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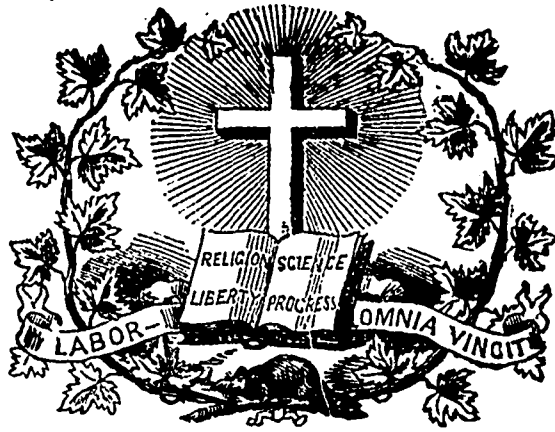
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JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

Volume V.

Montreal (Lower Canada) October 1861.

No. 10.

SUMMARY.—**SCIENCE:** Canadian Archaeology.—Additional notes on Aboriginal Antiquities found at Montreal, by Principal Dawson.—**EDUCATION:** Education and the Educator, a lecture by J. Bruce, Esq., Inspector of schools, (continued).—School days of eminent men in Great Britain, by J. Timbs, (continued).—The Recital.—Teachers should visit schools.—Attention.—**OFFICIAL NOTICES:** Erection separation and annexation of school Municipalities.—Appointments: School Commissioners.—Diplomas granted by Boards of Examiners.—Donations to the Library of the Department.—Situation wanted.—**EDITORIAL:** The Press on Education.—Reviews of the Educational Reports for 1860 by the *Montreal Gazette*, *Toronto Leader* and *Montreal Herald*.—Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for Lower Canada, (continued).—Extracts from the Reports of the Inspectors of Schools for 1859 and 1860.—Fifteenth Conference of the Teachers' Association in connection with the Jacques-Cartier Normal School.—Fourteenth Conference of the Teachers' Association in connection with the Laval Normal School.—Notices of books and publications.—*Annuaire de l'Université Laval*.—Transactions of the Literary and Historical Society of Quebec.—*Lower Canada Agriculturist*.—*La Revue Agricole*.—The Visit of H. R. H. the Prince of Wales to America.—Relation du Voyage de S. A. R. le Prince de Galles.—**MONTHLY SUMMARY:** Educational Intelligence.—Miscellaneous Intelligence.—**WOOD-CUTS:** Figures representing divers relics of Indian antiquities.

The space in which the remains occur extends from Mansfield Street to a little west of Metcalfe Street in one direction, and in the other from a little south of Burnside Place to within 60 yards of Sherbrooke Street. In this limited area, not exceeding two imperial acres, twenty skeletons have been disinterred within twelve months, and the workmen state that many parts of the ground excavated in former years was even more rich in such remains. Hundreds of old fire places, and indications of at least ten or twelve huts or lodges have also been found, and in a few instances these occur over the burial places, as if one generation had built its huts over the graves of another. Where habitations have stood, the ground is in some places to the depth of three feet, a black mass saturated with carbonaceous matter, and full of bones of wild animals, charcoal, pottery, and remains of implements of stone or bone. Farther, in such places the black soil is laminated, as if deposited in successive layers on the more depressed parts of the surface. The length of time during which the site was occupied, is also indicated by the very different states of preservation of the bones and bone implements; some of those in the deeper parts of the deposit being apparently much older than those nearer the surface. Similar testimony is afforded by the great quantity and various patterns of the pottery, as well as by the abundance of the remains of animals used as food, throughout the area above mentioned.

SCIENCE.

CANADIAN ARCHÆOLOGY.

Additional notes on Aboriginal Antiquities found at Montreal.

(Read before the Natural History Society of Montreal.)

Since the publication of my former paper on this, (1) the excavations on the site of the ancient Indian village, described in that paper, have proceeded to completion, and now the whole of the superficial layer of sand having been removed, the spot has forever lost its original contour and appearance, and little probability remains of farther discoveries. Throughout the past year the progress of the work has been carefully watched, and special excavations have been made in the more promising places. By these means many additional objects have been obtained, some of them of much interest. Mr. E. Murphy, of this Society, has also aided in the work of exploration, and has accumulated a large collection; and I am indebted to Mr. Dand, the overseer in charge of the workmen, for several specimens, as well as for pointing out some of the more interesting spots for exploration.

The additional facts obtained do not induce me in any way to modify the statements of my former paper respecting the certainty of this having been the site of an ancient Indian village, and probably of that mentioned by Cartier under the name of Hoehelaga. These conclusions are indeed strengthened by the observations more recently made.

All these indications point to a long residence of the aborigines on this spot, while the almost entire absence of articles of European manufacture in the undisturbed portions of the ground, implies a date coeval with the discovery of the country. The few objects of this kind found in circumstances which prevent the supposition of mere superficial intermixture, are just sufficient to shew that the village existed until the appearance of Europeans on the stage. Other facts bearing on these points will appear in the course of the following detailed notice of the objects found since the publication of my former paper.

1. *Human Remains.*—Several additional skulls have been disinterred, but many of them in a state too fragile for preservation. All are of the same type of cranial conformation with those previously described. The measurements of five of the most perfect are as follows:—

	No. 4.	No. 5.	No. 6.	No. 7.	No. 8.
Longitudinal diameter,...	6 $\frac{3}{4}$ in.	7 in.	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.	7 in.
Parietal " ...	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Frontal " ...	4 $\frac{3}{4}$	4 $\frac{3}{4}$	4 $\frac{3}{4}$	4 $\frac{3}{4}$	4 $\frac{3}{4}$
Vertical " ...	5 $\frac{1}{10}$	5 $\frac{1}{4}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{4}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$?
Intermastoid arch,.....	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	—	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	12?
Intermastoid line,.....	5	5	—	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	—

(1) *Canadian Naturalist*, vol. 5, p. 430.

Occipito-frontal arch, . . .	13½	13¾	14½	15½	13½
Horizontal circumference, .	19½	20	20½	22	20

No. 4 is in Mr. Guilbault's collection. The others are in my possession. Nos. 5 and 6 belonged to a female and male skeleton buried together. They have the Wormian bones largely developed, which is not the case with the others. No. 8 is remarkable for a lateral distortion which seems in part to have existed during life, but must have been increased by the pressure of the soil after the decay of the soft parts.

I have been very desirous to ascertain if the measurements of the skulls were capable of throwing any light on the question of the particular Indian race to which these people belonged. Prof. Wilson of Toronto, has kindly furnished for the purposes of this comparison, the following table, presenting the average measurements of about forty Huron skulls, and of about thirty believed to be Algonquin.

	Huron.	Algonquin.
Length,	7.37 inches.	7.23 inches.
Breadth,	5.47 "	5.58 "
Height,	5.42 "	5.37 "

From this it would appear that the Algonquin skull is shorter, broader and lower than that of the Huron. The measurements of skulls from Hochelaga, given in this and my previous paper, present so great diversities among themselves, that any comparison with the averages above stated would seem impossible. Nos. 3, 4 and 8, approach very nearly to the Algonquin type; Nos. 6 and 7 to the Huron. No. 7 is remarkable for its length, and contrasts in this respect very strongly with No. 4. Either the cranial type of the Hochelaga tribe presented within itself much greater diversities than those indicated by Prof. Wilson's averages, or the individuals whose remains have been found, belonged to more than one tribe. In either case a much larger number of skulls would be required to give satisfactory data for comparison; and it would then perhaps be possible to eliminate abnormal forms and those which might be of foreign origin. Nor must the consideration be omitted, that in a central locality, at the confluence of two great rivers, and at a time when Hochelaga may have been the point of union of various tribes, giving way before the inroads of the Iroquois and Hurons, its population may have been of a very mixed character.

The following remarks on the deformed skull noticed above, are from a paper by Dr. Wilson, in the *Canadian Journal* of September:

"In an interesting paper on 'Aboriginal Antiquities recently discovered in the Island of Montreal,' published by Dr. Dawson in the *Canadian Naturalist*," he has given a description of one female and two male skulls, found along with many human bones, at the base of the Montreal Mountain, on a site which he identifies with much probability, as that of the ancient Hochelaga, an Indian Village visited by Cartier in 1535; and which he assigns on less satisfactory evidence to an Algonquin tribe. Since the publication of that paper, my attention has been directed by Dr. Dawson to two other skulls, a male and female, discovered on the same spot, both of which are now in the Museum of McGill College, Montreal. One of these furnishes a still more striking example of a cranium greatly altered from its original shape subsequent to interment. It is the skull of a man about forty years of age, approximating to the common proportions of the Iroquois and Algonquin cranium, but with very marked lateral distortion, accompanied with flattening on the left, and bulging out on the right side. There is also an abnormal configuration of the occiput, suggestive at first sight, of the effects produced by the familiar native process of artificial malformation. This tends to add, in no slight degree, to the interest which attaches to the investigation of such illustrations of abnormal craniology; as the occurrence of well established examples of posthumous deformation among crania purposely modified by artificial means exhibits in a striking manner the peculiar difficulties which complicate the investigations of the naturalist when dealing with man. The evidence which places beyond doubt the posthumous origin of the

distortion in this Hochelaga skull is of the same nature as that which has already been accepted in relation to an example recovered from an Anglo-Saxon cemetery at Stone, in Buckinghamshire. The forehead is flattened and greatly depressed on the right side, and this recedes so far, owing to the distortion of the whole cranium, that the right external annular process of the frontal bone is nearly an inch behind that of the left side. The skull recedes proportionally on the same side throughout, with considerable lateral development at the parietal protuberance, and irregular posterior projection on the right side of the occiput. The right superior maxillary and malar bones are detached from the calvarium, but the nasal bones and the left maxillary remain in situ, exhibiting, in the former, evidence of the well developed and prominent nose characteristic of Indian physiognomy. The bones of the calvarium, with one slight exception, have retained their coherence, notwithstanding the great distortion to which it has been subjected, though in this example ossification has not begun at any of the sutures. The exception referred to is in the left temporal bone, which is so far partially displaced as to have detached the upper edge of the squamous suture. Part also of the base of the skull is wanting.

"The posthumous origin of the distortion of this skull is proved beyond dispute on replacing the condyles of the lower jaw in apposition with the glenoid cavities, when it is found that, instead of the front teeth meeting the corresponding ones of the upper maxillary, the lower right and left incisors both impinge on the first right canine tooth, and the remaining teeth are thereby so displaced from their normal relation to those of the upper jaw, as to preclude the possibility of their answering the purpose of mastication—which their worn condition proves them to have done,—had they occupied the same relative position during life.

"The extreme distortion which this skull has undergone is still more apparent when looking on it at its base. The bone has been fractured, and portions of it have become detached under the pressure, while the mastoid processes are twisted obliquely, so that the left one is upward of an inch in advance of the right.

"The circumstances under which this Indian skull was found tend to throw some light on the probable process by which its posthumous malformation was effected. It was covered by little more than two feet of soil, the pressure of which was in itself insufficient to have occasioned the change of form. The skull, moreover, was entirely filled with the fine sand in which it was embedded. If, therefore, we conceive of the body lying interred under this slight covering of soil until all the tissues and brain had disappeared, and the infiltration of fine sand had filled up the hollow-brain case; and then, while the bones were still replete with the animal matter, and softened by being filled with moist sand and embedded in the same, if some considerable additional pressure, such as the erection of a heavy structure, or the sudden accumulation of any weighty mass, took place over the grave, the internal sand would present sufficient resistance to the superincumbent weight, applied by nearly equal pressure on all sides, to prevent the crushing of the skull or the disruption of the bones, while these would readily yield to compression of the mass as a whole. The skull would thereby be subjected to a process in some degree analogous to that by which the abnormal developments of the Flathead crania are effected during infancy, involving as it does, great relative displacement of the cerebral mass, but little or no diminution of the internal capacity. The discovery of numerous traces of domestic pottery, pipes, stone implements and weapons in the same locality, furnishes abundant proof that it was the site of the Indian village as well as a cemetery, and thereby demonstrates the probability of the erection of such a structure, or the accumulation of some ponderous mass over the grave at a period so near to that of the original interment, as would abundantly suffice to produce the change of form described. To some such causes similar examples of posthumous cranial malformation must be ascribed; as they are so entirely exceptional as to preclude the idea of their resulting from the mere pressure of the ordinary superincumbent mass of earth.

"Another skull found in the same ancient Indian cemetery, apparently that of a female, and now in the collection of Mr. Guilbault, of Montreal, has also the appearance of having been modified in form by artificial means, whether posthumous or otherwise. The superciliary ridges are prominent, the frontal bone is receding, but convex, and the occipital bone has considerable posterior projection, which is rendered the more prominent by a general flattening of the coronal region, and a very marked depression immediately over the lambdoidal suture, probably the result of unequal posthumous compression. The abnormal conformation of this skull is shown in the proportions of the intermastoid arch, which measures only 11.75, while the normal mean, so far as ascertained by me from measurements of thirty-three examples of Algonquin crania is 14.34, and of thirty-six examples of Huron crania is 14.70."

The teeth of most of the skulls found are remarkable for their regularity, though in old age they were much worn, and many were lost by decay. In two examples however, both of persons who must have died in youth, the teeth were very unequally developed. All the entire skeletons repose in a crouching posture, not erect, but inclined or lying on one side, and usually with the head towards the west. In a few instances, skulls and portions of skeletons were found detached; but these seem to have been disturbed by the plough or by modern excavations. Two very remarkable exceptions to the general mode of occurrence of the human remains deserve special notice.

Near one of the cooking places, and at the depth of about two feet, intermixed with the bones of wild animals and fragments of pottery and charcoal, were found portions of a human jaw, which had belonged to an immature individual, and had evidently been broken, or gnawed by animals, when recent. This might raise a suspicion of occasional cannibalism on the part of the inhabitants of Hochelaga, were it not for the possibility that it may be a memorial of the destruction of the village, in which it is probable that many of its people both young and old, may have perished in the ruins of their dwellings. It can scarcely be connected with the tortures or indignities inflicted on prisoners of war, as these remains were not those of an adult; but it may possibly refer to the practice indicated by the specimens next to be described.

These are two vessels, possibly, drinking cups, formed of portions of human skulls. One of them was given to me by Mr. Dand, the other is in the collection of Mr. Murphy. Both have been formed of parietal bones, rudely cut and smoothed around the edges, and one has a round hole in the margin for a handle or string. These relics, no doubt, point to the custom, attributed to several of the primitive tribes of the old world, of using the skulls of slain enemies as vessels for domestic uses. Whether this practice is to be ascribed to the inhabitants of old Hochelaga, or to the enemies by whom it was destroyed, is less certain, and it may be well perhaps to give the hospitable entertainers of Cartier the benefit of the doubt.

2. *Beads or Wampum.*—Only a single specimen of the shell wampum, or "Esurgny" as Cartier calls it, has been found. It is represented in Fig. 1, and is of small size, neatly formed, and the material is apparently the pearly shell of a *Unio*, probably *U. ventricosus* (1). Such beads, from their small size and the labour required in their manufacture, must have been very valuable, while their pearly lustre would render them more beautiful than the wampum of the coast Indians. If this single specimen really represents the beads to which Cartier alludes, it accords with his statement that the material was obtained in the river, but does not explain his curious account of the mode in which it was procured.

Many examples have been found by Mr. Murphy and myself, of discs of baked clay, rudely ornamented and perforated through the centre, as in Fig. 2. These seem to have been a cheaper and commoner kind of beads.

3. *Bone Implements.*—These are very numerous and of various forms. Fig. 3 represents the point of a barbed fish spear; Fig. 4 may have been a spear point or arrow head, and Fig. 5 repre-

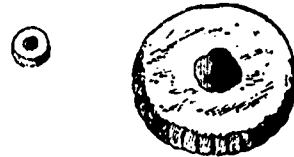


Fig. 1.

Fig. 2.

sents a bone needle. A great number of pointed implements, perhaps daggers, spear heads or skewers, have been found, some of them very neatly formed, but without any attempt at ornamental carving. Bone stamps for impressing patterns on pottery are not uncommon, and numerous examples have been found of objects of unknown use formed of bones of the feet of quadrupeds, ground flat on one side and hallowed in a peculiar manner, with a small hole bored in one end. Bone seems to have been largely used by these people for implements of various kinds, and the neatness with which these have been shaped and polished, is very creditable, in the case of workmen not provided with metallic tools.

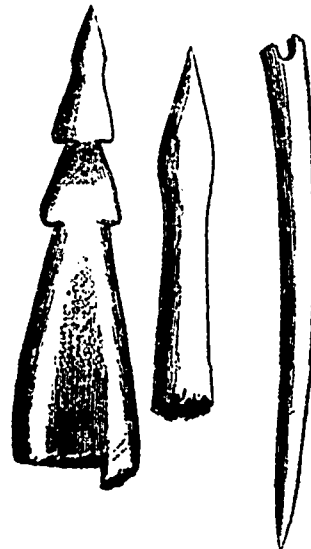


Fig. 3.

Fig. 4.

Fig. 5.

4. *Pipes.*—The taste and skill of the Indian potters have been expended on these more than any other objects of their art.



Fig. 6.

(1) Or *U. Canadensis* of Lea, which is perhaps only a variety of the species named in the text.

Many of them are formed in the elegant and simple pattern figured in my former paper. Others have very regular revolving bands or rings, relieved by round impressions, (Fig. 6.) One has a square stem ornamented with delicate transverse lines. Another has a rude attempt at a human countenance on the front of the bowl. The most elaborate, though perhaps not the most tasteful of the whole, is in the collection of Mr. Murphy, and is represented in Fig. 7, which is a side view of half the actual size. The front, which is not represented in the figure, is broad and flat, and has a rude human face, surrounded by a sort of halo composed of rectangular indentations arranged in consecutive rows. The only example of a stone pipe is a small fragment of a stem formed of serpentine, similar to that of the "Calumets" on the Ottawa.

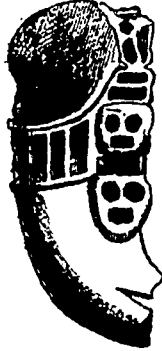


Fig. 7.

5. *Earthen Vessels*.—Large quantities of fragments of these have been collected; all in styles similar to those figured in the former paper, and which may be characterised as the *basket* patterns, (1) and *corn-ear* patterns, (2) though presenting great varieties in detail. In some of the more elaborate the ornamental lines are not mere scratches, but consist of series of impressions made by a pointed instrument, giving a very rich effect. In some of the examples more recently found, the sides are unusually thin and the material very fine, while others appear to have been large, thick, and composed of coarse and slightly baked material. In many of the vessels the mouth is square with the corners thickened and expanded, perhaps for convenience of handling or of suspension over the fire. In one example found by Mr. Murphy, (Fig. 8.) this corner is fashioned into a human head, which though rude in execution displays some artistic taste in its design. The vessel to which it belonged must have been used for culinary purposes, for like many others in the collection, it is crusted with the carbonised remains of some vegetable pottage.



Fig. 8.

(1) Fig. 7. *Canadian Naturalist*, vol. 5, p. 435.
 (2) Fig. 10. *Canadian Naturalist*, vol. 5, p. 435.

6. *Stone Implements*.—These consist of chisels of the ordinary form, made of greenstone and gneiss; hammers, some with grooves for attachment to handles, and others rounded for use with the naked hand, after the fashion of those represented on Egyptian monuments; flat stones for baking or for preparing skins, and whet-stones with grooves made by sharpening implements upon them. There are also great quantities of stones which have been heated in the fire, probably for baking cakes of corn meal in the Indian manner.

7. *Metallic Articles*.—Of the few objects of this kind which have been found in such circumstances as to render accidental intermixture improbable, the most interesting are a small knife resembling a scalpel; a nail deprived of its head, and rounded and sharpened at the point; and a small rectangular piece of sheet brass, apparently cut by a stone chisel or some similar implement from a larger piece. These are sufficient to shew European intercourse before the final disappearance of the Indian settlement.

8. *Articles of Food*.—The bill of fare of old Hochelaga appears to have included nearly all the wild mammals of the country, and many birds and fishes; but the beaver largely predominates, and remains of the bear, more especially lower jaws, are quite numerous. Grains of Indian corn were mentioned in my former paper, and in one spot rich in the debris of pottery, and recently excavated, these are very abundant, and apparently of the ordinary variety still cultivated in the country. In the same place I found a single bean, apparently the *Phaseolus vulgaris* bearing witness to the cultivation of this plant as well as corn. The grains of corn and beans which have been preserved, are those which have been accidentally charred in the cooking fires. They are perfectly black and very friable. In one spot was found a large quantity of charred acorns, which may have been used as food in times of scarcity. The stones of the wild plum are very common, and Mr. Murphy has found specimens of butternuts.

Suites of specimens of the objects referred to in this paper, will be deposited in the collections of the Natural History Society, and of McGill College, to secure the preservation of these slender memorials of the rude arts and simple lives of our predecessors in the occupancy of the Island of Montreal—so unfortunate in the early extinction of their name and race, but happily preserved from oblivion in the record of their hospitality and kindness to the old French voyager, and by the confirmations of his veracity which have now so unexpectedly occurred.

In the Report of the Smithsonian Institution for 1856, there is a notice by Mr. Guest of the remains of Indian villages near Prescott, C.W.; and it is very interesting to observe the similarity in details between the relics found there and those obtained at Montreal. The dimensions of the trees which are stated to have grown on the sites of these forts or villages at Prescott, would indicate a date for their abandonment earlier than the discovery of Canada. They appear to deserve further investigation, more especially with a view to the question whether they belonged to the Hurons or to a preceding population akin to that of Hochelaga.

—*Canadian Naturalist*.

J. W. DAWSON.

EDUCATION.

Education and the Educator.

Lecture delivered in the College of La Chute, January 1861,
 by J. Bruce, Insp. of Schools.

(Concluded from our last.)

But while we speak of the dangers and difficulties which beset the teacher, and what his office supposes him to be, we can speak also of cheering signs. There is a general awakening in the cause of education. A spirit of mutual and searching enquiry is abroad; a spirit of mutual encouragement, improvement and information is

everywhere springing up; the intelligent and energetic, the benevolent and patriotic are making education a common rallying point of enquiry and action,—the whole tendency of which is to combat with ignorance and vice, to dislodge and disperse old errors, to purge systems of education—from the nursery and family circle, to those of schools, of everything puerile, injurious, hurtful or hindering to sound education, and to diffuse the knowledge of improved work, method, or machinery for the sound, healthy training of youth. Already are these movements and combined actions telling upon the world, upon society, through all its grades. All appear to be aware of educational movements. The great majority seek education. And surely this set-in current of opinion and wishes, of searching enquiry and unity of purpose, and of an onward tendency to one point of action, carries along with it something cheering and very encouraging to every friend to human improvement, and well wisher of his race. Surely every reflecting mind will acknowledge that it is the will and the purpose of the Creator, that man's mind should be trained, improved, and every way fitted for its work in time, and rightly moulded and quickened for its eternal work. God did not make man to remain ignorant of the world in which he has given him being, and for whom it was created and filled with so much of His goodness and glory. The vast powers engrafted on his spirit tell a very different thing. Their fountain-head supposes development—a high destiny—a mighty future; and the vast and countless subjects of study which the Creator has placed within his reach and spread around him, of things past and present, of things human and divine, of things great and small, of things on earth and in space, significantly call upon him to search and know—to learn and be wise, and thus cultivate and educate his noble gifts. The Almighty intended not that these should be left uncultivated any more than that the soil should remain untilled and barren. The state in which man first appears on earth speaks education; the ways in which he grows up from childhood to manhood supposes him templed in education; the work assigned him by his Creator on the theatre of time declares education to be inseparable from his being; and the vast eternity which stretches out before him, significantly whispers, that the educative unfolding of his mind, with heaven's hallowed and hallowing influence, will be the grand element in which he will enjoy his being and serve his Maker.

Now, if all this be true, (and what enlightened Christian will deny it?) that man comes forth on the stage of time moulded for education; and that every successive development of those wonderful faculties, bound up in his being, is heaven's call to the Educator,—whether he be the parent or the professed teacher,—to remember his duty,—to be up and at work, and to take good heed, that each faculty, in its successive unfoldings, receive due and suitable training, till the child becomes the man in intelligence and moral power, is not he who opposes or despises this call verily guilty—guilty of something more and worse than a mere negation to the cause of education—of a something the whole tendency of which is to bring down man to a state far—far lower than that which the Creator assigned him in the rank of created intelligences?

What can we think of that man, who by tacit or open effort seeks to cramp or hinder the development of the noble parts of his being,—to brutalize his very nature,—to revolutionize its whole moral and intellectual powers?—Think! what can we think of him, but that he is the enemy of his race; the seeker—whether he admits it or not,—of the continuance of that moral degradation which has cursed our world?—Nay, the very sluggard in the cause of education lies in the way of the improvement of the human race, as a hedge of thorns.

When man came from his Maker's hand, it was with a nature having an upward and onward aspiration. He who had the image of his Creator,—whose spirit was his breathing,—could not but have the whole current of his desires and affections flowing towards its fountain-head. And he who stands in the way of efforts to bring man up to his proper position, who lays a cold and benumbing hand on the cause of truth and progress, gives the lie to the ardencies of his nature, and sets up a bold contradiction to the positive and cheering declarations of the Bible,—“That man shall see out of obscurity and out of darkness,” that knowledge shall be increased, and “that the earth shall be filled with the knowledge of Jehovah.”—On these foretellings, we lay stress; we rest our sure hope, and from them we take courage. A stronger than man is on our side; heaven's irrevocable decree works with us, and is stirring up an ever increasing host of the enlightened and free, to work on, and work out the cause of education to its millennial glory. Already is there abroad among the affairs of the nations, a thousand things indicative of an intellectual and moral quickening to higher and nobler efforts, to push on human progress. Already see we not

a set-in-tide in those affairs which daily is widening, deepening, and gaining force, and carrying on its bosom and mingling with its flood—objects and habits, views and interests, intentions and tendencies—all conducive to hastening on a far more enlightened age? Already its onward sweep girdles the world, and its every wave is sweeping away less or more of the wreck and rubbish into which ignorance and a fallen nature have buried the jasper and golden pearls of the human intellect.

But these remarks and views of education point to more elevated ground, to a higher platform, from which views of our subject more extensive and correct are obtained—an illimitable vantage-ground on which school and college training, and self-educational efforts, show their results—their undying momenta, in carrying out the great ultimate ends of mental and moral training.

On this vantage-ground, education, self-education begins in earnest; human intelligence, skill and genius, are brought into fuller play, and the powers of the mind into more diversified and higher action, by which the human intellect is more ennobled and its resources are more enlarged. It is here that improvements and discoveries in arts and sciences are made and pushed on; that experience and experiments work together; that investigations are made and guided by instructed minds, and that by multiplied and multiplying aids, more and more skilful demands are made upon these.

Until we reach this vantage-ground, our views and opinions of education are too theoretic,—too much in the imagination—too much confined to the eye and the ear,—too much in declamation. But when we reach and enter the workshop of arts and sciences, and there find heart and soul engaged, matters greatly change. The mind acquires a new impulse. The whole man is set a working and with objects more definite,—objects in which he is deeply interested. The farmer and the mechanic, the chemist and the electrician—the student of the earth and the student of the heavens,—the student of matter and the student of mind, each in his own department, is at work with motive powers, guided by skill and urged on by noble aims.

It is here that the conquerors of ignorance shine forth; that master minds come before the world; and that devotedness and perseverance manifest their power, and before which difficulties, under a thousand forms, give way. It is in the workshop of arts and sciences,—whether that be the field or the counting house, the laboratory or the observatory, the factory or the studio, the bar or the cabinet,—that the faculties of man show their maturity, and begin to give fuller manifestations of their high origin. There the child of school is lost in the man, and the student shows his manhood,—each to act his part in the multiform vocations of life. And to speak of what the scholar or self-educated has done, or is doing, to enlarge and enrich the boundaries of human knowledge and human skill, would be to speak of everything within these boundaries which tends or has tended to exalt and ennoble the human intellect, to advance civilization, to multiply the comforts and lighten the enjoyments of the human family, or help to sweep away all those encumbering fictions and fallacies which so enfeeble and degrade the human mind.

In conclusion let me direct attention to one or two of the innumerable achievements of science, to show what in our day education is doing in its higher and fruit-bearing field. The first I choose is electricity. Indeed any part of pure science may be selected to show how much self-teaching or individual effort has done to advance man's well-being, exercise and enrich human intelligence, and bring into healthy action and development all the powers of the human intellect. But as electricity is a portion of science which has been left very much to its own development, and has produced in its advancement the most enduring marks on the face of the globe, of successful persevering efforts, it may be referred to as a very striking instance of what the perseverance of well trained, well educated minds can accomplish.

The knowledge and successive developments of electricity have risen and advanced from very small beginnings. From Theophrastus and Males of Miletus to Pliny, and from his days to those of Dr. Gilbert of London, we trace it in its simplest elemental state. From Gilbert to Franklin, Priestly, Galvani, Volta, and Davy, a more rapid development of this powerful and very wonderful agent took place. Since then every year, I may say, is bringing to light more of its marvels and marvelous applications.—In 1600, Volta discovered the voltaic pile,—giving a source and form of electricity before unknown. It was not an accident. It resulted from his own mental self-education. It was, at first, a feeble instrument, giving feeble results; but by the united mental exertions of other men, who educated themselves through the force of thought and experiment, it has been raised up to such a degree

of power as to give us light, and heat, and magnetic and chemical action, in states more exalted than those supplied by any other means. In 1819, Oersted discovered the magnetism of the electric current. At first the results were so feeble as to be scarcely visible; but by the exertion of self-taught men since then they have been exalted so highly as to give us magnets of a force unimaginable in former times. In 1831, the induction of electrical currents one by another, and the evolution of electricity from magnets, were observed,—at first in results so small and feeble that it required one much instructed in the pursuit to perceive and lay hold of them; but they were sufficient for men already partially educated and ever proceeding onwards in their self-education, to help on to farther developments, by which sources of electricity independent of the voltaic battery, or the electric machine, have been discovered. And now they can combine the power of both so as to make their working applicable to all the practical electrical purposes of life. Take one application, or rather one part of this application, as an illustration,—the electric telegraph. Of all the scientific marvels wrought in this remarkable century, there is none more astounding than the electric telegraph. This mysterious whispering wire enables us to convey our thoughts with the rapidity of thought. We send them off, with the rapidity of the lightning flash, to distant parts of the country in which we live, or to another separated from us by many miles of ocean. This achievement eclipses all the wonders accomplished by steam. Thus, man has discovered a power by the application of which nations are brought into close—into immediate proximity. And soon, we doubt not, will its transmitting agency girdle the world, bring all nations into a nearness, half a century ago, inconceivable. And how has this transmitting agency been brought to its present state of perfection? Just by education. Minds trained, exercised, set a-going, first by general education, worked on, in the path of science, and by little and little worked out the marvels exhibited and practised by our metallic wires. Numerous and important as the points are, which have been already recognized, others are continually coming into sight as the great development proceeds, and with a rapidity which bespeaks a coming unknown—exceeding by far the hitherto known, and exerting an influence upon the human mind, most favourable to its intellectual and moral development. And surely all this is most encouraging to the true and right-hearted educator, who, in every step of educational advance, whether in the school of theory, or the school of practice, in training the child's mind in its immature and vernal expansions, or that of him who has far outgrown its first educative developments, beholds himself placed, it may be said, in a magnetic condition surrounded by means more ample, and cheered by hopes brighter and more auspicious, and thus urged on to efforts more continuous and energetic, and with aims more noble and views more exalted.

But the triumphs of self-application and self-discipline, persevered in, are not confined to the science of electricity. In what science or art have these not shown their conquering power? See what they have, since the beginning of the present century, done in geological researches. Geology is one of the most recent of the sciences. A century ago, it could hardly be said to exist. Till the time of Werner, it was a branch of study without system, and even without clear and precise terminology. This was its state when he published his system in 1774, and which greatly aided in giving it an impetus. Since then it has been actively and extensively cultivated. Its path is now more scientific. It no longer enquires how "in the beginning God created the heavens and the earth;" but assuming that as a fact beyond all doubt or appeal, confines its investigations to the present structure of the globe, and the traces of the revolutions which it has undergone. It has now ceased to be a romantic theory built up on the fancy of speculators. It has taken its place among the inductive sciences; and among these has gained a position of high distinction. Though its study may be begun in books and class-rooms, its field of operation is the wide world. Under ground and above ground, on mountain tops and in lonely valleys, in barren deserts and cultivated fields, in the ocean and on the land, its searchings go on, and its crucible is at work; and to what art or science has it not lent its light? Both the miner and the farmer have largely benefited by its contributions; the mechanic and the chemist are deep in its debt; the mineralogist and the botanist acknowledge its contributions, and the geographer is not a little assisted by its explorations.

But to what are we to attribute the rapid advances which it and other sciences have made within the last few years? Just to education. As education advances, the study of science advances, and thus improvements and discoveries multiply. The two go hand in hand. As education improves and extends, more students and

better qualified enter our higher fields of study and research; and just as they multiply, will civilization advance and society improve, will the cultivation of the human intellect rise in character and efficiency, and the progress of nations accelerate. It must be so. So long as education is encouraged, supported, and pushed on, there must be progress. Education is to the mind what light is to the eye. Every truth embedded in it is to it what light is to the visual organ,—enabling it to see objects in their true form, and judge correctly of their character and dimensions. We know that certain substances from exposure to solar or electric light acquire luminous properties of varying duration. A calcined oyster-shell, white paper, even the human hand, subjected to vivid sun-light, remain for a time visible in the dark. Something like this is the human mind subjected to the rays of truth quickened and invigorated by sound training. Each truth lodged there, gives its impress and adds to its light; and the more precious the truth, the richer and more lucent is the impression.

From the time that a child's mind begins to receive knowledge through a rightly trained intellect, a new era of existence commences with him. The native vigour of his soul begins to come into view, its latent powers begin to spring up, and every truth received and understood becomes to it a verity—a quickening starting point—the element of a working principle, giving it aid and impetus, stirring up and moulding dispositions and urging to effort.

And by and by, he begins to feel that the law of progress has enwined itself with his being, and that from education's career there is no escape; that light, intelligence, advancement enter into its very essence, and that *on* and *up* are its breathing pulse.

Here bright hope comes in to cheer on, bringing down fair unfading leaves from that far off domain to which the Bible points, assuring him that every step of advance is a mounting up in a region of higher intelligence, and that each ascending flight is leading to a more commanding platform, thus giving a wider and a wider vision till at last he can gaze around him with the ken of a superior intelligence, and he can descry the far-off mountain tops—*radiant with the suns of eternity*.

And, oh! is not education mental progress—thus viewed—Christianity its purifying life-giving element—a blessed, and blessing doctrine? Yet many rebel against it, and lightly esteem the priceless inheritance—would go backward instead of forward, would blot it out from heart and soul, and, if they could, from the world. But surely none of us number with such. In the cause of intellectual and moral progress, we wish to be *true men*,—true in sympathy,—true in effort,—helping on by word and deed this cause of causes—by which alone the stigma of ignorance can be wiped off from the human mind—man's intellectual stature increased—and his moral greatness brought to a more glorious maturity.

The consecration of our mental faculties and mental wealth to the benefit of the world where we dwell, and the race to which we belong, is an honour which the seraphim moving in power and burning in light,

"May stoop from their thrones to take up."

Parents, what think you of these views of education and the educator? Of that which makes a difference *so vast* between the intelligent well educated man, and him who lives and dies with an undeveloped intellect?—Of the savage who lives contending with the beasts of the forests for his nuts and acorns, and the refined cultivator of the soil, enjoying his thousand comforts?—What think you of that mental training and acquired skill, difficult to calculate, compared with the Amazonian Indian, who lives most of his time in trees, like monkeys, and to save himself from reptiles and forest beasts of prey, entwines branches of trees and plasters them with mud on which to sleep with his naked offspring around him,—and the well educated husbandman in his castle-home which no enemy dare enter with impunity, and in which he and his live in peace, comfort and happiness?—Or to come up higher, and compare the uneducated masses among ourselves, in their modes of living, thinking and acting—their range of intelligence and knowledge, and their little skill and less knowledge in anything which tends to exalt and ennoble the mind,—with the man of letters, whose knowledge of laws and principles, of numbers and measures, enables him to take an intelligent view of the universe around him, stretch his measuring line around the world in which he lives,—can span the heavens,—pass with his compass and his line into infinite space,—among worlds, and systems, to measure their distances, magnitudes and motions, with an accuracy almost, if not altogether equalling that of the farmer in measuring his field or a mechanic in taking the dimensions of a building. Or, come still nearer: compare the *ten thousand* chil-

dren, the wanderers of American forests, who can scarcely count their fingers, who know as little of letters as the bear of the woods, and of books and school training as the horse which ploughs the field, with your own children, whose intelligence, quickness of apprehension, and knowledge of letters and numbers, I have, with much pleasure, been endeavouring to trace for a few days. See how different their place and position; see how much removed from the former; see how precious the boon they are thus enjoying; and how many their chances and great their opportunities, if spared, to become men of intelligence and worth, and be shining lights in the world when you are dead and gone. And to what are we to attribute this great difference in mental energy and development—skill and progress—states of living and moral culture?—Just to education—blessed and sanctified by the God of heaven.—But can we preserve our position and push on the noble cause, without well skilled teachers? and can these be secured without due encouragement and suitable remuneration? And *with these, little is the progress that children can make without steady, regular attendance.* But can anything at all be done without the support and hearty co-operation of parents? Never, never. Oh! then, quicken your zeal, double your efforts, and with heart and soul, do your duty—and be the life and soul of this high and world-making work, and may heaven bless your efforts

School days of Eminent Men in Great-Britain.

By JOHN TIMES, F. S. A.

(Continued from our last.)

CXLIX.

LORD HILL, THE WATERLOO HERO.

Rowland, Lord Viscount Hill, was born in Shropshire, in 1772. He was first placed at Ightfield, a neighbouring village, and thence sent to Chester, where he won the affections of his schoolfellows from his gentle disposition, and the gallantry with which he was always ready to assist any comrade who had got into a scrape, at the same time that he was himself the least likely to be involved in one on his own account. He was of delicate constitution, and he was thrown more than usually upon the care of Mrs. Winfield, wife of one of the masters of the school. It is one of the delightful traits of Hill's character, that the grateful affection which he then felt for this amiable lady, continued an enduring sentiment in after-life, and was repeatedly exhibited after the delicate school-boy had grown up into one of the most renowned generals of his time. Thus, after the abdication of Napoleon in 1814, when Lord Hill accompanied his friend, Lord Combermere, on his entry into Chester, where he himself received a greeting all the more cordial from his having spent some of his earlier years at a Chester school, as he passed along the streets of the city in a triumphal procession, it was observed that his eye singled out among the applauding throng, one on whom he bestowed the kindest recognition. It was Mrs. Winfield whom he had thus distinguished: he had never forgotten her kindness to him when a boy.

The same love of horticulture, the same fondness for pet animals, which characterised Hill in after-life, had already been exhibited by him at school, where his little garden prospered, and his favourites thrived, better than those of any of his companions. But there is another characteristic of his, which comes with something like surprise upon those who have been in the habit of associating the name of Hill so closely with the battle-field. "His sensibility," says Mrs. Winfield, "was almost feminine." One of the boys happened to cut his finger, and was brought by Rowland Hill to have it dressed, but her attention was soon drawn from the wound to Rowland, who had fainted.

And even after his military career had commenced when it happened that a prize-fight was exhibited near the windows of his lodgings, such was the effect produced on him by the brutality of the scene, that he was carried fainting out of his room. So little does there require to be in common between the most heroic courage and the coarse and vulgar attribute of insensibility to the sight of blood and suffering. He explained afterwards, in reference to the carnage which he had witnessed in war, that he had still the same feelings as at first, "but in the excitement of battle all individual sensation was lost sight of."

Young Hill entered the army in 1790, and upon leave of absence went to a military academy at Strasburg, where he remained till 1791, when he obtained a lieutenancy. Lord Hill greatly distinguished himself at the battle of Waterloo, and was there exposed to the greatest personal danger: his horse was shot under him, and fell wounded in five places; he himself was rolled over

and severely bruised, and for half an hour, in the *mêlée*, it was feared by his troops that he had been killed. But he rejoined them to their great delight, and was at their head to the close of the day.

CLX.

COLERIDGE AT CHRIST'S HOSPITAL AND CAMBRIDGE.

Samuel Taylor Coleridge, "logician, metaphysician, bard," may be said to have commanded a larger number of zealous admirers than any other literary man in England since Dr. Johnson. Coleridge was a native of Devonshire, and was born in 1772, at St. Mary Ottery, of which parish his father was vicar. From 1775, he tells us in his *Biographia Literaria*, he continued at the reading-school, because he was too little to be trusted among his father's schoolboys. He relates further, how, through the jealousy of a brother, he was in earliest childhood huffed away from the enjoyments of muscular activity by play, to take refuge by his mother's side, on his little stool, to read his little book, and listen to the talk of his elders. In 1782, he was sent to Christ's Hospital; and after passing six weeks in the branch school at Hertford, little Coleridge, already regarded by his relations as a talking prodigy, came up to the great school in London, where he continued for eight years, with Bowyer for his teacher, and Charles Lamb for his associate; Coleridge being "the poor friendless boy" in Elia's "Christ's Hospital Five-and-thirty Years Ago." Here Coleridge made very great progress in his classical studies; for he had before his fifteenth year translated the hymns of Synesius into English Anacreontics. His choice of these hymns for translation is explained by his having even at that early age, plunged deeply into metaphysics. He says: "At a very premature age, even before my fifteenth year, I had bewildered myself in metaphysics and theological controversy. Nothing else pleased me. History and particular facts lost all interest in my mind. Poetry itself, yea, novels and romances, became insipid to me." From such pursuits, Coleridge was, however, weaned for a time by the reading of Mr. Lisle Bowles's Sonnets, which had just then been published, and made a powerful influence upon his mind.

He describes himself as being, from eight to fourteen, "a playless dreamer, a *heluo librorum* (a glutton of books)." A stranger, whom he accidentally met one day in the streets of London, and who was struck with his conversation, made him free of a circulating library, and he read through the collection, folio and all. At fourteen, he had, like Gibbon, a stock of erudition that might have puzzled a doctor, and a degree of ignorance of which a schoolboy would have been ashamed. He had no ambition: his father was dead; and he would have apprenticed himself to a shoemaker who lived near the school, had not the head-master prevented him.

He has left some interesting recollections of Christ's Hospital in his time. "The discipline," he says, "was ultra-Spartan: all domestic ties were to be put aside. 'Boy,' I remember Boyer saying to me once, when I was crying, the first day of my return after the holidays, 'Boy! the school is your father! Boy! the school is your mother! Boy! the school is your brother! the school is your sister! the school is your first-cousin and your second-cousin, and all the rest of your relations! Let's have no more crying.'"

Coleridge became deputy-Grec. n. or head-scholar and obtained an exhibition or presentation from Christ's Hospital to Jesus College, Cambridge, in 1791. While at the University, he did not turn his attention at all to mathematics; but obtained a prize for a Greek ode on the Slave-trade, and distinguished himself in a contest for the Craven scholarship, in which Dr. Butler, afterwards Bishop of Lichfield, was the successful candidate.

"Coleridge," says a schoolfellow of his, who followed him to Cambridge in 1792, "was very studious, but his reading was desultory and capricious. He took little exercise merely for the sake of exercise; but he was ready at any time to unbend his mind to conversation; and for the sake of this, his room (the ground-floor room on the right-hand of the staircase, facing the great gate) was a constant rendezvous of conversation—loving friends, I will not call them loungers, for they did not call to kill time, but to enjoy it. What evenings have I spent in those rooms! What suppers, or *sittings*, as they were called, have I enjoyed, when Æschylus, and Plato, and Thucydides were pushed aside, with a pile of lexicons and the like, to discuss the pamphlets of the day! Ever and anon a pamphlet issued from the pen of Burke. There was no need of having the book before us:—Coleridge had read it in the morning, and in the evening he would repeat whole pages *verbatim*."

Coleridge did not take a degree. During the second year of his residence, he suddenly left the University in a fit of despondency; and after wandering for a while about the streets of London, in extreme pecuniary distress, terminated this adventure by enlisting in the 15th Dragoons, under the assumed name of Comberbach. He made but a poor dragoon, and never advanced beyond the awkward squad. He wrote letters, however, for all his comrades,

and they attended to his horse and accoutrements. In four months his history and circumstances became known: he had written under his saddle, on the stable-wall, a Latin sentence, (*Eheu! quam infortunii miserimum est fuisse felicem!*) which led to an inquiry by the captain of his troop; and Coleridge was discharged and restored to his family and friends. He returned to Cambridge; and shortly afterwards went on a visit to an old schoolfellow at Oxford, where an introduction to Southey, then an undergraduate at Balliol College, became the hinge on which a large part of his after-life was destined to turn.

CLXI.

ROBERT SOUTHEY AT HIS SCHOOLS, AND AT OXFORD.

Robert Southey, the business of whose life was the pursuit of literature, and the first and last joy of his heart, was born in the city of Bristol, in 1774, and was the son of a small tradesman. His childhood, however, was not passed at home, but from the age of two to six, at the house of Miss Tyler, his aunt, in Bath. He had no playmates; he was never permitted to do anything in which by any possibility he might contract dirt; he was kept up late at night in dramatic society, and kept in bed late in the morning at the side of his aunt; and his chief pastime—for neither at this time nor at a later period had Southey any propensity for boyish sports—was pricking holes in playbills—an amusement, of course, suggested to him by Miss Tyler, and witnessed by her with infinite delight. As soon as the child could read, his aunt's friends furnished him with books. The son of Francis Newbery, of St. Paul's Churchyard, and the well-known publisher of *Goody Two Shoes*, (1) *Giles Gingerbread*, "and other such delectable histories in sixpenny books for children, splendidly bound in the flowered and gilt Dutch paper of former days," sent the child twenty such volumes.

"This," says Southey, in his autobiography, "was a rich present, and may have been more instrumental than I am aware in giving me that love of books, and that decided determination to literature, as the one thing desirable, which manifested itself from my childhood, and which no circumstance in after-life ever slackened or abated."

Southey's first school was in the village of Corston, nine miles from Bristol: it is described in one of his earliest poems extant (the *Retrospect*), written after he had visited the house in 1793. It had been the mansion of some decayed family, and had its walled-gardens, summer-houses, gate-pillars, a large orchard, and fine old walnut-trees; the garden was the playground; and Southey recollected of the interior a black oaken staircase from the hall, and the school-room hung with faded tapestry, behind which the boys kept their hoards of crabs. The master was a remarkable man, but an unfit tutor: his whole delight was mathematics and astronomy, and he had constructed an orrery *à large* that it filled a room. Southey speaks of his ornamental penmanship (2)—such as flourishing an angel, a serpent, a fish, or a pen, and even historical pictures; and grand spelling-matches of puzzling words hunted from the dictionary. Here Southey read Cordery and Erasmus, and got into *Phædrus*.

Before the boy was seven years old, he had been to the theatre more frequently than he afterwards went from the age of twenty till his death. The conversations to which he listened were invariably of actors, of authors, and of the triumphs of both; the familiar books of the household were tragedies and the "acting drama." Shakspeare was in his hands as soon as he could read; and it was long before he had any other knowledge of the history of England than what he gathered from Shakspeare's plays. "Indeed," he says, "when I first read the plain matter of fact, the difference which appeared then puzzled and did not please me; and for some time I preferred Shakspeare's authority to the historians." *Titus Andronicus* was at first Southey's favourite play. He went through Beaumont and Fletcher before he was eight years old, reading them merely for the interest which the stories

(1) "Godwin, the author of *Caleb Williams*, who had been a child's publisher himself, had always a strong persuasion that Goldsmith wrote *Goody Two Shoes*; and if so, the effort belongs to 1763; for Mrs. Margery, radiant with gold and gingerbread, and rich in pictures as extravagantly ill-drawn as they are dear and well remembered, made her appearance at Christmas."—*Life and Adventures of Oliver Goldsmith*. By John Forster. 1848. Page 300.

(2) Southey wrote a stiff, cramp hand, but remarkably neat and regular. He states that he set the fashion for black-letter in title-pages and half-titles, from his admiration of German-text at school.

One of the earliest holiday letters which he wrote was a description of Stonehenge, from the *Salisbury Guide*, which surprised and delighted his master, and gained Southey great praise.

afforded him, but acquiring imperceptibly familiarity with the diction, and ear for the blank verso of our great masters.

At the same tender age, the resolution was first formed to excel in the profession which the child heard extolled for its dignity from morning till night. At first the actors of plays were esteemed beyond all other men; those in their turn gave place to writers of plays, whom, almost as soon as he could hold a pen, the boy himself began to emulate. He was not quite nine when he set to work upon a tragedy, the subject being the continence of Scipio. In 1782 he went as day-boarder to a school in Bristol, learning from his master, as invariably proved the case with him, much less than he contrived to teach himself. Before he had reached his twelfth year he had read with the keenest relish Hooles's translation of *Jerusalem Liberated* and the *Orlando Furioso*, and had been entranced with the *Faerie Queen* of Spenser.

At thirteen, Southey was not only master of Tasso, Ariosto, and Spenser, but well acquainted also, through translations, with Homer and Ovid. He was familiar with ancient history, and his acquaintance with the light literature of the day was bounded only by the supply. A more industrious infancy was never known; but it was surpassed by the ceaseless energy of youth, which, in its turn, was superseded by the unflinching and unequalled labour of the man.

In his twelfth and thirteenth years he wrote three heroic epistles in rhyme; made some translations from Ovid, Virgil, and Horace; composed a satirical description of English manners, as delivered by *Maui*, the Tahitian, to his countrymen; and next began the story of the Trojan War in a dramatic form.

Southey was removed to Westminster School early in 1788, and had for his tutor Botch Hayes, so named from the manner in which he mended his pupils' verses; here Southey first appeared in print, in a weekly paper called the *Trifler*, in imitation of the *Microcosm* at Eton. He next set on foot the *Flagellant*, in which appeared a satirical attack upon corporal punishment, which so roused the wrath of Dr. Vincent, the head-master, that Southey acknowledged himself the writer and apologized, but he was compelled to leave the school. He returned to his aunt at Bristol. He next went to matriculate at Oxford; his name had been put down at Christchurch, but the Dean (Cyril Jackson) having heard of the *Flagellant*, refused to admit Southey. He, however, entered at Balliol College, where he went to reside in January, 1793; (1) one of his college friends declares that he was a perfect *heluo librorum* then as well as throughout his life; among his writings there is abundant evidence that he had drunk deeply both of the Greek and Latin poets; and his letters at this time indicate a mind imbued with heathen philosophy and Grecian republicanism. He rose at five o'clock in the morning to study; yet he used to say that he learned two things only at Oxford,—to row and to swim. He loved the place; in one of his delightful letters, he says.

When I walk over these streets, what various recollections throng upon me! what scenes fancy delineates from the hour when Alfred first marked it as the seat of learning! Bacon's study is demolished, so I shall never have the honour of being killed by its fall; before my window Latimer and Ridley were burnt, and there is not even a stone to mark the place where a monument should be erected to religious liberty.

No attempt was made to ground Southey in prosody; and, as this defect in his education was never remedied (when he went to Westminster he was too forward in other things to be placed low enough in the school for regular training in this), Southey remained to the last as liable to make a false quantity as any Scotchman.

In his nineteenth year Southey completed his *Joan of Arc*. Next year Mr. Coleridge came to Oxford, and was introduced to Southey, who describes him as "of most uncommon merit, of the strongest genius, the clearest judgment, the best heart." The two friends next planned the emigration scheme of "Pantisocracy," (2) which was soon given up. Southey left Oxford in the spring of 1795, and as a means of support, with Coleridge, gave public lectures, which were well attended. The poem of *Joan of Arc* was next printed and published by Mr. Cottle, of Bristol, which may be considered as the commencement of Southey's long and arduous career as an author; for it has been well observed that "no artisan in the workshop, no peasant in the field, no handicraftsman at his board, ever went so young to his apprenticeship, or wrought so unremittingly through life for a bare livelihood, as Robert Southey."

(1) He soon attacked the law against wearing boots at Balliol; and he refused to have his hair dressed and powdered by the college barber, which was customary with freshmen.

(2) With this wild scheme of "Pantisocracy," Miss Tyler was so offended that she would never again see him. The expenses of his education, both at school and college, were defrayed by his uncle, the Rev.

The Recital.

This is an exercise which, for want of a better name, we have designated as above. After a thorough and most satisfactory trial of two years, we confidently commend it to the attention of teachers. Three leading objects are obtained from it.

First. The pupil on whom the exercise devolves acquires valuable information, which is so effectually fastened in the mind that it can scarcely fail of being retained permanently.

Second. The facts presented, having been collected and condensed with great care, are communicated to many other minds, under circumstances calculated to attract attention and impart interest.

Third. But the most important object is, to cultivate the power of clothing thought in appropriate language, and presenting it in an easy, colloquial style, to a company of listeners.

It may be rendered so simple and easy, that the little child in the Primary School may engage in it as readily and profitably as the member of a High School. Indeed, it ought to be commenced by the children in the lower grades, that, as they advance into the higher, they may gain the full benefit which continued practice will impart.

The preparation of a "recital" is simply this. Suppose the pupil has recently returned from a trip to the White Mountains, the sea side, or a long journey. He has seen many new objects of interest, and has many beautiful mental pictures of them treasured up, to which he can recur, at will. Let him sit down with a small piece of paper and pencil, and recall to mind the events of the tour, making an imaginary journey precisely as the real one was made, so far as imagination can be made reality. With the pencil a few notes may be made, brief as possible, to be used merely as a word of suggestion where the memory would be likely to fail of gathering up all the interesting incidents. Let the pupil then, in private, practise relating the events in preparation for a presentation of the same before the school. It will be well to make the "recital" once before the teacher, or a friend, in private, before relating the account publicly. The length of time occupied should not usually exceed ten minutes.

The following cautions are worthy of attention.

1. Select the most interesting and important objects and events for description.
2. Endeavor to use good language, and speak distinctly and deliberately, in a conversational style, as if relating the same thing in a circle of familiar friends, at home.
3. Avoid all approach to a declamatory style of utterance.
4. Let the position in standing before the school be easy and graceful.
5. Avoid referring to the notes, if possible, and when necessary, let it be done by a simple glance of the eye. Look at the audience addressed.

But it will not always be found practical to present *original* subjects. Let us see how substitutes can be supplied. When the pupil has read some interesting narrative, let him close the book and think of the main features of the story, without attempting to remember the language. With as little reference to the book as possible, after the idea of the story is fixed in mind, the language of the pupil may now be used, and the recital may be made in the same manner as if it had been a description of actual observation.

In this way a brief story, the synopsis of a small or even a large volume, may be presented. Nor need the subject be merely a *story*. Topics of infinite variety may be found relating to persons, places, historical events, scientific statements, current events, all of which may be both interesting and instructive. The first recital made in our introduction of this exercise, as an experiment, was "*Sir John Franklin*." The outlines were, a brief sketch of his early life,—his expeditions and explorations,—government expeditions in search of him,—and an account of the discovery of his remains. Other subjects used were as follows: "The Sack of Rome;" "Account of Lady Esther Stanhope;" "History and manufacture of Cannon;" "Needles;" "Somnambulism;" "Description of Moscow;" "Sketch of Louis Napoleon III;" "Grace Darling;" "Bells;" "The Japanese;" "Gunpowder;" "Rome in the time of Nero," etc., etc.

These are selected as specimens of the character of topics pre-

sented. This exercise intermingled with the weekly rhetorical exercises, imparts a pleasant variety to the occasion.

We would suggest that great care should be taken to utter very distinctly and deliberately whatever may be uttered. Never commit to memory the language of the book; let the pupil possess the *thought*, then express it in his *own language*. The excellence of the performance depends chiefly on this.

When pupils become accustomed to this exercise, it may be varied by introducing "Object Teaching." Let the subject be proposed to show "The Structure of Plants." An older pupil, with a few plants in hand, may make an interesting exercise by describing and illustrating the forms of roots in various kinds of vegetables or plants; also forms of leaves, flowers, and modes of production of fruits, etc. Very common objects may be made to assume an entirely new aspect and greatly increased interest, by a suitable preparation on the part of the pupil. With a little assistance, at first, from the teacher, the effort can be rendered quite successful.

In the primary and intermediate grades, the children may interest their schoolmates with profit to themselves. Story telling has been a source of endless amusement from grandfather to grandchild, from time immemorial. Now, for an experiment, let the teacher select some promising child, and in private repeat a well chosen story, and then request the child to repeat the same. It would doubtless be imperfectly done at first; but by repetition and suitable instruction in the manner, use of language, and order of statement, after judicious preparation, very satisfactory results would attend the effort. No exercise would be listened to with greater interest by the children of the school. The subject should be adapted to the age and capacity of the performer, and varied so as to please and instruct. Beginning with a very simple effort, practice and careful preparation will, in due time, exhibit as much progress as this as in any department of study.

The recital is equally adapted to both sexes. It combines most of the advantages derived from the practice of extemporaneous speaking and declamation, and is an excellent preparation for both. It accustoms the pupil to comprehend, with facility, the essential parts of a volume or subject, and so to group them in the mind as easily to secure and retain a connected outline of the whole. It induces concentration of thought and fixedness of attention; it cultivates the memory; encourages the habit of investigation; affords practice in the use of language; stores the mind with useful knowledge; forms the habit of noticing important facts and events, and imparts the power of presenting information to others with facility and in an agreeable manner.

Information obtained by the labor of one individual and thus presented comes in the possession of many other minds with little cost of time or effort on their part. The exercise greatly increases the interest of the general exercises of the school, stimulates the minds of pupils to more mature and elevated modes of thought and conversation, and induces a higher and more profitable course of reading.—(*Massachusetts Teacher*.)

Teachers should visit Schools.

In all the departments of human exertion decided progress has been made, and two elementary operations have always been present: Comparison and Emulation. It seems to be a natural law that elevation and advancement can be made only by these two means. In most of the departments, this can be easily understood; but in *teaching*, its correctness is yet doubted by many, very many, who do not know or try practically. If the artist desires to elevate himself into the higher sphere of knowledge of painting or of sculpture, he unhesitatingly sets off for France, Greece, Italy, or some other country that abounds with the fine arts. He there visits such places as contain the productions of the most eminent masters of ancient and modern times. He there looks upon the paintings of a Raphael, and sees the excellence that challenges his exertions; or he beholds the almost breathing marble of Powers, and feels something beckoning to him from the height of human genius. He observes many things superior to his own productions, and there springs up in his breast a desire to equal or excel them. Without this comparison, all progress would stop. The mind ceases to toil when it can find nothing more excellent or superior than its own work. The necessary stimulus is wanting. This is equally applicable to all the branches of industry. That mechanic is a man who endeavors to make himself thoroughly acquainted with the works of the best men of his profession: and that one is worst who knows nothing about what others have done. These remarks are no less true of the *School Teacher*. As long as he remains shut up in the school room, comparing himself to no one but him-

Herber Hill, at that time a chaplain to the British Factory at Lisbon, to whom he so gratefully addresses his dedication to his *Colloquies*:

"O friend! O more than father! whom I found
Forbearing always, always kind: to whom
No gratitude can speak the debt I owe."

self, just so long does he make little or no progress. Unlike any other profession, teaching offers few or no facilities for any individual engaged in it to see how others go to work in the school-room. And yet there is no profession that has a greater necessity for availing oneself of the practical experience of others.

Teachers may, by reading, gain the manner in which other distinguished educators conducted the exercises of the school-room; but this is of little avail. Nothing can take the place of a visit in person to another teacher's room. There are thousands of little things that may thus be learned of which no book can give an account, nor can it be imparted to the inquirer by conversation. If a teacher desires to elevate himself in his profession, he must necessarily visit some of his brethren who are successful; he must go into the school-house and see how every lesson is conducted, see how the different scholars take their places in the classes to which they belong, how they walk along the floor, whether they have a heavy elephant tread, or one so light and silent as not to disturb a sick man's slumber: he must observe whether the pupils are kind and pleasing to one another and to their teacher, and are orderly in all their proceedings. Some teachers have a way of making everything go on smoothly, regularly and neatly, in their school room, of which others could make themselves masters did they but go and see how it was done. Some teachers will look a school into order, others will do it by a word, others by a smile, and others by a frown. Some have the faculty of making a recitation very lively and interesting; others very dull and tiresome. To see a thorough teacher—a successful teacher—before his class, and hear him conduct an exercise, is of more real value to any teacher than reading whole volumes of lectures on teaching.—J. H. B., in the *Woodstock Times*.

Attention.

The ability of any person to hold the mind in a fixed condition to receive whatever may be communicated to it, is the first element of intellectual power. Without it all the faculties of the mind must, necessarily, be enfeebled and their action aimless and superficial. A mind incapable of giving undivided attention must be deficient in the power of comprehension; perception cannot be acute; comparison and judgment fail; association is weak; and memory is consequently feeble and treacherous.

The importance of so training the mind of the child as to increase the power of attention, will be manifest to every one who understands the nature of the human intellect, or desires to place the elements of success within the reach of the young. The evils growing out of inattention are legion, but, in a vast majority of cases, are attributed to some other cause.

What teacher has not been surprised and disheartened, if not sorely vexed, when, after a most explicit presentation of a statement or announcement of a rule, has found many pupils declare, "I never heard you say so."

It is related of a teacher, that, for the purpose of testing the power of attention of her pupils, she stated a circumstance to one individual, in plain, positive language, and requested her to state the same with great care to a second, the second to a third, and so on, until the statement should be made to twenty persons. Then the twentieth individual was requested to relate to the teacher what had been communicated to her; but so changed had the statement become that the teacher could not recognize the slightest resemblance, in idea or language, to that which she had first communicated.

We take the liberty of presenting a very forcible illustration of our subject from an incident related by Prof. John S. Hart, late Principal of the Philadelphia High School, in a most excellent lecture on Attention. He remarks,—“At the examination for admission into the Philadelphia High School, as a means of testing how the faculty of attention had been cultivated, candidates were required to write a passage from dictation. On one occasion I took pains to copy a few of the exercises, in order to show the singular freaks which an uncultivated ear may be led into. The first clause of the sentence I read to be copied was thus:

“Every breach of veracity indicates some latent vice.

“The following are examples of the understanding of some of the candidates:

“Every breach of veracity indicates some latest vice.

“Every breach of vivacity indicates some great advice.

“Every breach of veracity indicates some laten vice.

“Every breach of veracity indicates some late device.

“Every bridge of eracity indicates some late advice.

“Every breach of feracity indicates some latent vice.

“Every breach of rascality indicates some ladened vice.

“Every branch of voracity in the next some latent vice.

“Every reach of their acidity indicates some device.

“In another part of the passage occurred the words ‘petty operations.’ The following examples will indicate the understanding of some of the candidates:

“‘Petty alterations.’ ‘Petty observations.’ ‘Patriarchial institutions.’ ‘Petty oblations.’”

Prof. H. remarks, “we cannot take too much pains in early life in arousing this power of attention. Depend upon it, no matter how much learning, so called, is crammed into a youth, his intellectual development is not begun until this power is aroused. He may have a vague, dreamy sort of knowledge, may do some things by rule, may acquire by rote, but his powers are not invigorated. He does not grow until he really begins to see and hear, and to feel *terra firma* under his feet.”—(Mass. Teacher.)

OFFICIAL NOTICES.



ERECTION, SEPARATION AND ANNEXATION OF SCHOOL MUNICIPALITIES.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council was pleased, on the 28th September last,

To erect the Village of Etchmin, in the County of Lévis, into a separate School Municipality, embracing the eastern part of the Parish of St. Romuald to Benson's farm inclusive, towards the west.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council was pleased, on the 2nd instant,

1. To erect into a School Municipality the new parish of St. Liboire, in the county of Bagot, comprising a tract of two leagues in depth by one and a half leagues in front, bounded north by Ste. Rosalie and St. Simon; south by St. Dominique and the Township of Milton; on the north-west by St. Dominique and Ste. Rosalie, and on the south-east by the Township of Upton.

2. To erect South Winslow, in the county of Compton, into a School Municipality, with the following limits, viz: Towards the north to extend from River Felton, having on every other side the same boundaries as the Township of Winslow.

APPOINTMENTS.

SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council was pleased, on the 24th September last, to make the following appointments of School Commissioners, viz:—

County of Beauce.—Municipality of Shenley: Messrs. Thomas Champagne, Charles Leclaire, Pierre Ghabot, Alfred Roy, and Gaspard Bizier.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council was pleased, the 28th September last, to make the following appointment of a School Commissioner, viz:—

County of Lévis.—St. Nicolas: Mr. Louis Dubois.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council, was pleased, the 2nd instant, to make the following appointments of School Commissioners, viz:—

County of Wolfe.—St. Gabriel of Stratford: Messrs. Michel Hébert, Georges St. Paire, Eucher Arcand, Rémond Gôté, and Eusébe Brotheur.

County of Temiscouata.—Rivière du Loup: Messrs. Georges Michaud, and Abondance *alias* Bonté Gagnon.

County of Bagot.—St. Liboire: Messrs. Médard Desmarais, André Vandandaigue, Toussaint Lamoureux, Sr., François Houle, and Joseph Fontaine.

County of Compton.—South Winslow: Messrs. Alexander McLeod, Henry Layfield, Colin Noble, John McIver, and Thomas Leonard, Esquire.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council was pleased, the 12th instant, to make the following appointment of a School Commissioner, viz:—

County of Gaspé.—York and Haldimand: Mr. Edward Suddard.

His Excellency the Governor General in Council was pleased, the 14th instant, to make the following appointments of School Commissioners, viz:—

County of Saguenay.—Tadoussac: Joseph Raford, Esquire, and Messrs. Joseph Chamberland, François Morin, François Duchêne, and Narcisse Simard.

CATHOLIC BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE DISTRICT OF MONTREAL.

Mr. Marc McCready has obtained a diploma authorizing him to teach in Academics.—4th Sept. 1861.

Mr. Jean M. Thibaudier has obtained a diploma authorizing him to teach in Model Schools.—4th Sept. 1861.

Messrs. François-Xavier Lheureux, Théophile Tremblay, Jacques Olivier Duhaut, Joseph Frémault, Alfred Vigeant, Joseph Alph. Leduc and Onésime Morin; Misses Iphigénie Sévigny, Virginie Zoé Limoges, Olive Landry, Marie Claire V. Lefebvre, M. Philomène Rivet, Eulalie Brien Durocher, Marie Brouillet, Basilide Amesse, Vitaline Picotte, Adél. Dupuis, Lucie Belisle, Madame Cauvin (Marie Hamel), Marie Sara Chamberland, Julie Rose G. Chamberland, Julie St. Antoine, Adèle Lamoureux, Marie Rose Daoust, Philomène Longtin, Dorimène Duplessis, Madame Nabasés (Aglé Monet), Priscille Tétrault, Marie Éléonore Bergeron, Cordélie Têtu, Salomé Brulé, Marie Anne Baudier dite Lamontagne, Priscille Marc-Aurèle, Elmire Crose Provensal, Justine Porcault, Phil. Archambault, Jane Cross, Marie Praxède Angélique Lavoie, Sophie Patenaude, and Madame veuve Sanguinet have obtained diplomas authorizing them to teach in Elementary Schools.—5th Sept. 1861.

F. X. VALADE,
Secretary.

CATHOLIC BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE DISTRICT OF QUEBEC.

Messrs. Paschal Théophile Bergeron, Edouard Jouvin, Prosper Provensal, Grégoire Ferdinand Robitaille, F. Xavier Thibault and Benjamin Vendal; Misses Louise Allen, Ombéline Audet dite Lapointe, Sara Audette dite Lapointe, Delphine Boisvert, Marie Bilodeau, Philomène Boutin, Nathalie Bisson, Philomène Alphonsine Blais, Louise Collin, Marguerite Henriette Elmire De Tonnancour, Angèle Dallaire, Marie Beaubien Lacerte, Marie Olympe Pelletier, and Zoé Racine have obtained diplomas authorizing them to teach in Elementary Schools.—3rd Sept. 1861.

NAPOLÉON LACASSE,
Secretary.

DONATIONS TO THE LIBRARY OF THE DEPARTMENT.

The Superintendent of Education acknowledges with thanks the following donations:—

From Mr. Jules Marcou, Boston—Geology of North America, and 32 pamphlets on Geology.

From Mr. G. W. Lawler, Principal of the Protestant Academy of Three Rivers,—The Press and the Public Service, 1 vol.

SITUATION WANTED.

M. Léon De Montier, B. A., a native of France, recently engaged in teaching in the State of Virginia, would undertake to teach French and English in an Academy or school of superior education, or give private lessons in the usual literary branches.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

MONTREAL (LOWER CANADA) OCTOBER, 1861.

THE PRESS ON EDUCATION.

We are glad to see that some of the leading newspapers of the country have taken up the subject of education, as will appear by the very interesting extracts which we give in this number. Although we cannot be expected to concur in all the remarks which have been made, we must say

that it is most cheering to notice the great attention bestowed by some of the ablest writers of the press on a subject so important. We desire to abstain from all commentaries that would lead us into a controversy—a thing which, as this periodical is chiefly devoted to the diffusion of educational, literary and scientific information, we are above all desirous to avoid; but we think it is necessary to state that though the stipends paid to school teachers are exceedingly low—a drawback which the Department of Public Instruction has been long endeavoring to remove—it is not to be inferred that all those who teach at very low salaries are inefficient. Let it be said, to the credit of Lower Canada, that a good many teachers, even of those who have undergone special training in the Normal Schools, have entered upon their new career more in view of the important services they are called upon to render their fellow-citizens, than on account of any immediate pecuniary compensation. Nor is this to be wondered at, when we bear in mind that among our population so large a number of young men and young girls is found to enter religious brotherhoods or sisterhoods, where they devote themselves to teaching for a mere livelihood.

We may add, that the small proportion of pupils *reading well* is not by any means, of itself, an infallible criterion by which the efficiency of the teacher should be tested. But it is to be attributed to a state of things which, deplorable as it may be, has, to a certain extent, its cause in the peculiar circumstances in which Lower Canada is placed by its severe climate, the nature of the settlements, which, in many places, are scattered along an extended line of road, and the great difficulty experienced by farmers in procuring servants and laborers. It follows that children, almost as soon as they have learned to read indifferently, are withdrawn from school; those who remain, of course, receive farther instruction; but the fact of a small proportion only who read well does not prove the inferiority of the school or of the teacher. For the same reasons, the number of pupils attending in any given year is smaller; but we have no doubt that if the aggregate number of pupils passing through the schools in any given number of years could be ascertained for both Upper and Lower Canada, the latter would stand better the comparison. The law itself having, doubtless, taken the circumstances above mentioned into account, has fixed the ages of children for whom the payment of the monthly fee is made compulsory, whether they attend school or not, from seven to fourteen years for Lower Canada, while in Upper Canada the time is made to extend from five to sixteen years; yet, in Lower Canada, children from five to seven and from fourteen to sixteen years of age, are allowed to attend on paying the fee, but are not compelled to pay when not attending.

The remarks of the *Montreal Herald* on the cost to parents of primary education in Lower Canada, are well worthy of attention. This cost is heavy as compared with the means and resources of a large portion of the community, though the school commissioners are allowed by law to exempt the poor and destitute from the monthly fee,—a power which, to our knowledge, they have exercised

rather freely. As the moneys now collected are insufficient to afford the teachers such salaries as in justice they are entitled to receive, a remedy for the evil complained of could only be found in an increase of the Government allowance. The Superintendent in his last Report, as in all his previous reports, strongly recommends such an increase.

As we have already said, many schools where small salaries are paid, and in which only a small proportion of pupils have passed to other branches than reading,—may still be schools well conducted and well deserving of public support, yet there is no doubt that owing to the penuriousness of a great many school commissioners, incompetent teachers are often employed. If, through an increase of the grant, higher salaries were paid and the services of a greater number of well qualified teachers secured, we believe the average number of years during which pupils attend the schools would be very considerably augmented, as also the aggregate number attending yearly.

(From the *Montreal Gazette*.)

Education in Lower Canada.

I.

We published some weeks ago a table showing some of the results of the effort made to extend education in Lower Canada, taken from Dr. Chauveau's last report. Since that time we have given the report farther perusal and consideration. It is worthy of the attention of all—and who is not interested in the advancement of the people in education. Since 1853, the number of educational institutions have increased from 2,352 to 3,264, or over 34 per cent. The pupils taught have increased from 108,284 to 172,155, or almost 59 per cent; while the local contributions have risen from \$165,848 to \$503,659, or over 300 per cent. The increase in the population of Eastern Canada during that time must have been about 25 per cent., possibly a little over. In all these respects, then, there has been a faster development of the appliances for educating the youth of the country and the number receiving education. Yet there seems to be a very marked disparity between the increased work done and the amount expended to produce it. At the same rate as prevailed in 1853 the 3,264 schools of 1860 should have been maintained at a local cost of \$230,000; yet we have \$503,659, or more than twice as much money to account for. This is not, however, a thing to be complained of. The average cost to the ratepayers of a school under the former scale was a mere fraction over \$70. It is surely worth the \$150 or \$160 it now costs, or it is worth nothing at all. Nay it is a healthy and hopeful sign to see how the people are marking their increased appreciation of education year by year by taxing themselves more and more heavily. The Provincial grant last year was only \$116,000, against this large sum of nearly \$501,000—local contributions standing therefore for more than four times as much as the Provincial. Of this about \$254,000 was by local rates, the remainder by school fees. It cannot after this be said with truth that the people of Lower Canada are indifferent to education. Nearly \$121,000 of this sum was the product of an enhanced rate, which no law made it necessary for them to impose upon themselves, a purely self-imposed burden. There was an increase of \$14,000 or \$15,000 over the previous year in this enhanced rate, the total increase of contributions being only \$5,423, certainly not in proportion to increase of population. Out of the 26 Inspection districts into which the province is divided, 14 have raised rates exceeding twice the amount the Government grant; all have raised more than the amount equal to the grant, necessary to entitle them to receive it. Those which show a very large excess are Mr. Bourgeois' (including the counties of Drummond and Arthabaska, and the Catholic Schools of Chester, Tingwick, Kingsley and Durham,) where \$5,649 was raised again; a grant of \$1,493; Mr. Hubbard's (including the counties of Stanstead, Compton, Richmond and Wolfe, and the Protestant Schools of the above Townships,) showing local rates of \$17,250 against a grant of \$5,008; Dr. Parmelee's (consisting

of the District of Bedford,) which raised \$14,951 against a grant of \$5,046; Mr. Bruce's (comprising the County of Huntingdon, parts of Chateaugay and Argenteuil, and the Protestant population of this city,) raising \$10,693 against a grant of \$4,448. Mr. Valade's (including Jacques Cartier, Hochelaga, Vaudreuil and Soulanges, and the Catholic population of this city,) raising \$17,431 against a grant of \$7,153; and Mr. McCord's, (comprising the counties of Ottawa and Pontiac,) which raised \$9,029 to add to its grant of \$3,234. These amounts are exclusive of the sums raised by monthly fees and the assessments to build school-houses. The sums raised by way of fees were largest in the districts containing the city populations, where the grants made by the Municipal authorities out of the taxes are comparatively insignificant. Thus in Mr. Bardy's district, including the Catholic population of Quebec, the fees amounted to no less than \$53,375, (\$49,000 being raised in the city schools) the grant and assessment only amounting together to \$26,054 (or less than one half); in Mr. Pies's, comprising only the Quebec Protestant schools, the fees were \$19,000, the grant and assessments being only \$1,927, or little more than a tenth! Again the fees paid by the Protestants of Montreal amounted to \$38,400 against a grant and assessment of \$1,128, or less than a thirtieth! The Catholics received \$2,680 out of grant and rates, against \$70,000 monthly fees, or a little over one to twenty-four! These four sums amount together to \$176,400, or more than two-thirds of the total, (\$249,717) raised in L. Canada by monthly fees! Surely there is here some strange anomaly. The monthly fees are ordered to be levied on all children of an age to attend school, and two-thirds of the children of the province are not in its great cities. Possibly, the rates here are very much higher, or possibly all tuition fees paid voluntarily to teachers, are in these cases only brought into account.

II.

In noticing the liberal sums raised by the rate-payers of the Province to promote education, we remarked that the average cost to them of each school was now \$150 to \$160—\$154 is the exact proportion. Adding the Government grant to this, it is raised to about \$190 per school. When the expenses, such as commissions of Secretary-Treasurers, come out of this, and it is farther reduced by the subdivisions occurring whenever more than one teacher is employed, we fancy \$170 or \$175 per annum may be regarded as the stipend of the teacher. Instead of being the average, this should be the minimum. One could not get a good field hand to do ordinary drudgery for less. It is not \$15 per month. Even female teachers, of whom so many are employed because they can afford to work so cheaply, are surely not less worth than this. We know they are not if they are fit to teach school at all. And that brings us naturally to the few returns of teachers' salaries given us—of the salaries of some of the elite of the profession.

We are informed by Dr. Chauveau that the Printing Committee of the House of Assembly have decided to print the appendices to his reports *in extenso* only once in three years selected. It is just in the Census year that all the figures possible, collected by these public departments, would serve a most useful public purpose, and help to a better understanding of the progress we have made. As it is, we can make out that the numbers attending school last year bore the proportion of about one in six, or six and a half of the whole population of Lower Canada, but we have not the detailed information which would enable us to see how different districts rise or fall above or below this average. It were better to have these details only once in five years, so that one of them should always be the census year.

We have, however, the reports of the principals of the three Normal Schools given at considerable length, one (Laval) describing the course of study at great length, and giving the names of all the pupil teachers passed since the school was founded, whence they came and whither they have gone, interesting personal details, doubtless, but when space was so economised the results in figures might have served for this year. Another (that of the Jacques Cartier) gives us a syllabus of his course of lectures upon the art of teaching occupying a page and a half of the blue book. To this report also is annexed the list of pupils who have received diplomas, where teaching, &c. The Principal of the McGill School errs if at all in too great brevity. Either from lack of the materials or for the sake of brevity, he has not furnished an item of useful information which the others have given; we allude to the salaries of the teachers sent out and now employed. The Jacques Cartier School has returns of 40 of its pupils—all male teachers. Of these no less than 13 are working for salaries below \$200; 10 for salaries between \$200 and \$300; 8 for \$300 to \$350; 5 for \$350 to \$400; 3 for \$400 and over, and one has become a professor in the St. Anne's

Agricultural College at \$500. One of those teaching at the lowest salaries is in Rigaud College; another in the second grade in Huntingdon Academy. In both these cases we presume they have accepted very subordinate positions. Four of the others in the second grade, with salaries less than \$300, hold model school diplomas, and are teaching model schools, enjoying the enhanced allowance accorded to them. Here are the topmost French Canadian teachers of the Elementary and Model Schools, who besides acquiring an ordinary education have given up two years to hard study to acquire peculiar aptitude for their work; and 10 out of 15 of them are working for less than \$350 per annum, all but one for less than \$400. Is the teacher of youth, then, worth so much less than a shop-keeper's assistant? Is it well to keep down those who must exercise so great an influence upon the minds of the youth of the country to this condition? It is quite true, it may be said, that beginning thus at low salaries, they may rise, if competent, to fill more lucrative places in the colleges, in the department of education, or in the Normal Schools. That is one gleam of hope, and we are glad Dr. Chauveau again holds it out to those under him, and insists on it as a duty, in his report to the Government; but why starve the poor fellows meanwhile? Turning to Laval, we find the case still worse. Out of returns from 28 male teachers trained, only 4 have salaries of \$350, and upwards; only four more exceed \$300; one gets less than \$160, and one actually less than \$100. Of those receiving less than \$300, one was teaching an academy, one engaged in a college, and no less than twelve teaching Model schools. If trained teachers, fortified with a Normal School diploma, only receive these pittance, what becomes of those who can boast no such claim to a good salary? There is this cold comfort, that these best-salaried men cannot affect the average much, so as to indicate any great falling below it by those least paid. But turn we the leaf for the salaries of female teachers, and we find, out of 47 returns, not one receiving a salary over \$300, but four receiving less than \$100, and twenty-eight more, less than \$160. Of these twenty eight, five taught Model Schools!

III.

In our previous comments on the data furnished in Dr. Chauveau's report for forming an estimate of the progress of education in Lower Canada, we marked it as a hopeful sign that the average payment for the support of schools was so largely increased since 1853. The returns shew, in as far as mere figures can, that something more is also being obtained in the way of education for this money, though scarcely in a due proportion. The numbers reading well in 1853 were only set down at 27,367 out of 108,284 pupils in the schools, or little over 25 per cent. In 1860, 67,753 out of a total of 172,155 can do this, or about 40 per cent. In writing unfortunately the progress is almost null, only having risen from 46 to something over 49 per cent. But the proportion learning simple arithmetic has risen from 18,281 in 1853 to 63,341, or from 16 per cent. to 36 per cent., but in compound arithmetic the increase has not been so great. There were no pupils returned as studying book-keeping in 1853. In 1854 they stood at 799, in 1860 at 7319, or more than nine times as many. Geography shows an increase of learners from 12,185 to 48,462—from 11 to 28 per cent. The learners of history show a still further increase, having been in 1853 but 6,738, and rising to 46,324 last year—from 6½ to 26 per cent. The students of French grammar were but 14 per cent. in '53: they had risen to nearly 31½. The students of English Grammar rose from 6½ per cent. to a little over 15 per cent., and parsing was taught to ten times as many as in '53. The small increase in the pupils learning writing will be, in part, accounted for by the fact that nearly twice the number had begun writing in 1853 as could read well. In 1854 there was an absolute falling off in numbers. In 1860 there are only 13,491 more writing than those returned as reading well. But giving the education system the advantage of these extra members, we arrive at a result which is a very lamentable one. Less than half the pupils in all these schools are employed at lessons not strictly belonging to the infant school. We have not the reports of the inspectors before us, or the returns of the ages of the pupils in attendance, but we must infer that too many of the schools are mere shams, mere infant schools of the poorest sort, where some half-taught girl teaches very little children their letters and the catechism, at the lowest possible figure which a human being can live upon. Not 40 per cent. of the children in all the schools have learned to read well; not 50 per cent. have begun to learn to write! Dr. Chauveau seems to be doing what he can to amend this, but if parents will refuse their children the benefits of schooling beyond their very infancy, and Commissioners will gratify them by keeping down taxes and underpaying teachers, he cannot hope to work any very sudden reformation, so

long as the work is left so much in the hands of those who appreciate education least.

One cause of complaint, we are very glad to see, is being, year by year, faithfully rooted out. There are three grades of teachers employed, viz.—those trained in the Normal Schools, of whom we have already spoken; those who have passed examinations before boards of examiners; and those with no diplomas at all. It is clear that no one without a diploma or certificate of examination of some sort, should be allowed to teach in a school receiving a government grant. And the superintendent is gradually, but firmly, we are glad to learn, enforcing this legal and reasonable rule. In 1856 there were only 752 teachers with diplomas, against 2,018 without. In 1860 there were 2,344 with diplomas, and only 971 without. The former have increased 280 during the past year, the latter decreased 180. This is not nearly enough, but it is something done in the right direction. On this subject we conclude by quoting the remarks of the Superintendent:—

(From the Toronto Leader.)

Educational Statistics of Lower Canada.

Mr. Chauveau's report for 1860, on the state of public education in Lower Canada, has just been distributed. It contains a mass of valuable statistics and many interesting facts relating to the progress of the schools within the Eastern part of the Province during the past year. Of these we purpose taking a cursory review.

The report sets out with the cheering statement that the advancement made, considering the importance of the subjects which had presented themselves to the Council, had been as great as could have been hoped for. In the choice of school manuals due considerations had been given to the recommendations of Protestants and Catholics alike. The sum of \$800 given by the Prince of Wales for distribution as prizes, had been placed out at interest, and the proceeds appropriated to the purpose for which they were designed. The normal schools were eagerly sought out by the youth of the community; but a regret is expressed that on account of the insufficiency of the public grants to the Laval and Jacques Cartier schools, a considerable increase had been required in the tuition fees. In this connection a complaint is lodged against the school municipalities, the Superintendent remarking that were they "to do their duty, by striving to secure good teachers and offering them suitable salaries, there would be no difficulty in increasing the number of pupils." Such an increase was much needed, the number being insufficient to meet the demand. There had, however, been a considerable addition to the roll of school teachers trained in the three schools—Jacques Cartier, McGill, and Laval—as was shown by a comparison of the returns of 1857 and 1860 respectively; those in the former year being 70, and in the latter, 228. The Normal School diplomas granted in the same institutions were—4 for academies; 134 for model schools; and 181 for elementary schools. The number of normal school pupils being but 212, it would thus be seen that many of them obtained three diplomas for successive courses.

Leaving these details, we have to deal with broader and more general facts. And one of the first and most interesting is that presented by figures, showing the operations of the voluntary system in Lower Canada. The following results are obtained from the tabular form setting forth the sums levied for primary education in the different school municipalities:—Assessment or voluntary contribution to equal amount of grant, \$114,424. Comparing this item with the returns for 1859, there is indicated a falling off of \$1,368. On the other hand, the amount of assessment levied over and above the amount required to equal the grant, and of special assessments for the payment of debts, was \$123,939, against \$109,151 in 1859—an increase of \$14,788. From these statistics the important fact is deduced that the amount raised by voluntary contributions in Lower Canada during 1860 more than doubled the Government grant of \$116,000. Before this gratifying result could be gained, much had to be accomplished in the way of convincing and overcoming the prejudices of the people, who, when the suggestion was first made that the municipalities should have the power of doubling the assessment, cried out loudly against the proposal, declaring that there was no possibility of compelling them to do so, and that they would not voluntarily do it. Yet they did it; and nearly \$100,000 were added to their contributions—inclusive of monthly fees and assessment for buildings—from 1856 to 1860—the total in the former year being \$406,776, and in the latter, \$503,859. In the assessments for buildings there had been a decrease of some \$6000, instead of an increase, as on the other items, and this decrease, it was urged, showed the necessity of making a special grant for building purposes.

A summary of the statistical tables is embodied in the report, showing that the number of pupils of the faculties of the universities and of the superior schools had been 552; pupils of classical colleges, 2,781; of the industrial colleges, 2,333; of the academies for boys, and mixed, 6,210; and of the academies for girls, 14,817. The whole number of pupils of these institutions, adding thereto the number of pupils of the Normal Schools, was 26,921. In 1860 there were 3,264 public educational institutions in Lower Canada as compared with 2,352 in 1853; 172,155 pupils, against 168,148, \$503,859, against \$498,436. The progress made by the pupils in the different branches taught had been most satisfactory. The total number of schools in operation under the control of the commissioners and trustees had been 2,730, being an increase of 53 over 1859. Primary schools, both under control and independent, 3,076; pupils, 144,905; increase, 3,372. Within five years there had been an increase of 211 per cent. in the number of teachers holding diplomas; while the number unprovided with diplomas had decreased 107 per cent.

With regard to salaries, the number of male teachers receiving less than \$100 was 39; in 1859 it was 97. Teachers receiving from \$100 to \$200, this year, 478; last year, 187. From \$200 to \$400, this year, 327; last year, 341. Teachers receiving \$400 and over, this year, 65; last year, 51. The salaries of the female teachers had been increased in proportion. An effectual protection had been afforded to teachers by the law giving them an indemnity against the department when unjustly dismissed by the school commissioners. To satisfy such claims, the sum of \$363 had during the year 1860 been withheld from the local funds of the municipalities. The object and effect of this regulation had been to put a stop to the practice of reducing the salaries of teachers at the last moment, by compelling them to make engagements on terms which would be accepted by ill qualified competitors; in many cases having no diplomas.

To see the struggles yet to be made before public instruction should have attained the full development indispensable in a country enjoying a representative government and the immense resources possessed by Canada, it was only necessary to compare the statistics of the Lower with those of the Upper Province. One of the obstacles in the way of that result was the elective system as applied to the appointment of school commissioners. Nevertheless, what had been accomplished under it was already so important that it was out of the question to think of renouncing it; and the obstacles would diminish in proportion as the generation receiving elementary education grew up. Above all, in the efforts of the clergy and the educational institutions, powerful auxiliaries have been found for overcoming the resistance offered by avarice and ignorance, aided by evil counsels. On all hands, it is now admitted that public schools were a necessity.

The peculiar manner of dividing the back settlements, together with the severity of the climate and the poverty of many localities, prevented a school attendance in Lower Canada equal to the Western Province or the State of Massachusetts; but the proportion was greater than that in either England or France.—Still, it was evident that a greater number might attend and ought to attend; and the levying of the monthly fees in regard to children who did not attend the schools equally with those who did go, was looked upon as a powerful means of inducing parents to send them punctually.

Viewing the report as a whole, it gives cause for congratulation that our brethren in Lower Canada are steadily, surely, and not slowly, advancing in education, as well as in numbers, wealth, and influence.

(From the Montreal Herald.)

Reports of the Superintendents of Education for Upper and Lower Canada.

We have had lying on our desk for some time past these two reports of the condition and movements of our school system for the year 1860. Both reports show a very considerable extension of the desire for education on the part of the people. Comparing the two, one may say that absolutely Upper Canada is the most advanced; but that Lower Canada is most rapidly advancing. In the first, public schools have been long established and long appreciated; in the second, with a high standard before them, the people are struggling hard to cover the ground which still lies between them and their competitors, who made an earlier and better start. The money raised in the two sections for educational purposes, considered relatively to the population, seems to have been larger in

Lower Canada than in Upper, being in the first \$1,124,575, and in the second \$1,448,448; but the distribution of the money among various classes of educational establishments was very strikingly different. Out of the \$1,448,448 raised in Upper Canada, we find paid to grammar school-masters, erection and repairs of grammar schools, and for colleges and private academies, only \$338,874; leaving for the ordinary schools no less than \$1,159,574. Indeed, the colleges in Upper Canada received only the inconsiderable subvention of \$128,550, so that the deduction from the fund applicable to the preparation of the great mass of the people for the ordinary business of life is hardly appreciable. On the other hand, out of the \$1,124,575 of Lower Canada, no less than \$504,716 was expended for Universities, Colleges, Academies and Normal Schools. This presents a large balance of advantages against that part of population of Lower Canada, who do not expect to make use of the classics and the mathematics, and who cannot spare the time to acquire them. In another particular, the population actually making use of the schools in Lower Canada is much less favourably situated than in Upper Canada, for whereas in the last named section only \$91,508 was taken in the shape of fees for attendance, in Lower Canada \$249,717 were thus received. Of course the balances were made up by public assessments, which were evidently much more liberal in the West than the East. It may well be a question, and we know that it has been much debated, whether it is right as a matter of justice, or wise as a matter of policy, to make public education too cheap, at the expense of that portion of the community not directly interested in it. This is not the place to enter into that discussion; but the fact is plain, that taking into account the small comparative portion of the whole school fund allotted to primary schools, and the large proportion of it which is paid as fees by the children in attendance, the cost of instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic—the Trinity which the celebrated Alderman Curtis toasted as the three R's—is much higher here than in Upper Canada. The number of educational establishments of all kinds in Lower Canada in 1860 was 3,264,—in Upper Canada, 4,379. But the increase was much more rapid in Lower than in Upper Canada; being in the first 65 over 1859, and 279 over 1858, and in the last only 7 over 1859, and 121 over 1858. On the other hand, in the more essential element of pupils, Upper Canada carries the palm far aloft, for her pupils had increased in 1860 by 14,593 over 1859, and by 22,213 over 1858, while the Lower Canadian increase was the somewhat scant one of 4007 over 1859, and 15,283 over 1858. Perhaps the relative success of the two systems in point of augmentation in the number of scholars may be traced not remotely to the difference in the treatment of the poorer classes who furnish the multitude of school children everywhere, which we have noted above. In Lower Canada the numbers receiving instruction are as 1 to 6½ of the population—in Upper Canada as 1 to 4½ of the population. The following is a comparison of several States of the Union with Upper and Lower Canada, showing the numbers per head of the population who attend primary schools:—

Upper Canada.....	22.65
New-York.....	22.52
Pensylvania.....	20.13
Massachusetts.....	20.60
Lower Canada.....	13.26

As to teachers the following facts may be interesting:—Upper Canada: numbers employed 4,281—increase since last year, 46. Lower Canada: numbers employed 3,315—increase 210. The lowest salary to a male teacher in Upper Canada was \$96, the highest \$1,300—average with board \$188, or without, \$157. For females the average with board, was \$124, and without \$242. In Lower Canada 39 male teachers received less than \$100; but there has been a great improvement in this respect, for in 1859 there were 97 thus poorly paid. Those receiving over \$400 were 65 against 51 in 1857. This shows at any rate an increasing appreciation of a teacher's office. Of female teachers receiving less than \$100, the number was 989; 1,207 received between \$100 and \$250; 109 between \$200 and \$400; and only 1 over \$400.

The number of Roman Catholic Separate Schools reported in Upper Canada was 115; increase, 10. The amount of Legislative grant apportioned to them was \$7,119; amount of Trustees' local assessments or rate, \$14,305; increase, \$1,374; amount of local subscriptions and other revenues, \$9,408; decrease, 458; number of pupils, 14,708; increase, 1,714.

Report of the Superintendent of Education for Lower Canada, for the year 1860.

(Concluded from our last.)

The table of amounts levied for primary education in the different school municipalities of Lower Canada gives the following results:—Assessment or voluntary contribution to equal amount of grant, \$114,424. This item for 1859 was \$115,792. There has, therefore, been a falling off of \$1,368. This is one of those fluctuations which must be expected to occur. The amount of assessment levied over and above the amount required to equal the grant, and of special assessments for the payment of debts, is \$123,939; in 1859 it was \$109,151; increase, \$14,788. This is a very large sum, particularly when taken in connection with the increase of last year, which was \$20,779. In fact it will be seen that the amount levied by annual assessment is more than double the Government grant, the latter being \$116,000, while the total amount levied is \$238,364.

It must not be forgotten that when it was first suggested to give the municipalities the power of doubling the assessment, people cried out against the proposal, affirming that there was no possibility of compelling them to do so, and that they would not do it voluntarily. The amount of monthly fees paid by parents for each child old enough to attend school is \$249,717; for the preceding year the amount was \$251,408. There is, therefore, a decrease of \$1,691. The assessment for building or repairing school-houses has only amounted to \$15,778; for the preceding year this item was \$22,083; decrease, \$6,305. The decrease in this species of assessment for the last two years proves the necessity of making a special grant for the purpose, as I have frequently recommended. It is evident that the same principle which applies to the annual assessment, that is to say, of helping those who are willing to help themselves, would produce a like effect if it were applied to the building of school-houses, and that by granting sums of money proportioned to the sacrifices made by each locality for that purpose, the same results would be attained. The whole amount of contributions of all kinds has been \$503,859; in 1859 it was \$498,436—increase, \$5,423. This increase falls far short of last year's, and bears out what I stated in my previous reports, that when once a certain point was reached a progressive increase could hardly be expected, unless the Government grant were also to be increased in proportion to the efforts made by the municipalities.

The following table shows the scale of progression of all species of assessment for the last five years:—

	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
	\$	cts.	\$	cts.	\$
Assessment to equal grant	113884	87	113887	08	115185
Assessment over and above do.....	93897	90	78791	17	88372
Monthly fees.....	173488	98	208602	37	231192
Assessment for buildings.....	25493	80	22928	63	24646
Total	406776	55	424209	25	493396
					65
					251408
					44
					249717
					10
					15778
					23
					48
					503859
					73

I append to this Report those which I have already addressed to the Executive relative to the distribution of the grant for superior education for 1860, and the statistics will also be found to contain a summary of the returns required by the law.

I have, happily, been enabled to make the distribution this year without reducing the shares accruing to the different institutions already on the list, and, in addition, to grant aid to a good many new model schools.

It will be seen from the summary of the table of statistics of superior education that the number of pupils of the faculties of the universities and of the superior schools has been 552; that the pupils of classical colleges, 2,781; of the industrial colleges, 2,333; of the academies for boys, and mixed, 6,210; of the academies for girls, 14,817. The whole number of pupils of these institutions, adding thereto the number of pupils of the Normal School, is 26,921.

The following table gives at a glance the general results obtained by statistics since 1853; but it is right to mention that the amount of fees paid in the colleges, and many other items of expenditure for education, are not included therein. It contains only the amounts raised by the school commissioners and trustees, and an estimate of the amount of fees paid by pupils of independent schools in the cities:—

TABLE exhibiting the progress of Public Instruction in Lower Canada since 1853.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	Increase over 1859.	Increase over 1858.	Increase over 1857.	Increase over 1856.	Increase over 1855.	Increase over 1854.	Increase over 1853.
Institutions.....	2352	2795	2868	2919	2946	2985	3199	3264	64	299	316	345	395	469	912
Pupils	106284	119733	127058	143141	148798	156872	168148	172155	4007	15283	23357	29014	45097	52422	63871
Contributions....	165848	238032	249136	406764	424208	459396	498436	503859	5423	44463	79651	97125	254723	265827	338011

The following table exhibits the progress made since 1853 in the different branches taught. The results are satisfactory.

COMPARATIVE TABLE of the Number of Children following the different branches of Instruction, since 1853.

	Increase over 1853.	Increase over 1858.	Increase over 1857.	Increase over 1856.	Increase over 1855.	Increase over 1854.	Increase over 1853.	Decrease in 1860.
Pupils reading well.....	3391	15654	18920	20813	24346	34692	40336	
" writing.....	1092	15840	19301	20158	23211	34230	31172	
learn'g simple arithmet.	•	7494	10496	14982	32710	40444	45060	•173
" compound "	839	3562	5115	8327	9172	13685	19330	
" Book-keeping.....	184	630	1813	2307	5343	6520	7319	
" Geography.....	4069	11615	15856	19328	31762	35636	37277	
" History.....	327	4008	20177	28744	30804	34838	39586	
" French grammar.	762	10907	15147	14886	30954	36362	38861	
" English "	5300	9725	12999	13249	16069	17976	18007	
" Parsing.....	2405	6138	12807	20561	29432	37588	42459	
1860.	67763	61362	61362	61362	61362	61362	61362	
1859.	61362	61362	61362	61362	61362	61362	61362	
1858.	52099	65404	80152	81244	81244	81244	81244	
1857.	48833	65404	80152	81244	81244	81244	81244	
1856.	46340	60086	61943	61943	61943	61943	61943	
1855.	43407	60086	61943	61943	61943	61943	61943	
1854.	32891	30631	48359	52845	53847	63514	63341	
1853.	27867	22586	23431	26643	28196	30919	31768	

The general synoptical table of all the school statistics, is one of those which the Legislature has deemed it advisable to publish every year. The total number of schools in operation under the control of the commissioners and trustees, has been 2,730; increase over 1859,—53.

The total number of primary schools, both under control and independent, has been 3,086; the number of pupils, 144,905; increase, 3,372.

The increase falls far below that of last year. A certain number of schools have been closed, owing to the fact that aid has been perforce refused to municipalities employing teachers unprovided with diplomas. Had not the department, this year again, shown indulgence to certain remote localities, which had done their utmost

to comply with the law, it is probable there would have been a notable decrease in the number of pupils attending the schools under control.

I am not ignorant of the many painful circumstances attending such a result; but the local municipalities had received ample warning, and it was time to put the law in full execution in several parishes which seemed to be unwilling to comply with it.

The number of male and female teachers holding diplomas, who have taught during the year, has been 2,344; increase, 280. The number not holding diplomas has been 971; decrease, 180. It is clear that if the persistence of the department as regards diplomas, has not as yet produced its full effect, it has at all events had an appreciable result.

The following little table will show the progress made within the last five years in this respect :

YEAR	1856	1857	1858	1859	1860
Male and female teachers holding diplomas, teaching.	752	1632	1894	1964	2344
Male and female teachers without diplomas, teaching.	2018	1120	1033	1141	971

The increase in the number of male and female teachers holding diplomas is 1592—that is to say, 211 per cent; while the number of those unprovided with diplomas has decreased by 1,047, or 107 per cent, within the last five years.

The above figures include a considerable number of teachers of independent schools, of assistant female teachers in schools under control, and of members of religious communities who are exempt by law from the obligation of holding diplomas.

The number of male and female teachers, unprovided with diplomas, in charge of schools under the control of the commissioners and trustees, this year, has not exceeded 519.

The number of male teachers receiving less than \$100 is 39; it was 97 last year; decrease, 58. The number of those who receive from \$100 to \$200 is 457; it was 478 in 1859, decrease, 9. The number of those who receive from \$200 to \$400 exclusively, is 327; it was 341 in 1859; decrease, 14. Finally, the number of those receiving \$400 and over, is 65; it was 51 in 1859; increase, 14.

The number of female teachers receiving less than \$100 is 949; decrease, 11. The number of female teachers receiving from \$100 to \$200 exclusively, is 1207; increase, 185. The number receiving from \$200 to \$400 exclusively, is 109; increase, 3. One female teacher only, receives over \$400.

It should be mentioned that the male and female teachers who receive the lowest salaries are, in a good many instances, assistants paid by the head teachers of the schools, and in some cases receiving their board in addition to their salary, the former not being taken into account. I must also mention, that the above sums do not include rent and firewood, which are allowed by many municipalities.

The reports of the inspectors contain no remarks or suggestions other than those which have frequently been made, in their reports and in my own.

The laws relating to public instruction having been consolidated and put in order, it will be less difficult to correct hereafter any defects they may still contain. The changes which have been made in the law within the last few years, have, generally speaking, produced satisfactory results.

The provision of the law which gives teachers the right of claiming from this department an indemnity—to be deducted from the share of the grant—when they are unjustly dismissed by the school-commissioners, has given an effectual protection to the body of teachers, and created for them a tribunal easy of access and entailing but little expense. The executive has declared equivalent to an unjust dismissal, a refusal to renew an engagement without having previously given the three months' notice required under a wise regulation of my predecessor, which I have deemed it my duty to confirm. This tacit renewal of the engagement is quite in keeping with the spirit of our laws, and no one will contest the equity of the doctrine which applies it to a class of men so useful, and who have, generally speaking, to struggle with so many and such great difficulties.

In granting these indemnities, the department has of necessity been exceedingly moderate and careful, and I am happy to state

that, while justice has been done to the teachers, the total amount which has been withheld from the local funds of the municipalities is only \$363.

The following municipalities have been compelled to pay indemnities averaging from \$10 to \$80, namely: Sorel, St. Alexandre d'Iberville, St. Thomas de la Rivière du Sud, in 1857; Cote-des-Neiges, Coteau St. Louis, Becancour, Yamachiche, and St. Thomas de Joliette, in 1858; La Présentation, and St. Jérôme, in 1859; St. Lazare de Bellechasse and St. Germain de Rimouski, in 1861.

I have every reason to think that these examples will give a sufficient sanction to the law and to the regulation, and that, for the future, school commissioners will avoid giving grounds for such complaints.

Some municipalities thought to elude the injunctions of the department, by notifying all their teachers at the beginning of the year—without any reason whatever, and without an opportunity of judging of their fitness—that they did not intend continuing their engagement. They were informed that the department would not tolerate such conduct, and would not recognize, in any way, notices so given. Others have stipulated with the teachers for an exemption from this formality. Notwithstanding that teachers who consent to such stipulations are guilty of infringing a regulation which protects both themselves and their fellow-teachers, nevertheless, such is the dependent and painful condition of many members of the body, that I have deemed it my duty to protect them even against their own imprudence, and to insist upon the abandonment of this new method of evading the instructions of the department.

The commissioners have no just grounds to complain of the operation of this regulation, particularly, as it does not prevent them from dismissing, at any time, teachers who do not do their duty properly; and as they have also the right, as regards those whose conduct is immoral, of having their diplomas revoked by the council of public instruction.

The object of this regulation is, therefore, simply to put a stop to the practice of reducing the salaries of teachers at the last moment, by compelling them to make engagements on terms which would be accepted by ill-qualified competitors, in many cases having no diplomas.

I regret being compelled to add, that this practice of lowering the salaries of teachers seems, in some localities, difficult to contend with; and more especially that there prevails in some municipalities, amongst the rate-payers of the other school sections, an unhappy jealousy of the model school of the parish.

I have found it necessary, in several instances, to recommend the erection into a municipality of the district containing the model school, and I am happy to state that, in any event, the Government has determined to use every means in its power for the support of the model-schools wherever they exist, and to establish them wherever they ought to be established. The model, or *primary superior*, school is destined to spread throughout the country an education truly beneficial to commerce and industry, and to place our youth on a level as regards knowledge, with that of other countries.

It is only necessary to compare our statistics with those of Upper Canada, to see the struggles we have yet to make before public instruction shall have attained, at its basis, that is to say, in the primary schools, the full development indispensable in a country enjoying a representative government, a country with such vast material resources, and whose prosperity might receive so mighty an impulse from the general diffusion of useful knowledge, and a sound practical education.

It cannot be denied that the elective system as applied to the appointment of school-commissioners, has hitherto been, and is still daily, a source of great obstacles in the way of progress.

These obstacles will, however, diminish in proportion as the generation which has received elementary education grows up; for our system of public instruction has hardly been more than ten or twelve years established in the country, and the very first group of the generations which have been enabled to avail themselves of it, has not yet reached an age to take part in the business of life, in most of the municipalities.

Nevertheless, what has been accomplished under the elective system, is already so important, that it is out of the question to think of renouncing it. Indeed it will one day be a subject of pride for the people of Lower Canada, to have created with their own hands, at a period when elementary education was so little diffused, and almost entirely without the aid of coercive measures, a vast body of schools gradually advancing in number, in organi-

zation, and in efficiency. Such a result could have been attained, in the absence of school instruction, only amongst a people who possessed an excellent domestic education, combined with strong and pure traditions; and, in fact, the morality of the people of Lower Canada, as established by the criminal statistics of this continent, shows that this has been the case.

Above all, the efforts of the clergy, and the educational institutions, both independent and subsidized, which they have multiplied throughout the country, have given the impetus; and the friends of education found in these powerful auxiliaries the means of overcoming the resistance offered by avarice and ignorance, aided by evil counsels. This resistance has not, however, completely disappeared, but has changed its ground. It is now admitted on all hands that schools are a necessity; and while there is hardly a single locality willing to do without them, while in fact the withdrawal of the grant is found to be dreaded as one of the greatest punishments which the law can inflict for a violation of its other provisions and of the by-laws of the department; on the other hand, it is very certain that the raising of the teachers' salaries and the different reforms required in the system of teaching still encounter much opposition. They are, nevertheless, matters of the highest importance, even as regards the more general diffusion of elementary education throughout the country.

The apathy of parents, their neglect of sending their children regularly to school, will be best overcome by the good results of the education received by the children who attend. Now, the results obtained by inferior schools, inefficiently conducted, by ill-remunerated teachers, can never have this effect. The best means, therefore, of increasing the number of pupils, is to improve the school, and consequently to improve the condition of the teacher. It is for the attainment of this object that those who have already struggled with so much courage, and those who would follow in their footsteps, must struggle to-day. It is quite true that, owing to the peculiar manner in which our back settlements are divided, the distance between the houses, and the length of the ranges or concessions, owing also to the severity of the climate and the poverty of many localities, it will never be possible to obtain a school attendance on the part of our children, equal in proportion to that of Upper Canada or the State of Massachusetts; but we must not rest satisfied because our proportion is already greater than that of other countries, such, for instance, as England and France; for it is evident, (and this is admitted by all) that a far greater number might and ought to attend, it is certain that a great evil exists, and that every possible effort should be made to remedy it.

In Upper Canada, notwithstanding that the Reports of the Superintendent shew that a large proportion of the children attend the schools, divers means of compelling parents to send them with more regularity are being discussed. Fines, and even imprisonment, are resorted to in some of the States of Europe; but, apart from the fact that the application of such a remedy would be difficult in this country, and repugnant to our institutions, I am in hopes that those which I have already pointed out will suffice. As this reform is one which claims the united good will and efforts of all, public attention cannot be too much drawn to it.

The levying of the monthly fees, which are exacted, as is well known, for children who do not attend the schools equally with those who do attend, is a powerful means of inducing parents to send them punctually. Several attempts have been made to do away with this provision of the law; it is my opinion, on the contrary, that the fees should be levied more strictly than hitherto, and that while the children of the poor should, as the law allows, be admitted free of charge into our schools, those parents especially should be compelled to pay, who neglect to secure for their children that instruction which the State has so generously placed within their reach.

In a good many parishes where it was difficult to collect the monthly fees, the rate has been doubled, and the fees abandoned; in some localities larger amounts have been raised in this way, than would have been realized by means of the regular obligatory assessment and the monthly fees. I have refrained, under the circumstances, from taking such proceedings against the Commissioners as they render themselves liable to on failing to levy the monthly fees.

Those whose schools are not well attended will be induced, I trust, to re-establish the monthly fees, maintaining at the same time the new rate which they have happily succeeded in obtaining.

In a few parishes I have succeeded in effecting this, and the Commissioners have found the good effects of it, as well in a financial point of view, (for it enabled them to secure good teachers)

as in reference to the number and assiduity of their pupils. There is reason to hope that their good example will be followed wherever this step may be necessary.

I have the honor to be, Sir,
Your obedient servant,
(Signed) P. J. O. CHAUVEAU,
Superintendent of Education.

Reports of School Inspectors, for 1859 and 1860.

Extracts from the Report of Inspector PAINCHAUD.

Mr. Painchaud states that in 1859 and 1860, eight school districts of the Magdalen Islands contained six school-houses, with 239 pupils. Of this number, 107 were in a. b. c.'s; 81 could read off-hand: 51 could read very well; 70 were learning how to write; 50 studied simple arithmetic, and 25 compound arithmetic; 50 studied French grammar, and 17 Scripture.

The mean salary of the teachers was \$193; and the monthly rate was paid regularly. We translate as follows:

"I am happy," continues Mr. Painchaud, "to be in a position to say in this Report that the rate-payers have for some time paid their contributions and assessments without a murmur. The effect of this laudable change in the feeling of the population on this subject will be to place our schools on a better footing, and at the same time to augment their number. It will be seen by statistics accompanying this Report, that the number of children attending school in the district under my inspection is more considerable this year than it was in years preceding. Some of the School Commissioners are making praiseworthy efforts to stimulate the parents and pupils; and when we bear in mind the meagre resources of the inhabitants of this remote part of the country, we cannot but be thankful for the results already attained. There remains, however, the great obstacle which I have before mentioned,—the real want which parents have for the assistance of their children while employed in the fishery, as, deprived of this assistance, they might be exposed to great hardship. This requirement, which the fisherman feels more than the agriculturist, will continue to exist among the people of these islands until they are better off and know how to value the benefit conferred by education."

Mr. Painchaud, in concluding his report, refers to the difficulties he met with while endeavoring to obtain from the Secretary Treasurer the guarantee required by law; and complains of the action of the Commissioners in dismissing, without sufficient cause, a very able teacher whom they had brought, at considerable expense, from the District of St. Hyacinthe.

Extracts from Inspector MEACHER'S Report.

The following is a statement of my visits to each municipality, viz:

Port Daniel.—Found three schools in operation, kept by male teachers—all of which were well attended. No. 1 is kept by Mr. Joseph Michaud—an excellent teacher to whom I granted a recommendation to teach until a Board of Examiners is appointed for this County. No. 2 had only been commenced a short time previous to my last visit. The school was well attended, and the teacher being competent, I granted him a recommendation to teach. No. 3, kept by Mr. L. P. Raiche—found 44 scholars in attendance between the ages of from 6 to 12; the children were, however, badly provided with books. I was accompanied to the school by the President of the Commissioners. The examination of schools Nos. 1 and 2 very satisfactory; No. 3 very indifferent.

Hope.—One school in operation. No. 1, kept by Mr. Leek, attended by 52 children—examination good. I granted the teacher Mr. Leek, a recommendation to teach. No. 2, formerly kept by William Moir, was closed.

Hamilton.—Two schools in operation, kept by female teachers. Very good teachers in both French and English, and the examination very satisfactory.

Cox.—There are four school districts in the Municipality, but only two in operation, viz: No. 2, taught by Mr. William Aunez, well attended, the pupils making a considerable degree of progress—examination satisfactory. No. 3, taught by Mr. William Beaham, had been only commenced a few days before my visit. To both these teachers, being competent, I granted recommendations to be continued to teach until a Board of Examiners is appointed for the County.

New Richmond.—In this municipality there are nine school

districts, six under control of the School Commissioners, and three under Dissenting Trustees. During the last six months of 1860, there was but one school in operation, kept by a female teacher and under control of the commissioners, which I found well attended—but very little improvement made since my former visit, owing to the want of class books.

Maria.—One school in operation at the time of my tour of inspection, kept by a female—examination satisfactory. To her I have also granted a recommendation. Two other schools have been put in operation since the teachers obtained my recommendations.

Carleton.—In the three school districts of this municipality, only two schools are in operation. No. 1, taught by a most excellent teacher, in French and English—indeed this teacher would be well qualified to take charge of a Model School. There were 56 scholars in attendance at the time of the examination. The school commissioners, with several school visitors, were present—examination very satisfactory. No. 3—I found very inferior and a great want of books. I refused to give a recommendation to the teacher, as I did not consider him competent.

Nouvelle.—Two schools were in operation, both of which are now closed, as I did not consider the teachers qualified to teach.

Shoobred.—Only one school in operation at the time of my visits, kept by Mr. James Laugton, attended by 32 scholars—examination satisfactory. In this municipality, I am sorry to say there exist many difficulties and much clashing between the Commissioners and Rate-Payers.

Mann.—One school only in operation, kept by a young man of good ability and well qualified to teach—examination very satisfactory. The school at Indian Mission is still in operation, with Indian children in attendance—all of whom are learning English and making great progress.

Matapidia and Ristigouche.—Two schools in operation—well attended and both kept by male teachers, to each of whom I granted a recommendation to teach—the examination of both schools very satisfactory. Since my visits to this municipality, I understand great differences have arisen between the school commissioners, the rate-payers and the Municipal Council of Ristigouche, inasmuch as they are desirous of having this municipality divided into two; for this purpose the Municipal Council has petitioned the Education Department.

Not having been provided with the necessary blank forms for Statistical Tables for the year 1860, I have sent you the Statement of all the schools within my jurisdiction—showing the number of schools in operation, the number of school districts, number of teachers, number of scholars in attendance, and the total number of children within each municipality of age to attend school—with a few remarks thereon.

In the 47 school districts of this county, only 21 schools were in operation, attended by 851 children and taught by 14 male and 7 female teachers. The reason that so many of the other schools were closed is owing to the teachers not having been provided with diplomas from some Board of Examiners, and being discharged in consequence at the end of the first six months of the past year,—the Commissioners and Trustees not considering themselves justified in retaining them.

Several of the teachers have left and gone over to the neighbouring Province of New Brunswick, where they are employed at remunerating salaries, the Government allowance there being from £20 to £27 10s. per annum for each teacher. Until a Board of Examiners is appointed for the County of Bonaventure, a great number of the schools will remain vacant for want of duly qualified teachers.

(To be continued.)

Fifteenth Conference of the Teachers' Association in connection with the Jacques Cartier Normal School.

At this conference, as both President and Vice-President were absent, M. Archambault filled the chair.

After the usual routine business, the Treasurer, M. Boudrias, submitted a statement of his accounts, which, on motion of M. Amirault seconded by M. Desplaines, was unanimously approved of.

The voting for the election of officers resulted as follows: President, M. Desplaines; Vice-President, M. Emard; Secretary, M. Dostaler; Treasurer, M. Boudrias; Committee of Management Messrs. Hétu, Caron, Amyrault, Jardin, Martineau, Tessier, Auger, Paradis, and Bourbonnière.

A paper was read by M. Paradis on the advantages teachers

may derive from these conferences; and a discussion took place on the question, 'Had Champlain done well in siding with the Hurons?' M. Archambault spoke in the affirmative and was opposed by M. Desplaines. Hon. Mr. Chauveau made some remarks, and suggested the following as a subject for discussion: "Is it advantageous to conduct a school on the mutual instruction system, where the class is composed of more than twenty pupils?"

On motion of M. Emard seconded by M. Paradis, it was unanimously resolved, that the Superintendent of Education was entitled to the gratitude of the teachers for the pains he took in attending the conferences and the interest thus evinced in the success of the Association.

Thanks were voted to Inspectors Valado, Caron, and Grondin for their assiduity in attending these meetings, and the good advice they had given the members of the association; also, to the officers whose term of office had just expired for the services they had rendered during their respective incumbencies.

The conference was then adjourned to the last Wednesday in January, at 9 a. m.

Fourteenth Conference of the Teachers' Association in connection with the Laval Normal School.

This conference was held on the 31st August last. M. Lafrance in the chair.

The proceedings of the previous meeting having been read and adopted, the accounts of the Treasurer, M. Cloutier, were submitted and approved.

The following office-bearers for the current year were then appointed: President, Napoleon Lacasse; Vice-President, Joseph Létourneau; Secretary, Norbert Thibault; Treasurer, J. B. Cloutier, Members of the Committee of Management, Messrs. C. L. Lafrance, O. Legendre, S. Prémont, C. Côté, L. Roy, C. Dion; L. Lefebvre, and A. Esnouf.

M. Lacasse having been called upon to take the chair, M. Lafrance gave an account of his visit to Montreal as delegate of the Quebec Association, and spoke warmly of the cordial reception he had met with here.

M. Prémont read an essay on 'The necessity of teaching agriculture, even in the schools least advanced', which was followed by M. Dufresne's lecture on 'The material progress of mankind.'

Rev. Principal Langevin demonstrated the importance of the monitorial system. Inspectors Bardy, Juneau, and Boivin also spoke in favor of this method of teaching.

A discussion took place on the following question: 'What can teachers do to forward colonization?' M. Lafrance also read a paper on this subject, and the debate was summed up by the Rev. Principal as follows:—

1. Colonization is a question of vital importance to this country.
2. Teachers should do all in their power, in school and in private, to advance this cause by inspiring the young with a love for agricultural life and a desire to combine for the purpose of settling the wild and uncultured lands.

On motion of M. Cloutier seconded by M. Thibault, it was resolved that all the members of this association tender their best thanks to M. Lafrance and the other out-going officers for the zeal and ability with which they discharged their duties during the year ending this day.

The Rev. Principal then proposed the following question, to be discussed at the next conference:—

'Of what utility are object lessons in the schools?'

Several members undertook to prepare essays for the ensuing conference; and the meeting adjourned to the last Saturday in January.

Notices of Books and Publications.

"ANNUAIRE de l'Université-Laval pour l'année académique de 1861-62."—Côté & Co., Quebec 1861.—39 pages.

The following is a free translation of such extracts from this Annual as we think may be of some interest to our readers; we will only add that this little work shows unmistakable signs of continued progress.

The Faculty of Divinity has one professor; the Faculty of Law, six; of which number three (Messrs. Aubry, Grémazie, and Casault) figure in this year's curriculum; the Faculty of Medicine has eight professors, who all teach this year; and three professors constitute the Faculty of Arts. By the first article of the Regulations concerning the admission of students, it is provided that young men who have been legally admitted to the study of Law or Medicine, may be permitted by the Rector to follow the University courses, without matriculating, during

six consecutive terms of the course of studies in Law, and during the whole Medical course.

By Article 2nd, it is provided that if a student so admitted matriculate not later than two years and three months after such admission, the time during which he shall have followed the course, prior to matriculation, shall be reckoned. Art. 4th gives the Rector power to revoke the privilege to follow the University course whenever he may judge it proper. Art. 5th. Any student so expelled cannot be readmitted. By Art. 6th, the fees payable by such students are fixed at \$12 per term for the course of Law, and \$20 per term for the course of Medicine, and for matriculates, \$8 and \$16 respectively. Board \$130 for the three terms, from the middle of September to the middle of July, including the Christmas and Easter holidays; one-third of this (\$43.33) is payable at the commencement of each term. Matriculation fee for the first year, \$1 50. Renewal, 50 cts. Besides these fees, the Medical students shall pay to the Marine Hospital \$3.00 per term, and to the Preparator \$4.00 per term, in addition to the cost of subjects, which they are not allowed to procure for themselves. Matriculates whose parents or guardians are not residents, are required to board at the University boarding-house, where each is entitled to two furnished rooms. Upon the granting of diplomas, the following fees will be collected:—Bachelor of Arts, \$2.00; same degree in the other Faculties, \$6.00; Licentiate, \$8.00; Doctor, \$20.00. Bachelors of Arts pay no fee for the same degree in other Faculties.

TRANSACTIONS of the Literary and Historical Society of Quebec.—Vol. 4, Appendix.—Quebec, 1861.

This number—completing, we think, the fourth volume—contains an account of the scientific expedition to Labrador, with the observations taken during the total solar eclipse of the 19th July, 1860; an article from the pen of Mr. Sturton, descriptive of the Flora of the environs of Quebec, accompanied by three elegant plates, colored; and an Essay on Philology, by Mr. Fletcher.

LOWER CANADA AGRICULTURIST: LA REVUE AGRICOLE.—Published under the direction of Messrs. Perrault and C. Smallwood. 1st. number; 24 pages, printed in double columns. Lovell, Montreal, October, 1861. Subscriptions \$1 per annum, payable in advance.

These periodicals are devoted to manufactures, agriculture, commerce and colonization, and conveniently classed under these respective headings will be found much interesting and instructive matter. They are also the organs of the Board of Agriculture and the Agricultural Societies of Lower Canada. The typographical part of the work is executed in Mr. Lovell's usual good style.

THE VISIT of His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales to America, reprinted from the *Lower Canada Journal of Education*, with an Appendix containing poems, addresses, letters, &c.—pp. 113-xxvii; Eusebe Sénécal

RELATION du voyage de Son Altesse Royale le Prince de Galles en Amérique, reproduite du *Journal de l'Instruction Publique* du Bas-Canada, avec un appendice contenant diverses adresses, correspondances, etc.—148-xxvii pages; Eusebe Sénécal.

Our enterprising printer has undertaken at his own risks a reprint of this little work, which appeared in our columns and in those of our French journal. He has added an interesting appendix, a beautiful steel engraving (the Prince's portrait from Winterhalter's painting with a fac-simile of Albert Edward's autograph), and no less than 24 wood-cuts illustrating the principal cities of Canada, etc. The price in pamphlet form is 75 cts., and with a rich cloth cover \$1. It is for sale at the principal booksellers in Quebec and Montreal. A very limited number of copies has been printed.

MONTHLY SUMMARY.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

—From a return of the names, localities, and religious connexions of Reformatory Schools in Ireland, it appears that there are Six Roman Catholic and three Protestant Schools for the whole country. The principal of the former is Glencree, in the county of Wicklow, which contains 228 inmates, maintained at £19 9s. 5d. per head per annum; amounting on the whole to £3,558 14s. 4d., of which sum the parents pay only £97, and the rates £452, the rest falls upon the national exchequer. At the High-park Roman Catholic School, county Dublin, the cost per head is £23 10s. At Golden-bridge, in the same county, the inmates cost £26 each. The other three Roman Catholic schools are in Cork, Limerick, and Monaghan. Of the three Protestant reformatories, two are in Dublin and one in Belfast. In Dublin the cost per head is £25 17s. 10d. in the male, and £25 16s. 3d. in the female school. In Belfast the cost is £28 8s. 1d. each. In Dublin only £4 18s. was contributed by parents for both schools, and in Belfast only 14s. It appears that the experiment is rather a costly one to the State. There are great

temptations to abuse. On this point the *Daily Express* remarks,—"It was originally intended, in projecting the reformatory system, that a part of the expense should be levied off the parents as a penalty for their share in the guilt of their children, either in having neglected their moral training, or inducing them to commit crime by direct encouragement or the indirect influence of a vicious example. It is tolerably plain that as the system now works neither party is punished, but, on the contrary, both receive substantial rewards. The parents are relieved of the care and cost of their offspring, and the children are brought up in comparative luxury. Hence there is reason to fear that reformatories may even contribute to the growth of criminality in its early stages as a qualification for obtaining the tempting advantages which they afford."
—*English Journal of Education.*

—By the 24th and 25th Vict. c. 113, which received the Royal assent on the 6th August, and is now in operation until the 1st January, 1864, the law as to industrial schools in England is amended and consolidated. The mode of certifying and sanctioning the establishment of these schools is, as before, through the Home Secretary, upon the application of the managers of any school "in which industrial training is provided, and in which children are clothed, lodged, and fed, as well as taught," and after inspection of the premises by an authorised officer. The law has more clearly defined than in the previous act of 1857 what children are liable to present to industrial schools. Before any description of vagrant might have been confined therein, but now, by the 9th section, children of the following descriptions only can be sent in pursuance of the act—viz., "1. Any child apparently under the age of 14 years found begging or receiving alms, or being in any street, or public place, for the purpose of begging or receiving alms. 2. Any child apparently under the age of 14 years that is found wandering, and not having any home or settled place of abode, or any visible means of subsistence, or frequents the company of reputed thieves. 3. Any child apparently under the age of 12 years, who, having committed an offence punishable by imprisonment or some less punishment, ought nevertheless, in the opinion of the justices (regard being had to his age and to the circumstances of the case) to be sent to an industrial school. 4. Any child under the age of 14 years whose parent represents that he is unable to control him, and that he desires such child to be sent to an industrial school, in the pursuance of this act, and who at the same time gives such undertaking or other security as may be approved by the justices before whom he is brought in pursuance of this act, to pay all expenses incurred for the maintenance of such child at school, provided that no child who, on being brought before the justices, is proved to have been previously convicted of felony, shall be deemed to be within the provisions of this act." Two or more justices in petty sessions may, after inquiry into the facts, order such child to be sent to any certified school, the managers of which are willing to receive him; but the justices are to select, if possible, a school conducted in accordance with the religious persuasion of the parent; the period for which the child is to be detained resting with the justices, except that no child can be detained against his consent after he has attained 15. The managers of the school may permit the child to lodge at his parents, or with any trustworthy or respectable person, so that they educate, and feed, and clothe him. The managers may make rules for the regulation of schools, which cannot be enforced unless approved by the Home Secretary. The Home Secretary may remove a child from one school to another, or may discharge him either absolutely or upon condition of the parent or any other relation undertaking to educate him. Justices also may discharge the child from the school if satisfied that a suitable employment has been provided for him, &c. As to the maintenance of the children at school, the Treasury may, out of means provided by parliament, contribute towards the same (except those children who are sent at the request of their parents), at such rate per head as the Home Secretary may determine. The justices sending a child to a school, or those where the school is situate, or in which his parent resides, may, upon the application of a person appointed by the Home Secretary, make an order on the parent for payment of a sum not exceeding 5s. a week for the expenses of the child's maintenance at school, and the justices may from time to time vary the order whenever circumstances require it. If a child absconds from the school before attaining 15, or refuses to conform to the regulations thereof, the justice may order him to be sent back to the school, or may commit him to a reformatory school; and any person inducing a child to abscond, is liable to a penalty of not exceeding £5, or, at the justices' discretion, to be imprisoned for not exceeding twenty days. There are other pursuances as to the mode of recovering penalties and sums ordered, and as to the evidence of the schools being duly certified, the orders of the justices, &c.—*Id.*

—The Revised Education Code met with such vigorous opposition in England—not only from school corporations and the great body of teachers, but also from comparatively disinterested school managers—that the Committee of Council on Education was forced to yield for the present; and thus the measure will not go into operation until the end of March. The object of this code is to do away with the present system by which the pecuniary remuneration of teachers is regulated, and in its place to substitute a new distribution of the public grants based upon the results obtained, which are to be determined at the

examinations. The *Papers for the Schoolmaster*—a London publication—not only expresses its disapprobation of certain changes which it condemns as pernicious, but appears to question the principle involved in the measure, which it also characterizes as an "untried theory" upon which an attempt is made to distribute half a million of money. Among the obnoxious features which it points out, we may instance the limiting of the test to examination in reading, writing and arithmetic,—involving forfeiture of one third of the grant allowed for attendances in case of failure in the examination,—thus neglecting to stimulate religious and moral training; the objectionable system of school organization which is made to depend on age instead of on proficiency, the refusal to allow any grant for pupils except after passing an examination, thus destroying the Infant school system; the withholding of the grant from pupils above 11 years of age; the transference of pecuniary responsibility to school managers who will have to advance the teachers' salaries, incurring the risk of loss should the examination be unsuccessful; the heavy blow to training colleges by depreciating the value of teachers' certificates, and finally the breach of confidence involved in the repudiation of engagements with above twenty thousand teachers, apprentices, &c.

MISCELLANEOUS INTELLIGENCE.

—Before taking leave of Canada, the late Governor General gave a grand Ball in the Parliament Building, which was attended by at least seven hundred persons. Sir Edmund Head entered upon his administrative functions towards the end of 1854; and, with two short intermissions, continued to discharge them for nearly seven years. He was replaced during the first absence by Gen. Eyre, and by Gen. Williams during the second.

The *Montreal Gazette* thus concludes a review of Sir Edmund's official career in Canada:—

"Nor should we forget to record to his special and personal credit the interest which he, a scholar and author, has taken in our institutions of learning. They, at least, have cause to remember him with favor and gratitude."

"We believe that, though being human he has erred, he has honestly sought to promote the interests of Canada; and we will conclude this very imperfect sketch of his Canadian career, with the expression of a hearty wish that he may enjoy long life and happiness in his English home, and that a literary leisure may be in store for him, unquieted by any such vexations as attend colonial official life. If so, we have good ground to hope that the cause of literature will gain more even than that of politics will lose."

—On referring to the *Peerage* we find that Lord Monck, the new Governor General, is the fourth viscount of that name.

Charles Stanley Monck, Viscount, and Baron Monck, of Ballytrammon, Wexford, in the peerage of Ireland, was born on the 10th October, 1819, and is consequently in his forty-second year. In 1844, he married his cousin Lady Elizabeth Louise Mary Monck, daughter of the Earl of Rathdowne, and has two sons and two daughters. He is a descendant from the Duke of Albemarle, the restorer of Charles II. The founder of this family was William LeMoigne, lord of the Manor of Potheridge, county of Devon, who followed William the Conqueror from Normandy. This circumstance has furnished an occasion to some of our contemporaries to refer to the Norman descent of the LeMoigne family, so famed in the military annals of Canada.

Charles LeMoigne came to this country from France in 1641; and was elevated to the nobility in the year 1668, about which time he took the names of his domains of Longueuil and Châteauguay. Of his large family of fourteen children, twelve were boys who almost all distinguished themselves in the military service of their country; among these were Charles, first Baron of Longueuil; James, Sieur d'Iberville, distinguished for his exploits at Hudson's Bay; Paul, Sieur de Maricour; Francis, Sieur de Bienville, who at the age of 25 was killed in a combat with the Iroquois at Repentigny; Joseph, Sieur de Sérigny whose descendants are still in France; Louis, Sieur de Châteauguay, killed at Hudson's Bay; Jean Baptiste, Sieur de Bienville, founder of New Orleans; Antoine, Sieur de Châteauguay, who acted a conspicuous part in Louisiana. The historian of the French navy (Léon Guérin), quoted by M. Bibaud in his *Panthéon*, says, "It is thus that the most glorious family that has perhaps ever graced our colonies long continued to shed its lustre from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico, and from New to Equinoctial France."

Lord Monck sat in the House of Commons, and has filled the office of a Lord of the Treasury.

—A strange *canard* was recently perpetrated in some of the London journals. It was gravely asserted that a deputation of French Canadians had waited upon the Emperor, at Paris, to solicit his protection for their nationality! The hope was expressed, at the same time, that the British embassy would watch closely the doings of these redoubtable plotters, whose precise designs, however, were not clearly pointed out.