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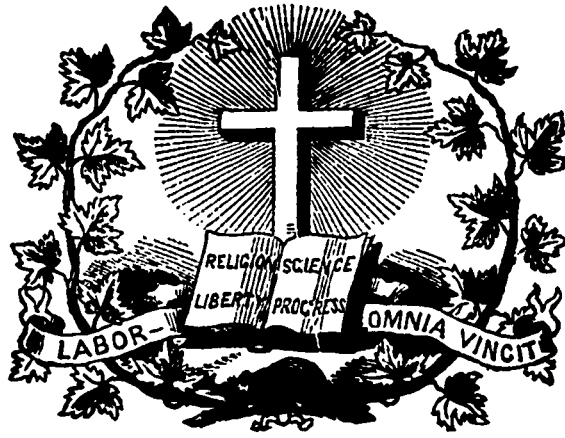
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JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

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SUMMARY.—**EDUCATION:** Biography of Professor William Russell.—The moral discipline of children (concluded from our last).—Pestalozzi and the schools of Germany by Dr. Diesterweg.—Geography.—The school days of eminent men by John Fruits.—**POETRY:** Morning hymn.—Evening song of the Tyrolese peasants.—**OFFICIAL NOTICES:** Appointment of School Commissioners.—Diplomas given by the Board of Examiners for the county of Sherbrooke.—Donations to the library

of the Department.—Teachers wanted.—Situations as teachers wanted.—**EDITORIAL:** The electric telegraph cable.—Poem on the same subject.—Report of the Chief Superintendent of Education for Lower Canada for 1856 (continued from our last).—Monthly summary: Scientific intelligence.—Advertisements.—Woodcuts: Portrait of Professor William Russell.

EDUCATION.

WILLIAM RUSSELL. (1)

The following brief sketch of the life and works of Professor Russell, editor of the first journal of education ever published in the English language, and who, for nearly forty years, devoted his time almost exclusively to teaching, and the advancement of public instruction, will we are convinced prove interesting to our readers.

Mr. Professor Russell has two brothers, both of whom hold responsible situations under the Government of Canada. Andrew Russell, Esquire, who resides in Toronto, was, for many years, senior surveyor in the Crown Land Department, and now fills the important situation of assistant commissioner of Crown Land.

Mr. Alexander Russell, the other brother, resides in the city of Ottawa, and is inspector of crown timber agencies for the province of Canada, and crown timber agent for the Upper Ottawa Territory; he has also held other responsible situations both in military and civil departments. These gentlemen are highly esteemed, as well for their ability and business habits, as for their general courtesy of manner towards all who may have business to transact with their respective departments.



Mr. Russell was born in Glasgow, Scotland, and was educated at the Latin school, and the University of that city. During his course of study in the latter of these institutions, the "First Philosophy Class,"—embracing the subjects of intellectual philosophy, logic and rhetoric,—was, fortunately for Mr. Russell, in his subsequent life as a teacher, under the care of Professor George Jardine, author of the "Outlines of Philosophical Education." That eminent and revered instructor, by his zeal and eloquence on his favorite theme, the philosophy of human culture, awakened a lively sympathy with

his views, in the minds of his students. After fifty years noble service, he still retained a warm feeling for whatever concerned the subject of education; as he manifested in his cordial expressions of pleasure on the establishment of the American Journal of Education, in the city of Boston, in the year 1826.

An incipient pulmonary affection made it advisable for Mr. Russell, immediately on completing his college course, to leave his native land, for a residence in a warmer climate. He came, accordingly, to the State of Georgia, in the year 1817; and, deeming it inadvisable, at so early a stage of life, to accept the offered situation of "rector" of an academy, commenced the business of instruction, as a private tutor, in the family of a distinguished Georgian statesman.

In this occupation, he passed, advantageously to his health, a few of the earlier years of his life as a teacher. He subsequently revisited Scotland; but, at the solicitation of his southern friends, re-

tained in the year following to the state of Georgia, and for two years, took charge of the Chatham Academy, in the city of Savannah. His marriage connection with a lady from the State of Connecticut, creating a preference for a family residence in the city of New-Haven, he taught there for some years, the New Township Academy, and the Hopkins Grammar School,—the preparatory classical seminary connected with Yale College.

The peculiar form of illness, to which Mr. Russell is liable in cold latitudes, having returned, a less sedentary mode of teaching became desirable for him; and with a view to the benefit of such a change, he commenced the instruction of classes in elocution, in

(1) The accompanying wood-cut has been executed from the steel plate engraving published in *Barnard's American Journal of Education*, by one of the best engravers in Paris, for our own journal.

connection with the Theological Seminary at Andover, the University at Cambridge, the Public Latin School, and Chauncy Hall School, in the city of Boston. Soon after this change of occupation, he was invited to take the editorial charge of the *American Journal of Education*, published in Boston, first by Mr. Thomas B. Wait, in 1826, next by Mr. S. G. Goodrich, and subsequently by Messrs. Carter & Hendee. Mr. Russell continued to conduct this periodical for nearly three years from the date of its publication.

The early direction given to Mr. Russell's studies and pursuits by the influence of Professor Jardine, led him to take a deep interest in the general subject of modes of education, in their adaptation to the development of mind and character. This circumstance subsequently proved a useful preparation for the business of conducting an educational journal at a time when, as yet, no publication of that description existed in our own country or in England; although the light shed on the whole subject of education by the labors of Pestalozzi, had excited, throughout Europe and America, a fresh interest on all the great questions involved in the various departments of physical, intellectual, and moral culture.

The only journals then devoted to the subject of education, were those of Germany, France, and, perhaps, one or two other countries on the continent of Europe. The necessity of important changes in the plan and character of education, was beginning to be deeply felt in England. But this feeling had hitherto been expressed only in detached suggestions from the minds of individuals, in occasional pamphlets, or similar forms of publication. In the United States, the condition of matters was much the same as in England; although, in some instances, the degree of attention excited on the subject, was both stronger and more definite.

Warren Colburn's invaluable contribution to the improvement of education, in the publication of his *Intellectual Arithmetic*, had virtually introduced the spirit of Pestalozzi's methods of instruction into the schools of New England; and much had been effected by the diffusion of liberal views on the whole subject of education, by Mr. James G. Carter, through his numerous and able editorial articles in the *United States literary gazette*.

Much also had been done toward the same results by the successful exertions of Professor Walter R. Johnson, in connection with the establishment of the Franklin Institute, in Philadelphia, and with the introduction of the school system of Pennsylvania. Valuable aid had been rendered, likewise, to the interests of education, by the exertions of the Rev. Mr. Gallaudet, of Hartford, for the introduction of modes of instruction adapted to seminaries for the deaf and dumb, but incidentally shedding a truer light on all forms of mental development. The arduous labors of Mr. Russell, in the unassisted editorial care of the *Journal of Education*, although of no pecuniary benefit to him personally, were amply rewarded by the many invaluable results to which they led. Prominent among these were the introduction of physical education, in various forms, into American seminaries; more liberal views on the subject of female education; more genial methods of conducting the business of early culture in primary schools; the establishment of lyceums and other popular institutions connected with the diffusion of useful knowledge; the formation of teacher's associations, and the establishment of seminaries for teachers.

The *Journal* met with warm encouragement throughout the Union, and was extensively used as a vehicle of communication, both for developing the views of the friends of education in several of the States which were then occupied with the establishment of systems of public instruction, and for the diffusion of improved methods of teaching, which were then claiming general attention in New England and other parts of our country, where the subject of education had attained to a more mature stage of advancement. Eminent educators and philanthropists abroad, both in England and on the continent, gave their cordial sympathy and commendation to the design and character of the *American Journal*, and contributed effectual aid to its purposes, by liberal exchanges, and copious supplies of material, in the shape of important public documents.

The editorial care of the *Journal*, though an exceedingly laborious form of occupation, was one which was peculiarly agreeable to Mr. Russell, from his personal tastes and habits; and he would gladly have continued it, could he have done so with safety. But the employment of conducting an educational periodical being necessarily, for the most part, a gratuitous service, it could only be performed by laboring at night after the day's occupation in teaching. Three years of this double toil occasioned a reduction of strength which called for a temporary cessation of exertion; and at the request of an eminent friend of education, residing in Germantown, Pennsylvania, Mr. Russell taught, for several years, a limited class of young ladies, in that village, and, subsequently, a school of a similar description, together with private classes, in the city of Philadelphia.

On his return to Boston, he resumed his former line of teaching there and at Andover; attending, at intervals, as lecturer and instructor, at the spring and autumn sessions of teacher's institutes in the State of Rhode Island, under the direction of the Hon. Henry Barnard, then State Commissioner of Schools. Mr. Russell was employed, also, for some years, in conducting the exercises of similar associations in the State of New Hampshire; occupying himself, during the winter season, for the benefit of a milder climate, in teaching classes at Princeton College, and in the cities of New York and Brooklyn. In fulfilling these numerous engagements, he was frequently assisted by his son,—now Rev. Francis T. Russell, of New Britain, Connecticut, who, from his interest in the cause of education, still affords such aid to the Teachers' Institute of that State.

In 1849, at the invitation of friends of education in New Hampshire, Mr. Russell established there a seminary for teachers, which he continued to conduct or direct, for several years. But his health incapacitating him for the active duties of teaching, during the severe winters of that region, he was induced, in the spring of 1853, to move his seminary to Lancaster, Massachusetts, where he now resides.

Mr. Russell commenced his seminary in Lancaster, with liberal aid from the local friends of education there, and with the assistance of a numerous and superior corps of instructors; among whom were Professor Hermann Krusi of Switzerland, previously instructor in mathematics and modern languages, in the Home and Colonial Normal Seminary of London, and now instructor in the Massachusetts Teachers' Institutes,—Professor William J. Whittaker of London, subsequently Principal of the Boston School of Design, and now similarly occupied in the city of Philadelphia,—Mr. Dana P. Colburn, now Principal of the Rhode Island Normal School, Providence, and Sanborn Tenney, A. M., of Amherst College, now Instructor in the Massachusetts Teachers' Institutes.

But the highly liberal course now adopted by the State of Massachusetts, in establishing State scholarships in her colleges, for the benefit of young men intending to devote themselves to the business of teaching in the public high schools of the State, and in the generous encouragement given to students of both sexes in the State Normal Schools to extend their course of professional study, has, to a great extent, superseded the necessity of any private establishment for the higher professional training of teachers. Mr. Russell, therefore, devotes, at present, but a limited portion of the year to instruction in Lancaster. During the spring and autumn months, he continues to attend the circuit of the Teachers' Institutes of the State, held under the direction of the Secretary of the Board of Education. Mr. Russell's department in the institutes is that of lecturer and instructor in reading and elocution. Part of the year he devotes, as formerly, to the instruction of classes in elocution, at several of our New England colleges and professional seminaries.

The principal services which Mr. Russell has rendered by his personal exertions in the field of education, have been those of editorial labor, the direction of seminaries for teachers, and the instruction of classes at Teachers' Institutes. As a practical teacher, however, he has been extensively engaged, as a lecturer and teacher in elocution, in seminaries of various grades. A number of his earlier years were spent in the usual forms of academic supervision and instruction. His modes of teaching, when so situated, he has developed in his course of grammatical exercises adapted to his edition of Adams' Latin Grammar,—in his *Grammar of Composition*, and in his *Exercises on Words*. His methods in elocution, adapted to the successive stages of instruction, are embodied in his series of reading manuals and other text-books, (1) which have been extensively used in our schools and colleges and professional seminaries, and have effectually contributed to the advancement of a branch of education previously much neglected.

A subject to which Mr. Russell has devoted much attention and which he has frequently brought forward at the meetings of teachers, is one of common interest to all who devote themselves to teaching as a business for life,—the importance of placing the occupation on the footing of a recognized profession. After his address on this subject, before the New Hampshire State Association of Teachers, a committee was appointed to report upon it; and a resolution was subsequently passed by that body, that admission to membership in

(1) A list of these and his other publications we have annexed in this sketch of his professional life. It is but justice, however, to Mr. R. to state, with reference to their large apparent number, that his works were not published for pecuniary purposes, but were mostly prepared at the solicitation of his numerous classes of teachers, for their immediate use. A few of them unexpectedly obtained a wide circulation; but most of them have been serviceable rather as pointers than otherwise.

the Association should thenceforth take place by professional examination and certificate. We hope that Mr. Russell, before withdrawing from the field of active labor in education, will enjoy the satisfaction of seeing his wishes regarding the distinct recognition of teaching as a profession, amply fulfilled throughout our country, and the profession crowded with practitioners, trained and qualified to the highest pitch of his expectations.

TEXT-BOOKS; AND WORKS RELATING TO EDUCATION, published by Professor William Russell.

Suggestions on Education, 1823.—A Grammar of Composition, 1823.—Adam's Latin Grammar, with rules of pronunciation in reading Latin, 1824.—*American Journal of Education*, vols. I, II, III, 1826-27-28.—A Manual of Mutual Instruction, with appendix, 1826.—The Library of Education; Lessons in Enunciation, 1830.—*Journal of Instruction*, 1831.—Rudiments of Gesture, 1838.—Exercises in Elocution, 1841.—The American Elocutionist; A Primer; Spelling Book; Primary Reader, with a Sequel to his Elementary Treatise, 1844.—Introduction to the Primary Reader; Introduction to the American Common School Reader and Speaker; The American Common School Reader and Speaker; Introduction to the Young Ladies' Elocutionary Reader; The Young Ladies' Elocutionary Reader.—Elements of Musical Articulation, 1845.—Lessons at Home in Spelling and Reading, 1846.—Orthophony, or the cultivation of the voice in elocution, 1845.—Harper's New York Class-Book, 1847.—New Spelling Book, second course; Pupil Elocution; The University Speaker; Suggestions on Teacher's Institutes; A Manual of Instruction in Reading, 1852.—An Address on the Infant-School System of Education; An Address on Associations of Teachers; A Lecture on Reading and Declamation; A Lecture on Elocution; A Lecture on the Education of Females, 1858.—A Lecture on Female Education, 1844.—Hints to Teachers on Instruction in Reading, 1846.—Duties of Teachers; Address at the Dedication and Opening of the New England Normal Institute, 1853.—Encouragements to Teachers, 1853.—Exercises on Words, 1856.

The Moral discipline of Children.

(Continued from our last.)

Thus we see that this method of moral culture by experience of the normal reactions, which is the divinely-ordained method alike for infancy and for adult life, is equally applicable during the intermediate childhood and youth. And among the advantages of this method we see—First. That it gives that rational comprehension of right and wrong conduct which results from actual experience of the good and bad consequences caused by them. Second. That the child, suffering nothing more than the painful effects brought upon it by its own wrong actions, must recognize more or less clearly the justice of the penalties. Third. That, recognizing the justice of the penalties, and receiving those penalties through the working of things, rather than at the hands of an individual, its temper will be less disturbed; while the parent, occupying the comparatively passive position of taking care that the natural penalties are felt, will preserve a comparative equanimity. And Fourth. That mutual exasperation being thus in great measure prevented, a much happier, and a more influential state of feeling, will exist between parent and child.

"But what is to be done with more serious misconduct?" some will ask. "How is this plan to be carried out when a petty theft has been committed? or when a lie has been told? or when some younger brother or sister has been illused?"

Before replying to these questions let us consider the bearings of a few illustrative facts.

Living in the family of his brother-in-law, a friend of ours had undertaken the education of his little nephew and niece. This he had conducted, more perhaps from natural sympathy than from reasoned-out conclusions, in the spirit of the method above set forth. The two children were in-doors his pupils and out of doors his companions. They daily joined him in walks and botanizing excursions, eagerly sought out plants for him, looked on while he examined and identified them, and in this and other ways were ever gaining both pleasure and instruction in his society. In short, morally considered, he stood to them much more in the position of parent than either their father or mother did. Describing to us the results of this policy, he gave, among other instances, the following. One evening, having need for some article lying in another part of the house, he asked his nephew to fetch it for him. Deeply interested as the boy was in some amusement of the moment, he, contrary to his wont, either exhibited great reluctance or refused, we forget which. His uncle, disapproving of a coercive course, fetched it

himself; merely exhibiting by his manner the annoyance this ill-behavior gave him. And when, later in the evening, the boy made overtures for the usual play, they were gravely repelled—the uncle manifested just that coldness of feeling naturally produced in him, and so let the boy experience the necessary consequences of his conduct. Next morning at the usual time for rising, our friend heard a new voice outside the door, and in walked his little nephew with the hot water; and then the boy, peering about the room to see what else could be done, exclaimed, "Oh! you want your boots," and forthwith rushed down stairs to fetch them. In this and other ways he showed a true penitence for his misconduct; he endeavored by unusual services to make up for the service he had refused; his higher feelings had of themselves conquered his lower ones, and acquired strength by the conquest; and he valued more than before the friendship he thus regained.

This gentleman is now himself a father; acts on the same system; and finds it answer completely. He makes himself thoroughly his children's friend. The evening is longed for by them because he will be at home; and they especially enjoy the Sunday because he is with them all day. Thus possessing their perfect confidence and affection, he finds that the simple display of his approbation or disapprobation gives him abundant power of control. If, on his return home, he hears that one of his boys has been naughty, he behaves towards him with that comparative coldness which the consciousness of the boy's misconduct naturally produces; and he finds this a most efficient punishment. The mere withholding of the usual caresses, is a source of the keenest distress—produces a much more prolonged fit of crying than a beating would do. And the dread of this purely moral penalty is, he says, ever present during his absence: so much so, that frequently during the day his children inquire of their mamma how they have behaved, and whether the report will be good. Recently, the eldest, an activeurchin of five, in one of those bursts of animal spirits common in healthy children, committed sundry extravagances during his mamma's absence—cut off part of his brother's hair, and wounded himself with a razor taken from his father's dressing case. Hearing of these occurrences on his return, the father did not speak to the boy either that night or next morning. Not only was the tribulation great, but the subsequent effect was, that when, a few days after, the mamma was about to go out, she was earnestly entreated by the boy not to do so; and on inquiry it appeared his fear was that he might again transgress in her absence.

We have introduced these facts before replying to the question—"What is to be done with the graver offenses?" for the purpose of first exhibiting the relation that may and ought to be established between parents and children; for on the existence of this relation depends the successful treatment of these graver offenses. And as a further preliminary, we must now point out that the establishment of this relation will result from adopting the system we advocate. Already we have shown that by letting a child experience simply the painful reactions of its own wrong actions, a parent in great measure avoids assuming the attitude of an enemy, and escapes being regarded as one; but it still remains to be shown that where this course has been consistently pursued from the beginning, a strong feeling of active friendship will be generated.

At present, mothers and fathers are mostly considered by their offspring as friends-enemies. Determined as their impressions inevitably are by the treatment they receive; and oscillating as that treatment does between bribery and thwarting, between petting and scolding, between gentleness and castigation; children necessarily acquire conflicting beliefs respecting the parental character. A mother commonly thinks it quite sufficient to tell her little boy that she is his best friend; and assuming that he is in duty bound to believe her, concludes that he will forthwith do so. "It is all for your good;" "I know what is proper for you better than you do yourself;" "You are not old enough to understand it now, but when you grow up you will thank me for doing what I do;" these, and like assertions, are daily reiterated. Meanwhile the boy is daily suffering positive penalties; and is hourly forbidden to do this, that, and the other, which he was anxious to do. By words he hears that his happiness is the end in view; but from the accompanying deeds he habitually receives more or less pain. Utterly incompetent as he is to understand that future which his mother has in view, or how this treatment conduces to the happiness of that future, he judges by such results as he feels; and finding these results any thing but pleasurable, he becomes skeptical respecting these professions of friendship. And is it not folly to expect any other issue? Must not the child judge by such evidence as he has got? and does not this evidence seem to warrant his conclusion? The mother would reason in just the same way if similarly placed. If, in the circle of her acquaintance, she found

some one who was constantly thwarting her wishes, uttering sharp reprimands, and occasionally inflicting actual penalties on her, she would pay but little attention to any professions of anxiety for her welfare which accompanied these acts. Why, then, does she suppose that her boy will conclude otherwise?

But now observe how different will be the results if the system we contend for be consistently pursued—if the mother not only avoids becoming the instrument of punishment, but plays the part of a friend by warning her boy of the punishments which Nature will inflict. Take a case; and that it may illustrate the mode in which this policy is to be early initiated, let it be one of the simplest cases. Suppose that, prompted by the experimental spirit so conspicuous in children, whose proceedings instinctively conform to the inductive method of inquiry—suppose that so prompted, the child is amusing himself by lighting pieces of paper in the candle and watching them burn. If his mother is of the ordinary unreflective stamp, she will either, on the plea of keeping the child “out of mischief,” or from fear that he will burn himself, command him to desist; and in case of non-compliance will snatch the paper from him. On the other hand, should he be so fortunate as to have a mother of sufficient rationality, who knows that this interest with which the child is watching the paper burn results from a healthy inquisitiveness, without which he would never have emerged out of infantine stupidity, and who is also wise enough to consider the moral results of interference, she will reason thus: “If I put a stop to this, I shall prevent the acquirement of a certain amount of knowledge. It is true that I may save the child from a burn; but what then? He is sure to burn himself some time; and it is quite essential to his safety in life that he should learn by experience the properties of flame. Moreover, if I forbid him from running this present risk, he is sure hereafter to run the same or a greater risk when no one is present to prevent him; whereas, if he should have any accident now that I am by, I can save him from any great injury: add to which the advantage that he will have in future some dread of fire, and will be less likely to burn himself to death, or set the house in a flame when others are absent. Furthermore, were I to make him desist, I should thwart him in the pursuit of what is in itself a purely harmless, and indeed, instructive gratification; and he would be sure to regard me with more or less ill-feeling. Ignorant as he is of the pain from which I would save him, and feeling only the pain of a balked desire, he could not fail to look upon me as the cause of that pain. To save him from a hurt which he can not conceive, and which has therefore no existence for him, I inflict upon him a hurt which he feels keenly enough; and so become, from his point of view, a minister of evil. My best course then, is simply to warn him of the danger, and to be ready to prevent any serious damage.” And following out this conclusion, she says to the child: “I fear you will hurt yourself if you do that.” Suppose, now, that the child perseveres, as he will very probably do; and suppose that he ends by burning himself. What are the results? In the first place he has gained an experience which he must gain eventually, and which, for his own safety he can not gain too soon. And in the second place he has found that his mother’s disapproval or warning was meant for his welfare: he has a further positive experience of her benevolence—a further reason for placing confidence in her judgment and her kindness—a further reason for loving her.

Of course, in those occasional hazards where there is a risk of broken limbs or other serious bodily injury, forcible prevention is called for. But leaving out these extreme cases, the system pursued should be not that of guarding a child against the small dangers into which it daily runs, but that of advising and warning it against them. And by consistently pursuing this course a much stronger filial affection will be generated than commonly exists. If here, as elsewhere, the discipline of the natural reactions is allowed to come into play—if in all those out-of-door scramblings and in-door experiments, by which children are liable to hurt themselves, they are allowed to persevere, subject only to dissuasion more or less earnest according to the risk, there can not fail to arise an ever-increasing faith in the parental friendship and guidance. Not only, as before shown, does the adoption of this principle enable fathers and mothers to avoid the chief part of that odium which attaches to the infliction of positive punishment; but, as we here see, it enables them further to avoid the odium that attaches to constant thwartings; and even to turn each of those incidents which commonly cause squabbles, into a means of strengthening the mutual good feeling. Instead of being told in words, which deeds seem to contradict, that their parents are their best friends, children will learn this truth by a consistent daily experience; and so learning it, will acquire a degree of trust and attachment which nothing else can give.

And now having indicated the much more sympathetic relation which must result from the habitual use of this method, let us return to the question above put: How is this method to be applied to the graver offenses?

Note, in the first place, that these graver offenses are likely to be both less frequent and less grave under the *régime* we have described than under the ordinary *régime*. The perpetual ill-behavior of many children is itself the consequence of that chronic irritation in which they are kept by bad management. The state of isolation and antagonism produced by frequent punishment, necessarily deadens the sympathies; necessarily, therefore, opens the way to those transgressions which the sympathies should check. That harsh treatment which children of the same family inflict on each other is often, in great measure, a reflex of the harsh treatment they receive from adults—partly suggested by direct example, and partly generated by the ill-temper and the tendency to vicarious retaliation, which follow chastisements and scoldings. It can not be questioned that the greater activity of the affections and happier state of feeling, maintained in children by the discipline we have described, must prevent their sins against each other from being either so great or so frequent. Moreover, the still more reprehensible offenses, as lies and petty thefts, will, by the same causes, be diminished. Domestic estrangement is a fruitful source of such transgressions. It is a law of human nature, visible enough to all who observe, that those who are debarred the higher gratifications fall back upon the lower; those who have no sympathetic pleasures seek selfish ones; and hence, conversely, the maintenance of happier relations between parents and children is calculated to diminish the number of those offenses of which selfishness is the origin.

When, however, such offenses are committed, as they will occasionally be even under the best system, the discipline of consequences may still be resorted to; and if there exist that bond of confidence and affection which we have described, this discipline will be found efficient. For what are the natural consequences, say, of a theft? They are of two kinds—direct and indirect. The direct consequence, as dictated by pure equity, is that of making restitution. An absolutely just ruler (and every parent should aim to be one) will demand that, wherever it is possible, a wrong act shall be undone by a right one: and in the case of theft this implies either the restoration of the thing stolen, or, if it is consumed, then the giving of an equivalent: which, in the case of a child, may be effected out of its pocket-money. The indirect and more serious consequence is the grave displeasure of parents—a consequence which inevitably follows among all peoples sufficiently civilized to regard theft as a crime; and the manifestation of this displeasure is, in this instance, the most severe of the natural reactions produced by the wrong action. “But,” it will be said, “the manifestation of parental displeasure, either in words or blows, is the ordinary course in these cases: the method leads here to nothing new.” Very true. Already we have admitted that, in some directions, this method is spontaneously pursued. Already we have shown that there is a more or less manifest tendency for educational systems to gravitate towards the true system. And here we may remark, as before, that the intensity of this natural reaction will, in the beneficent order of things, adjust itself to the requirements—that this parental displeasure will vent itself in violent measures during comparatively barbarous times, when the children are also comparatively barbarous; and will express itself less cruelly in those more advanced social states in which, by implication, the children are amenable to milder treatment. But what it chiefly concerns us here to observe is, that the manifestation of strong parental displeasure, produced by one of these graver offenses, will be potent for good just in proportion to the warmth of the attachment existing between parent and child. Just in proportion as the discipline of the natural consequences has been consistently pursued in other cases, will it be efficient in this case. Proof is within the experience of all, if they will look for it.

For does not every man know that when he has offended another person, the amount of genuine regret he feels (of course, leaving worldly considerations out of the question) varies with the degree of sympathy he has for that person? Is he not conscious that when the person offended stands to him in the position of an enemy, the having given him annoyance is apt to be a source rather of secret satisfaction than of sorrow? Does he not remember that where umbrage has been taken by some total stranger, he has felt much less concern than he would have done had such umbrage been taken by one with whom he was intimate? While, conversely, has not the anger of an admired and cherished friend been regarded by him as a serious misfortune, long and keenly regretted? Clearly, then, the effects of parental displeasure upon children must similarly depend upon the pre-existing relationship. Where there is an

established alienation, the feeling of a child who has transgressed is a purely selfish fear of the evil consequences likely to fall upon it in the shape of physical penalties or deprivations; and after these evil consequences have been inflicted, there are aroused an antagonism and dislike which are morally injurious, and tend further to increase the alienation. On the contrary, where there exists a warm filial affection, produced by a consistent parental friendship—a friendship not dogmatically asserted as an excuse for punishments and denials, but daily exhibited in ways that a child can comprehend—a friendship which avoids needless thwartings, which warns against impending evil consequences, and which sympathizes with juvenile pursuits—there the state of mind caused by parental displeasure will not only be salutary as a check to future misconduct of life kind, but will also be intrinsically salutary. The moral pain consequent upon having, for the time being, lost so loved a friend, will stand in place of the physical pain usually inflicted; and where this attachment exists, will prove equally, if not more, efficient. While instead of the fear and vindictiveness excited by the one course, there will be excited by the other more or less of sympathy with parental sorrow, a genuine regret for having caused it, and a desire, by some atonement, to reestablish the habitual friendly relationship. Instead of bringing into play those purely egoistic feelings whose predominance is the cause of criminal acts, there will be brought into play those altruistic feelings which check criminal acts. Thus the discipline of the natural consequences is applicable to grave as well as trivial faults; and the practice of it conduces not simply to the repression, but to the eradication of such faults.

In brief the truth is, that savageness begets savageness, and gentleness begets gentleness. Children who are unsympathetically treated become relatively unsympathetic; whereas treating them with due fellow-feeling is a means of cultivating their fellow-feeling. With family governments as with political ones, a harsh despotism itself generates a great part of the crimes it has to repress; while conversely, a mild and liberal rule not only avoids many causes of dissension, but so ameliorates the tone of feeling as to diminish the tendency to transgression. As John Locke long since remarked: "Great severity of punishment does but very little good, nay, great harm in education; and I believe it will be found that, *cæteris paribus*, those children who have been most chastised seldom make the best men." In confirmation of which opinion we may cite the fact not long since made public by Mr. Rodgers, Chaplain of the Pentonville Prison, that those juvenile criminals who have been whipped are those who most frequently return to prison. On the other hand, as exhibiting the beneficial effects of a kinder treatment, we will instance the fact stated to us by a French lady in whose house we recently staid in Paris. Apologizing for the disturbance daily caused by a little boy who was unmanageable both at home and at school, she expressed her fear that there was no remedy save that which had succeeded in the case of an elder brother; namely, sending him to an English school. She explained that at various schools in Paris this elder brother had proved utterly untractable; that in despair they had followed the advice to send him to England; and that on his return home he was as good as he had before been bad. And this remarkable change she ascribed entirely to the comparative mildness of the English discipline.

After this exposition of principles, our remaining space may best be occupied by a few of the chief maxims and rules deducible from them; and with a view to brevity we will put these in a more or less hortatory form.

Do not expect from a child any great amount of moral goodness. During early years every civilized man passes through that phase of character exhibited by the barbarous race from which he is descended. As the child's features—flat nose, forward-opening nostrils, large lips, wide-apart eyes, absent frontal sinus, etc.—resemble for a time those of the savage, so, too, do his instincts. Hence the tendencies to cruelty, to thieving, to lying, so general among children—tendencies which, even without the aid of discipline, will become more or less modified just as the features do. The popular idea that children are "innocent," while it may be true in so far as it refers to evil *knowledge*, is totally false in so far as it refers to evil *impulses*; as half an hour's observation in the nursery will prove to any one. Boys when left to themselves, as at a public school, treat each other far more brutally than men do; and were they left to themselves at an earlier age their brutality would be still more conspicuous.

Not only is it unwise to set up a high standard for juvenile good conduct, but it is even unwise to use very urgent incitements to such good conduct. Already most people recognize the detrimental results of intellectual precocity; but there remains to be recognized the truth that there is a *moral precocity* which is also detrimental.

Our higher moral faculties like our higher intellectual ones, are comparatively complex. By consequence they are both comparatively late in their evolution. And with the one as with the other, a very early activity produced by stimulation will be at the expense of the future character. Hence the not uncommon fact that those who during childhood were instanced as models of juvenile goodness, by and by undergo some disastrous and seemingly inexplicable change, and end by being not above but below par; while relatively exemplary men are often the issue of a childhood by no means so promising (1).

Be content, therefore, with moderate measures and moderate results. Constantly bear in mind the fact that a higher morality like a higher intelligence must be reached by a slow growth; and you will then have more patience with those imperfections of nature which your child hourly displays. You will be less prone to that constant scolding, and threatening, and forbidding, by which many parents induce a chronic domestic irritation, in the foolish hope that they will thus make their children what they should be.

This comparatively liberal form of domestic government, which does not seek despotically to regulate all the details of a child's conduct, necessarily results from the system for which we have been contending. Satisfy yourself with seeing that your child always suffers the natural consequences of his actions, and you will avoid that excess of control in which so many parents err. Leave him wherever you can to the discipline of experience, and you will so save him from that hot-house virtue which over-regulation produces in yielding natures, or that demoralizing antagonism which it produces in independent ones.

By aiming in all cases to administer the natural reactions to your child's actions you will put an advantageous check upon your own temper. The method of moral education pursued by many, we fear by most, parents, is little else than that of venting their anger in the way that first suggests itself. The slaps and rough shakings, and sharp words, with which a mother commonly visits her offspring's small offenses (many of them not offenses considered intrinsically) are very generally but the manifestations of her own ill-controlled feelings—result much more from the promptings of those feelings than from a wish to benefit the offenders. While they are injurious to her own character, these ebullitions tend, by alienating her children and by decreasing their respect for her, to diminish her influence over them. But by pausing in each case of transgression to consider what is the natural consequence, and how that natural consequence may best be brought home to the transgressor, some little time is necessarily obtained for the mastery of yourself: the mere blind anger first aroused in you settles down into a less vehement feeling, and one not so likely to mislead you.

Do not, however, seek to behave as an utterly passionless instrument. Remember that besides the natural consequences of your child's conduct which the working of things tends to bring round on him, your own approbation or disapprobation is also a natural consequence, and one of the ordained agencies for guiding him. The error which we have been combating is that of *substituting* parental displeasure and its artificial penalties, for the penalties which nature has established. But while it should not be *substituted* for these natural penalties, it by no means follows that it should not in some form *accompany* them. The *secondary* kind of punishment should not usurp the place of the *primary* kind; but, in moderation, it may rightly supplement the primary kind. Such amount of disapproval, or sorrow, or the indignation, as you feel, should be expressed in words or manner or otherwise; subject of course to the approval of your judgment. The degree and kind of feeling produced in you will necessarily depend upon your own character, and it is therefore useless to say it should be this or that. All that can be recommended is, that you should aim to modify the feeling into that which you believe ought to be entertained. Beware, however, of the two extremes; not only in respect of the intensity, but in respect of the duration of your displeasure. On the one hand anxiously avoid that weak impulsiveness, so general among mothers, which scolds and forgives almost in the same breath. On the other hand, do not unduly continue to show estrangement of feeling, lest you accustom your child to do without your friendship, and so lose your influence over him. The moral reactions called forth from you by your child's actions, you should as much as possible assimilate to those which you conceive would be called forth from a parent of perfect nature.

(1) This would require explanations. No standard of morality is too high, and there can be no undue *moral precocity* in that which is essential to morality. Giving to a child as immoral that which is not so, is of course a *wrong standard of morality*; but it is far from being a *too high standard*. (Ed. L. C. Journal of Education.)

Be sparing of commands. Command only in those cases in which other means are inapplicable, or have failed. "In frequent orders the parents' advantage is more considered than the child's," says Richter. As in primitive societies a breach of law is punished, not so much because it is intrinsically wrong as because it is a disregard of the king's authority—a rebellion against him; so in many families, the penalty visited on a transgressor proceeds less from reprobation of the offense than from anger at the disobedience. Listen to the ordinary speeches—"How dare you disobey me?" "I tell you I'll make you do it, sir," "I'll soon teach you who is master"—and then consider what the words, the tone, and the manner imply. A determination to subjugate is much more conspicuous in them than an anxiety for the child's welfare. For the time being the attitude of mind differs but little from that of the despot bent on punishing a recalcitrant subject. The right-feeling parent, however, like the philanthropic legislator, will not rejoice in coercion, but will rejoice in dispensing with coercion. He will do without law in all cases where other modes of regulating conduct can be successfully employed; and he will regret the having recourse to law when it is necessary. As Richter remarks: "The best rule in politics is said to be *pas trop gouverner*;" it is also true in education." And in spontaneous conformity with this maxim, parents whose lust of dominion is restrained by a true sense of duty, will aim to make their children control themselves whenever it is possible, and will fall back upon absolutism only as a last resort.

But whenever you do command, command with decision and consistency. If the case is one which really can not be otherwise dealt with, then issue your fiat, and having issued it, never afterwards swerve from it. Consider well beforehand what you are going to do; weigh all the consequences; think whether your firmness of purpose will be sufficient; and then, if you finally make the law, enforce it uniformly at whatever cost. Let your penalties be like the penalties inflicted by inanimate nature—inevitable. The hot cinder burns a child the first time he seizes it; it burns him the second time; it burns him the third time; it burns him every time; and he very soon learns not to touch the hot cinder. If you are equally consistent—if the consequences which you tell your child will follow certain acts, follow with like uniformity, he will soon come to respect your laws as he does those of Nature. And this respect once established will prevent endless domestic evils. Of errors in education one of the worst is that of inconsistency. As in a community, crimes multiply when there is no certain administration of justice; so in a family, an immense increase of transgressions results from a hesitating or irregular infliction of penalties. A weak mother, who perpetually threatens and rarely performs—who makes rules in haste and repents of them at leisure—who treats the same offense now with severity and now with leniency, according as the passing humor dictates, is laying up miseries both for herself and her children. She is making herself contemptible in their eyes; she is setting them an example of uncontrolled feelings; she is encouraging them to transgress by the prospect of probable impunity; she is entailing endless squabbles and accompanying damage to her own temper and the tempers of her little ones; she is reducing their minds to a moral chaos, which after-years of bitter experience will with difficulty bring into order. Better even a barbarous form of domestic government carried out consistently, than a humane one inconsistently carried out. Again we say, avoid coercive measures whenever it is possible to do so; but when you find despotism really necessary, be despotic in good earnest.

Bear constantly in mind the truth that the aim of your discipline should be to produce a *self-governing* being; not to produce a being to be *governed by others*. Were your children fated to pass their lives as slaves, you could not too much accustom them to slavery during their childhood; but as they are by and by to be free men, with no one to control their daily conduct, you can not too much accustom them to self-control while they are still under your eye. This it is which makes the system of discipline by natural consequences, so especially appropriate to the social state which we in England have now reached. Under early, tyrannical forms of society, when one of the chief evils the citizen had to fear was the anger of his superiors, it was well that during childhood parental vengeance should be a predominant means of government. But now that the citizen has little to fear from any one—now that the good or evil which he experiences throughout life is mainly that which in the nature of things results from his own conduct, it is desirable that from his first years he should begin to learn, experimentally, the good or evil consequences which naturally follow this or that conduct. Aim, therefore, to diminish the amount of parental government as fast as you can substitute for it in your child's mind that self-government arising from a foresight of results. In infancy a considerable amount of absolutism is necessary. A three-year-old

urchin playing with an open razor, can not be allowed to learn by the discipline of consequences; for the consequences may, in such a case, be too serious. But as intelligence increases, the number of instances calling for peremptory interference may be, and should be, diminished; with the view of gradually ending them as maturity is approached. All periods of transition are dangerous; and the most dangerous is the transition from the restraint of the family circle to the non-restraint of the world. Hence the importance of pursuing the policy we advocate; which, alike by cultivating a child's faculty of self-restraint, by continually increasing the degree in which it is left to its self-restraint, and by so bringing it, step by step, to a state of unaided self-restraint, obliterates the ordinary sudden and hazardous change from externally-governed youth to internally-governed maturity. Let the history of your domestic rule typify, in little, the history of our political rule: at the outset, autocratic control, where control is really needful; by and by an incipient constitutionalism, in which the liberty of the subject gains some express recognition; successive extensions of this liberty of the subject; gradually ending in parental abdication.

Do not regret the exhibition of considerable self-will on the part of your children. It is the correlative of that diminished coerciveness so conspicuous in modern education. The greater tendency to assert freedom of action on the one side, corresponds to the smaller tendency to tyrannize on the other. They both indicate an approach to the system of discipline we contend for, under which children will be more and more led to rule themselves by the experience of natural consequences; and they are both the accompaniments of our more advanced social state. The independent English boy is the father of the independent English man; and you can not have the last without the first. German teachers say that they had rather manage a dozen German boys than one English one. Shall we, therefore, wish that our boys had the manageableness of the German ones, and with it the submissiveness and political serfdom of adult German? Or shall we not rather tolerate in our boys those feelings which make them free men, and modify our methods accordingly?

Lastly, always remember that to educate rightly is not a simple and easy thing, but a complex and extremely difficult thing; the hardest task which devolves upon adult life. The rough and ready style of domestic government is indeed practicable by the meanest and most uncultivated intellects. Slaps and sharp words are penalties that suggest themselves alike to the least reclaimed barbarian and the most stolid peasant. Even brutes can use this method of discipline; as you may see in the growl and half-bite with which a bitch will check a too-exigent puppy. But if you would carry out with success a rational and civilized system, you must be prepared for considerable mental exertion—for some study, some ingenuity, some patience, some self-control. You will have habitually to trace the consequences of conduct—to consider what are the results which in adult life follow certain kinds of acts; and then you will have to devise methods by which parallel results shall be entailed on the parallel acts of your children. You will daily be called upon to analyze the motives of juvenile conduct: you must distinguish between acts that are really good, and those which, though externally simulating them, proceed from inferior impulses; while you must be ever on your guard against the cruel mistake not infrequently made, of translating neutral acts into transgressions, or ascribing worse feelings than were entertained. You must more or less modify your method to suit the disposition of each child; and must be prepared to make further modifications as each child's disposition enters on a new phase. Your faith will often be taxed to maintain the required perseverance in a course which seems to produce little or no effect. Especially if you are dealing with children who have been wrongly treated, you must be prepared for a lengthened trial of patience before succeeding with better methods; seeing that that which is not easy even where a right state of feeling has been established from the beginning, becomes doubly difficult when a wrong state of feeling has to be set right. Not only will you have constantly to analyse the motives of your children, but you will have to analyse your own motives—to discriminate between those internal suggestions springing from a true parental solicitude, and those which spring from your own selfishness, from your love of ease, from your lust of dominion. And then, more trying still, you will have not only to detect, but to curb these baser impulses. In brief, you will have to carry on your own higher education at the same time that you are educating your children. Intellectually you must cultivate to good purpose that most complex of subjects—human nature and its laws, as exhibited in your children, in yourself, and in the world. Morally, you must keep in constant exercise your higher feelings, and restrain your lower. It is a truth yet remaining to be recognized, that the last stage in the mental development of each man and woman is to be reached only through the proper

discharge of the parental duties. And when this truth is recognized, it will be seen how admirable is the ordination in virtue of which human beings are led by their strongest affections to subject themselves to a discipline which they would else elude.

While some will probably regard this conception of education as it should be, with doubt and discouragement, others will, we think, perceive in the exalted ideal which it involves, evidence of its truth. That it can not be realized by the impulsive, the unsympathetic, and the short sighted, but demands the higher attributes of human nature, they will see to be evidence of its fitness for the more advanced states of humanity. Though it calls for much labor and self-sacrifice, they will see that it promises an abundant return of happiness, immediate and remote. They will see that while in its injurious effects on both parent and child a bad system is twice cursed, a good system is twice blessed—it blesses him that trains and him that's trained.

It will be seen that we have said nothing in this paper about the transcendental distinction between right and wrong, of which wise men know so little, and children nothing. All thinkers are agreed that we may find the criterion of right in the effect of actions, if we do not find the rule there; and that is sufficient for the purpose we have had in view. Nor have we introduced the religious element. (2) We have confined our inquirers to a nearer, and a much more neglected field, though a very important one. Our readers may supplement our thoughts in any way they please; we are only concerned that they should be accepted as far as they go.—*British Quarterly Review*.

Pestalozzi and the Schools of Germany.

FROM THE GERMAN OF DR. DIESTERWEG.

Every one considers it a matter of course that all our children go to school until they grow up to be youths and maidens. The observance of this custom begins at the sixth year. But the parents have long before spoken of the school to the child; he looks eagerly forward to the day of entrance; and when it takes place, he is absorbed in his school and his teacher for the next six or eight years or more. We always think of children and schools or children and books together. To be a child and to learn, have become almost synonymous terms. To find children in school, or passing along the streets with the apparatus which they use there, makes no one wonder. It is only the reverse, which attracts attention. The school fills a very important part in the life of the young. In fact school life is almost the whole life of childhood and youth; we can hardly conceive of them without it. Without school, without education, what would parents do with their children? Without them, where would they secure the young the necessary preparation for actual life?

With our present organization of society, schools are indispensable institutions. Many others may perish in the course of time; many have already perished; but schools abide, and increase. Where they do not exist, we expect barbarity and ignorance; where they flourish, civilization and knowledge.

No apology is necessary for sending our children to school. At school they learn. There they acquire mental activity and knowledge; the manifold varieties of things; to gain the knowledge of things in heaven above and in the earth beneath, and under the earth; of stones, and plants, and animals, and men; of past, present and future.

[The remainder of the discourse treats of three points:—

1. What were the schools before Pestalozzi?
2. What did they become by his means, and since; that is, what are they now?
3. What was Pestalozzi's life and labors?]

I.—THE OLD SCHOOLS.

Our present system of common or public schools—that is schools which are open to all children under certain regulations—date from the discovery of printing in 1436, when books began to be furnished so cheaply that the poor could buy them. Especially after Martin Luther had translated the Bible into German, and the desire to possess and understand that invaluable book became universal, did there also become universal the desire to know how to read. Men sought to learn, not only for the sake of reading the Scriptures, but

also to be able to read and sing the psalms, and to learn the catechism. For this purpose schools for children were established, which were essentially reading schools. Reading was the first and principal study; next came singing, and then memorizing texts, songs, and the catechism. At first the ministers taught; but afterward the duty was turned over to the inferior church officers, the choristers and sextons. Their duties as choristers and sextons were paramount, and as schoolmasters only secondary. The children paid a small monthly fee; no more being thought necessary, since the schoolmaster derived a salary from the church.

Nobody either made or knew how to make great pretensions to educational skill. If the teacher communicated to his scholars the acquirements above mentioned, and kept them in order, he gave satisfaction; and no one thought anything about separate institutions for school children. There were no school books distinctively so called; the children learned their lessons in the Bible or the Psalter, and read either in the Old or the New Testament.

Each child read by himself; the simultaneous method was not known. One after another stepped up to the table where the master sat. He pointed out one letter at a time, and named it; the child named it after him; he drilled him in recognizing and remembering each. Then they took letter by letter of the words, and by getting acquainted with them in this way, the child gradually learned to read. This was a difficult method for him; a very difficult one. Years usually passed before any facility had been acquired; many did not learn in four years. It was imitative and purely mechanical labor on both sides. To understand what was read was seldom thought of. The syllables were pronounced with equal force, and the reading was without grace or expression.

Where it was possible, but unnaturally and mechanically, learning by heart was practiced. The children drew out texts of Scripture, psalms, and the contents of the catechism from the beginning to end; short questions and long answers alike, all in the same monotonous manner. Anybody with delicate ears who heard the sound once, would remember it all his life long. There are people yet living, who were taught in that unintelligent way, who can corroborate these statements. Of the actual contents of the words whose sounds they had thus barely committed to memory by little and little, the children knew absolutely almost nothing. They learned superficially and understood superficially. Nothing really passed into their minds; at least nothing during their school years.

The instruction in singing was no better. The master sang to them the psalm-tunes over and over, until they could sing them, or rather screech them, after him.

Such was the condition of instruction in our schools during the sixteenth, seventeenth, and two-thirds of the eighteenth centuries; confined to one or two studies, and those taught in the most imperfect and mechanical way.

It was natural that youth endowed, when healthy, with an ever increasing capacity for pleasure in living, should feel the utmost reluctance at attending school. To be employed daily, for three or four hours, or more, in this mechanical toil, was no light task; and it therefore became necessary to force children to sit still, and study their lesson. During all that time, especially in the seventeenth century, during the fearful thirty years' war, and subsequently, as the age was sunk in barbarism, the children of course entered the schools ignorant and untrained. "As the old ones sung, -otwilttered the young." Stern severity and cruel punishments were the order of the day; and by them the children were kept in order. Parents governed children too young to attend, by threats of the schoolmaster and the school; and when they went, it was with fear and trembling. The rod, the cane, the raw-hide, were necessary apparatus in each school. The punishment of the teacher exceeded those of a prison. Kneeling on peas, sitting in the shame-bench, standing in the pillory, wearing an ass-cap, standing before the school door in the open street with a label on the back or breast, and other similar devices, were the remedies which the rude men of the age devised. To name a single example of a boy whom all have heard of, of high gifts, and of reputable family,—Dr. Martin Luther reckoned up fifteen or sixteen times that he was whipped upon the back in one forenoon. The learning and the training corresponds; the one was strictly a mechanical process; the other, only bodily punishment. What wonder that from such schools there came forth a rude generation; that men and women looked back all their lives to the school as to a dungeon, and to the teacher as a taskmaster, and jailer; that the schoolmaster was a small repute; that under-strappers were selected for school duty and school discipline; that dark, cold kennels were used for school-rooms; that the schoolmaster's place especially in the country, was assigned him amongst the servants and the like.

This could not last; it has not, thank God! When and by what

(2) We take this as an admission that such an element is necessary, God did not design that men should be taught altogether through the means of inanimate nature, although our Divine Redeemer more than once pointed to its instructions in his parables.—*Ed. L. C. J. E.*

efforts of admirable men the change took place, I shall relate a little on. Let us now look at the present.

II.—THE MODERN SCHOOLS.

What are our schools in this present fifth decade of the nineteenth century, and what are they from year to year growing to be? Upon this subject I can of course only give my readers a fresher and livelier impression of matters which they already understand. I begin with the exterior—not only every town, but every village of our father-land has at present its own school-houses. They are usually so noticeable for architecture, fitness and dimensions, as to be recognized at the first glance. The districts often compare amicably with each other in their appearance, and make great sacrifices for superiority.

In the school-house resides the teacher; a man who is often an object of the ridicule of the young, but who, if really a *teacher*, deserves and possesses the respect of the old. Many of course fail to obtain an adequate reward, especially for their highest aspirations, in their important calling; but their internal sources of satisfaction increase from day to day, in the power of lifting them above the depressing and wearing cares of their office. The conviction is daily gaining ground, that "what men do to the teacher, they are doing to their own children." The teacher is an educated man. He is trained in seminaries established and maintained for the purpose by the state. The time is past when teaching was practiced along with some handicraft; now undivided strength is devoted to it. How deep y teachers are themselves impressed with the importance, and engaged in the work, steadily and continually improving themselves, is shown in the zeal with which they organize and maintain reading societies and associations for improvement.

Let us now consider the interior condition of the school, and observe its instruction:—

The children are kept quiet far otherwise than by blows. Each sits in his own place, busy at his lessons. Nowhere in the light, roomy, and cleanly school rooms or halls is there any interruption, or any thing that could interrupt the attention of the young students. The walls are adorned with a manner of apparatus.

Far otherwise than by bows is the intercourse between teacher and children characterized. He greets them with a friendly word, and they him by rising up. He opens school with a prayer, and a hymn follows, sung well and sweetly. Now begins the business of instruction. All are earnest in it; every one has his work to do. There is no longer more than a slight trace of the plan of single instruction. All learn together every thing that is taught. Formerly the only thing taught to all was to read, and that by rote; for writing and arithmetic were required an extra payment; now, their work is regulated by a carefully considered plan of study, prepared by the teacher and superintending authorities of the school, which includes all subjects essential to the attainments of all; all the elements, that is of a general education.

At the head of all instruction in that concerning God's providence and man's destiny; in religion and virtue. To instruct the children in these great truths, to lay the secure foundation of fixed religious habits, is the highest aim of the teacher. Maxims, songs, &c., chosen with wise foresight, are ineradicably planted in his memory, and become a rich treasure to the scholar in after life. The singing is a part of the religious exercises. In solo, duet, or chorus, the scholars sing to the edification of all who take pleasure in well doing. They also learn secular songs, suitable in words and melody, and promotive of social good feeling.

The second chief subject of school instruction is reading. One who can not read easily, loses the principal means of acquiring knowledge during his future life. And how is it taught? The frightful old-fashioned drawl is done away with even to its last vestiges. Children now read, after two years' regular school attendance, not only fluently, but with just tone and accent, in such wise as to show that they understand and feel what they read. Is not that alone an immeasurable advance?

Formerly the children studied each by himself, and where they barely learned to write by continual repetition of the letters and long practice, they now acquire facility in noting down and drawing up in the form of a composition, whatever they think or know. From the beginning, they are invariably trained to recite distinctly and correctly, speaking with proper tone, and as nearly as possible all together. This exercise has completely proved for the first time, how important it is that the teacher should understand and observe the rules of syntax and correct speaking. In this point, our present school instruction in an entirely new art. The old-fashioned teachers themselves could scarcely read; now, the scholars learn it.

It is needless to detail all that remains; the entire revolution in teaching arithmetic, where, for unintelligent rule-work, has been

substituted the means of developing the intellect, inasmuch that the scholars can not only reckon easily both mentally and in writing, but can also understand, judge, and form conclusions. It is needless to detail the instructions in the miscellaneous departments of geography, history, natural history, popular astronomy, physics, &c., which is intended for every man who pretends, even to the beginning of an education, and by means of which only is man enabled to comprehend the wonder of existence, and to grow up intelligently into an active life amongst its marvelous machinery.

No; it is needless to speak of those things and of many more; but it would be wrong not to devote a few words to the means by which the teacher of the present day maintains discipline; that is, seeks to train his scholars to obedience, good order, good conduct and deportment, and to all other good qualities. In truth, no one who should overlook our immense improvement in this department can be said to know the proposed aim of our good schools and skillful educators and teachers; or ever to understand our schools at all. The well-disposed scholar is received and managed by love. But if the teacher finds himself forced to punish an ungoverned, disobedient, or lazy scholar, he at once puts a period to the indulgence of his base or wicked practices. It pains him, but his sense of duty prevails over his pain, and he punishes him as a man acquainted with human nature and as a friend, first admonishing him with words. Fear is not the sceptre with which he governs; that would train not men, but slaves. It is only when admonition, stimulation, and example have failed, and when duty absolutely demands it, that he makes use of harsher means. It is above all his endeavor to treat his children like a conscientious father. Their success is his pride and happiness; in it he finds the blessing of his difficult calling. He daily beseeches God for it, and looks with a thankful heart to him, the giver of all good, upon whose blessing every thing depends, and without whom the watchman of the house watches in vain, if under the divine protection any thing has prospered under his hands.

Instead of a dark and dreary dungeon, the school has become an institution for training men. Where the children formerly remained unwillingly, they now like best to go. Consider, now, what the consequences of this change of training must be on the hearts and lives of the children. How many millions of tears less must flow every year down children's cheeks! In Germany alone, more than five millions of children are attending school at the same time. Is the inspiration of such a number to future goodness a fantastic vision? Must not every department of school management assume great importance? It is with joy and pride that I say it; I myself am a teacher. Nowhere, in general, do children spend happier hours, than in school; at morning, and at noon, they can not wait for the time of departing for school; they willingly lose their breakfast, rather than to be late. How was it formerly? How often did fathers or mothers drag their screaming children to the school? And what awaited them there? God bless the men who have been and still are laboring, to the end that the pleasant season of youth, which will never return, the happy time of innocent childhood, may not be troubled with the dark barbaric sternness of pedantic school-tyrants; but that the school may be a place where the children may learn all that is good and praiseworthy, in milder and more earnest ways; a place in which earnest and thoughtful men, friends of children, and loving the teacher's profession, may feel and admit that they have passed the happiest hours of their lives. From schools so conducted, a blessing must go forth over the earth. Indeed, the ancients knew this. Thousands of years ago, it was high praise to say "He has built us a school;" and not less to say, "He has prepared praise for himself in the mouths of children."

The school as become an institution for training men and women; the old "school-masters" have become teachers. Pupils are now educated from the very foundations of their being, and by intelligible means. The scholar is not a machine, an automaton, a log; and accordingly the system of learning unintelligently by rote has come to be reckoned a slavish and degrading drudgery. The laws of human training and development are no longer arbitrarily announced, but are investigated, and when discovered, are faithfully followed. These laws lie within human nature itself. Beasts may be drilled at pleasure into external observances; but human beings must be educated and developed with reason and to reason, according to the laws impressed by God upon human nature. Of these laws, the schoolmaster handcraftsmen of former centuries knew nothing. Now, every thoughtful teacher adjusts his course of education and all his efforts whatever, as nearly as possible to nature. The consequences of this magnificent endeavor, in pedagogic science and art are plain before our eyes in our school-rooms. Instead of the former damp and gloomy prisons, we have light, healthy, clean and pleasant rooms; instead of dry and mechanical drilling

in reading and other studies, effective and skillful education in the elements of all the knowledge and attainments required by man; instead of the ancient stick-government and bastinado system, a mild, earnest, paternal and reasonable method of discipline; loving instruction from well written books; teachers zealously discharging their duties; in short, we in Germany, by full consciousness that something better is always attainable, by laboring forward always to better methods, and by actual attainment, that the best educated nations on earth, the French and English, are behind us in respect to educational matters, we may justifiably take pride in knowing that men from all the civilized nations in the world, even from beyond the ocean, travel hither to observe the German common schools, to understand the German teachers, and to transplant into their own countries the benefits of which we are already possessed.

The young reader who has followed me thus far will naturally inquire, how all this happened; in what manner this better school system came into being. And among the names of those noble men to whose thoughts and deeds we owe so invaluable a creation, all historians will record with high honor that of Pestalozzi.

—*Barnard's American Journal of Education.*

(To be continued.)

GEOGRAPHY.

Geography receives a large share of attention in the public schools; but there is no study that yields such small returns for the labor bestowed upon it. The practical advantage derived from it is not worth the time devoted to it. A scholar who has passed through all the grades of schools, graduating at sixteen, has probably spent the whole number of school hours there are in two years in studying Geography; and yet he will have to look upon his map in after-life for nine out of ten of the places he reads about in the public prints, or meets in historical and descriptive works. He has learned a great many facts in all that time; but they were so wretchedly arranged, and while he was learning them, were so little associated with the solid earth on which he lived, that they afford about as little advantage to him as the knowledge that craters exist in the moon.

Go into a Primary School and hear recitations in Geography. The book used is probably a compendium of geographical knowledge, called Primary, because it is smaller than the one used in schools of a higher grade. Being smaller, it is more condensed, and less simple and interesting than larger treatises. Little children, who hardly know North from South, and cannot tell the towns that border upon their own, who never fully grasped the idea of a mile, and whose minds have not been stretched enough to take in the conception of a good-sized pond, having studied their lesson diligently and patiently, tell us about the grand divisions of the globe, of vast oceans thousands of miles wide, and talk about great and small circles, latitude and longitude, without the faintest conception of what these terms represent. Such is their introduction to the science of Geography; and if the design of it is to furnish them with a few facts in such form as to make the least possible impression on the mind, and perform no part in its enlargement, no better introduction could be devised.

Then the continuation of the study in schools of a higher grade is much upon the same plan. The scholars may obtain a little better understanding of the subject, but they fall enough short of any just comprehension of it to lose most of its practical advantages. Instead of gaining accurate and inspiring conceptions of the great globe which the Almighty has formed and beautified for their residence, they garner up a store of isolated facts, which, having served their purpose in recitation or exhibition, are soon forgotten, or are stowed away in the dark corners of the mind as rubbish, to come forth once in a while as departed ghosts, but never in an earthly form.

Frequent attempts have been made to improve the prevailing methods of teaching this branch of school study; but it is so easy to keep on in the well-worn paths, that, though in individual cases great advancement may have been made, we cannot see that on the whole Geography is taught much better in our schools than it was twenty years ago. Certain it is that the text-books which have been in general use for the last dozen years, can hardly be called, either in their matter or arrangement, improvements upon those which they displaced.

"Geography is a description of the surface of the earth." So the books tell us. The object of studying it, then, is to gain a knowledge of the earth; to have in the mind some notion of its size, its masses of land, stretching out into wide plains, or rising up into

mountain chains, covered with a diversified vegetation, watered by rivers, inhabited by various races of men, the home of countless animals; some notion, also, of that vast body of waters which spreads out into broad oceans teeming with life, its regular ebb and flow, and constant currents.

Suppose some Primary School Teacher should banish all Geographies from her school; that she should draw upon the blackboard a map of the school-room, explaining the whole process, and then allow her scholars to draw the same either upon the board or upon their slates; then teach them in the same way to draw a map of the school premises; permit them to make maps of their gardens, of some field or larger portion of ground; and so go on till she had taught them to draw a map of the town, representing its roads, hills, forests, ponds and streams, and denoting the towns that border upon it,—would she not give her scholars a better introduction to Geography, a better notion of it, than could be gained by committing to memory all that even the best Primary Geographies in existence contain?

Before scholars can gain any proper conception of the things represented on maps, they must have some knowledge of the things themselves. The natural way, and the only real way, of teaching children is to begin with things. The concrete must come before the abstract. The mode of commencement above described leads to observation. It calls into exercise the most useful mental faculties, and teaches how to retain in the mind well-defined images of what has been seen; and scholars who have made the best use of what there is about them are thus prepared to receive from descriptions ideas of things they have not seen. From the images already gained of rocks, streams, plains, hills, and forests, they can form images of much larger rocks, streams, &c. By making representations of the earth's surface for themselves, they learn to understand better the representations made by others.

A little incident that occurred the other day showed us how little notice is generally taken of the situation of things. Some alterations in the school-yard being proposed, we wished to make a little sketch of it. When it came to locating the trees, we were uncertain in regard to their number. We asked the scholars. Out of fifty boys, two or three could tell how many trees there were, and one only could describe the situation of each; and yet nearly all of these boys had spent an hour each day for years in playing under them. Had these scholars been trained from the outset to habits of observation and accurate description, the number and position of a few beautiful shadetrees in their school-yard would hardly have been overlooked. The same remark may be made of their teacher.

We did not commence this article with any idea of indicating the method in which Geography should be taught, but merely for the purpose of making one or two suggestions. We should place Physical Geography before Political. That seems to be the most natural order. First, the description of the earth in its natural condition; then, the divisions of its surface and the changes wrought upon it by man. By Physical Geography, we do not mean all that is taught in works of that title, but the general outlines of the land and water surfaces of the earth, of its mountain ranges and slopes, river courses, and the like, such as scholars who have received the proper elementary training can easily understand. This should be thoroughly taught, and not made the mere memory of names and facts. Not only by drawing these outlines from memory would we be sure that the map representations were pictured upon the brain, but we would endeavor to have the actual thing delineated upon the map imaged in the mind. The idea of Massachusetts, for instance, should not be a little drawing upon paper, painted yellow, with a wavy line here for a river, and a little dot there for a town; but the idea of a portion of the earth's surface, so many miles in length and breadth, with its rock-bound and its sandy coasts, its land-locked bays and harbors, its undulating surface and flowing rivers.

The utility of map-drawing in connection with the study of Geography is universally conceded; but is the map-drawing so generally practised of the right kind? We visit schools, and are shown really beautiful specimens of this kind of handiwork. We have a number of maps in our desk we take considerable pride in looking at, and are not unwilling to show them to committees and visitors.

But what do they amount to? Simply this: certain boys have considerable taste for drawing, and they have made copies of certain maps. They confined their attention to one point after another till the work was done. They did not think much about what they were doing, and left off with about the same knowledge of the map they had when they commenced. It was not a useless exercise, because it furnished training for eye and hand; but, as a geographical exercise, it was worth but little. We have not forgotten yet the astonishment we experienced when examining the makers of some of

these beautiful specimens. The names even of the things represented had been but in few cases associated with their work.

Geography properly taught will not, we believe, be without its effect upon the emotional nature of childhood. It is a description of the works of God. It shows how admirably he has adapted the earth to the wants of his children; deals in the beautiful and the grand; and sets forth his power, wisdom, and goodness. Therefore it tends not only to enlarge the mind, but to impress the heart. But if it is made a mere memory of patches of color, black lines, dots, and names, all this is lost; and the time spent upon it had far better be appropriated to something else.

A good knowledge of the general features of the globe having been gained, it will be easy to engraft upon it all that is necessary for scholars to know in regard to the political divisions, the peculiarities of different nations, the situations and characteristics of cities, &c. We would not, however, carry this out much in detail. If too much is aimed at, nothing will be accomplished.

The book-makers seem conscious of the fact that teachers are desirous of some change in the method of teaching Geography. They are presenting geographical knowledge in more attractive forms, and arranging it so that it can be more easily grasped and retained. They are looking in the right direction, and we wish them all success. We have examined the late treatises upon Geography with considerable care, but are still obliged to say we have not yet found the book that seems to us exactly suited to the wants of the common schools.—*Massachusetts Teacher*.

School days of Eminent Men in Great-Britain.

By JOHN TIMBS, F. S. A.

I.

THE SCHOOLS OF ALFRED.

Although the son of a king, he was wholly uneducated until he had reached the age of twelve years, when he was taught in hunting, building, and psalmody. Though he could not read, however, he listened day and night to the verses which were recited by minstrels and glee-men, the masters of Anglo-Saxon song; and a volume of Anglo-Saxon poetry shown to him by his mother, and which became his own as soon as he could read it, so encouraged his love of poetry that he contrived to compose verses at intervals throughout his busy life. The second volume which Alfred obtained was a selection of psalms and daily prayers according to the ancient usage of the church.

Alfred was born at Wantage, on the borders of the Vale of the White Horse, in Berkshire, in 849. As a royal seat, Wantage was, probably, a place of some consequence in the Saxon times; it is conjectured to have been a Roman station, and upon the site of a vallum of this period, the palace in which Alfred was born is supposed to have stood. The event of his birth has been commemorated in a manner worthy of its interest. Wantage had its grammar-school founded in the reign of Elizabeth: it fell into decay, but has been re-founded under the following circumstances. On the 8th of September, in 1849, the thousandth anniversary of the birth of Alfred, that event was celebrated in the place of his birth. After divine service in Wantage Church, there were addresses and music in the Town-hall; a procession to "King Alfred's Well"; distribution of food to the poor of Wantage; an ox was roasted whole by aid of the steam-engine; and a medal (believed to be the only one ever struck in honour of Alfred) was struck for this "Anglo-Saxon Jubilee." The commemoration took a more permanent form in the following year, 1850, when a fund having been raised in augmentation of the limited sum appropriated for the grammar-school since the reign of Elizabeth, there was laid the first stone of a new school building which has been completed. It is in the pointed style of the thirteenth century, and accommodates seventy scholars, of which number thirty are boarders. Thus have the Governors of the Wantage Town Lands revived their grammar-school, and provided for the middle classes of their neighbourhood a cheap and efficient course of instruction, embracing not only a rudimentary acquaintance with the Latin language, but the addition of a sound modern education.

Alfred is related to have never been without a book in his bosom, in which volume he entered any memorable passage which occurred in conversation, until it was entirely full, after which a new book was made, by the advice of Asser, his tutor, and filled with diversified extracts on all subjects; this the King called his Handbook. Asser wrote the life of Alfred, wherein is a passage which has given rise to a dispute as to the superior antiquity of the schools of Oxford and Cambridge. The authentic proofs of the latter do not extend beyond the seventh century; whilst the evidence of Asser

shows that there were public schools at Oxford at least in the fifth or six century; but this evidence is questionable.

The harp at this period was a badge of rank, for, by the British law, a slave might not use it; and no one was esteemed a gentleman unless he possessed a harp, and could play upon it. Alfred's skill in this art led to one of his most brilliant victories. At Eddington, near Hungerford, in Berkshire, in the disguise of a harper, in 878, he visited the Danish camp, and obtained information which enabled him to surprise and entirely defeat the enemy.

We next find Alfred actively engaged in "the diffusion of knowledge" among his people. No Council or Board of Education in our time, can have exceeded the zeal of our Anglo-Saxon sovereign of ten centuries since. Alfred addressed to the bishops a circular letter earnestly recommending the translation of "useful books into the language which we all understood; so that all the youth of England, but more especially those who are of gentle kind, and at ease in their circumstances, may be grounded in letters—for they cannot profit in any pursuit until they are well able to read English." Yet, gross was the ignorance of those days. "When I took the kingdom," says Alfred, "very few on this side of the Humber, very few beyond, not one that I could recollect south of the Thames, could understand their prayers in English, or could translate a letter from Latin into English." To supply this deficiency, Alfred employed such scholars as the time afforded; he himself acquired sufficient knowledge of Latin in thirty-eighth year to translate the only book of Saxon history then extant; he translated other works of great learning, and attempted a complete version of the Bible, the finishing of which was prevented by his early death. He even enforced education by refusing to promote the uneducated, as well as by his own example. He insisted that the "ministers," or the persons whom he employed, should qualify themselves for their office; and in case of non-compliance he rejected them. Aldermen, and mayors, and governors, were compelled to go to school for this late instruction, to them a grievous penance, rather than give up their emoluments and office; and at an advanced period of his reign, Alfred, "the truth-teller," thanked God that those who sat in the chair of the instructor were then capable of teaching.

Alfred is believed to have re-established many of the old monastic and episcopal schools. Asser expressly states that he founded a seminary for sons of the nobility, to the support of which he devoted one-eighth part of his whole revenue. Hitherto even some noblemen repaired who had far outgrown their youth, but scarcely or not at all begun their acquaintance with books. This school was attended not only by the sons of almost all the nobility of the realm, but also by many of the inferior classes. It was provided with several masters; and this seminary is maintained by many antiquaries to have been the foundation of the University of Oxford.

Alfred's Schools were intended from the first for every person of rank or substance, who, either from age or want of capacity, was unable to learn to read himself, and who was compelled to send to school either his son or a kinsman, or, if he had neither, a servant, that he might at least be read to by some one; for, that rank was no guarantee of learning, we have already seen; and Anglo-Saxon charters exist, which, instead of the names of kings, exhibit their marks, used, as it is frankly explained, in consequence of their ignorance of letters.

The means by which this patriot King thus benefited his people are preserved to us. He usually divided his time into three equal portions: one was passed in sleep and recruiting his body by diet and exercise; another in the dispatch of business; a third in study and devotion; and that he might the more exactly measure the hours, he employed burning tapers of equal length; for, at this time, we must recollect clocks and watches were unknown. And by such a regular distribution of his time, though he suffered much by illness, Alfred, who fought in person fifty-six battles by sea and land, was able, during a life of no extraordinary length, to acquire more knowledge, and even to compose more books, than studious men, who, in more fortunate ages, have made literature their uninterrupted study. Translations of the Bible were multiplied through Alfred's assiduity; and from this, or the Anglo-Saxon age, down to that of Wickliffe (or, for nearly five centuries,) we in England can show such a succession of versions of the Bible in metre, and in prose, as are not to be equalled amongst any other nation in Europe. Alfred is believed to have given a large estate for a single book on a learned subject; a bargain which may have given rise to the saying, "Learning is better than house and land."

Alfred's children, six in number, were taught Anglo-Saxon prose, poetry and psalms. Ethelweard, Alfred's youngest son, received a sort of public education; he was committed to proper teachers, with almost all the noble children of the province, and with many of inferior rank; they were all instructed in Latin and Saxon, and

writing; and when their matured age gave the requisite strength, in gymnastics and archery, (1) as auxiliary to warlike habits. Nor was Alfred's example lost upon his successors. Wolstan says of Ethelwold—"It was always delightful to him to teach children and youth, and to construe Latin books to them in English, and explain to them the rules of grammar and Latin versification."

II.

ST. DUNSTAN, THE SCHOLAR OF GLASTONBURY.

About six miles from the ancient city of Wells, in Somersetshire, are the picturesque ruins of Glastonbury Abbey, once the richest abbey in the kingdom, and the most magnificent pile of Anglo-Norman ecclesiastical architecture. In the village hard by was born St. Dunstan, A. D. 925. His earliest instruction in the learning of his time he received in the monastery. The place was not then conventually regulated; and thither came chiefly from Ireland many illustrious men versed in sacred and secular science, and the opened schools, admitting the children of the nobility. Among these scholars was St. Dunstan. He applied himself to "the sciences of the philosophers" with uncommon ardour: thus he learned arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music. Like the prophet David, he would sometimes seize his psaltry, strike the harp, swell the organ, or touch the cymbal.

Upon quitting school, he passed a few years at the court of King Athelstan, when upon some affront, he returned to Glastonbury, and having in early youth received the tonsure there, he built himself a cell or hermitage, with an oratory, and in the intervals of his devotional austerities, employed himself in such manual arts as were useful to the service of the church—in the formation of crosses, vials, censers, vestments, &c.: he could paint, write a beautiful hand, carve figures, and work in gold, silver, brass, or iron; and after Alfred, the liberal arts were much indebted to his zeal: he was altogether one of the most memorable men of his time.

Apart from its interest as an ancient seat of learning, Glastonbury is one of the most hallowed spots in the kingdom; and as the wind sighs through its lone arches and hoary stones, you reflect that here lie the bodies of Joseph of Arimathea, King Edgar, and King Arthur; and numberless martyrs and bishops, and other men of mark. The building which now serves as the George Inn was in the monastic times an hospital for pilgrims to the shrine of St. Joseph. His chapel, and the monastery kitchen, remain.

III.

KING CANUTE A PÆT.

Under the Danish dynasty, little seems to have been done for the promotion of letters, if we except the brilliant example of Canute. He was successful in war; and in peace, humane, gentle, and religious. He was a liberal patron of men of letters: he afforded the amplest encouragement to Scandinavian poetry, and Olenes names eight Danish poets who flourished at his Court. Sir Bulwer Lytton has an ingenious speculation upon the great influence which the poetry of the Danes has had upon our early national muse; and he has little doubt but that to its source may be traced the minstrelsy of our borders, and the Scottish Lowlands; while even in the central counties, the example and exertions of Canute must have had considerable effect upon the taste and spirit of our Sæpecc. Canute himself, too, was the author of a popular ballad, which long after his death remained a favourite with the people.

The verse that has been preserved of this song composed by Canute as he was one day rowing on the Nen, while the holy music came floating on the air and along the water from the neighbouring minster of Ely—a song which we are told by the historian continued to his day, after the lapse of a century and a half, to be a universally popular favourite—is very nearly such English as was written in the fourteenth century. This fragment is as follow:—

Merie sungeu the munneches binnen Ely
Tha Cnut Ching rew here by;
Roweth, enhter, noer the land,
And here we thea munneches saeng.

(1) Roger Ascham, (in his *Torophilus*), supposes the English to have learned Archery from the Saxons; hence, by the ancient English laws, there is a more severe penalty for hurting the finger, which is necessary for letting the arrow fly, than for the maiming of any of the others. Barrington traces *bow* to the German word *bogen*, and *arrow* to the Saxon *apere*. Archery in war seems to have been disused immediately after the Norman Conquest, and to have been revived by the Crusaders: they had, doubtless, felt the effects of it from the Saracens, (who had probably derived it from the Parthians)—Edward I. was wounded by one of their arrows; and in this King's reign was formed a society called the Archers of Finsbury. This same society, having laid aside the bow and arrow, became subsequently the Artillery Company of the City of London.

That is literally:—

Merrily (sweetly) sung the monks within Ely
(When) that Canute king rowed thereby:
Row, Knights, near the land,
And hear we these monks' song.

Being in verse and in rhyme, it is probable that the words are reported in their original form; they cannot, at any rate, be much altered.—*Literature and Learning of England*. B. G. L. Craik, M. A.

The Danes were, in general, the destroyers of learning at this period; nearly all the monasteries and schools connected with them throughout the kingdom being either actually laid in ashes by these Northern invaders, or deserted in the general terror and destruction occasioned by their attacks. Under Canute, who was a wise as well as a powerful sovereign, the schools destroyed during the Danish wars, no doubt, rose again and flourished.

(To be continued.)

POETRY.

MORNING HYMN.

Sleep forsake us! may the soul
Gladden in its maker's sight
As the clouds that o'er us roll,
Sparkle in the morning light.

God of life, be Thou the ray
Of our dim and wandering course;
Light us, as the star of day,
On to truth's eternal source.

EVENING SONG OF THE TYROLESE PEASANTS. (1)

Come to the sunset tree!
The day is past and gone;
The woodman's axe lies free,
And the reaper's work is done.

The twilight star to heaven,
And the summer dew to flowers,
And rest to us, is given
By the cool soft evening hours.

Sweet is the hour of rest!
Pleasant the wind's low sigh,
And the gleaming of the west,
And the turf whereon we lie;

When the burden and the heat
Of labour's task are o'er,
And kindly voices greet
The tired one at his door.

Come to the sunset tree!
The day is past and gone;
The woodman's axe lies free,
And the reaper's work is done.

Yes; tansful is the sound
That dwells in whispering boughs;
Welcome the freshness round!
And the gale that fans our brows.

But rest more sweet and still
Than ever nightfall gave,
Our yearning hearts shall fill
In the world beyond the grave.

There shall no tempest blow,
No scorching noontide heat;
There shall be no more snow, (2)
No weary wandering feet.

(1) "The loved hour of repose is striking. Let us come to the sunset tree." See Captain Sherer's interesting *Notes and Reflections during a Ramble in Germany*.

So we lift our trusting eyes
From the hills our fathers trode,
To the quiet of the skies,
To the Sabbath of our God.

Come to the sunset tree !
The day is past and gone,
The woodman's axe lies free,
And the reaper's work is done.

OFFICIAL NOTICES.

APPOINTMENTS.

His Excellency, the Governor General, has been pleased to make the following appointments :

SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.

County of Ottawa.—Onslow : Messrs. Walton, Smith and George Leary.
County of Maskinongé.—St. Paulin : Mr. Fabien Martin.
County of Arthabaska.—Horton : Messrs. Thomas Martin, Louis Poirier, Onésime Provencher, Louis Poirier junior, and Téléspore Martin.

BOARD OF EXAMINERS FOR THE COUNTY OF SHERBROOKE.

Mr. H. Thomas Pease has obtained a diploma authorising him to teach in model or superior primary schools. Misses Eliza C. McClary, Maria N. Harran, Adeline Lathrop, Elizabeth Brady, Emma Jane Flanders and Elise Grégoire have obtained diplomas, authorising them respectively to teach in elementary schools.

DONATIONS TO THE LIBRARY OF THE DEPARTMENT.

The Superintendent acknowledges with thanks, the receipt of the following donations to the library of the Department :—

From Messrs. Cérat & Bourguignon, printers, Montreal : "La mouche à blé, son origine et les moyens de la détruire" ; by a practical farmer, a pamphlet in-12.

From Messrs. Robert S. Davies & Co., booksellers, Boston, U.-S. : Greenleaf's New Primary Arithmetic, 1 vol. in-18 ; Greenleaf's Intellectual Arithmetic, 1 vol. in-18 ; The American Practical Arithmetic, 1 vol. in-12 ; Greenleaf's Common Schools Arithmetic, 1 vol in-80 ; Greenleaf's Elements of Geometry, 1 vol in-80.

LIBRARY OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

All persons having books in their possession, belonging to this library, will please return them at as early a date as possible. It being intended to prepare a detailed and classified catalogue, the library will be closed until it is completed.

J. LENOIR,
Librarian.

TEACHERS WANTED.

The school commissioners of the municipality of Masham, in the county of Ottawa, require a teacher who has obtained an elementary diploma, and capable of teaching French. Salary, \$200.

The school commissioners of St. Colomban, in the county of Two Mountains, require an elementary school teacher, qualified to teach book-keeping.

A lady qualified to teach English French and music, will obtain a situation in a private family. For particulars, apply at Office of Education, Montreal.

SITUATIONS AS TEACHERS WANTED.

Mr. Joseph Mathon who has obtained an elementary diploma, requires a situation as teacher in a school of that class.

Mr. Bruno Peltier, aged 27 years, who possesses a model school diploma from the Laval Normal School, requires a situation as a teacher. Address to the Principal of the Laval Normal School or to the Superintendent of Education.

Mr. William Davies, possessing diplomas of the highest class for Academic and High Schools, will undertake to teach the classics, mathematics, French and other modern languages in an Academy or other Institution for Superior Education. Address to applicant, County Grammar School, Matilda, C. W. or to Education Office, Montreal.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

MONTREAL, (LOWER CANADA) SEPTEMBER, 1858.

A New Era in the World's History

In our last number, we gave a short history of electric telegraphs, and of the different kinds of telegraphs used since they were first invented as a medium of communicating with those at a distance, especially in times of extreme emergency. The following extract from *Emerson's Magazine*, we now give as a sequel to the article above alluded to :

The great event that has been consummated during the past month, will be marked in all time to come as a new era in the world's history ; a new starting-point as it were, in the progress of nations and the development of human destiny. Who can foretell or imagine the mighty consequences that must flow from the great fact that all the nations of the earth will soon be able to hold instantaneous converse with each other, like the members of a family circle sitting face to face around their quiet breakfast table ? Is it not to be the great lever of civilization, liberty and progress, throughout the world ? Is it not to be the means of bringing all nations into a harmonious brotherhood, and eventually inaugurate the happy era of the millenium ?

Well may our religious meetings, as they did in some instances when the great news was first announced, burst forth into singing.

"Waft, waft, ye winds, the story—
And you, ye waters, roll—
Till like a sea of glory,
It spreads from pole to pole."

No event for many centuries, has touched so deeply and universally the whole human heart. A subject of such magnitude and interest may well take precedence of all others in the pages of our present issue. We shall therefore collect and condense from whatever sources may be within our reach, such facts and comments as may be valuable for instruction, and interesting for future reference.

To Professor Morse belongs the honor of first adapting electricity to telegraphic purposes ; we therefore have placed his portrait at the head of our article. If we had the data at hand, and our space would permit, we should be glad to give the details of Mr. Morse's toils and struggles to develop and perfect his discovery and bring it practically before the world. A prophet is not without honor, save in his own country ; and if Mr. Morse has received but little in the way of honor or emolument from our own Government, he has received sufficient of both from the Governments and sovereigns of Europe to verify in a remarkable degree the scripture quotation. And Mr. Morse has proved himself literally and truly a prophet, in regard to the telegraph. Fifteen years ago, in a letter to the then Secretary of the Treasury, the Hon. John C. Spencer, he gave utterance to a prophecy which has already been fulfilled in the complete success of the Atlantic Telegraph. He then wrote as follows :

"The practical inference from this law is that a telegraphic communication on the electro-magnetic plan may with certainty be established across the Atlantic Ocean. Startling as this may now seem, I am confident the time will come when this project will be realized."

The first telegraph line established in the country, or in the world, was between Washington and Baltimore, toward the erection of which after long and tedious efforts of Professor Morse, Congress was induced to appropriate thirty thousand dollars. The first message which passed over this wire, if we remember right, was in these words : "What hath God wrought ?" And now the first message through the Atlantic telegraph, after the salutations of Queen Victoria and President Buchanan, was from the Directors of the Telegraph Company in England to their fellow Directors in New York, and was in these words : "Europe and America are united by telegraph. Glory to God in the highest ; on earth, peace and good will toward men."

This surely was a message appropriate and beautiful for the occasion. The greatness of the event seems to have affected almost

all minds, not only with joy, but with a sort of religious solemnity. It is an occasion upon which almost every one seems instinctively.

"To look through nature up to nature's God."

It is said that Professor Morse, while long engaged in the preliminary process of his great invention, was in the habit of making his investigations the subject of daily prayer. We notice, too, in the account of that most intensely interesting voyage of the noble ship Niagara, while laying the cable, religious services are mentioned. And on the successful arrival at Trinity Bay, Capt. Hudson of the Niagara, sent the following beautiful telegraphic dispatch to his family, in Brooklyn, New York:

"TRINITY BAY, August 5, 1858.

"God has been with us. The telegraph cable is laid without accident, and to Him be all the glory. We are all well. Yours affectionately.

WM. L. HUDSON."

THE FIRST TELEGRAPH UNDER WATER.

Doctor John J. Craven, of Newark, New Jersey, in 1846, after a great number of persevering experiments with a variety of substances, finally succeeded in making a cable by insulating a wire with gutta percha, and laying it first in the Passaic River, and afterward across the North River, between New York and Jersey City. Such a fact is of great interest; and now that two hemispheres are connected, and a new era has dawned upon us by an instantaneous communication between the Old World and the New, so wonderful and magnificent that the human mind almost fails to comprehend it—an event which makes fable tame and miracle commonplace—the world should not fail to do justice and to render its sweet praise to all those who have contributed by their genius to this sublime result. That Mr. Craven is the actual inventor of the cable, and first successfully laid it beneath a body of water, there is, we suppose, no doubt. The N. Y. Tribune of April 29, 1848, contains the following paragraph:

"A DESIDERATUM OBTAINED.—It is known that it has hitherto been impossible to send the electric fluid across telegraph wires when they were submerged, and that persevering efforts have been made to obviate the difficulty. We learn that it has at last been done, Mr. J. J. Craven having succeeded, after several experiments, in discovering a mode of conveying the fluid through water, and that he has applied it with perfect success at the crossing of the Passaic River on the New York and Philadelphia line. He is also about to apply it to crossing the Hudson from Jersey City to this side."

It is not often that inventors and discoverers can find so complete a recognition of their claims and merits by contemporary witnesses as this. And now that time has made manifest the immense importance of these early labors of Mr. Craven in the science of telegraphing, let the world be none the less generous in acknowledging his claims.

Mr. Craven is still a resident of Newark. At the time of his experiments on a submarine cable he was in the employ of Professor Morse, but he afterward acquired a professional education, and is now a successful physician at Newark.

When the fact was once established that the electric current could be conducted by telegraph under water, experiments rapidly multiplied in this country and in Europe, and it was not long before short lines of submarine telegraphs were successfully laid, some of which may be mentioned here.

SUBMARINE TELEGRAPHS IN EUROPE.

In the latter part of May, 1852, Great Britain and Ireland were brought into instant communication through the submarine telegraph. The distance between the points of connection—Hollyhead and Howth—is sixty five miles, and the greatest depth five hundred and four feet. There was only one wire in this cable, with the indispensable coating of gutta percha, which was protected and strengthened by the iron wire covering the outside. It was laid at the rate of four miles per hour, and fell so evenly that only three miles more than the actual distance traversed was required.

Scotland and Ireland were connected by a cable of six wires in May, 1853. The distance is about thirty miles, and was traversed by the steamer in not more than ten hours. The following June a cable was laid from Orfordness, in England, to the Hague, in Holland, a distance of one hundred and fifteen miles. The task was accomplished in thirty-four hours, and only four and a half miles of cable were required in the paying out over the actual length from point to point, making hardly one hundred and twenty miles altogether. Another cable connects Dover with Ostend, making the third between England and the Continent.

In the summer of 1854 a telegraphic union was effected between Corsica and Sardinia, in Italy, the Sardinian Government having granted three vessels of war to assist in the undertaking. This work was attended with much difficulty, in consequence of the breaking of a part of the wire. The submerging of a cable between Corsica and the island of Sardinia was successfully accomplished shortly after; but the attempt which was subsequently made to connect the island of Sardinia and Algeria, and thus establish immediate communication between the continents of Europe and Africa, was unsuccessful, and has not since been attempted. That it will be effected, and at no distant day, there is no reason to doubt, as the obstacles are not of an insurmountable character.

Since the Atlantic cable has been successfully laid, the London News says that England will not rest till she has carried her Indian telegraph from the Land's End, in Cornwall, to Gibraltar, thence by the Red Sea to Bombay. The next step will be to connect Ceylon or Madras with Singapore and the Australian colonies by the electric wire.

On the evening of the telegraph cable celebration in Montreal, the principal feature of the entertainment at the Theatre Royal, was the delivery of an original dramatic poem, by the author of Columbus, on the Atlantic Telegraph, representing America and Britannia; the parts were most ably sustained by the Misses Denin, dressed in character, and the national anthem and Hail Columbia were sung by the entire company. The following is the poem:—

AMERICA.

Am.—Hush! not a murmur, not a whispered sound!
Let every voice be mute—for all around
Teams with strange rumours—and now here now there
Come messengers with tidings great and rare
Filling with joy and peace the still prophetic air,
But who comes here with such majestic mien
In face a goddess, and in gait a queen?
Ancient in years, in actions ever young,
Britannia comes, she whom old bards have sung
What time old worlds with mighty triumphs rang.

Enter BRITANNIA.

Sweet elder sister, welcome to our shore!
Hail to the mother of great men of yore,
Patron of arts and mistress of the sea,
Thou who first taught old nations to be free,
And made thy sea girl isle the house of liberty!

Brit.—And Hail young genius of the western sky,
My sister, friend, companion and ally,
Where British accents sound thy streets among,
And CHATHAM'S language is the mother tongue.
Ye northern hearts still subject to my sway,
Canadian workers of the present day,
Offshoots of ancient France—heroic—true;
England remembers, ye are Norman too,
And British emigrants of worth the staple,
Rose, shamrock, thistle grafted on the maple.
'Tis done, the work is done;
Far below light of noonday sun,
The chain of peace is laid—
Where spade ne'er turned the sod,
Where mortal foot ne'er trod,
Where none can see, save God,
The chain of peace is laid.

Am.—Honor to Science pay,
Honor to those in this our day,
Who wrought the glorious work.
Great Franklin, when he first essayed
To turn Heaven's lightning from its course,
Ne'er dreamt of wonders since achieved
By Wheatstone, Cook, and Morse.

Brit.—Indignantly old Neptune rose
With forehead high and hoary,
To lash his billows upon those
Who dared dispute his glory.
He launched the lightning and the flood,
And rent the rope in twain,—
Those men of Anglo-Saxon blood
Went home and tried again.

Am.—It comes—the message comes,
Boom the cannon, hark the drums—

It flies our shores between,
Word follows word at magic space,
Sweet, gentle words in kindly race,
Accents of love and female grace—
The grace of Britain's queen.

Victoria! when history's page
Hereafter tells of you,
'Twill say,—That once a monarch sage,
A woman good and true,
In name of those who owned her sway,
A people richly blest,
First spoke across the great highway
To brethren in the West

Brit.—Listen again—upon the ground
The cable strangely creaking,
Hearing across the lofty sound
Of a great people speaking;
Republicans of western mould,
Strong nervous hearts of bearing bold,
Columbia young to Albion old
Sends words of kindly greeting.

Am.—Glad tidings of great actions done
Beneath the east and western sun
Shall every day go forth.

Brit.—And kindness 'twixt us shall increase,
True love abound and discord cease,
And never may this chain of peace
Be messenger of wrath.

If blundering diplomatic skill
In stilted phrases even still
Should try to cross our walk,
To stir up strife 'twixt your race,
Like honest folks who disagree,
We'll take our places by the sea
And sit us down and talk.

Am.—As gentle words 'twixt you and me
Are passing every minute,
Whatever the cause of discord be,
There'll soon be nothing in it;
And may we both in friendship joined,
Be first at Freedom's goal,
And joined thus, be ever thus, (embracing)
A united soul to soul.

Report of the Chief Superintendent of Public Instruction for Lower Canada for 1856.

(Continued from our last.)

Mr. Bourgeois has the superintendance of a most flourishing and interesting portion of the Eastern Townships known among our *habitans* by the name of *Bois Francs*, comprising a portion of the counties of Drummond, Bagot and Arthabaska. The population of this district is chiefly composed of emigrants, principally of French origin, who have left the southern parishes of the district of Three-Rivers and the western part of the district of Quebec, to seek a new home in the eastern townships. The new settlers make great sacrifices for the education of their children, well worthy to be followed by the inhabitants of the older parishes which they have left.

Mr. Bourgeois expresses himself in the following terms:

There has not been during this year the same increase in the number of schools in operation nor in the number of children attending the same, as was noticed last year; but this is owing to the fact that the increase of late years, has nearly reached the point that could be expected. As to the number of schools it is sufficient for the school population; it would not have been therefore advisable to encourage a more rapid increase in their numbers for the present. Some isolated spots have remained deprived of the benefits of the school-law, but their position alone has been the cause, and it is one which can only be remedied by time, and increased settlement.

According to the statistics which accompany the present report, you will perhaps be surprised to find how few are the pupils noted as well advanced in the various branches of education, compared with the number that attended school. It is a remarkable fact, and one which is nevertheless very easily explained. In this part of the Province, settled so lately, and where manual labor alone supplies family wants, the child that has attained the age in which the reasoning faculties can best be exercised, is also at that age capable of contributing some assistance in the labor of the field, therefore, he is kept at home, while the infant is sent to school.

I beg to acknowledge the receipt of 75 volumes which you placed at my disposal for distribution in the schools of my district, but as I had almost completed my inspection, a few only have been bestowed, and this was in the Municipalities that I had not yet visited. In doing so, I particularly appointed the reward, to such scholars as were remarkable for their success in the more useful branches of study, such as arithmetic, grammar, &c., added to the master's report upon the general conduct of the scholar, and his regular attendance at school. I have promised prizes to the schools in my next visit, and will faithfully, as heretofore attend to the instructions which you were so kind as to give me respecting them.

A notable and favorable change has taken place during the present year as regards the finances of several corporations, the result I presume of the condition which you imposed upon the obtaining a supplementary grant from Government; that no corporation having arrears due by solvent parties, should be entitled to such aid. In co-operation with your views, I invariably ascertained these facts before I would consent to a certificate for any corporation.

The difficulties that heretofore existed towards the carrying out of the school-law have almost entirely disappeared within the limits of my district of inspection. Those that do exist are altogether of a local, or territorial nature. I will therefore point them out in their proper places, together with the remedy which in my opinion ought to be applied.

I am happy to declare that of all the schools under my inspection, those of this Municipality are the best attended, and exhibit better proofs of improvement for the year 1856 than any other in my district. I feel most happy in having it in my power to pay this tribute of praise to this parish particularly as it marks a great change from what was formerly. The commissioners over whom is the Rev. Curate of the parish, deserve the highest commendation, for their enlightened direction over the schools, during the last year. The new Secretary-Treasurer, Mr. O. Bellemare, is a well educated man, and fills the duties of his office in a most praise-worthy manner.

In recapitulation I have to observe that the schools of my district are in general, pretty well provided with benches and desks, but some of them are yet in want of black-boards and not one is furnished with maps. A few of the Corporations, propose procuring these essential articles; so far the want of means was the chief obstacle in that respect.

The attendance at school has been very irregular throughout the whole of my district, which is due to several causes, the principal being the poverty of parents, who are unable to properly clothe their children, particularly in the winter season, and the necessity in some cases of their giving what help they can at home.

Though the salaries named are on an almost equal par with those offered in the neighbouring districts, yet teachers are to be had with such difficulty, that the authorities have been content to retain those they had, such as they were, rather than dispense with them altogether; for my part I found many of them totally unqualified for their posts. The fulfilment of the 6th clause of Act 19, Vic., chap. 14, will have the effect of greatly reducing the number of schools for the present, which will enable those who desire to continue their vocation of teachers to return to their studies and fit themselves properly under good masters, before they undertake to teach others.

Mr. Inspector Archambault, who is entrusted with the educational charge of the rich and enterprising counties of Richelieu, Vevochères and Chambly, with part of those of St. Jean and St. Hyacinthe, has not met within his district with the many difficulties generally encountered in the endeavor to further education in the new districts of this province. His report, of which the following is a synopsis, is most encouraging:

After a careful visit throughout my district I remain convinced that there has been a remarkable progress in every quarter. The

Commissioners fulfil the tasks imposed upon them with much more zeal, and omit nothing to obtain the best teachers. Each parish seems to vie with its neighbour in the quick adoption of every new improvement. I have been many times reproached by School Commissioners for having made known the superior merits of some teacher to the neighbouring school authorities, thereby enhancing the existing rivalry, and rendering it more difficult for the first to obtain indisputably the coveted services of that person. I state this fact for it speaks more to the purpose than almost anything else I could say. There is also a great advance, both upon the salaries offered, as also in regard to the school-houses that are intended also as a dwelling-house for the teacher. Five years ago when I made my first visit to the parish of St. Aimé, which then, also comprised those of St. Marcel and St. Robert, I found the schools shut up, the Commissioners refusing to act, no Secretary-Treasurer appointed, the property of the Corporation entrusted to irresponsible parties, and therefore obliged to call to my aid the rigors of the law. At the present time St. Aimé is one of the most flourishing parishes in my district. Independently of the Academy for girls, under the conduct of the sisters of the order of "La Présentation," it contains along with the new parishes, which are erected out of the dismemberment of the old parish of St. Aimé, a great number of schools well kept, and well attended. I have nowhere met with so strict an assiduity. As a proof I may mention, that on the 11th of March last, I was engaged in visiting the schools of the districts, one named, District of the River St. Aime, and the other of the Tierçant Range. The weather was exceedingly cold and tempestuous, nevertheless, the first under the charge of Miss Lucie St. Germain, was attended by 55 scholars, 29 boys and 27 girls, the second under the care of Miss Eléonore St. Germain, held 42 children, 22 boys and 20 girls. Not one of these children was over 12, and many were scarcely more than five years of age. Such a state of things speaks favorably not only for the parents and teachers, but also for the children. It is very rarely met with in a badly directed school, or even where the teacher lacks the talent of making the class-hours agreeable to the children. I shall now proceed to a rapid review of the parishes of my district.

Mr. Child's district of Inspection, is one of those which presents the most favorable statistical results. Public instruction was highly appreciated in this district long before the present educational law ever was in force, and even previous to the union of the provinces. This district of inspection composed now of the counties of Stanstead, Richmond, Compton and Wolf, has for some time been favorably remarked as possessing some of the best directed and most numerous attended schools in this portion of the province. Even there the emigrants from the surrounding seignories rival the older inhabitants of Scotch, Irish and American origin, in their energetic efforts to advance education, and Mr. Child speaks most favorably of the zeal, energy and success attending the efforts of both. Mr. Child terminates his report with the following remarks:

As to the general state of this district, some progress has been made during the past year. A good number of new school districts have been formed, and many good school-houses have been built and some old ones repaired. Some new settlements have been put in a way to organize themselves into new municipalities, and to make in the aggregate thirteen new schools. In the municipalities which I have severally reported, the schools are generally the same as last year. The attendance has fallen off a little, which is to be accounted for by the fact that many families have removed to the West, and an error which appeared in the General Report on Education, the Township of Cleveland having been brought twice into the aggregate. Otherwise it is about the same as last year.

The following remarks are extracted from the report of Mr. Roney, Inspector for the counties of Ottawa and Pontiac.

You will perceive that the total number of pupils in attendance at the different schools in this district at the close of the past year was 3,956, being an increase over the previous year of 1161, or 11 per cent.

On the hypothesis that the population of the Ottawa district is now 30,000, which, I presume, is pretty nearly correct, the number of pupils in attendance in the different schools in the district will

be in the ratio of 1 to 74 to the entire population. Although this proportion does not come up to that of several parts of Europe, the United States, or even Canada, still, when we contrast it with what it was five years ago, there is much reason for exultation.

It has afforded me much pleasure to observe the progress made by the pupils in many of the schools throughout this extensive district, as well as that made by the teachers themselves. In many of those schools the only branches taught a very few years ago were reading, writing, and the elementary rules of arithmetic; now, in almost every school, grammar, geography and history form a part of the studies, and in several of them natural science is also taught.

The books used in the schools have also done much towards advancing the status of the scholar. The Irish National School series are in all but universal use throughout the district. In the 4th and 5th books of that series are embodied a compendium of history and natural science, which will give the scholar a considerable knowledge of those branches, and pave the way for a more enlarged course of studies.

The prize books which you entrusted to my care have done much to stimulate the pupils to renewed exertions and punctual attendance, and have been productive of more good than can be imagined; they have likewise increased the respect entertained by the pupils towards the Inspector. It is to be hoped that, through the liberality of the Government and Legislature, you will enabled from year to year to continue such donations; and I may state that collectively these books would form useful and instructive parish libraries.

The immense increase in the number of pupils in attendance is, of itself, demonstrative of the working of the School Bill. Throughout the entire district I am not aware, at present, of any municipality wherein the law does not exist; and I find in every instance School Commissioners are desirous of co-operating with me in using their utmost exertions, and whatever authority the law confers upon them, to enforce the carrying out of the School Bill.

Although there are many municipalities which might be classed as indigent, such as St. André Avellan, Portland and Maniwaki, in the county of Ottawa, still I find a desire on their part to do their utmost to procure an education for their offspring. The supplementary grant which you bestowed on several of those parishes during the past year, as well as on others, have done much to stimulate them to renewed exertions in the cause of education.

Although the financial affairs of the different municipalities in my district are the most difficult part of my duties, still, with very few exceptions, I have had little difficulty on this score, and any that might have existed is now in a fair way of being satisfactorily adjusted.

There are four academies in operation in the district of Ottawa, viz: three in the county of Ottawa and one in the county of Pontiac. These are all well conducted and numerous attended; all the masters have studied either in colleges or universities, some of them being graduates. The academies of Aylmer are the most numerous attended, and all these institutions contain pupils studying Latin, Greek, French and mathematics.

In my last annual report I spoke at some length relative to the insufficient payment of teachers; and experience proves to me that, until we remunerate them better, we cannot expect men of education to embark in so unremunerative a calling.

Although there is some improvement in the quality and extent of the buildings, still I do not find what I consider an indispensable appendage to every country school, viz: a residence for the teacher, with a small portion of land attached thereto for a garden. Were such an appendage attached to every school, it would conduce not only to the welfare of the teacher, but also materially to his revenue.

I have found in many instances female teachers equally as efficient as males. In fact some of our best common schools are conducted by female teachers; and from the circumstance that they require less remuneration than male teachers, they are more suitable for poor districts.

You will perceive that the amount now levied by assessment nearly reaches, in this district, the sum of £1600 per annum.

The College of St. Joseph, Ottawa City, has in a great measure, supplied the want of a Normal School on the Ottawa Valley. Many of the teachers in that district were educated in that institution; and although it is situated in Canada West, it is as much of a Lower Canada as an Upper Canada institution, inasmuch as about one-half of its pupils are from the lower section of the Province. In my opinion its usefulness would be greatly increased were some pecuniary aid given to establish a Model Farm and Botanic Gardens in connection with that institution.

I have much pleasure in stating that the number of Dissident Bodies in the entire district is only three, which proves that the

utmost harmony prevails among the different denomination of Christians.

In addition to the Irish National School books, which are in general use, the books of the Christians Brothers are used in many schools, as well as Mavor's Spelling-book and the English Reader.

Were the Department to have a series of maps compiled and furnished to schools at a moderate rate, it would tend greatly to facilitate the study of geography. The maps in the schools, and the only ones that can be procured in the Province, are of the most inaccurate kind, and wholly unintelligible to a youth.

(To be continued.)

MONTHLY SUMMARY.

SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

—Professor Gould, says the *Ohio Journal of Education*, has obtained the sun's equatorial horizontal parallax, showing that the sun is 96,160,000 statute miles distant from the earth, instead of 95,000,000 usual computation.

—On Thursday, July 29th, an experiment was made in the Westminster road, and witnessed by thousand of spectators, who seemed much interested and astonished on seeing a steam engine traversing the streets of London. The machine was steered by a person who stood in front, and handled a wheel, about the size and appearance of those used in our river steam boats, but made of metal. Two other men were at the end of the engine, one acting as stoker, and his companion assisting at a kind of break, when it was necessary to turn. This was all the manual aid required for its progress. Attached was a truck or platform on wheels, loaded with heavy packages of several tons weight, and thus proceeded from the manufactory of Mandsley and Field, along the Westminster road to their wharf close to Westminster bridge, the entrance to which is in the Belvedere road, and here it was guided round with the utmost ease, and without a moment's delay.

The engine is the invention of a gentleman named Bray, who has obtained a patent. It is adapted to travel uphill or down, and its speed may be increased at pleasure. On this occasion it went through the throng of carriages and people at a walking pace, and it was several times stopped and then set in motion, showing it to be perfectly safe and under control.—*Illustrated London News*.

—The same paper also informs us that the sub-marine telegraph between England and the channel Islands, has been successfully laid, and that communication between Southampton and Alderney, is now going on.

—We learn from the "Illustrated London News," that an exhibition of the works of living artists is to take place at Rouen on the 1st October.

—A new kind of apparatus for walking on the water is now coming into vogue in Holland, to which the name of podochophes has been given. At the last regattas at Amsterdam, some amateurs of this kind of exercise had a race. One of them Mr. E. Ochsner who gained the prize, undertook to walk up the Rhine with one of these apparatus as far as Cologne in less than seven days. Notwithstanding the difficulty of the undertaking, and the extreme heat and contrary wind which prevailed during the first three days, Mr. Ochsner now his wager.—*Id.*

—The word "telegram" now orthodox in England, to designate the despatches by telegraph, originated in America in 1850. It was then regarded as an unjustifiable eccentricity; but now that it is orthodox in the mother country, it will, no doubt, become a dictionary word in the United States.—*Ohio Journal of Education*.

The word "money" originated in the fact that the first silver money coined in Rome—which was A. U. C. 482, was struck in the temple of Juno-Moneta.—*Id.*

ADVERTISEMENTS.

American Normal School Association.

[We publish at the demand of this Association the following notice.]

This Association originated in a Convention held in N. York city, Aug. 30, 1855, and annual meetings have since been held—at Springfield in 1856 and at Albany in 1857. The last meeting was at Norwich, Conn., Aug. 18 and 19, during the session of the Am. Institute of Instruction. A Constitution, prepared by a Committee

appointed a year previous, was presented by Prof. Alpheus Crosby, and was adopted with some modifications.

After a free discussion, the Association was fully organized, and measures were initiated which it is believed, will secure its permanence and efficiency. The importance of such an Association was forcibly urged by the President, Wm. F. Phelps, of Trenton, N. J., J. W. Buckley of New-York, Prof. Alpheus Crosby, Geo. N. Bigelow and J. W. Dickinson of Mass., Prof. W. N. Camp of Conn., Richard Edwards of St. Louis, and others.

The Normal School system is still new in this country. It is not yet quite twenty years since the oldest Normal School in America (that now at Framingham, Mass.) was established. Their number has multiplied very rapidly within a few years, and no former year has witnessed the foundation of so many of these important Institutions as the last year. They are no longer an experiment. In Massachusetts, where they have been most thoroughly tested, and where time has developed their results most fully, they have been steadily advancing in public confidence as the people have become more practically acquainted with the actual working of the system and its influence upon the public schools. Among other indications of this growing sentiment may be mentioned the fact that the aggregate attendance in the four Normal schools of Massachusetts, is now greater than at any former period.

The Normal School is now regarded widely through the country as indispensable to every complete system of public instruction. They are already established in Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin and Minnesota, and in the cities of Boston, New York, Brooklyn, Newark, St. Louis, New Orleans and others. The next Legislature of Missouri will probably establish a Normal School, and measures are in progress which promise similar results at an early day in other States.

In view of the recent origin and rapid increase of our Normal Schools, and the consequent want of a mature personal experience in their management, it is essential to their highest efficiency that their instructors should maintain an association for professional improvement.

Many fundamental points in reference to the distinctive character and specific aim of the Normal School, the methods of instruction, the terms of admission, the length of the prescribed course of study, the prominence given to the theory and art of teaching, &c., demand investigation. A comparison of views on these and other equally important questions, bringing together the results of the varied experience of those actually in the work in different parts of the country, where different methods are adopted, cannot but render a valuable service to the cause of Normal School Instruction.

The next meeting of the Association will occupy two days, and will be held in July next, at Trenton, New Jersey. The exercises will consist of lectures, essays and discussions.

By order of the Association.

B. G. NORTHRUP, Secretary.

Saxonville, September, 7, 1858.

JUNIOR DEPARTMENT

OF

BISHOP'S COLLEGE AND GRAMMAR SCHOOL.

The junior department reopens on TUESDAY, August 31st under the charge of the Revd. J. W. Williams, M. A. Rector, assisted by Messrs. A. D. Capel and J. J. Procter.

For information apply to the Rector, the Revd. J. W. Williams, Post Office, Quebec.
Lennoxville, July 15, 1858.

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