightened system, he is said to have doubled in nine years the produce in grain of his lands, whilst he quintupled the number of his flocks."

Human Physiology.

(13.) *Human Physiology* is a branch of Natural History, and, with the assistance of a few pictures, can be taught to children as easily as to their seniors.—Some knowledge of the structure of a being so, 'fearfully and wonderfully made,' as man, is not only becoming in itself, but is now admitted to be an appro-

priate subject of elementary instruction and of great practical use, as a preventative of injurious practices and exposures, and a means of health and comfort. PART I.

The constitution of the mind, as well as the structure of the body, is also considered by many educationists as coming within the limits of elementary instruction. Mental Philosophy.

As the mind is the subject on which the Teacher operates, he ought undoubtedly to be acquainted with its powers and the means of developing them, as much as a mechanic should know not only the tools he uses, but the materials on which he employs them. In childhood the child is disposed to look without on sensible objects, and is scarcely capable of looking within and analyzing its own operations. Early, however, may the child be made acquainted with the different characters and destinations of the material and immaterial parts of his nature—of the superior value of the one in comparison of the other—of the extent of his intellectual powers, and his obligations to improve and rightly employ them. And a judicious and qualified Teacher will not find it difficult ere long to present to the pupil, in a simple and practical manner, a map of his mental and moral constitution, as well as of his physical structure—his faculties of perceiving, judging, reasoning and remembering—some of the phenomena of their exercises and the methods of their cultivation; the quality of moral actions, and the proper regulation of the desires and passions. The Archbishop of Dublin has written an admirable Elementary work on the *Art of Reasoning*, which has been published by the Irish National Board, and is now used in the Irish Schools.

(14.) *Civil Government* is a branch of moral science. Every pupil should know something of the Government, and Institutions, and Laws under which he Civil Government.

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lives, and with which his rights and interests are so closely connected. Provision should be made to teach in our Common Schools an outline of the principles and constitution of our Government; the nature of our institutions; the duties which they require; the manner of fulfilling them; some notions of our Civil, and especially Criminal Code.

Political Economy.

(15.) *Political Economy* is the science of national wealth, or "the means by which the industry of man may be rendered most productive of those necessaries, comforts and enjoyments, which constitute wealth." It is therefore connected with the duties and wants of social life, and involves our relations to most of the objects of our desires and pursuits. Its elementary and fundamental principles—like those of most other sciences—are simple, and its generalizations extensive; though its depths and its details have exhausted the most profound intellects. To treat formally of production, exchange, distribution, and consumption, would exceed the province of the Common Schools and the capacity of their pupils. But the simple elements of what is comprehended under the terms, value, capital, division of labour, exchange, wages, rent, taxes, &c., may be taught with ease and advantage in every School. An excellent little book on this subject, entitled, "*Easy Lessons on money matters*," has been prepared by the Archbishop of Dublin, and sanctioned by the Irish National Board.

These are the topics which I think should be embraced in a system of Common School instruction, and for the teaching of which provision should be made. The instruction should be universal—accessible to every child in the land.

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Recapitulation and explanatory remarks.

The Christian Religion should be the basis, and all pervading principle of it. It should include Reading, Writing, Drawing, Arithmetic, the English language, Music, Geography, Elements of General History, of Natural History, of Physiology, and Mental Philosophy, of Chemistry, Natural Philosophy, Agriculture, Civil Government, and Political Economy. The mother tongue alone is taught. Every topic is *practical*—connected with the objects, duties, relations and interests of common life. The object of education is to prepare men for their duties, and the preparation and disciplining of the mind for the performance of them. What the child needs in the world he should doubtless be taught in the School. On this subject we should judge, not by what has been, or is, but by what ought to be and what must be, if we are not to be distanced by other countries in the race of civilization.

On several of the foregoing topics I have dwelt at some length. I have done so in respect to Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, Geography and History, with a view of correcting erroneous and pernicious modes of teaching them; and in respect to Drawing and Music, in order to show the utility and importance of introducing them universally into the Common Schools as soon as possible. The prominence which has been given to the subject of religion requires no further explanation.

The summary statement of the other subjects referred to, has appeared to me sufficient, without any argumentation, to evince their vast importance, and secure to them proper attention in a system of public instruction. It is not supposed that they will all be taught formally, and separately, in every or in any elementary School; but that the simple and essential

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elements of them should be taught substantially—being distinctly and practically understood by the Teacher. In the County Model Schools these subjects may be expected to be taught more formally and extensively than in the Elementary Schools; while in the higher Seminaries they should of course receive a liberal developement, in connexion with other departments of a liberal education.

Objection as to the comprehensiveness of this course of instruction answered.

The only objection which I can conceive may be made to the preceding view of a system of Common School Instruction is, that it is too extensive and therefore chimerical. To this objection I answer:

1st. All the subjects enumerated are connected with the pursuits and well-being of the community, and should therefore be made accessible to them in the Common Schools. If the higher classes are to be provided by public endowments with the means of a University Education; the common people,—the bone and sinew of the country, the source of its wealth and strength—should be provided by the State with the means of a Common School Education.

2ndly. The apparatus and machinery necessary to teach all the subjects mentioned, are surprizingly simple and inexpensive; and by means of properly qualified Teachers, and judicious modes of teaching, every one of those subjects may be taught in little more time than is now wasted in imperfectly learning in many instances next to nothing at all.

3rdly. All the subjects above enumerated, have been and are taught in the Elementary Schools of other countries—in the mountains and valleys of Switzerland—in the interior, and not fertile and wealthy countries of Germany—in many parts of France—and in many of the Schools of Great Britain and Ireland; and in a considerable number of Schools in the Eastern and Middle States of America.

What has been done, and is doing in other countries in respect to Elementary Instruction may and ought to be done in Canada.* Intellect is not wanting, means are not wanting; the wants of the people at large are commensurate with the subjects enumerated; they ought to be supplied. They are nearly all anticipated in the series of School-books published under the direction of the National Board of Education in Ireland.

Conclusion of the *First Part.*

I will therefore sum up and conclude this part of my Report in the appropriate and nervous language of the London Westminster Review:—"The education required for the people is that which will give

The same objection answered by an American writer.

*Professor Stowe—after describing the subjects taught in the Elementary Schools of Prussia, and recommending a similar course of instruction to the consideration of the Ohio State Legislature, thus answers the objection to its comprehensiveness:—"But perhaps some will be ready to say, the scheme is indeed an excellent one, provided only it were practicable; but the idea of introducing so extensive and complete a course of study into our Common Schools is entirely visionary, and can never be realized. I answer, it is no theory which I have been exhibiting, but a matter of fact, a copy of actual practice. The above system is no visionary scheme, emanating from the closet of a recluse, but a sketch of the course of instruction now actually pursued by thousands of Schoolmasters, in the best District Schools that have ever been organized. It can be done; for it has deen done,—it is now done; and it ought to be done. If it can be done in Europe, I believe it can be done in the United States; if it can be done in Prussia, I know it can be done in Ohio. The people have but to say the word, and provide the means, and the thing is accomplished; for the word of the people here is even more powerful than the word of the King there; and the means of the people here are altogether more abundant for such an object than the means of the Sovereign there. Shall this object, then, so desirable in itself, so entirely practicable, so easily within our reach, fail of accomplishment? For the honour and welfare of our State, for the safety of our whole nation, I trust it will not fail; but that we shall soon witness, in this commonwealth, the introduction of a system of Common School instruction, fully adequate to all the wants of our population."

PART I. them the full command of every faculty, both of mind and of body; which will call into play their powers of observation, and reflection; which will make thinking and reasonable beings of the mere creatures of impulse, prejudice and passion; that which in a *moral* sense will give them objects of pursuits and habits of conduct favourable to their own happiness, and to that of the community of which they will form a part; which, by multiplying the means of rational and intellectual enjoyment, will diminish the temptations of vice and sensuality; which, in the social relations of life, and as connected with objects of Legislation, will teach them the identity of the individual with the general interest; that which, in the physical sciences,—especially those of chemistry and mechanics,—will make them masters of the secrets of nature, and give them powers which even now tend to elevate the moderns to a higher rank than that of the demi-gods of antiquity. All this, and more, should be embraced in that scheme of education which would be worthy of statesmen to give, or of a great nation to receive; and the time is near at hand when the attainment of an object thus comprehensive in its character, and leading to results, the practical benefits of which it is impossible for even the imagination to exaggerate, will not be considered a Utopian scheme."

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PART II.

Machinery of a system of public Instruction.

Having explained the nature of the Education which I think should be given in an efficient system of Common School Instruction, the extent to which it ought to be diffused, and the principles upon which it should be founded; I now proceed to consider the *machinery* necessary to establish and perpetuate such a system. This will be most conveniently presented under the several heads of Schools, Teachers, Text-books, Controul and Inspection, and Individual efforts.

Schools.

1st. Schools: Of these there should be a gradation; and to supply them with proper Teachers, Normal School training is requisite.

Gradation or system of schools illustrated by a brief account of those of France and Prussia.

As to the gradation of Schools, the outline is partially drawn in the Statutes which provide for the establishment of Elementary, Model, Grammar Schools, and Colleges. A Normal School is required, as well as the adaptation of the Schools already established for specific and appropriate purposes.

To illustrate what I would respectfully submit on this point, I will briefly advert to the gradation of Schools existing in France and Prussia.

I shall not burden this Report with any account of them, but merely allude to them so far as may be useful to my present purpose. In both these great

PART II. Countries, Public Instruction is substantially divided into three departments,—Primary, Secondary, Superiour.

Divided into three departments.

Classification.

Primary Instruction includes the Elementary and Normal Schools. Secondary Instruction in Prussia includes the Real and Trade Schools, and the Gymnasia; in France it includes the Communal, and Royal Colleges, Industrial and Polytechnic Schools and Normal Semenaries, to prepare Teachers for the Colleges. Superior Instruction includes the Universities in Prussia, and the Academies in France, together with a Normal School for the training of Professors, and to which none but those who have taken a degree in Letters or Science are admitted.

Division of labour.

The Courses of Instruction in each of these classes of Institutions is prescribed by law, as also the qualifications for the admission of pupils or students.—There is therefore a systematic and complete division of labour. Each School has its own province; there are no two classes of Schools supported by the Government teachtng one and the same thing, or the same class of pupils. This is economy both in regard to labour and pecuniary expenditure.

What taught in the Primary Schools of France.

In France, Primary Schools are of two classes,—Primary Elementary, and Primary Superior. The former comprehends moral and religious instruction, reading, writing, elements of the mother tongue, arithmetic, and the legal system of weights and measures. The latter comprehends, in addition to a continuation of the subjects taught in the former, the elements of geometry and its common applications, particularly to linear drawing and land measurement, elements of the physical sciences and natural history applicable to the uses of life, singing, the elements of geography and history, and especially of the Geography and history of France.

This two-fold division of primary instruction in Prussia is included under the heads of Primary and Middle Burgher Schools,—the term burgher signifying a citizen who pays taxes. The same subjects are taught in the Primary Schools of Prussia which are taught in those of France, but more extensively and thoroughly. PART II. In Prussia.

In the elementary Schools of both countries small cabinets of mineralogy and natural history are common; and black-boards, maps, globes, models and engravings are universally used, though not in all cases, of course, to the same extent. Cabinets and Apparatus.

In Prussia, however, the system is so complete, practically as well as theoretically, and all the Teachers being trained up to the same standard and after the same methods, the country village Primary Schools are little if at all inferiour to those of the cities. In France the system is comparatively new, having received its principal developement since 1830. Primary instruction more equal and thorough in Prussia than in France.

In the Secondary Department of Public Instruction in Prussia we have the Higher Burgher Schools, the Real and Trade Schools, and the Gymnasia. The Higher Burgher Schools teach the elements of the ancient and modern languages, mathematics, preparatory to the introduction of the pupils in the Gymnasia, where they are prepared for the University,—which is not merely literary as in England and America, but *professional*,—where every student enters *one of the Faculties* and studies his *profession*. Secondary or grammar School Instruction. Difference between the Continental and English or American Universities.

In the higher Burgher Schools, the shop-keepers, &c., in large cities usually finish their education,—adding an acquaintance with French, sometimes English, and some knowledge of the mathematics, to that of the common branches of education. Here also pupils prepare for the Trade Schools. The higher Who taught in the Secondary Schools.

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Burgher Schools are therefore, the connecting link between the Primary and Secondary Schools in Prussia. It will be seen also, that the Higher Burgher Schools include three classes of pupils—those who go from thence into the shop, counting house,—&c.,—those who proceed to the gymnasia with a view of entering the University,—and those who go from thence into the Real or Trade Schools, with the view of becoming architects, engineers, manufacturers, or of preparing themselves for the different branches of Commerce.

Three classes of pupils.

Real Schools received their peculiar designation, from professing to teach *realities* instead of words—the practical sciences instead of dead languages. The Trade Schools are the highest class of Real Schools established in the principal Cities of Prussia, and analagous to the great Polytechnic Schools of Vienna and Paris, though on a less magnificent scale. The Industrial and Polytechnic Schools of France are the counterpart of the Real and Trade Schools of Prussia.

Real and Trade Schools.

A detailed account of these invaluable institutions and their influence upon the social and public interests of society, as connected with all kinds of manufactures, buildings, roads, railways, and other internal improvements, would be extremely interesting, but does not fall within the prescribed limits of this Report.

The introduction of Courses for Civil Engineers, into the University of Durham, and into the King's and University Colleges of the London University, and also into the Dublin University, is a commencement of the same description of Schools by Government in Great Britain and Ireland.

Beginning to be introduced into the English system of instruction.

To the Superior, or University Institutions of Prussia and France, I need not further allude; I pass unnoticed various ecclesiastical, private, and partially public establishments, as well as Schools of the Fine Arts, Sciences, &c.

Universities &c. not noticed.

It is thus that in those countries an appropriate education for the commercial, manufacturing, and mechanical classes of the community is provided, as well as for the labouring and professional classes.

An appropriate Education thus provided for all classes.

In many of the Schools, lessons and exercises are given in agriculture; and this important branch of instruction is receiving increased attention, especially in France and England. The Agricultural Institute, and Model Farm, connected with the Dublin National Normal School, is an admirable establishment; and when I visited it, in November last, the master (a scientific and practical farmer,) was preparing a book on the subject of agriculture for the use of Schools, to be published under the direction of the National Board, as one of their excellent series of School Books.*

Agriculture taught.

Now, in the application of the foregoing remarks to this Province, in illustration of what I mean by the gradation of Schools, and the importance of it, I would observe that our Common Schools should answer to the Primary Schools of France and Prussia; that our District Model Schools should be made our country's Industrial, or Real or Trade Schools; that our District Grammar Schools should be made to occupy the position and fulfil the functions of the French Communal and Royal Colleges, and the Prussian Higher

Application of the foregoing remarks to a gradation or System of Schools in Canada.

* The Book referred to has since been published, and sanctioned as one of the School Books of the Irish National Board.

PART II. Burgher Schools and Gymnasia*:- a Provincial University or Universities completing the series. In the course of a few years, the population of the principal, if not all the Districts might each be sufficiently large to sustain and require three Model or Real Schools, instead of one; when another division of labour could be advantageously introduced—providing one School for the instruction of intended mechanics—a second for agricultural pupils—a third for those who might be preparing to become manufacturers and merchants.

Connexion and completeness of the System.

Under this view the same principles and spirit would pervade the entire system, from the Primary Schools up to the University; the basis of education in the Elementary Schools would be the same for the whole community—at least so far as public or governmental provisions and regulations are concerned—not interfering with private Schools or taking them into the account; but as soon as the pupils would advance to the limits of the instruction provided for all, then those whose parents or guardians could no longer dispense with their services, would enter life with a sound elementary education; those whose parents might be able and disposed would proceed, some to the Real School to prepare for the business of a farmer, an architect, an engineer, a manufacturer, or mechanic, and others to the Grammar School to prepare for the University, and the Profession.

Division of Labour —its importance and advantage.

In the carrying out and completion of such a system, the courses of instruction in each class of Schools would be prescribed, as also the qualifications for ad-

* The University Bills introduced into the Provincial Legislature, July, 1847, propose to unite the District Grammar and Agricultural Schools under one management.

mission into each of them, above the Primary Schools; each School would occupy its appropriate place, and each Teacher would have his appropriate work; and no one man in one and the same School, and on one and the same day, would be found making the absurd and abortive attempts of teaching the a, b, c's, reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, (in all their gradations,) together with Latin, Greek, and mathematics.

I think it is true in the business of teaching, as well as in every other department of human industry, that where there is a suitable division of labour, each labourer is more likely to become more thoroughly master of his work, and imbued with the spirit of it, than where his time and attention and energies are divided among a nameless variety of objects; and as the example of England may be appealed to in proof of the almost miracles which may be performed in regard both to the amount and qualities of manufactures, by a skilful division and application of labour, so may the examples of other countries of Europe be adduced in illustration of what may be achieved as to both the cheapness, the thoroughness, the various practical character, and the general diffusion of education, by a proper classification of Schools and Teachers, their appropriate training and selection by competition, together with an efficient system of inspection over every class of Schools,—the latter being the chief instrument of the wonderful improvement and success in the Holland system of Public Instruction.

Time necessary for the complete developement of such a

The full developement of such a system of Schools, is not the work of a day; but I hope the day is not distant when its essential features will be seen in our own system of public instruction, and when its un-

PART II. System of Schools.

numbered advantages will begin to be enjoyed by the Canadian people. The Schools with which this Report has immediately to do, being viewed as parts of a general system, I have considered this brief epitome and illustration of it necessary, in order to place in a proper light the mutual dependence and relations of all its parts in the gradation of public Schools.

Teachers —must be trained.

2nd. *Teachers.* There cannot be good Schools without good Teachers; nor can there be, as a general rule, good Teachers, any more than good Mechanics, or Lawyers, or Physicians, unless persons are trained for the profession. M. Guizot, the present Prime Minister of France, said, on introducing the Law of Primary Instruction to the Chamber of Deputies in 1833: "All the provisions hitherto described *would be of none effect*, if we took no pains to procure for the public School thus constituted an able Master, and worthy of the high vocation of instructing the people. It cannot be too often repeated, that *it is the Master that makes the School.* What a well-assorted union of qualities is required to constitute a good Master! A good Master ought to be a man who knows much more than he is called upon to teach, that he may teach with intelligence and with taste; who is to live in an humble sphere, and yet have a noble and elevated spirit; that he may preserve that dignity of mind and of deportment, without which he will never obtain the respect and confidence of families; who possesses a rare mixture of gentleness and firmness; for, inferior though he be, in station, to many individuals in the *Communes*, he ought to be the obsequious servant of none; a man not ignorant of his rights, but thinking much more of his duties; shewing to all a good example and

M. Guizot on the qualifications of a good School—Master and the importance of Normal School Training.

serving to all as a counsellor; not given to change his condition, but satisfied with his situation, because it gives him the power of doing good; and who has made up his mind to live and to die in the service of Primary Instruction, which to him is the service of God and his fellow creatures. To rear up Masters approaching to such a model is a difficult task, and yet *we must succeed in it, or we have done nothing for elementary instruction.* A bad Schoolmaster, like a bad Priest, is a scourge to a *Commune;* and though we are often obliged to be contented with indifferent ones, *we must do our best to improve the average quality.*"

Normal Schools in France.

The French Government has nobly carried out these benevolent and statesmanlike suggestions, and France is rapidly approaching Prussia in the character and number of her Normal Schools, and the completeness and efficiency of her whole system of Public Instruction.

European and American opinions and examples.

It is now universally admitted that *Seminaries* for the *training of Teachers* are absolutely necessary to an efficient system of public instruction,—nay, as an integral part, as the vital principle of it; this sentiment is maintained by the Periodical Publications in England, from the great Quarterlies to the Daily Papers, by Educational Writers and Societies with one consent—is forcibly and voluminously embodied in Reports of the Privy Council Committee on Education, and is efficiently acted upon by Her Majesty's Government in each of the three Kingdoms. The same sentiment is now generally admitted in the United States; and several of them have already established Normal Schools. The excellence of the German Schools is chiefly ascribed by German Educationists to their system of training Teachers. The science of

PART II. School-teaching forms a part of their University course,—an essential part of the education of every Clergyman—as well as the work of more than eighty Normal Schools in Prussia alone.

M. Cousin on Prussian Normal Schools.

M. Cousin, in his Report on Public Instruction in Prussia, has given an interesting and elaborate account of the principal Normal Schools in that country, justly observing, in accordance with his distinguished colleague, M. Guizot, that, "the best plans of instruction cannot be executed except by the instrumentality of good Teachers; and the State has done nothing for popular education, *if it does not watch that those who devote themselves to teaching be well prepared.*"

On Normal Schools in Holland.

Three years after visiting Prussia, M. Cousin made a tour in Holland with a view of investigating the educational system of that country. The result of his further inquiries on this subject is contained in the following words: "I attach the greatest importance to Normal Primary Schools, and *I consider that all future success in the education of the people depends upon them.* In perfecting her (Holland) system of Primary Schools, Normal Schools were introduced for the better training of Masters. All the School Inspectors with whom I met in the course of my journey, assured me that they had brought about an entire change in the condition of the Schoolmaster, and that they had given the young Teachers a feeling of dignity in their profession, and had thereby introduced an improved tone and style of manners."*

Dr. Bache, on the importance of Normal School Training.

* Dr. Bache, of Philadelphia, U. S., in his able *Report on Education in Europe*, makes the following impressive remarks:

"When education is to be rapidly advanced, Seminaries for Teachers offer the means of securing this result. An eminent Teacher is selected as Director of the Seminary; and by the aid of competent assistants, and while benefiting the community by the instruction given in the Schools attached to the Seminary,

I deem it superfluous to add any laboured arguments on the necessity of a Normal School in this Province. The Legislature has virtually recognized it in several enactments; and the importance of it is generally felt and acknowledged.

Advantages arising from the regular training of Teachers.

What I have stated in the former part of this Report, on the proper subjects and modes of teaching, is sufficient to evince the need and importance of the regular training of Teachers. Some of the advantages which I anticipate from the training of Teachers are the following:

Will elevate the profession.

1st. The elevation of School-teaching into a profession. Those who are educated for it in other countries regard it as their vocation,—become attached to it as do men to other professions,—and pursue it during life. In no country where Teachers have been regularly trained, has there been any

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trains, yearly, from thirty to forty youths in the enlightened practice of his methods; these, in their turn, become Teachers of Schools, which they are fit at once to conduct, without the failures and mistakes usual with novices; for though beginners in name, they have acquired in the course of the two or three years spent at the Seminary, an experience equivalent to many years of unguided efforts. This result has been fully realized in the success of the attempts to spread the methods of Pestalozzi and others through Prussia. The plan has been adopted, and is yielding its appropriate fruits in Holland, Switzerland, France and Saxony; while in Austria, where the method of preparing Teachers by their attendance on the Primary Schools is still adhered to, the Schools are stationary, and behind those of Northern and Middle Germany.

"These Seminaries produce a strong *esprit de corps* among Teachers, which tends powerfully to interest them in their profession, to attach them to it, to elevate it in their eyes, and to stimulate them to improve constantly upon the attainments with which they may have commenced its exercise. By their aid a standard of examination in the theory and practice of instruction is furnished, which may be fairly exacted of candidates who have chosen a different way to obtain access to the profession."

PART II. complaint that they have shown an inclination to leave the profession of School-teaching for other employments. In all countries where School Teachers are regularly trained, the profession of teaching holds a high rank in public estimation, so that ignorant and worthless persons could no more find employment as Schoolmasters, than they could as Professors, or Physicians, or Lawyers. Thus the infant and youthful mind of a country, by the law of public opinion itself, is rescued from the nameless evils arising from the ignorance and pernicious examples of incompetent and immoral Teachers.

Such characters, and men who have failed in other employments, will have no encouragement to look to School-teaching as a last resort, to "get a living some-how"—as the last means of wronging their fellow-men. The all-important and noble vocation of School-teaching will be honoured; and School-Teachers will respect themselves, and be respected as other professional men.*

* The following admirable remarks on this subject are contained in the Circular Letter which M. Guizot addressed to the Primary Teachers of France, in transmitting to each of them a copy of the School Law of 1833:

M. Guizot's excellent advice to Teachers.

"Do not undervalue the importance of your Mission. Although the career of a Primary Teacher is without *éclat*—although his cares are confined to, and his days spent in, the narrow circle of a country parish, his labours interest society at large, and his profession participates in the importance and dignity of a great public duty. It is not for the sake of a parish only, nor for mere local interests, that the *law wills* that every native of France shall acquire the knowledge necessary to social and civilized life, without which human intelligence sinks into stupidity, and often into brutality. It is for the sake of the State also, and for the interests of the public at large. It is because liberty can never be certain and complete, unless among a people sufficiently enlightened to listen on every emergency to the voice of reason.

"Universal education is henceforth one of the guarantees of

2nd. The pecuniary interests of Teachers will be greatly advanced. The value of systematic School-teaching above that of the untaught and the accidental Teacher, will become apparent, and the demand for it will proportionally increase. It is true in School-teaching as in every other means of knowledge, or in any article of merchandize, that it will command the price of its estimated value. Increase its value by rendering it more attractive and useful, and the offered remuneration for it will advance in a corresponding ratio. It is true there is much popular ignorance and error existing on this subject, and many parents look more to the salary, than to the character and qualifications of the Schoolmaster. But these are exceptions rather than the general rule—and the exceptions will diminish as intelligence advances. In a large proportion of neighbourhoods there is a sufficient number of intelligent persons to secure a proper selection, who know that the labours of a good Teacher are twice the value of those of a poor one.

Will promote the pecuniary interests of Teachers.

Wherever Normal Schools have been established, it has been found thus far that the demand for regularly trained Teachers has exceeded the supply which the Normal Schools have been able to provide. It is so in the United States; it is so, up to the present time, in France; it is most pressingly and painfully so in England, Ireland and Scotland. I was told by the Head Masters of the great Normal Schools in

Demand for regularly trained Teachers.

liberty, order, and social stability. As every principle in our Government is founded on justice and reason, to diffuse education among the people, to develope their understandings, and enlighten their minds, is to strengthen our Constitutional Monarchy and secure its stability. Be penetrated then, with the importance of your Mission; let its utility be ever present to your mind in the discharge of the difficult duties which it imposes upon you."

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London, in Dublin, in Glasgow, and in Edinburgh, that such was the demand for the pupils of the Normal Schools as Teachers; that in many instances they found it impossible to retain them in the Normal School during the prescribed course—even when it was limited to a year. I doubt not but the demand in this Province for regularly trained Teachers would exceed the ability of any one Normal School to supply it:

As soon as examples of the advantages of trained Teachers can be given, I believe the ratio of demand will increase faster than that of supply, and that additional Normal Schools would soon be required in each of the most populous Districts. Teachers properly trained will receive a better remuneration, and find more permanent places of residence, than they can now, for the most part, command.

Will cause a great saving of time to pupils, and expense to parents and guardians.

3rd. There will be a great saving of time on the part of the pupils, and of expense on the part of the parent or guardian. The testimony of experience and observation on this subject is, that a trained Teacher will, as a general rule, by the superior organization and classification of his School, and by his better method and greater ability for teaching, impart at least twice as much instruction in any given time, as an untrained one. Suppose now that the salary of the former should exceed that of the latter in the same proportion, there would still remain a clear saving of half the time of the pupil, with the additional advantage of good habits, and accurate views of what he had learned. Hence, in the same period during which pupils usually attend Common Schools, they would acquire at the lowest allowed estimate, twice the amount of knowledge, and that correctly and thoroughly, which they are now imperfectly taught.

The time thus saved, and the additional knowledge and improved modes of study and habits of explanation thus acquired, are indefinitely enhanced in value from their prospective advantages, irrespective of present benefits. The Hon. Samuel Young, Superintendent of Common Schools in the State of New York, brought this subject formally under the notice of the Legislature of that State in his Reports of 1843 and 1844. In the latter he remarks:

"That a Teacher of proper capacity and acquirements, thoroughly educated in a Normal School, can communicate more learning to his pupils in six months, than is usually communicated under the old system of teaching in double that period, is fully believed. If it were affirmed that a mechanic who had been carefully instructed in the theoretical and practical departments of his trade, could do twice as much work, and do it twice as well, as one who should assume that, without previous discipline, he was possessed of the trade by instinct, the affirmation could hardly fail to be credited. And is it not equally apparent that the Educator, whose functions embrace in an eminent degree both art and science; who is required to study and to understand the different dispositions and propensities of the children committed to his care; to whose culture is confided the embryo blossoms of the mind; who is carefully to watch their daily growth, and to aid and accelerate their expansion, so that they may yield rich fruit in beauty and abundance; in short, who, in the incipient stage of its existence, is to attune the delicate and complicated chords of the human soul into the moral and intellectual harmonies of social life; is it not equally apparent that such a mission cannot be worthily performed without careful preparation."

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New York State, Normal School.

The Legislature of the State of New York has granted the sum of nine thousand dollars to establish a State Normal School at Albany, and ten thousand dollars per annum to support it,—judging, according to the recommendation of the Superintendent, that a portion of the School Fund could not be so advantageously appropriated as for the establishment and support of such an Institution.*

The characteristics of School-teaching as furnished by the examples of Teachers properly trained—of

Professor Stowe's *unique* answer to the common objection against the regular training of Teachers.

* To the objection, "We have had good Teachers without Normal Seminaries, and may have good Teachers still," Professor Stowe, of Ohio, from whose Report on Education in Germany several statements have been quoted, makes the following characteristic and graphic reply: "This is the old stereotyped objection against every attempt at improvement in every age. When the bold experiment was first made of nailing iron upon a horse's hoof, the objection was probably urged that horse-shoes were entirely unnecessary.—'We have had excellent horses without them, and shall probably continue to have them. The Greeks and Romans never used iron horse-shoes; and did they not have the best of horses, which could travel thousands of miles, and bear on their backs the conquerors of the world?' So when chimneys and windows were first introduced, the same objection would still hold good:—We have had very comfortable houses without these expensive additions. Our fathers never had them, and why should we? And at this day if we were to attempt, in certain parts of the Scottish Highlands, to introduce the practice of wearing pantaloons, we should probably be met with the same objection. We have had very good men without pantaloons, and no doubt we shall continue to have them. In fact, we seldom know the inconveniences of an old thing until we have taken a new and a better one in its stead. It is scarcely a year since the New York and European Sailing Packets were supposed to be the *ne plus ultra* of a comfortable and speedy passage across the Atlantic; but now in comparison with the newly established Steam Packets, they are justly regarded as a slow, uncertain and tedious mode of conveyance. The human race is progressive, and it often happens that the greatest conveniences of one generation, are reckoned among the clumsiest waste lumber of the next. Compare the best printing press at which Dr. Franklin ever worked, with those splendid machines which now throw off

Examples of School teaching by trained Teachers in Germany, &c.

which several instances have been given in the former part of this Report—are sufficient to evince the vast superiority of such a class of instructors, over those who pursue Scool-teaching without any previous preparation.

In the following summary and important statements on this subject, by the able Secretary of the Boston Board of Education, I fully concur, with two slight exceptions. In one instance I did see a boy in tears (in Berlin) when removed to a lower class on account of negligence in his School preparations. I did see one or two old men sitting *occasionally* in School. With these exceptions my own similar inquiries and experience of nearly three months in Southern and Western, as well as Northern and Middle Germany, and I might add a longer period of like investigations in Switzerland, Holland, Belgium, and France—enable me not only to subscribe to the statements of the Hon. Mr. Mann, but would enable me, were it necessary, to illustrate them by various details of visits to individual Schools.

"On reviewing a period of six weeks, the greater part of which I spent in visiting Schools in the North and Middle of Prussia and Saxony, (except of course the time occupied in going from place to place,) entering the Schools to hear the first recitation in the

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their thousand sheets an hour; and who will put these down by repeating, that Dr. Franklin was a very good printer, and made very good books, and became quite rich without them?" —

"I know that we have good Teachers already; and I honour the men who have made themselves good Teachers, with so little encouragement, and so little opportunity of study. But I also know that such Teachers are very few, almost none, in comparison with the public wants; and that a supply never can be expected without the increased facilities which a good Teachers' Seminary would furnish."

PART II. morning, and remaining until the last was completed at night, I call to mind three things about which I cannot be mistaken. In some of my opinions and inferences I may have erred, but of the following facts there can be no doubt:

"1st. During all this time, I never saw a Teacher, hearing a lesson of any kind, (excepting a reading or spelling lesson) with a book in his hand.

"2nd. I never saw a teacher sitting while hearing a recitation.

"3rd. Though I saw hundreds of Schools, and thousands—I think I may say, within bounds, tens of thousands of pupils,—I never saw one child undergoing punishment, or arraigned for misconduct. I never saw one child in tears from having been punished or from fear of being punished.

"During the above period, I witnessed exercises in Geography, ancient and modern, in the German language,—from the explanation of the simplest words up to *belles-lettres* disquisitions, with rules for speaking and writing; in Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, Surveying and Trigonometry; in Book-keeping, in Civil History, ancient and modern; in Natural Philosophy; In Botany and Zoology; in Mineralogy, where there were hundreds of specimens; in the endless variety of the exercises in thinking, knowledge of nature of the world, and of society; in Bible history and Bible knowledge; and, as I before said, in no one of these cases did I see a Teacher with a book in his hand. His book,—his books,—his library, was in his head. Promptly, without pause, without hesitation, from the rich resources of his own mind, he brought forth whatever the occasion demanded.

"I have said that I saw no Teacher *sitting* in his School. Aged or young, all stood. Nor did they stand apart and aloof in sullen dignity. They mingled with their pupils, passing rapidly from one side of the class to the other, animating, encouraging, sympathizing, breathing life into less active natures, assuring the timid, distributing encouragement and endearment to all.

"These incitements and endearments of the Teacher, this personal ubiquity as it were among all the pupils in the class, prevailed much more as the pupils were younger. Before the older classes the Teacher's manner became calm and didactic. The habit of attention being once formed, nothing was left for subsequent years or Teachers, but the easy task of maintaining it. Was there ever such a comment as this on the practice of having cheap Teachers because the School is young, or incompetent ones because it is backward!

"In Prussia and In Saxony as well as in Scotland, the power of commanding and retaining the attention of a class is held to be a *sine qua non* in a Teacher's qualifications. If he has not talent, skill, vivacity, or resources of anecdote, and wit sufficient to arouse and retain the attention of his pupils during the accustomed period of recitation, he is deemed to have mistaken his calling, and receives a significant hint to change his vocation.

"The third circumstance I mentioned above was, the beautiful relation of harmony and affection which subsisted between Teacher and pupils. I cannot say, that the extraordinary circumstance I have mentioned was not the result of chance or accident. Of the probability of that, others must judge. I can only say that, during all the time mentioned,

PART II. I never saw a blow struck, I never heard a sharp rebuke given, I never saw a child in tears, nor arraigned at the Teacher's bar for any alleged misconduct. On the contrary, the relation seemed to be one of duty first, and then affection, on the part of the Teacher—of affection first, and then duty on the part of the scholar. The Teacher's manner was better than parental, for it had a parent's tenderness and vigilance, without the foolish doatings or indulgences, to which parental affection is prone. I heard no child ridiculed, sneered at, or scolded, for making a mistake. On the contrary, whenever a mistake was made, or there was a want of promptness in giving a reply, the expression of the Teacher was that of grief and disappointment, as though there had been a failure not merely to answer the question of a master, but to comply with the expectations of a friend. No child was disconcerted, disabled, or bereft of his senses, through fear. Nay, generally at the end of the answers, the Teacher's practice is to encourage him, with the exclamation, "good," "right," "wholly right," &c., or to check him with his slowly and painfully articulated "no;" and this is done with a tone of voice, that marks every degree of *plus* and *minus* in the scale of approbation and regret. When a difficult question has been put to a young child, which tasks all his energies, the Teacher approaches him with a mingled look of concern and encouragement; he stands before him, the light and shade of hope and fear alternately crossing his countenance; and if the little wrestler which difficulty triumphs, the Teacher felicitates him upon his success; perhaps seizes, and shakes him by the hand in token of congratulation; and, when the difficulty has been really formidable,

and the effort triumphant, I have seen the Teacher catch up the child in his arms, and embrace him, as though he were not able to contain his joy. At another time I have seen a Teacher actually clap his hands with delight at a bright reply; and all this has been done so naturally and so unaffectedly as to excite no other feeling in the residue of the children than a desire, by the same means, to win the same caresses. What person worthy of being called by the name, or of sustaining the sacred relation of a parent, would not give any thing, bear any thing, sacrifice any thing, to have his children, during eight or ten years of the period of their childhood, surrounded by circumstances, and breathed upon by sweet and humanizing influences like these!

"Still, in almost every German School into which I entered, I enquired whether corporeal punishment were allowed or used, and I was uniformly answered in the affirmative. But it was further said, that, though all Teachers had liberty to use it, yet cases of its occurrence were very rare, and these cases were confined almost wholly to young scholars. Until the Teacher had time to establish the relation of affection between himself and the new comer into his School, until he had time to create that attachment which children always feel towards any one, who, day after day, supplies them with novel and pleasing ideas, it was occasionally necessary to restrain and punish them. But after a short time a love of the Teacher and a love of knowledge become a substitute,—how admirable a one! for punishment. When I asked my common question of Dr. Vogel* of Leipsic, he answered, 'that it was

* It may not be improper for me to add here, that to Dr. Vogel, mentioned by Mr. Mann, I am more deeply indebted than to any

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still used in the Schools of which he had the superintendence. But,' added he, 'thank God, it is used less and less, and when we Teachers become fully competent to our work, it will cease altogether.'

"To the above I may add, that I found all the Teachers whom I visited, alive to the subject of improvement. They had libraries of the standard works on Education,—works of which there are such great numbers in the German language. Every new book of any promise was eagerly sought after; and I uniformly found the educational periodicals of the day upon the tables of the Teachers.

"The extensive range and high grade of instruction which so many of the German youth are enjoying, and these noble qualifications on the part of the instructors, are the natural and legitimate result of their Seminaries for Teachers. Without the latter, the former never could have been, any more than an effect without its cause."

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other individual in Germany. He is the author of improved School maps, and several works on Education. He is the Superintendent of Schools in the City of Leipsic,—the book-shop of all Germany, the central mart of Europe, and the seat of the richest and most celebrated University in all Germany. The *system of Schools* under his superintendence is the most complete for a city of any that I have seen, and would furnish materials for an interesting volume. Not only did Dr. Vogel accompany me to the several classes of Schools under his care, and explain the peculiar features and modes of instruction adopted in each, and his improved School maps (a copy of which he kindly presented to me) and Geography, but gave me letters of introduction to Directors of Schools and School authors in various parts of Northern and Western Germany and Switzerland; letters which I found in several instances exceedingly serviceable. What added to the value of Dr. Vogel's personal attentions was, that he is an excellent English scholar, and speaks English as fluently as he does his native tongue; and is perfectly familiar with both English and American Institutions.

3rd. *Text-Books.*—The variety of text-books in the Schools, and the objectionable character of many of them, is a subject of serious and general complaints. All classification of the pupils is thereby prevented; the exertions of the best Teacher are in a great measure paralyzed; the time of the scholars is almost wasted; and improper sentiments are often inculcated. This is a subject of loud complaint in the neighbouring States. In a late Report it is mentioned, that the returns, although incomplete, shewed that no less than two hundred and four different kinds of School-books were used in the Schools of the State of Connecticut alone. Dr. Potter, of New York, says: "No evil connected with the present condition of our Schools calls more loudly for immediate correction than this. It is a subject of earnest and continued complaint on the part of both Teachers and parents, and seems to prevail throughout the whole country. It is a subject of hearty congratulation, that the people are beginning to awake to a proper sense of this evil, and that they are demanding a reform. On this account, as well as on several others, the present seems a most auspicious time, for devising some plan, which may prove reasonably permanent, and which will gradually displace the almost endless variety of School-books, by as much uniformity as can be expected in our country.

Text-Books.

Evils of a great variety of School books, deprecated in the United States.

Any interference on the part of the Government in a subject of this kind was formerly thought to be incompatible with individual right and liberty; but experience has taught the fallacy of this, and many hundred theories, and efforts are now making to correct the evils which such speculations have produced.

PART II. Practice in the State of New York.

The following extract from a County Report, published in the State Superintendent's Annual Report of 1844, will shew how the selection of School-books is now managed in the State of New York:

"The selection of books for the Common School libraries, is given to the Trustees of School Districts; but the State Superintendent, and by the provisions of the Act of 1843, the County Superintendents have power to decide against books remaining in the libraries which are deemed improper. Although it is notorious that the State Superintendent has often exercised this power, and although in the case of this County at least, it is one, the necessary exercise of which has never been shrunk from, I never yet heard the propriety of its being so vested, in a single instance, called in question. The good sense of our people has not failed to shew them that to prevent frequent abuses, a supervisory jurisdiction of this kind must exist somewhere; and they have seemed content to leave it in the hands of a class of officers, chosen especially to administer the laws generally in relation to our Common Schools. Trustees who purchase books for Districts, are frequently men who, notwithstanding the good sense and public spirit which may belong to them as men, and as School Officers, possess no extended acquaintance with books; in by far the greater portion of instances, as might be expected, the books which they purchase, have not been previously read by them.

"The Regents of the University in appropriating funds for the purchase of Academic Libraries, require the Trustees of these Institutions to select the books from a catalogue, which is furnished by the Regents, or if others are desired, a list of them must first be submitted to, and approved of by the Regents. The

function of these officers is analagous to that of the State Superintendent, and no reason is perceived why the same right to controul the purchase of books, should not be vested in one head of the Department, that there is in the other. Substantially there is no wide disparity in the right now vested in each; but there is this distinguishing feature—one manifests its power before such purchase, the other subsequently. It is not difficult to decide that prevention is always better than cure."

In France. In France the Council of the University recommend books of merit for the use of Schools, and on educational subjects generally, and often bestow handsome prizes, or honorary distinctions upon the authors of them.

In Prussia. In Prussia the Text-books used in Schools, are recommended by the School Board in each Province, (of which there are ten in Prussia,) and sanctioned by the Minister of Public Instruction.

In England. In England the Privy Council Committee are recommending a series of School-books for elementary Schools.

In Ireland. In Ireland the National Board of Education have published at very reduced prices, a series of School-books, which are not only used in their Schools, but in numerous Schools in England and Scotland, and in some of the British Colonies—books which have been prepared by experienced Teachers, and with the greatest care—which are imbued throughout with the purest principles, and embrace the whole range of topics which have been recommended in the former part of this Report, as proper subjects of Common School instruction. They also contain a great variety of information which is as interesting and useful for the common reader, as it is appropriate for the Common School.

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A Board of Education for Upper Canada, recommended.

The responsible, and delicate and difficult task of selecting and recommending books for Schools, can, I think, be more judiciously and satisfactorily performed by a Provincial Board or Council, than by any individual Superintendent. A mere recommendatory authority in such a body would, I am inclined to believe, be quite sufficient to secure the introduction and use of the proper books in Schools.*

Government controul and Inspection of Schools.—Its necessity and importance.

4th. *Controul* and *Inspection.*—If "it is the Master which makes the School," it is the Government that makes the system. What the Master is to the one, the Government must be to the other—the director, the animating spirit of it.

As proper rules and a judicious course of instruction, prescribed for a School, would be of little use without a competent and diligent Master to execute the one and impart the other; so the enactment of a Common School Law, however complete in its provisions, and the sanctioning of a course of instruction however practical and comprehensive, will contribute little for the education of the people, without the parental, vigilant and energetic oversight of the Government. If it is the duty of the Government to legislate on the subject of public instruction, it must be its duty to see its laws executed. To pass a public law, and then abandon, or, what is equivalent, neglect the execution of it, is a solecism in Government. Yet this is the very absurdity which some Governments have long practised; and this is the primary cause why education has not advanced under such Governments. After having enacted a law or laws on the subject of Schools, they have left them,—as a cast off orphan,—to the neglect or the care, as it might hap-

* Since the printing of the first Edition of this Report, such a Board has been created, and such a practice has been adopted.

pen, of individuals, or neighbourhoods, or towns,— among whom the law has remained a dead letter, or lingered a feeble existence, according as the principal persons in each locality might be disposed to act or not act, in a matter so vitally important to the entire interests and highest prosperity of the State.

If Government exists for the prosperity of the public family, then every thing relating to educational instruction demands its *practical* care as well as legislative interference. Yet not a few persons have spoken and written as if the Government had nothing to do in a department which more than any other involves the heart and strength and happiness of the people, not to say the existence of a free Constitution and system of laws, than merely to pass a statute and make certain appropriations,—leaving the application or misapplication of public moneys, and every thing practical and essential in the administration of the law, to various localities, as so many isolated or independent Democracies.

Under such circumstances, there can be no system of Public Instruction; there may be *one* law, but the *systems*, or rather *practices*, may be as various as the smallest Municipal divisions. To be a State system of Public Instruction, there must be a State controul as well as a State law.

Examples in Europe and America.

The conviction of the important truth and duty involved in these remarks, has led to one of the most important improvements which have, during the present century, taken place in the science of Government,—the appointment of officers, as well as the enactment of laws for the education of the whole people. Hence there is not a State in Europe, from despotic Russia down to the smallest Canton of republican Switzerland, which has not its Council, or

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Board, or Minister, or Superintendent, or Prefect of Public Instruction,—exercising an active and provident oversight, co-extensive with the provisions of the law and the community concerned. The most advanced of the neighbouring States have found it necessary to adopt this as well as other educational improvements of European civilization.* And it is now generally admitted, that the education of the people is more dependent upon the *administration*, than upon the provisions of the laws relating to Public Instruction.

In some of the New England States, as well as in several countries of Europe, every town, or parish, or municipality of a certain population, is compelled to provide a School; but such is not the case, nor perhaps is such a provision required in this Province.—So far as I have been able to ascertain from the examples of enlightened Governments, and so far as I can judge from the nature of the case, I think the oversight of the Government should be directed chiefly to the following objects:

Objects and Extent of Government oversight.

(1). To see that the Legislative grants are faithfully and judiciously expended according to the intentions of the Legislature; that the conditions on which the appropriations have been made, are in all cases duly fulfilled,

(2). To see that the general principles of the law, as well as the objects of its appropriations, are, in no instance contravened.

(3). To prepare the regulations which relate to the general character and management of the Schools, and the qualifications and character of the Teachers,

* The Superintendent of Schools for the State of New York, is invested with much larger powers than are possessed by the Superintendent of Schools for Upper Canada.

—leaving the employment of them to the people, and a large discretion as to modes of teaching. PART II.

(4). To provide, or recommend books, the catalogue of which may enable Trustees or Committees to select suitable ones for the use of their Schools.

(5). To prepare and recommend suitable plans of School-houses and their furniture and appendages, as one of the most important subsidiary means of good schools—a subject upon which it is intended on a future occasion, to present a Special Report.

(6). To employ every constitutional means to excite a spirit of intellectual activity and inquiry, and to satisfy it as far as possible by aiding in the establishment and selection of libraries, and other means of diffusing useful knowledge.

(7). Finally, and especially, to see that an efficient system of inspection is exercised over all the Schools. This involves the examination and licensing of Teachers,—visiting the Schools,—discovering errors, and suggesting remedies, as to the organization, classification, and methods of teaching in the Schools,—giving counsel and instruction as to their management,—carefully examining the pupils,—animating Teachers, Trustees and parents, by conversations, addresses, &c., whenever practicable, imparting vigor by every available means to the whole system. What the Government is to the system, and what the Teacher is to the School, the local Inspector or Superintendent should be within the limits of his District.*

Importance of District Superintendents of Schools.

There is no class of officers in the whole machinery of elementary instruction on whom so much depends for its efficient and successful working, as upon the local Superintendents or Inspectors. The proper

* Since the first edition of this Report was printed, a Law has been passed substantially embracing the provisions above suggested.

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selection of this class of agents is a matter of the greatest importance; they should make themselves theoretically and practically acquainted with every branch taught in the Schools, and the best modes of teaching, as well as with the whole subject of School organization and management. Where there is incompetency or negligence here, there is weakness in the very part where strength is most required. I think this part of the system of Public Instruction is by no means appreciated in this Province in proportion to its importance.

English and Continental Examples.

The laws, and Normal and Elementary Schools of Germany and France, would be of comparatively little avail, were it not for their system of inspection over every School and over every department of instruction; nor would the Privy Council Committee in England, or the National Board in Ireland, succeed as they do, were it not for the corps of able and vigilant Inspectors, whom they employ to see carried into effect in every School aided by public grants, the principles of the system, and the lessons given in the Normal Schools.

School Inspectors in Holland.

Holland is inferior to Prussia in its system of Normal Schools; but is probably superior to every other country in the world, in its system of inspection.—With some of these Inspectors it was my good fortune to meet in Holland; they accompanied me to various Schools under their charge; their entrance into the Schools was welcomed by the glowing countenances of both Teachers and pupils, who seemed to regard and receive them as friends from whom they expected both instruction and encouragement; nor were their expectations disappointed so far as I had an opportunity of judging; the examinations and remarks in each instance shewed the Inspector to be

intimately acquainted with every department of the instruction given, and imparted animation and delight to the whole School. The importance attached to this class of officers, may be inferred from the remark of the venerable Vanden Ende (late Chief Commissioner of Primary Instruction, in Holland, and to a great extent the founder of the System) to M. Cousin, in 1836, "Be careful in the choice of your Inspectors; they are men who ought to be sought for with a lantern in the hand."

Vast importance of a proper selection of District Superintendents in Upper Canada.

In the commencement of a system of Public Instruction, the office of local Superintendents or Inspectors is, if possible, more important than after such system has been brought into full operation; and little hope of success can be entertained in this Province, wherever local Superintendents prove lax or careless in their examinations into the qualifications and character of Candidates for teaching *—their visitations of Schools—their attention to books and defective modes of teaching—their exertions to carry every part of the law into effect, and to excite increased interest in the public mind in behalf of the education of the young.

Co-operation of the people necessary.

This last is the more important as no Constitutional Government can establish and render effective a sys-

"* The most imperfect arrangement for providing Teachers is that which requires an examination *into merely the knowledge* of the Candidate in the *branches to be taught*. This is specially imperfect in the case of elementary instruction, where the knowledge required is small in amount, and where the art of teaching finds its most difficult exercise. The erroneous notion, that an individual can teach whatever he knows, is now generally abandoned; and in those countries which still adhere to the old method, of depending solely upon examinations for securing competent Teachers, examination is made, not only of the acquirements of the Candidate, but of *his ability to give instruction*."—*Bache's Report on Education in Europe, p.* 323.

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tem of Public Instruction without the co-operation of the people themselves. There must be this co-operation, not only in the enactment of laws, but in the application of them to every individual School. The establishment and maintenance of a School system is not like the digging of a Canal, or the building of a Railroad, where the work may be performed by strangers and foreigners. The subjects of popular education are the younger, and the immediate and necessary agents of it are the elder, inhabitants of the country; and if the latter are indifferent and unfaithful to their duty, the former will grow up in ignorance, notwithstanding the provisions of the best laws, and the best exertions of the Government. One of the first steps then in a public work of this kind—a work which involves the interest of every family, and the future destinies of the country—is to excite parents and guardians to a sense of their moral and social obligations not only in respect to the establishment of Schools, but as to the character and efficiency of those Schools, and the due education of their children for the present and the future—for themselves, and their country.

Basis of the Prussian System in regard to the compulsory attendance of children at School, explained.

These remarks suggest a collateral subject to which I desire to draw attention—not with a view of recommending its adoption, but in order to impress upon all concerned the principle which it involves. I allude to the compulsory attendance of children at School, as required by the laws of Prussia and several other States of Europe. The prevalent impression is, that such a law is arbitrary—despotic—inconsistent with the rights of parents and the liberties of the subject. But what is the principle on which this law is founded? The principle is this, that every child in the land has a right to such an educa-

tion as will fit him to be an honest and useful member of community,—that if the parent or guardian *cannot* provide him with such an education, the *State is bound* to do so,—and that if the parent *will* not do so, the State *will* protect the *child* against such a parent's cupidity and inhumanity, and the State will protect the community at large against any parent (if the term can be applied to such a character) sending forth into it, an uneducated savage, an idle vagabond, or an unprincipled thief.

The parent or guardian is not isolated from all around him,—without social relations or obligations. He owes duties to his child,—he owes duties to society. In neglecting to educate, he wrongs his child,—dooms him to ignorance, if not to vice,—to a condition little above that which is occupied by horses and oxen;—he also wrongs society by robbing it of an intelligent and useful member, and by inflicting upon it an ignorant or vicious barbarian.

To commit this two-fold wrong is a crime of the blackest character, whether cognizable by human laws or not; to protect childhood and manhood and society from such wrongs, is the object of the Prussian law, which requires the attendance of every child from the age of six to fourteen years, at some School—public or private as the parent may prefer; and if the parent is not able to pay for the education of his child, the State provides for it. The law therefore protects the weak and the defenceless, against the strong and the selfish; it is founded on the purest morality and the noblest patriotism; and although I do not advocate the incorporation of it into a Statute in this country, I believe it to be the duty of every parent to act in accordance with its spirit. With what a noble race would Canada be peopled forty

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years hence, if every child from this time henceforth should receive eight years instruction in the practical arts and duties of life on Christian principles!

The same system is established in Democratic Switzerland.

But it is erroneous to suppose that the Prussian law on this subject is an appendage of despotism.—It exists in the democratic Cantons of Republican Switzerland, in a more elevated degree than it does in Prussia. A. G. Escher, Esqr., manufacturer at Zurich, whose testimony has been quoted in a former part of this Report, gives the following evidence on this point, before the Privy Council Committee on Education. In answer to the question, "In the Free Cantons of Switzerland, is the education national and compulsory?" Mr. Escher says: "In the Protestant Cantons it is entirely so. No child can be employed in any *manufactory* until he has passed through the Primary Schools; and he is further under the obligation of attending the Secondary Schools until his sixteenth or seventeenth year. And under all circumstances, and for every employment, it is obligatory on parents to send their children to the Public Schools until they are absolved from the obligation by an examination as to the efficiency of their education." In these Cantons the opinion of the people is, in the largest sense, the law of the land, yet so enlightened and so strong is that opinion, that it enacts laws, enforced by the severest penalties, securing to every child such an education as is suitable to his intended employment in life.

Also in the Free States of Germany.

The same elevated public opinion exists and operates in the free States of Germany, as well as in despotic Prussia. On this point I will quote the testimony of an intelligent American—late President of the Senate of the State of Massachusetts, and at present Secretary of the Board of Education at Boston

—a man who has done much to advance the interests of education in his native State, and to whom I have had frequent occasion to refer. Mr. Mann says :— A very erroneous idea prevails with us, that this enforcement of school attendance is the prerogative of despotism alone. I believe it is generally supposed here, that such compulsion is not merely incompatible with, but impossible in, a free and elective government. This is a great error. With the exception of Austria, (including Bohemia,) and Prussia, almost all the other States of Germany have now constitutional Governments. Many of them have an Upper and Lower House of Assembly, like our Senate, and House of Representatives. Whoever will attend the Parliament of Saxony, for instance, will witness as great freedom of debate as in any country in the world; and no law can be passed but by a majority of the Representatives chosen by the people themselves. In the first School I visited, in Saxony, a lesson 'On Government', in which all the great privileges secured to the Saxon people by their Constitution were enumerated; and both Teacher and pupils contrasted their present free condition with that of some other countries, as well as with that of their own ancestors, in a spirit of congratulation and triumph. The elective franchise in this and in several of the other States of Germany, is more generally enjoyed, that is, the restrictions upon it are less than in some of the States of our own Union. And yet in Saxony, years after the existence of this Constitution, and when no law could be passed without the assent of the people's Representatives, in Parliament assembled, a general code of School laws was enacted, rigorously enforcing, by fines and penalties, the attendance of children at School."

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Individual efforts—their necessity—extent and fruits of them in Germany.

5th. *Individual Efforts.*—There is so much in the very nature of education that is voluntary, both in its pursuit by an individual, and in its advancement as a system, that without efforts beyond those which should or could be enjoyed by statutes, its interests can be advanced to but a very limited extent in any community. It is erroneous to suppose that the high state of education in Germany is entirely owing to the provisions of the laws and the exertions of the Civil Authorities. The spontaneous efforts of individuals and associations have not, to say the least, been less efficient agents in this great work, than the interference of the State; and these private efforts have on several occasions, been the originators of the most important laws and measures of Government. It is to these efforts that Germany owes its unrivalled series of School and educational books—the existence and wide circulation of upwards of thirty periodical School publications—and the periodical conferences of School Inspectors and Teachers in all the German States. The intercourse of Teachers and Educators in all parts of Germany, is constant and intimate—to an extent that can be scarcely conceived by a stranger. Thus the improvements and views of each become the property of all—the educational instructors of the people constitute an extensive and most influential fraternity, and the whole public mind is elevated and animated to a standard of sentiment and practice comformable to a high state of national civilization.

Necessity of them in this Province.

Corresponding efforts in this Province are indispensable to the realization of any patriotic hopes as to our system of public instruction. The efficiency of some of the provisions of the School Law is wholly depending upon voluntary efforts. This is

the case especially in respect to Visitors of Schools, whose labours are authorized without any provision for pecuniary remuneration. I here assume that all Clergymen and Justices of the Peace will be authorized to act as Visitors of Schools,* but pecuniary remuneration in this case would be impracticable and absurb; pecuniary or other penalties for neglect of duty, equally so. In most instances the authority to act in this capacity would, it may I think be, reasonably presumed, be regarded as a useful and appropriate legal privilege rather than as an unwelcome burden. It gives a legal sanction to what might be insisted upon as a moral and patriotic duty; but the efficiency with which it is performed must depend upon individual fitness and generous co-operation. Such a co-operation—universal and hearty—would be productive of innumerable benefits to the rising youth of the land and the interests of education generally. Popular education on sound principles is the handmaid of religion and the best safeguard of public order; the recognized Teachers of the one, and the authorized guardians of the other, are the natural assistants in a work involving the best interests of both. Of course the Government would not permit, nor public opinion tolerate,—nor can I imagine any individual taste so perverted as to attempt it,—that the Common School should be made the occasion or place of sectarian proselytism; but I can hardly conceive of a more powerful auxiliary to the cause of elementary Education than the frequent visits to the Schools of the various Clergy and Magistrates of the land, and the corresponding exercise of their influence in

School Visitors.

May be exceedingly useful.

* Clergy and Magistrates, together with District Councillors, are now School Visitors by Law.

PART II. other respects in favour of public instruction. Such visits would prompt and encourage the Teachers—would gratify and animate the pupils—would tend to impress and excite additional interest among parents—would afford the opportunity of making useful observations and suggestions—would give birth to useful lessons and exertions from the pulpit and bench—would be an additional guarantee that the Schools of the country should be in harmony with its common religious spirit—would doubtless suggest and be promotive of many valuable hints and exertions in a work common to every form of religion and every variety of interest.

School Conventions or Meetings.

Another important agency in the advancement of elementary Education—the existence as well as usefulness of which depends upon voluntary exertions,—are the Meetings or Conferences of Teachers and other local administrators of the School Law—especially Superintendents and Visitors. Such Conferences are held in France by a special order of the Royal Council, which points out the members, the subjects, the modes of proceeding, as well as the objects of them. They have already been productive of the happiest results in that country, although the regular establishment of them did not take place until February 10th, 1837. In Germany they constitute a prominent feature and means of both educational developement and improvement. The first scholars and educators in Germany attend them; any thing new in the history of Education is warranted,—discoveries, or improvements, or suggestions, as to methods of teaching are stated and discussed; addresses by persons previously appointed are delivered; and all matters relating to the instruction and education of the people are proposed and consider-

Great benefits of them in Europe.

ed. Some of the finest educational discourses which have ever been published, were first delivered at these Conferences. Such Conferences are now common in the States of Massachusetts and New-York, and are attended with the happiest effects. In Prussia as well as in France, the Government attaches the greatest importance to these Conferences, and sedulously encourages them; and the holding of such meetings in the several Districts of this Province, under proper regulations, would, I am confident, contribute largely to the improvement of Teachers, and to excite in the public mind an increased interest in the education of the young. To Teachers such associations would be invaluable, and through them to the public at large. On this point the following remarks of the *Prize Essay* of the *London Central Education Society*, are worthy of grave consideration—especially in a country where the Teachers have not received a Normal School training. Mr. Lalor says: "The principle of association is peculiarly applicable to the science of Education. Conferences of Teachers might be easily prevented from degenerating into Debating Clubs or Convivial Meetings. Induced to come together at proper intervals, and under judicious arrangements, the association would furnish the strongest incentives to their zeal and industry. The sympathies of a common pursuit, the interchange of ideas, the communication of new discoveries, could not fail to make the meeting delightful. At present, practical knowledge of the most important kinds, acquired by long lives spent in teaching, goes out of the world with its possessors; there being no easy mode of communicating it to others; or, (what is, perhaps, more important,) no means of giving it that degree of developement which would show its value. Conferences of Teach-

Recommended in this Province.

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ers would suffer no man's experience to be lost. Every hint would be taken up and followed out by investigation. The resources of each would be drawn out; and men would learn the command of their powers, and the manner of keeping their position in society. The most accomplished minds would give a tone to the others; roughness and peculiarities of manners would be rubbed off, and each would feel that he was not solitary and unconnected, but a member of an important body. His self-respect would thus be increased, and with it the estimation of others for him. When men of common interests meet together, the topics which concern them most nearly must engage a share of their attention. If there be any grievance it will assume a distinct shape by discussion, and be put in the way of redress; if any improvement of condition be practicable, their joint consideration will be most likely to effect it. All this tending to make them feel their own rights and strength must also ensure greater consideration from society. The sagacity of the Prussian Government, so strikingly displayed in its organization of public education, makes the utmost use of this principle of association. The Conferences of Schoolmasters, without coercive interference, which would deprive them of their chief advantages, are promoted and encouraged by every means in its power."

Circulating Libraries—must be chiefly established by means of voluntary efforts.

To detail the individual efforts which tend to accomplish the objects of public instruction in connexion with measures expressly required by law, would be foreign to the objects I have in view and exceed my prescribed limits. There is, however, one more of so general and vitally important a character, that I cannot omit mentioning it. I mean the establishment of *Circulating Libraries* in the various Dis-

tricts, and as far as possible in the School Sections. To the attainment of this object, local and voluntary co-operation is indispensable. Government may perhaps contribute; it may assist by suggesting regulations, and recommending lists of books from which suitable selections can be made; but the rest remains for individual and local efforts to accomplish. And the advantages of the School can be but very partially enjoyed, unless they are continued and extended by means of books. As the School is the pupil's first teacher, so books are his second; in the former he acquires the elements of knowledge, in the latter he acquires knowledge itself; in the former he converses with the School-master,—in the latter he holds intercourse with the greatest and wisest men of all ages, and countries and professions, on all subjects, and in every variety of style. The School creates the taste and the want, which books alone can satisfy. In conversing with the wise, the learned, and the good, the mind cannot be unhappy, nor will it become vitiated; its views will be expanded; its standard of manners and men and things will be elevated; its feelings will be refined; its exertions will be prompted; its practical knowledge will be matured, and its intellectual wealth and power will be indefinitely multiplied. But in any community, few persons can be expected to possess the means necessary to procure anything like a general assortment of books; in a new and rural community, perhaps none. One Library for the whole of such community is the best substitute. Each one thus acquires the fruits of the united contributions of all; and the Teacher and the poor man with his family participate in the common advantage.

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Their great importance and utility.

PART II. MAY IT PLEASE YOUR EXCELLENCY,

Conclusion.

I have thus endeavoured to accomplish the first part of the task assigned me by Your Excellency's distinguished predecessor, in respect to an efficient system of Elementary Education, by attempting to delineate its leading features in the principal subjects which it embraces, and most material parts of the machinery it requires. I am deeply sensible of the defectiveness of this primary attempt on a subject so varied and complex. Several important topics and many details I have left unnoticed, either because they are not adapted to this Province, or because they can be introduced and discussed to greater advantage in an ordinary Annual Report; and most of the topics which I have introduced have been merely explained, without being professedly discussed. My object has been to describe the outlines—leaving the filling up to time and future occasions. The completion of the structure of which I have endeavoured to lay the foundation and furnish the plan, must be the work of years—perhaps of an age. It is, however, a ground of encouragement and confidence, that we are not left to rude conjectures or untried theories in this work. For the prosecution of every part of it, even to the Child's First Book, the most trifling article of furniture, the minutest detail of School order and School teaching, we have the brightest light of learning and experience; and we cannot fail of the completest success, if every Legislator, and Ruler, and Ecclesiastic, and Inspector, and Trustee, and Parent in the land, will cultivate the spirit and imitate the example of the Prussian School Counsellor Dinter, who commenced forty years prodigous labours, self-denials, and charities, with the engage-

ment: "I promised God that I would look upon every Prussian peasant child as a being who could complain of me before God, if I did not provide him the best education, as a man and a Christian, which it was possible for me to provide."

All which is respectfully submitted, by

Your Excellency's
Most obedient, and
most humble servant,

EGERTON RYERSON.

EDUCATION OFFICE, C. W.,
March 26th, 1846.