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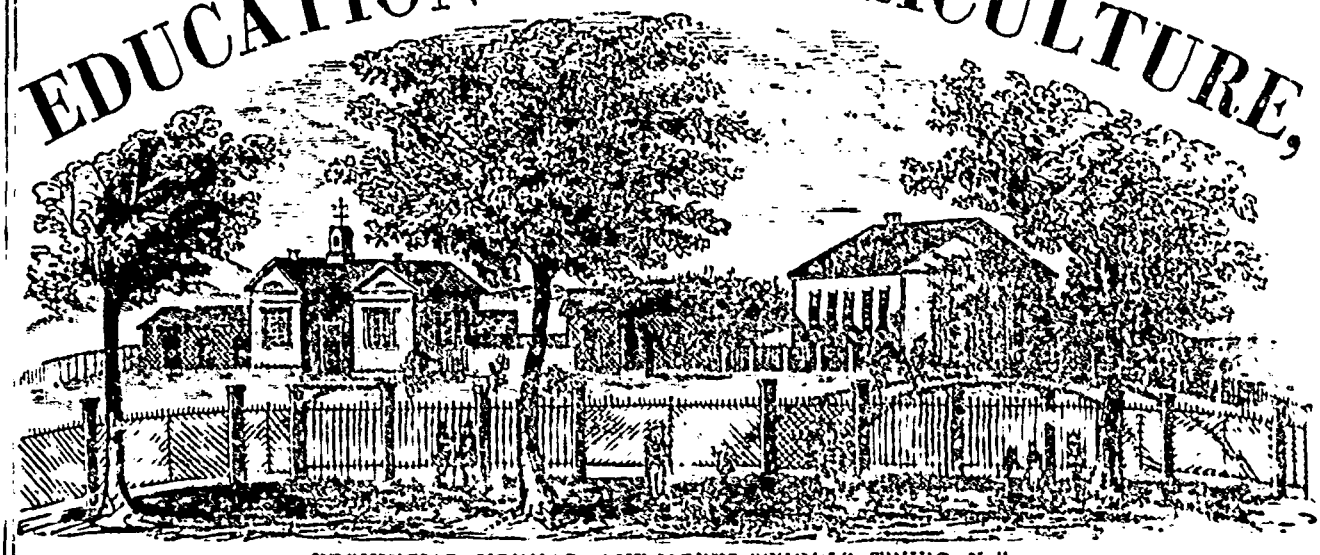

PROVINCIAL NORMAL, AND MODEL SCHOOLS, TRURO, N. S.

FOR THE PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA.

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Vol. II. **Halifax, Nova Scotia, November, 1859.** **No. 5.**

EDUCATIONAL.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF HENRY BARNARD.

[CONTINUED FROM PAGE 50.]

MR. BARNARD'S removal from office did not alienate his mind from the cause of education. When public avenues were closed against him, he sought in a more private way to benefit his country. He conceived the design of writing the history of education in the United States, and immediately began to collect materials for the work.

After laboring assiduously for more than a year, he received an invitation from Rhode Island to superintend the education of that State. With much reluctance he complied, and spent several years there laboring with the same assiduity that had characterised his efforts in his native State. Here he found matters even worse than at home, and prejudices yet more injurious in their tendency. The mass of the people were not only ignorant, but they gloried in that ignorance. Many of them thought education necessarily associated with pride, duplicity, and tyranny; hence they viewed it as a disqualification for those stations in which honesty and humility were held indispensable. In addition to the acquisition of many wiles, "the college larn't minister" was an imputation on the sufficiency of the Holy Spirit. To overcome such prejudices was a task of no ordinary character, yet his success was signal. Doubtless, however, his activity, earnestness, perseverance and suavity might have failed to produce so complete a transition in public feeling, had his labors not been seconded by many public spirited and intelligent coadjutors. The blighting influence of party politics was not allowed to intermeddle and mar the whole prospect. A writer, contrasting Barnard's achievements in Rhode Island with his less triumphant success in Connecticut, says, "It should be mentioned to the credit of Rhode Island, that during his labors in that State, not a single article appeared in the public press, calculated to impede the progress of school improvement, to injure the feelings of those who were laboring in this field, or to mingle up the question of public schools and general education with the topics of angry, political, sectarian and personal controversy, by which every community is liable to be disturbed and embittered."

The results of Mr. Barnard's labors were improved school-houses, increased attendance, and a gradation of schools by which far more labor could be effected, the course of education was rendered more thorough and practical, the labors of the teacher were facilitated by improved school-books and apparatus, means were provided for obtaining better qualified teachers, the public mind was, to a great extent, aroused, and

parents began to feel an interest in schools and to regard them as the richest legacies to their offspring.

These were great achievements, and prepared the way for successful legislation; but before Mr. Barnard had the satisfaction of seeing the consummation of his labors, ill health obliged him to resign his office. Deeply was his departure regretted by those who had reaped the benefits of his labors, and whose intelligent perception of his worth prepared them to feel his loss.

Mr. Barnard's parting advice deserves to be written in letters of gold. "Let no Rhode Islander forget the immense fund of talent which has slumbered in unconsciousness, or been only half developed, in the country towns of this State, by reason of the defective provision for general education.—Let the past four years be the first of a new era,—an era in which education, universal education, the complete and thorough education of every child born or living in the State,—shall be realised. Let the problem be solved,—how much waste by vice and crime can be prevented, how much the productive power of the State can be augmented, how far happy homes can be multiplied by the right cultivation of the moral nature, and the proportional development of the intellectual faculties of every child; how much more, and how much better, the hand can work when directed by an intelligent mind; how inventions for abridging labor can be multiplied by cultivated and active thought; in fine, how a State of one hundred and fifty thousand people can be made equal to a State of ten times that number,—can be made truly an Empire State, ruling by the supremacy of mind and the moral sentiments. All this can be accomplished by filling the State with educated mothers, well qualified teachers, and good books, and bringing these mighty agencies to bear directly, and under the most favorable circumstances, upon every child and every adult. As fellow-laborers in a common field, he would say to all,—teachers, school officers, and citizens, persevere in the measures which have thus far been adopted, and adopt others more efficient. Act directly, and by all available means, on the public mind; quicken, enlighten, and direct aright the popular intelligence, as the source of all practical legislation and judicious action on the subject of schools.—Secure every advance in popular intelligence and feeling by judicious legal enactment,—for public sentiment and action will not long remain in advance of the law. See to it, that the children of the State, and especially those who live in the lanes and alleys of your city, or labor in your mills and shops, are gathered regularly, during their school years, into good schools. Establish institutions of industry, and reformation, for vagrant children, and juvenile criminals. Educate well, if you can educate only one sex, the female children, so that every home shall have an educated mother. Bring the mighty stimulus of the living voice, and well matured thought, on great moral, scientific, literary, and practical topics, to bear on the whole community, so far as it can be gathered together to listen to popular lectures. Introduce into every town, and every family, the great and the good, of all past time, of this and other countries, by means of public libraries of well selected books. And, above all, provide for the professional training, the permanent employment, and reasonable compensation of teachers, and, especially, of female teachers, for upon their agency in popular education must we rely for a higher style of manners, morals, and intellectual culture."

Mr. Barnard returned to his old home in Connecticut, where he sought to recover his health in the seclusion of his private avocations, and amid the rusticity of his farm and garden. But his country could not long afford him such retirement. He was solicited to accept professorships in two different colleges. These, together with other honorable posts, he refused.

He reserved himself for a more congenial work. His native State, though it had once madly discarded him, now turned to him with outstretched hands imploring him to superintend its educational affairs. He accepted the invitation, and soon had the satisfaction of delivering the inaugural address in the New Normal College, of which he was the honored Principal.

Here he had a full opportunity of inculcating and developing those principles of which, in less auspicious days, he had been the unsuccessful advocate.

The leaven which he had hid in every corner of the land had done its work,—at length, it had pervaded the whole mass of society.

Mr. Barnard's successes and triumphs may furnish encouragement to those who, like him, are called to labor in the midst of opposition. Let none forsake the path of duty because the results of their labors may not be manifest.

"In the morning sow thy seed, and in the evening withhold not thy hand, for thou knowest not which will prosper, this or that, or whether they both will be alike good."

II.—PRACTICE OF EDUCATION.

WRITING.

FROM MORRISON'S MANUAL OF SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

(Continued from Page 52.)

WRITING-BOOKS.

The pupils having thus taken their seats, they are next supplied with writing material. Slates, from false notions of economy, are frequently employed with beginners. We question the propriety of this. To write on slates is a very different thing from writing on paper—it is on the latter that the pupil will have to exercise the art. For dictation and many other exercises, writing on slates must be largely practised in schools; but we would be inclined to suggest whether slate writing should not be acquired from paper writing, instead of writing on paper from writing on slates, as is sometimes done. A slate and slate pencil are hard and unpliant, and have a tendency to give the fingers a stiffness and rigidity quite destructive of good writing. Besides, the mode of holding a pencil is so different from that of holding a pen that to learn to write with a pencil does not materially assist the acquisition of writing with a pen. On these and many other grounds, we would prefer to use paper with beginners. But the paper must be prepared in a certain way; and here we must enter somewhat more into details than we have hitherto done. We have seen that good writing requires that the letters be of a proper form, be correctly inclined, and at proper distances from each other. The writing-books in common use give very little assistance to the pupil in respect to these three things. For the most part, they simply assist him in writing straight, but as to the height, inclination, or distance of the letters from one another, he is left to imitate the model as best he may. Now whilst we are no advocates of keeping children always in leading-strings, we are certainly of the opinion that to expect a boy to copy exactly the model of any letter whatever, with-

out vouchsafing him any assistance, is expecting too much, and giving the child labour which, in the circumstances, is needless. In order therefore to assist him in determining with precision the height, distance, and inclination of the letters, the writing-book should be ruled not only horizontally, but in a slanting direction; the distance between the horizontal and the slanting lines being the same, and fixed by the size of the hand which he is required to write. The horizontal lines enable the pupil to measure the exact height of each letter, while the oblique lines guide him in respect to the inclination of the letters and their distances from one another. In ordinary writing-books, it is exceedingly difficult to get beginners to give all the letters the same inclination, the reason being that the pupil, imitating his own work, departs further and further from the proper degree of inclination as he approaches the end of the line; and hence it is no unusual thing to find a letter at the end of a line turned exactly in the opposite direction from the letter at the beginning of the line. Now a copy-book, ruled after the manner we have described, presents to the pupil, when forming each letter, a rule which he can hardly fail to follow, and the writing, although at first it may not be elegant, will be symmetrical, and the pupil will thus learn almost instinctively to measure by the eye the proper height, inclination, and distance of the letters. After he has been familiarized with these three essentials of good writing, the oblique lines should be gradually withdrawn, and the pupil left to trust his eye alone. By degrees to, the horizontal lines will be so far removed that the pupil will learn to give the letters their proper height, without any of the artificial helps we have suggested. And after sufficient expertness has been attained, unruled writing-books should be used, in order to accustom the child to write exactly as he will have to do in after life. Writing-books of the kind we have described are now to be had from any bookseller, and we would earnestly advise the young teacher to give them a trial. In each writing-book, of whatever kind it may be, there ought to be a piece of blotting-paper, and no pupil, whose book is not supplied with this indispensable requisite to neatness and cleanness, ought to be allowed to commence his writing lesson. Indeed it would be well to have the writing-books interleaved with sheets of blotting-paper; for when it is detached, it is very apt to be torn or to be lost. On no account should any writing be allowed on the cover of the writing-book, or on the blotting-paper; for the practice of scribbling, frequently acquired in school, is utterly destructive of those habits of neatness which no lesson is so well fitted to teach as the writing one. After the pupils have all taken their seats, the pupil-teachers or the monitors, as the case may be, should hand round the writing-books. These should be arranged exactly in the same order as the pupils sit, so that in giving them out there may be no confusion. When the lesson is finished, all the books should be collected in the order in which they were given out, and carefully deposited in the case set apart for them. Attention to these apparently trivial matters is of consequence, inasmuch as the whole school machinery will move sweetly, and without any effort, in direct proportion to the care bestowed on such arrangements.

WRITING MODELS.

When the writing-books have been thus given out, the monitors should next give to the pupils the writing models. These should be given out and collected in the same order as the writing-books, and care taken that similar models be all kept in one place, so as to be ready whenever required. The practice of having head-lines on the writing-books is objectionable, and now that models are to be had so cheaply, and done up in a way that secures them from being obliterated for a long time, provided only they are handled with any moderate degree of care, we would advise the teacher to obtain a sufficient supply, and he will find them more suitable for his purpose than engraved head-lines, or even than setting the copy, as it is technically called. To set the copy of each child in the school is a labour which the master cannot by possibility overtake, and which he should not attempt. Neither should this work be entrusted to pupil-teachers, for, setting aside the temptation under which they lie to do it carelessly, their own writing is too frequently not so good as to serve as a model for the scholars. In these circumstances, a set of good models, regularly graduated, will serve every useful purpose, and, if the writing-books are carefully inspected and errors pointed out, more progress will be made than where the master sets the copy and leaves the pupils to write as they please.

PENS.

Pens are the next requisite, and, while quills might be most useful in giving freedom to the hand, yet the trouble connected with them is so great that we do not counsel their use. Steel pens are now made with such care, and are so much employed in offices, and counting-houses, that they may be used in school with advantage. "They are cheaper; they require no mending. When they are employed the following regulation should be in force;—at the end of the writing lesson, the monitor is to move along the desks with a tin cup containing water, in which every pupil is to deposite his pen. The monitor, having collected all the pens, is to wipe each on a cloth, and to place it in a box. By this means one pen, if fairly used, will last two or three months, and the dirty habit of the children wiping their pens on their clothes will be avoided."* We need scarcely say that the equally dirty habit of wiping the pen in the mouth, or on the blotting-paper, should be sternly interdicted; and the children should be often cautioned against the wanton destruction of pens. As already remarked, habits acquired in school frequently stick to a person through life, and we would scarcely seek higher evidence of a man's being an earnest and faithful teacher than to find him diligently watching over his little flock, and guarding them from the acquisition of any habits which are unbecoming or slovenly.

HOLDING THE PEN.

We have the pupils thus prepared for receiving instruction, and the first thing to be done now is to train them to hold their pen aright. The following hints, although to be found on the cover of almost every writing-book, may not be out of place here. The hints are inserted for the benefit of the teacher, and not for the purpose of being taught the pupils. Mere abstract rules are, in their own place, useful; but no pupil will learn to hold a pen correctly from having been taught a set of carefully digested rules; he must be *trained* as well as *taught* how to hold it. The remark holds good with regard to the position of the body. Our object is to lay down those things which the teacher should know who sets himself to teach writing; but these various rules he should work into the minds of his pupils by degrees, and as opportunity offers.

"1. The pen is held between the first two fingers and the thumb.
2. The fingers should not be stretched out too far, nor be too much doubled up.
3. The pen, without being held too stiffly, ought not to move between the fingers.
4. The hand supports itself on, and is, as it were, suspended upon, the third and fourth fingers.
5. It is upon these two fingers that the hand glides along the paper from left to right.
6. The fingers which hold the pen should not pass below the open part of it.
7. The pen, in writing, is held so as to point to the shoulder.
8. It ought to be pressed lightly, and should make no noise.
9. Both sides of the nib of the pen should press equally on the paper, or the pen will leave a thicker mark on one side than on the other.
10. Those fingers only which hold the pen should move in the formation of the letters.
11. The forearm and wrist should not move at all.
12. In pushing forward the arm to the right, the hand does not change its direction.
13. The hand ought to be inclined in such a manner as to cause the nib of the pen to be seen."

* Mulhauser's "Manual of Writing," p. 31.

POSITION OF THE BODY.

Next to the holding of the pen, the pupil must be taught how to sit, and how to keep the writing-books. In writing, the body should be kept as erect as possible. The children should not be allowed to lean their chests on the desks,—a habit which injures both their health and their writing. The left side should approach the desk, while the right is thrown slightly back. The writing-book should be placed somewhat to the right, and at such a distance from the pupil as will enable him to reach it with perfect ease and freedom. It should be *parallel to the edge of the desk, and kept from moving by* the left hand, which, for this purpose, should be drawn in close to the left side, the fingers stretched out and resting on the pen. In order to give the right hand the liberty necessary to write well, the arm should rest on the desk about midway between the *wrist and the elbow. The pupils must be trained* to take and retain the proper position by frequent and oft-repeated exercises.

FIRST LESSON.

On the supposition that the master is thoroughly acquainted with the analysis and classification of the letters, which we have briefly described, and that the pupils have been taught to sit in a proper position and to hold their pens correctly, he would now proceed to teach them to write. *Standing in front of the black board*, with all the children facing in his own direction, the master should write down one or two simple words with which the pupils are familiar, and after calling their attention to the difference between written and printed characters, he would proceed to show them what constituted *good writing. They might be asked to give their* own ideas on the subject; and by a short conversational lecture, in which the children bore their part, he could easily point out that the letters required to be of a proper form, regularly inclined, and correctly joined to one another. Such an exercise would arrest their attention, lead them to see that writing followed simple and easily understood laws, and that for one boy to write well and another badly was not the result of mere chance. After these things had been pointed out, it would be shown that in all the letters there were a few common elements, a knowledge of which was necessary to enable one to write well. By writing down some of the letters, the master could lead the children to notice that the right line entered as an element into a number of the characters, but that it appeared under different lengths, while they would at the same time perceive that the length was not arbitrary, but uniform for certain classes of letters. By this analytic process, the children would be prepared to enter on the work of synthesis with understanding, and might be expected to pay more attention and to make more progress than if set to imitate a stroke, without any knowledge of the benefits which the imitation would confer on them. The way being thus cleared, a model should be set before them for their imitation. We need scarcely repeat what we have said so often, that the simple characters should always precede the complex; and that there should not be manifested any desire to hurry the pupils on too fast. One thing should be done at a time, and done thoroughly; and as soon as one element and its combinations have been mastered, a new and more complex one should be presented. It would be desirable to allow the pupils to write whole words as soon as possible, in order thereby to lead them to take more interest in their work. The black-board should be in constant requisition. No new letter should be given until an analysis of it had been presented on the board, and until its form and shape had, as it were, been impressed upon the eye. "Instruction must be given, which will not only impress the forms on the eye, but which will enable the mind to determine at all times what is necessary to the production of perfect letters, and to point out the defects that occur, and how in any given case they may be remedied."

THINGS TO BE ATTENDED TO IN WRITING.

Convinced as we are that children can never be made to write well unless by the constant exercise of attention on the part of the master, we shall, even at the risk of being considered tedious, point out a few things which the master ought specially to attend to in the course of the writing lesson. With beginners, his great object should be to train them to handle the pen with ease and dexterity. This is no easy accomplishment. Young children find very considerable difficulty in wielding the pen in such a way as to cause it to obey the impulse of the will. The understanding may be thoroughly alive to the due proportion, form, and symmetry, of any one letter, and the eye may have completely mastered the elements which compose it; and yet the hand may refuse to form it according to the prescribed model, or according to the idea which the pupil has in his mental vision. In such cases, and they occur with all beginners, the master must, with pains and patience, show the child how the pen is to be held, must occasionally guide the wavering hand, and must always smile on the faintest symptom of improvement. To form a straight line is the first essential in learning to write, and the child must learn to do this with considerable facility before passing on to more complex characters. When once any element has been mastered, care should be taken to introduce it to the writing lessons so frequently, that the pupil will run no risk of forgetting how to form it. The letters should be well rounded, and every effort made to secure legibility. We saw when treating of reading that some pupils would read with more taste and grace than others; but that, while this was the case, all might be trained to read clearly and distinctly. And so it is in regard to writing. Some minds are so constituted as to have more accurate ideas of form and proportion than others; and such persons may naturally be expected to make the best writers. But this need not prevent all from learning to write legibly, and in such a style as to render their writing easily read by another; and this, after all, is the main thing to be attended to. Writing is not an end, but a means; and the more a teacher keeps this in view the more likely will he be to train his pupils to write well. In order, however, to secure this legibility, inspection and correction of errors are absolutely necessary.

CORRECTION OF ERRORS.

At the outset of a boy's career in writing, the master should, if time permit, examine each letter as it is formed; but, on no account, should the child write more than one line without inspection. Quantity is of no consequence as compared with quality. When one line has been written, the master ought to inspect it carefully, point out the mistakes that occur, compare the writing with the model, and show wherein the error lies. When these things have been done, the pupil should write the letter again with special reference to the previous mistakes. The errors most likely to occur are the following:

Want of uniformity in the thickness and depth of colour of the straight line. This arises from an unequal pressure of the pen when forming the letter, and from an inability to guide the hand in its upward or downward motion. To remedy it, the point of the pen should be placed straight on the paper, the two sides of the nib resting equally on it. The right arm should rest on the desk in such a way as to leave the hand free to move.

Roughness of stroke. This may be owing to a foul pen, bad ink, or, it may be, bad paper. If the defect arises from any of these causes it should at once be remedied, so that there may be no excuse for any defect whatever. It frequently arises however, from an unequal pressure of the two sides of the nib, in which case the remedy occurs in holding the pen right. It also arises sometimes from pressing the pen too firmly on the paper, as if it were a graving tool, when this is the case the remedy is easy.

Wrong inclination. This may be remedied by the use of writing-books ruled as we have already described. When writing-books of the common kind are employed, the master should write one letter as a specimen at the beginning of each line, and occasionally, as circumstances require, he may write one in the middle of the line, which will serve to point out the mistake, and to guard against it for the remainder of the line.

Letters too tall or too short. This may also be remedied by properly ruled writing-books.

Links and hooks too thick or too fine. The thickness of these will depend to a certain extent on the thickness of the letter of which they form a part. Great care will be necessary in forming all the up strokes—the hand at first moving somewhat stiffly is apt to drive the nib into the paper, and to splutter the whole page. This arises often from having nothing between the page and the hard wood of the desk. Children should never be allowed to write except when several pages intervene.

Curve wrongly formed. This arises from a want of a clear conception of the form. The eye has not been so accustomed to measure distance as to mark off at once where the curve should begin and where end. Artificial helps may be of service; but the black-board must also be called into requisition. In a given space two curves should be inserted, the one correct, the other wrong; and the children should be made to point out why the one is right and the other wrong.

Letters not properly joined. This a very common mistake and must be most rigidly guarded against. The point of junction of the several letters, and the means of junction, should be pointed out on the black-board. The use of the hook, link, and crotchet, should be illustrated; their respective positions, and the letters to which they severally belong be made clear, and examples given where the joining of the letters is correct, and wherein it is wrong. Each line in the writing-book should be examined with reference to the point, and a small mark put beside each mistake. Nor is this all—the pupil should be made to show wherein the error lies, and the reason of it, and thereafter to write the letter or the word correctly.

Form of the letters wrong. We cannot lay down any rules which will remedy this error. Although the expression is somewhat vague, we can only say that time and pains alone will teach the correct forms of the letters. We can simply remark that it is not sufficient to tell the pupil that the form is wrong. The master must show him on the black-board in what respects it is wrong—must train him to recognize and to execute the correct form, and lead him to see the reasons for every step in the formation of each letter.

These are a few of the mistakes that are most likely to occur in writing. Many others will present themselves in practice, but we have done enough if we have pointed out how mistakes may be remedied, and in what way pupils may be made to write with neatness and legibility.

CURRENT HAND.

We have not deemed it necessary to make any special remarks on the writing of capitals, or on small writing. The principles we have endeavoured to lay down apply to all kinds of writing; and the main difference between small and large hand is one of *degree*, not one of *kind*. It would be well to accustom the pupils to write a good current hand. This is very much overlooked in most schools. The exercises in writing are confined too exclusively to set formal lessons, in which caligraphy is the only thing aimed at. Hence it is very rare to find pupils able to write on paper to dictation with any degree of legibility. Indeed dictation on paper is seldom attempted. But surely this ought to be the object kept steadily in view. Reading is of use not merely because it enables the pupil to peruse the class-books used in school, but because it enables him to read with ease any book that may happen to come in his way. And so writing does not belong merely to the sphere of the artist, but is of use in that it enables one to represent rapidly and legibly on paper the thoughts that arise in his mind. And hence the acquisition of a clear, legible current-hand should be looked upon as the goal to which the instructions of the master and the efforts of the pupil tend For this purpose, exercises in dictation should be given, and corrections made, not only in regard to the spelling, but also in regard to the writing. "There should" says Willm, "be fewer lessons in caligraphy—one lesson a week, or at most two, for children under ten years of age, would be sufficient. In return, there would be more written copies, and more dictation. Supposing that one or two pages of such dictation were written every week for three years, or from fifty to sixty pages a-year, the pupils would, at the end of that time, possess a volume of a hundred and fifty to two hundred pages, written by themselves, filled with useful knowledge, and to which they would attach some importance, from its being their own work." Such exercises are not only useful, nay absolutely necessary, in teaching orthography, they also serve to accomplish the end of which we are now speaking, that, namely, of giving children a current hand in school, so that, without break or interruption, they may pass from school to the actual business of life.

III.—OFFICIAL NOTICES.

WINTER TERM OF NORMAL SCHOOL.

In accordance with law, this Institution was opened on the 9th instant. As usual, the first week was occupied with the enrollment and classification of the Students, and on Wednesday the 16th, Dr Forrester delivered the Introductory Lecture on the Dignity and Importance of the Office of the Teacher; after which the regular business of the Session was proceeded with. There are now enrolled not less than 82 *Students, being 12 more than on any former occasion, and* 10 more than there is accommodation provided for. When Dr Dawson drew the design of the Provincial Normal School, he calculated that in proportion to the population there would be an average attendance of 30. There never have been less than between 50 and 60, but for the last three Terms there has been a decidedly progressive increase. All this demonstrates that there are abundant materials *in the Province for* the training of a class of duly qualified Teachers, provided the Legislature would come forward and secure a certain and competent remuneration for their labours. The following is the List of the Students enrolled, with the counties whence they came:—

LADIES.

Miss Jessie Baxter—Colchester,
Susan Waddell— do,
Jane Cock— do,
Frances Blair— do,
Isabella Kent—Halifax,
Fanny Fisher—Colchester,
Annie Pitblado— do,
Maggie Walker— do,
Jane Bremner—Halifax,
Lilias McLeod—Pictou,
Maria J. Corbet—Annapolis,
Charity Smaddan—Halifax,
Elmina Coxe—Colchester,
Ellen Page—Cumberland,
Janet Chipman—Hants,
Martha Stewart—Pictou,
Jane Reid— do,
Janet Mathieson—Cumberland,
Mary Murray—Colchester,
Janet Bruce—Pictou,
Thirza Dodson—Colchester,
Agnes Johnstone— do,
Mary Cousins—Digby,
Margaret Densmore—Hants,
S. McKean—Inverness, Cape Breton,
Mary Smith—Pictou,
Sarah Butler—Yarmouth,
Lois Kinney— do,
Eusebia Minard—Queen's,
Annie Minard— do,
Rachel Harvey—Hants,

Hannah Dumphy—Colchester,
Kath McKay—Pictou,
Mary Miller— do,
Sarah McKenzie—do,
Jessie Dickson—Colchester,
Esther King— do,
Jane Purney—Shelburne,
Moriah Minard—Queen's,
Harriet Blair—Colchester,
Isabella Flemming— do,
Mary Alice Cameron—Pictou,
Caroline Fisher—Colchester,
Hannah Eaton— do,
Barbara Nichol— do,
Louisa F. Henderson—do,
Lizzie Palfrey—Annapolis,
Margaret J. Flemming—Colchester,
Georgina Sutherland— do,
Rebecca Archibald—Halifax,
Jessie Campbell—Colchester,
Ellen Long—Queen's,
Lydia Ann Knowles—Hants,
Annie Green—Halifax,
Ellen Fuller—Colchester,
Elizabeth Lauder—Pictou,

GENTLEMEN.

Mr Reuben Raymond—Digby,
John Morse—Annapolis,
Hiram Eaton—Colchester,
George Kent— do,
James Forbes—Inverness, Cape Breton,
Samuel Sperry—Lunenburg,
James Ross—Colchester,
Calvin Raymond—Digby,
Donald McKay—Colchester,
John F. Macdonald—Pictou,
James Calder— do,
Thomas McLeod do,
John Lyons—Colchester,
John L. Miller—Hants,
Avard Gates—Queen's,
Samuel Jackson—Annapolis,
George F. Campbell—Colchester,
Samuel Pearson—King's,
David Whiston—Guysborough,
Samuel Whiston—Richmond, Cape Breton,
William Norrie—Pictou,
James Johnston—Colchester,
Edmund Archibald— do,
Alexander Sutherland—do,
Edward Archibald— do,
Jonathan Knowles—Hants.

INTRODUCTORY LECTURE BY PRINCIPAL.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN,—

It were altogether a spurious modesty did I refrain from expressing the high gratification I experience in witnessing so many students again assembled within these walls. Surely it is a token for good, and well-fitted to inspire every well-wisher of this country with grateful emotions, to find so many of her sons and daughters willing to devote a certain portion of their life, at least, to the high and holy work of the education of the rising generation in their midst, and prepared to make sacrifices duly to qualify themselves for this work.—And this all the more, when we take into account the fact that there is not, perhaps, a similar Institution in this or any other Continent in which a smaller amount of public pecuniary encouragement is given to the students in attendance. In Upper and Lower Canada, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and in the greater proportion of Normal Schools in the American Union, the students, during the period of their attendance, are either wholly or partially supported by the nation, or denomination, or corporation sending them. And even after they go forth, fully accredited as duly qualified teachers, to their respective spheres of labour, they are signalized, and that in the most substantial manner, by the reception of much larger emolument out of the public funds: whereas, in our Provincial Normal Institution, the only boon bestowed on the pupil-teachers is a gratuitous education and the payment of their travelling expenses. When, I repeat, in all these circumstances we find the number, instead of diminishing, still on the increase, we are surely warranted to draw the conclusion that there is amongst our youth a noble band prepared to encounter difficulty and hardship for the benefit of the rising generation, and, thereby, to augur well for the future prosperity of our Province.

And for what object, ladies and gentlemen, may I now ask, are you here assembled? For the purpose of cultivating your own minds, and that with a special reference to the cultivation of the minds of the young in your native land. And what an ennobling employment this! We usually estimate any work or undertaking according to its own intrinsic worth and the extent of its results. And, surely, when we look at the office of the teacher in the former of these aspects, it must appear to every well-conditioned mind to be one of outstripping importance—one which the highest of the angelic choirs might well covet. It has pre-eminently to do with mind, and that in its most precarious and interesting condition—in its germinating and developing processes. And who can estimate the inherent worth, the surpassing excellence, even of one mind? Looking at it in its concrete character, and as contrasted with matter, with what grandeur and sublimity is it invested!—There is much to excite our wonderment, our admiration and praise in the material universe, whether we contemplate it in its more vast or in more minute objects—whether we fetch our observations from the microscopic or telescopic range—whether we survey individual objects in their external and internal structure, or in all their beautiful gradations and adaptations and relations—whether we consider the evidences of design furnished by the Boulder-stone of the desert, or by the harmonies that reign throughout the wide domain of creation, proving all to be but the component parts of one great system, the product of one supreme intelligent mind. Who does not perceive in all this at once the existence and the infinite perfections of the Great Creator, "for the invisible things of God are clearly seen, being understood by the things that are made, even his eternal power and godhead."

And yet all these things will not for one moment suffer a comparison with one human mind. For what, after all, are they but the platform on which mind operates, and through which it manifests itself? What are they all but its handmaidens, its ministering servants! Yes, it is mind that constitutes the very glory of man; that which most closely assimilates him to the infinite mind, both naturally and morally, and of which the fabric that surrounds it is but the casement, the shell, fashioned,—fearfully and wonderfully fashioned,—for the very purpose of executing its commands. Who need wonder, after this, that it required a counsel of the Trinity to summon it into being, or incarnate Divinity to redeem and to renovate it when lapsed into apostacy.

Or, ceasing from viewing mind in the aggregate, do we look at it in its various compartments—the intellect, with all its perceiving, cognizing, suggesting, generalizing, recollecting, reasoning and imagining powers;—the will, that motive force by which we are impelled to action, and the emotions and affections, which not only bind man to man, and contribute so largely to the advancement of his social bliss, but which constitute him one of the circle of the celestial hierarchy;—the conscience, with all its discriminative, impulsive and emotional sensibilities, that faculty by which we are capable of moral obligation, and which, like a fly-wheel, controls and regulates and harmonizes the whole of our mental mechanism.

Or, again, leaving these states of mind, with all their capabilities and diversities of operation, by which man may roam at will through the works and ways of God and man, by which he may lay up an invaluable stock of knowledge, the result of the accumulated discoveries of past ages, and by which he may become the very reflection of the glories of his Creator and Saviour God,—leaving such themes, need we point you again to the intense susceptibilities, the vast expansiveness of the human mind, in its powers and energies and sensibilities. You have seen the tiny acorn, and contrasted its size with the monarch of the forest. You have looked at the puling infant on its mother's knees, the most helpless of creatures, and you have compared it with the tall, athletic, robust man of six feet. But in all this you have nought but a feeble representation of the mind in its untutored and in its cultivated condition—in the roving, wandering Indian, and the enlightened, refined savant, in the bloodthirsty cannibal and the polished courtier. Who dare bound the all but illimitable expansiveness of the human mind—its all but infinite refinement and sublimation—its incapability alike of extinction and unconsciousness through infinite duration.

Or, again, leaving this field, need we refer you to the materials existing in nature and providence and grace for its satisfaction, its gratification, its ravishment, its life, its blessedness. There is no finer evidence of design reigning throughout the whole of the divine workmanship than the adaptations that abound. Indeed, what is the whole of nature in all its compartments,—of providence, in all its revolutions,—of grace, in all its discoveries, but a series of adaptations in themselves, and in all their relations and dependences? And so is it with the human mind. There is not a condition, nor a capability, nor an aspiration, nor a yearning, but what is all met with a corresponding provision, with a food exactly congenial. Just as there is an object befitting every sense, so is there one befitting every faculty, every affection, and every sensibility. And all this not for time merely, but eternity. As the life and enjoyment of every creature consist in the very completeness of this adaptation, so in its eternal condition this adaptation must be still more perfect.

Such is mind,—the *materiel* on which you are to operate in your official capacity as the educators of the young, which you are to plane and chisel and polish,—the vine you are to rear and train and prune,—the mechanism, with all its pins and wheels and chains, which you are to adjust, regulate and guide. Your work is emphatically the expansion, the development and the growth of mind,—by means of sound and salutary instruction. As it is the province and care of the mother, by the application of congenial aliment, to rear and strengthen the various parts of the physical frame of her child, so is it yours, by the application of proper nourishment, to unfold, to develope and to train the various parts of the mental nature of the young committed to your charge. And it is just because of this that we plead for you, in virtue of your calling, a high and dignified position among your fellow-men. If the individual who makes two blades of grass to grow where one only grew before is considered a benefactor of his species, and receives the meed of praise to which he is entitled;—if the warrior, who, by his own prowess and the bravery of his soldiers, drives back the invading foe, and thus secures the liberties of his native land, is crowned with a chaplet of laurels, and receives the universal thanks of a grateful nation;—if the statesman, who, by the thunders of his eloquence, rouses the latent energies of his countrymen, and thereby emancipates them from a serfdom degrading to humanity, is elevated to a rank and influence second only to his sovereign;—if the philanthropist, who perseveres amid difficulties and ingratitude in deeds of beneficence, till he has succeeded in alleviating the distresses of suffering humanity and in supplying the wants of the destitute and forlorn, has his name embalmed in the memory of the good and the virtuous;—if the man of science or of art, by his discoveries or inventions, raises to a higher platform the whole social economy and adds largely to the aggregate of human happiness, has a niche assigned him in the temple of fame—what, O what are you not entitled to, you whose occupation lies at the very foundation of all intellectual acumen, of all artistical skill, of all moral worth! Away, then, with those low and degrading views of the employment of the teacher, which would fain place him on a level with the daily manual labourer, if even he receives that position. If mind is infinitely superior to matter, if the latter is nought but the servant of the former, surely he whose business it is to mould and fashion mind, and thereby render it capable for the work for which it was intended, is entitled to the highest honors, to the most grateful acknowledgments, and to the most substantial rewards of his fellow-men. And if such be the dignity to which, as the educators of the young, you are so amply entitled, and that from the very nature of the work itself, what qualifications are required for its accomplishment? What toil, what expenditure of energy, what deeds of self-denial need be begrudged for the purpose! To be a workman that need not be ashamed in handling and polishing mind is well worthy of the most careful, the most painstaking, and self-sacrificing preparation.

But we pass on from the surpassing importance of the office of the Teacher of the young, as evidenced by the nature of the work itself—and we would bid you contemplate that office in its results.

But time would fail were we even to present you with an outline of the extent of these results—of their outstripping magnitude, of their inconceivable utility, of their dazzling splendours.

Let me but briefly bespeak your attention to these *results* first, as to the individual partaker—secondly, as to the province or state or nation—and lastly, as to the Church.

And surely it is unnecessary that I enlarge on the effects of the efficient discharge of your duties to the individual himself—we say efficient for when we speak of your office, we speak of it in its highest functions, as imparting not a partial but a complete—not a superficial but a thoroughly sound, not an ornamental merely but an out and out practical education,

an education which contemplates for its grand end the formation of character, by a process of physical, intellectual, and moral discipline and training.

And need I expatiate on the effects of such an education on every individual recipient.—Why what would we all have been without education. We require only to look at the wandering Micmac, the tenant of the forest, or at the swarthy African luxuriating on his sunny, native plains, to be satisfied of what our condition would have been. It is education that lifts us above our sensible and animal nature, and imparts a realizing sense of our dignity as rational and moral and accountable beings. It is education that imparts all those sweetnesses and endearments to the social circle designed as they are fitted to contribute so largely to human happiness. It is education that fits and qualifies for the right discharge of the duties of life, for the steadfast resistance of its temptations, for the patient endurance of its trials. It is education that whets and sharpens that mighty axe that is destined to lay prostrate with the ground the most formidable enemies and to fit and qualify it for all the work intended by its Creator. It is education that gives mind its legitimate ascendancy over matter—so that it becomes its willing, its most subsissive servant. It is education that makes man lord of this nether world and places him in rightful supremacy over all. It is education that gives man the mastery over himself—a greater victory than the sacking of a hundred cities. It is education that moulds and *fashions the whole man into the image of his Maker, and* thereby fits him for serving the great end of his being here, and the enjoyment of God hereafter. It is education that opens up the purest sources of gratification to the human mind, and enables the renovated spirit to drink in large and more satisfying draughts of delight in those regions where no sin and no sorrow ever enter. And it is just because of all these effects that the Author of our being yearns with such intense solicitude and such ineffable tenderness over the young. He sees the intimacy of the connection between the bursting of the vernal bud of the human mind, and of its full-grown, mellowed fruitage. He apprehends the preciousness of the jewel enclosed within the tabernacle of the body, but he knows at the same time that it is of little or no value unless it be burnished and polished. He traces the effect of the depositing of one idea in the mind, and of the producing of one impression on the heart and the consequent condition of the one and the other, hundreds and thousands of years afterwards. He, who knows no past, no future, to whose omniscient eye all is present, perceives millions of years in the future the result of the inscription of one line upon this imperishable substance.—mind. How honored then, how exalted the privilege, of being engaged in this work! Yours is an employment that will tell on the recipients not merely during their boyhood, or their youth, or their manhood, but their whole eternal existence. Would that Teachers themselves realized the true nobility of their work, the high dignity of their privilege! Ah! how little do they think when engaged in cultivating and disciplining the mind, even through the medium of secular subjects, that they are but whetting and preparing it for loftier explorations of the divine workmanship, and for drinking in larger draughts of heavenly blessedness. How little did the parents of the captive maid in the land of Syria imagine when they taught her infant tongue to chyme some hymn of praise to the God of Israel that they were then engaged in a work which would rouse into perturbation the whole court of Benhadad king of Syria, the whole court of Jehoram king of Israel, and all by the utterance of the ejaculatory prayer, "Would God, my Lord were with the prophet that is in Samaria, for he would cure him of his leprosy!" As little do you know what may be the result of your instrumentality in the education of the young around you, and that too after you are long gathered to your fathers. Did teachers but realize one tithe of their privilege in its bearing upon the whole *future existence of the young committed to their charge*, methinks they would be laboring night and day to arrive at higher eminence in their vocation—and instead of regarding their office as a kind of convenience, as a stepping-stone to some situation more lucrative or more respectable, they would glory in it for its own work's sake.

But we must not confine the effects of the work of the education of the young to man, in his individual capacity, we must glance at it in its effects upon man, collectively. Now there are two grand associations of the human family, the one civil and the other ecclesiastical, the former being designated the State, and the latter, the Church. And what is the relation of the school to both these? It is the nursery. As the school is now, so will the State and Church be in the next generation. As to the relation between the school and the State, every one at all acquainted with the history of nations and political economy, is well aware that this relation is of the most intimate and influential description. It is education sound and universal, which alone dissipates the evils of national ignorance. It is education which, more than anything else, increases the productiveness of national labor. Is is education which operates more powerfully than any thing else in diminishing pauperism and crime in any nation. It is education which more than any thing else increases the amount of human happiness. How strikingly accordant with all these views is the saying of the Prussians,—a saying familiar to them all as household words, "What you would put into the life of the nation you must first put into the school." The present generation then, of the inhabitants of this Province have in their own hands the moulding and fashioning of the next. Just as they impart to the young in their midst a *universal, a sound, and a thorough education, so will they be in their* day as patriots, as philanthropists, as moralists, as christian men and women. Who then are the real patriots of any nation? It is those who dedicate the most commanding talent, and the highest toned benevolence to the concocting and the carrying out of those measures best fitted to secure the education of all, and the highest education of all. And who, let me further ask, are the genuine benefactors of any settlement or community? It is the educator of that settlement or community.

But not only does the school stand in closest relation to the State, but to the Church throughout all her branches. If the young constitute the hope of any nation, they also do that of the Church. Hence the stringent obligations imposed upon parents and the Church herself, to hand down to their posterity the blessings which their forefathers bequeathed to them *at such a costly sacrifice. Ay it is because of this very* arrangement that the Almighty under every unravelling of the economy of grace has ever had an eye to the young—that the Great Teacher himself evinced such sympathy for and such a profound interest in the young—and left it to his Church as one of his last legacies and one of the evidences of attachment to Him and His cause, "Feed my lambs". Would that the officebearers of the Church everywhere but realized their duty and responsibility in connection with this matter—would that they saw and believed that something more than Sabbath instruction is required for the securing of the divine blessing upon human instrumentality in connection with the christian education of this class of our population—even a sound week-day training! Would that Protestant men and women but saw this connection and realized its importance as the Heathen, the Mahometan, the Jew, and the Roman Catholic do!

Upon you then, ladies and gentlemen, devolve as the future educators of the young in this Province, not only the weal of hundreds of individuals but the weal of the common wealth, the weal of the Church.

And what obligations do all these things impose both in reference to your diligent application to study, and to your becoming deportment in all your intercourse one with another, as well as in your general conduct. We say nothing about your studies now, or the mode of their prosecution. But there is one thing that we would press upon you as the practical application of all that has been advanced, that, in all your studies and in all your fellowship, you have constantly an eye to *the office, for the right discharge of whose duties you are pro*fessedly qualifying yourselves, as an office of gigantic magnitude alike from its own important nature and from the effects that flow from it, both in reference to man individually

and to man collectively. Look steadily at your studies and at your conduct in this light, and this will brace and stimulate you to redoubled diligence on the one hand, and to the exercise of a prudent discretion and of a meek behaviour on the other. You are preparing yourselves for a wide, a glorious field of Christian usefulness, whose effects stretch far beyond the boundaries of time, even into the regions of a never ending eternity. Have respect unto the recompence of your reward. Your remuneration in time may be sadly inadequate, but He who in the days of his flesh obtained from the mouth of babes and sucklings the perfection of praise, will not, cannot forget one sigh that is heaved, one prayer that is uttered, one effort that is put forth on behalf of the Lambs of the flock.

SCHOOL BOOKS GRANTED BY THE LEGISLATURE.

On occasion of our recent visitations in many parts of the province, several enquiries have been made regarding these books. We have answered these enquiries to the best of our ability, and yet we fear that no small amount of misapprehension prevails as to the intention of the Legislature in making the grant of £600 for this purpose, and, by consequence, much diversity exists as to the way in which they are distributed.—In some cases the Commissioners leave the distribution entirely to the discretion of the Clerk of the Board. In other cases, the Commissioners receive each his share of the books, and distributes them as he sees fit. In other cases, each school obtains its own share, and these are distributed amongst all and sundry, rich and poor alike. In other cases, they are sold at prime cost, and the proceeds, in some instances, as we have been informed, instead of being devoted to the purchase of more books of the same sort, go into the general treasury of the Board, and are dispensed to the teachers as part of the endowment fund. The following are the terms of the Legislative enactment regarding this Grant. Clause 31:—"The Governor may advance, upon the requisition of the Superintendent, the sum of Six Hundred Pounds, to be expended in the purchase of improved school books, maps, apparatus, and educational reports, to be distributed among the Boards of Commissioners of the respective counties and districts in the same proportion as the money appropriated for Common Schools is divided, to be gratuitously distributed by the Commissioners among the poor schools in their respective counties or districts, or otherwise sold at cost price." Now there are two things here laid down for the guidance of the Commissioners in the distribution of these books: First. They are to be gratuitously distributed among the poor schools; Secondly, When not thus distributed, they are to be sold at prime cost. The primary object of the Legislature in making this provision was plainly to aid poor districts, or the poor in any district. It had been well that some more specific regulations had been given regarding these poor district and the parties really to be so considered. The whole matter is evidently left in the hands of the Commissioners, who, we believe, are oftentimes not a little puzzled to know what to do. It were easy, however, for the Commissioners to ascertain what districts within their bounds are comparatively the poorer, and appropriate accordingly a larger number for the same; reserving a few for the poorer families within their bounds,—such as in the case of destitute widows with large families, or in the case of common labourers, with a numerous offspring, having no other means of livelihood than their daily labour. In such cases it were well to hand over what books can be spared to the Trustees, instead of putting them directly either into the hands of the teacher or children, who (i. e. the Trustees) would consider them a part of the property of the district, and as requiring their inspection and care. This might operate beneficially in making the poor appreciate the boon. When the Commissioners decide upon selling the books at prime cost as directed by statute, a separate book account ought to be opened up by the Clerk, and that account shown at each semi-annual meeting of the Commissioners, and the funds appropriated for the purchase of similar books, thus rendering the grant of the Legislature a real boon to the district. This latter method, too, would tend largely to bring about a uniformity in the use of school-books.

When on this subject, we regret to be obliged to notice the great remissness which, in not a few districts, prevail in regard to the introduction of a uniform series of school-books. We have again and again given expression to our views on this subject. In every respect is it desirable to have a uniform series. It is so to parents, teacher, and scholar. Under these views we obtained the sanction of the Legislature to the use of the Irish National Series, as being entirely free from any denominational bias, and infinitely the cheapest in existence. These books can be had in abundance at the various booksellers and storekeepers, and yet we find, in not a few instances, the old system persevered in. This ought not so to be. We would earnestly entreat Parents, Teachers, Commissioners and Trustees, as they value the advancement of education in their midst, to co-operate in the furtherance of this object, to repudiate the use of any other books from whatever quarter they come, and to exert their influence with storekeepers and others to keep always a plentiful supply of the same

WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN A TEACHER'S INSTITUTE AND A TEACHER'S ASSOCIATION?

This is a question often asked us, and one in reference to which, we think, there is little difficulty in giving an explicit reply. A Teachers' Association is neither more nor less than a number of teachers associating themselves together, for their mutual benefit, either in literary or professional subjects—Those Societies may consist of a greater or smaller number of members, according to their contiguity. There is oftentimes a great desire manifested to swell the ranks of membership, which not unfrequently leads to their being broken up altogether.—Having a great distance to travel, and being provided with no proper conveyance, when the weather is unfavorable, they are necessitated to absent themselves. This, in a short time, begets a careless indifference regarding them, which, in course of time, leads to a withdrawment altogether,—and this, by one after another, till the whole is broken up. We uniformly recommend a small number uniting themselves together, or else a County Association, with a number of branches or auxiliaries, according to the local convenience of parties. These branches might meet as often as they determine on. The parent, or the County Society, might meet regularly, semi-annually, about the time that the Board of School Commissioners assemble, for the half-yearly distribution of the funds placed at their disposal.—Of course, the teachers thus associated have the framing of their constitution, regulations and bye-laws, &c., entirely in their own hands,—which will be modified by the objects contemplated by the Association, whether intended more for their benefit in literature than their profession, or *vice versa*. These Associations, when conducted with ordinary discretion, are admirably fitted to stimulate and improve the members; and thus to elevate the standard of Education throughout the locality. The practice of visiting each other's schools, and taking some of the more advanced pupils along with them, is well fitted to produce a healthful and invigorating influence.

A Teachers' Institute, on the other hand, whilst it will not fail to promote the above objects, has a more direct and specific end in view. It is usually convened by the Minister of Public Instruction, or the Superintendent of Education, or the Inspector of Schools, or whatever the public official may be designated, who is charged with the oversight of this branch of the public service, and that for the purpose of bringing about a uniformity in text-books, in school organization and management, and, still more, in the way of teaching the different branches of Education, both in the common and more advanced schools. A Teachers' Institute, in our view, is a Normal School in miniature. Its meetings are usually presided over by the Official Agent. A full and free discussion upon any topic that may be introduced, and that may be considered profitable for the locality or the general interests of Education, forms generally a part of the proceedings.

The teachers present generally express in turn their views on the point under consideration, and the Superintendent of Education then sums up the whole, endeavouring to bring about unity of action on that special point. By this means, a high toned professional spirit is diffused, the cord of brotherly affection is strengthened, and a generous rivalry to surpass is fostered, which cannot fail to be productive of great good.

Dr. Forrester begs to intimate to the teachers within the bounds of Northern Pictou, that he intends to hold an Institute at Pictou on Saturday the 17th of December next at 10 o'clock, A. M., and that he will lecture on the subject of Education at Roger's Hill on the evening of Friday the 16th, and at Cariboo on the evening of Saturday the 17th.

IV.—EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

J. Webster, Esq., one of the Teachers in the Provincial Model School, has been appointed by the Governor in Council of Prince Edward Island, Head Master of the Normal School of that colony. Mr W. is an accurate and accomplished scholar, thoroughly acquainted, both theoretically and practically, with the Stowe Training System of Education, and in every way qualified for the situation to which he has been appointed. Mr W. leaves the present scene of his labours amid the deep regrets of his friends and acquaintances, the warm affections of his fellow-labourers in office, and the heart-felt gratitude of his pupils. Mr W. entertains enlightened views on the subject of National Education, and, with his practical experience, will, if he receive any thing like justice at the hand of his constituents, be instrumental in confering great Educational benefits on the colony of Prince Edward Island.

Milton, Queen's County.—It affords us extreme gratification to learn that the Educational Establishment, consisting of a Primary, Intermediate and High School Department, in this industrious and striving village, continues to prosper. After a years trial the voluntary assessment principle of supporting Schools was discontinued, and the voluntary subscription plan resorted to. It was feared that this movement would destroy the Schools which had been in such efficient operation for a twelvemonth. But it was not so. More than the sum raised by the assessment plan was voluntarily made up, and the Schools go on with encreased success. We are not at all surprised at the change that has taken place in the mode of raising the adequate support for the maintenance of this excellent School. Until the assessment principle is rendered compulsory, it will not work harmoneously. This sentiment we have reiterated over and over again; and it does not at all surprise us to find one locality after another when it has made the experiment for a year giving it up. The very idea of a *voluntary assessment* in support of schools, or in support of any thing else, is to us next to Utopian; the marvel is that such a measure should be carried by a majority in any one school district. This we consider a sufficient indication of the ripeness of the intelligent men in the community to acquiesce in and carry out a compulsory *legislative* enactment on the subject whenever the Legislature sees fit to pass it, and that is all that can reasonably be expected in reference to this or any other kind of taxation.

McGill College, Montreal.—We beg to acknowledge the receipt of the Calendar of this flourishing Institution for the Academic year of 1859–'60. We have perused its pages with the highest possible satisfaction, and feel constrained to lift an unequivocal testimony in support of this Educational Establishment, as one of the most excellent and useful in all British North America. Whether we look at the staff of instructors, or at the variety of the branches taught, or at the completeness of the arrangements, we cannot, we think, fail to be convinced that it possesses all the requisite materials for securing a high literary, scientific and economic education, worthy in every respect of the prosperity and influence of that great colony of the British Empire. Nova Scotia may well be proud of the honor of one of her sons presiding over such an Institution.

There is also affiliated to this University a Normal School,—to some of whose features we intend to refer in our next.

EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS IN EUROPE.

AUSTRIA.

Austria has a system of education which, from the village school to the university, is gratuitously open to all, and which, in all its departments, is based on religion, and governed and moulded by the State. There are six classes of schools; viz., the popular, the gymnasial, the philosophical, the medico-chirurgical, the juridical, and the theological. The last four, combined, constitute the four faculties of the universities, and the gymnasium is the school for classical learning, mathematics, and elementary philosophy. The popular schools comprehend the establishments of various degrees, in which instruction of a more practical character is imparted to those whose station in life does not fit them for the study of the learned languages. The lowest of these are the *Volks-schulen*, established or intended to be established in every district or parish, for the primary instruction of all, in religion and morality, reading, writing, and accounts. All the above named institutions are under the supervision of a Board or Council at Vienna, composed of laymen appointed by the crown, and at the head of which a Minister of Public Instruction was placed in 1848. Under this Board, is a graduated system of superintendence, exercised jointly by the civil and spiritual authorities in the various subdivisions of the empire.

Parents are not compelled to keep their children at school, as in Prussia, but there are enactments which render a certificate of school attendance and educational proficiency necessary to exercise a trade or be employed as a workman, to engage in the service of the state in any capacity, or to be married.

In Austria, a Normal School is merely a *pattern* or *model* school, and of these institutions, there is one in each province or circle. In these Normal Schools, the older boys who have passed through the course of instruction in the elementary and superior schools, and show a peculiar desire or fitness for the business of teaching, are arranged in a class for special instruction in a course of pedagogy. The course embraces a review of the studies pursued in the elementary schools, lectures on the principles of education and the art of teaching, and practice as assistants in the lower classes of the schools. The time occupied by the course of study and practice varies from six months to two years—being longer in the provincial head school than in the head school of the circle. No one is allowed to teach unless he has gone through the above course. This mode of training teachers does not satisfy the best educators of Austria. It gives a routine knowledge of methods, but does not secure that mastery of principles, or that formation of the pedagogical character, which a three years course of instruction and practice in a regularly constituted Teachers' Seminary is so well calculated to give. The government has

been frequently applied to for aid to erect one or more Normal Schools, on the plan of those in Russia, but thus far without success.

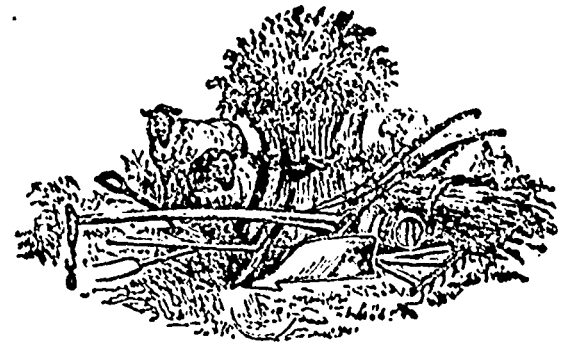
SWITZERLAND.

Though the poverty and thinness of population of many parts of this mountainous country present serious difficulties to the carrying out of a general system of education, yet such extraordinary exertions have been made by liberal minded men, that education is already very general, and most of the educational institutions are established upon an efficient footing. Under the most democratic form of government, education is compulsory, except in two or three thinly settled cantons, where it would be impracticable. The term of school attendance is in some cantons from the age of six to fourteen, in others, from six to sixteen; and in the manufacturing districts, children are allowed to enter the mills at 11 to 13 years of age, and attend to school exercises periodically, until they arrive at the age of 14 or 16.

The Normal Schools, thirteen in number, are peculiarly fitted for their special objects. Most of them have farms attached cultivated by the pupil-teachers. On these lands all the pupil-teachers, accompanied by their professors, and clothed in coarse farmer's frocks, with thick wooden sandals, may be seen toiling most industriously about the middle of the day, cultivating all the vegetables for the use of the household, as well as some for the neighbouring markets, and could any one be taken among them at that period of the day, he would imagine he saw before him a set of peasants at their daily labor, instead of the young aspirants to the much respected profession of teacher. Besides the labor in the fields, the young men are also required to clean their apartments, to take charge of their own chambers, prepare their own meals, besides keeping all the premises in good repair. Thus the life of the pupil-teacher in Switzerland, during the time of training is one of the most laborious nature. He is never allowed to lose sight of the manner of life of the class from which he was selected, and with which he is afterwards required to associate. He is never allowed to forget that he is a peasant, so that he may not afterward feel any disgust in mingling with peasants. In this manner they train their teachers in habits of thought and life admirably suited to the laborious character of the profession for which they are destined and to the humble class who will be their companions in after life. The higher the instruction that is given to a pupil-teacher, the more important is it to cherish his sympathies for the humble and often degraded class among whom he will be called to live and exercise his important duties. In fact, as all the Swiss educators said, the great difficulty in educating a teacher of the poor is to avoid, in advancing his intelligence and elevating his moral and religious character, raising his tastes and feelings so much above the class from which he has been selected, and with which he is called upon afterwards to associate, as teacher, adviser, and friend as to render him disgusted with his humble companions, and with the toilsome duties of his profession. In educating the teachers, therefore, far above the peasant class whom they are intended to instruct, the Swiss cantons are very careful to continually habituate them to the simplicity and laborious character of the peasant's life, so that, when they leave the Normal Schools, they find that they have changed from a situation of humble toil to one of comparative ease. They do not therefore become dissatisfied afterward with their laborious employments, but are accustomed even from their childhood to combine a high development of the intellect and a great elevation of the character with the simplicity and drudgery of a peasant's occupations.

The inspection of the cantonal schools is conducted in the most satisfactory manner. Each canton has a board of inspection, or council general of instruction, which is presided over by the Minister of Public Instruction for the canton, and whose duty it is to visit all the schools of the canton, once at least in the year, and to report on them individually to the government of the canton, as to the state of the schools themselves, as to the progress of the pupils, as to the character of the instruction given by the master, and as to the attendance of the children of the commune. But besides the cantonal board of inspectors, there is also in each commune a board of inspectors, who are elected annually from the clergy and educated men of the commune, and who visit the communal schools at least once a year, and report to the Minister of Public Instruction for the canton, on the individual progress of the children in the communal schools. By these means each schoolmaster is encouraged in his exertions, as he feels that the eyes of his canton are upon him, and that he is regarded as a most important public functionary, to whom is committed a great and important trust, for the proper discharge of which it is but right his canton should receive constant assurance.

AGRICULTURAL.



INTIMATIONS TO THE AGRICULTURAL SOCIETIES.

1. The Superintendent of Education will esteem it a favor, if the Secretaries of the different Agricultural Societies, which have not yet drawn their Legislative Grant, will inform him, with as little delay as possible, whether there is any likelihood of their being this year entitled to the same. It is very desirable that every county receive the full amount of the Provincial allowance, but this can only be done when the Superintendent of Education receives timely notice of the condition of every Society in the county. Indeed, he is sometimes completely at a loss to know what sum ought to be allocated to one or more Societies, when he has only received application from one. It must now be known to each Secretary whether his Society will be able to comply with the conditions of the Legislature, and the sooner he furnishes information of this fact the better.

2. It affords us much pleasure to notice that some of the Agricultural Societies are exerting themselves in the circulation of the *Journal of Education and Agriculture*, and have ordered double the number forwarded. It would be very obliging if the Secretaries of these Societies would inform the Publishers of that Periodical, Messrs. A. & W. Mackinlay, Halifax, the number of copies to be regularly forwarded.

3. All applications for Agricultural Grants should be forwarded to the Superintendent of Education, accompanied by the Treasurer's certificate that the stipulated amount is in his hand, with instructions as to the party to whom it is to be paid. Said applications will be forwarded by next Mail to the Financial Secretary's Office.

ADDRESS.

DELIVERED BY JOHN MUNRO,

Secretary of the Margaree Agricultural Society.

It may be deemed presumption in me, not having many years experience in practical farming, to attempt offering any remarks

on the subject of a science, with which most, if not all present should be so much better informed from daily practice and long experience; but an anxious desire to see Agriculture improved in a Country so abundant in all these resources best fitted for its development and so qualified, from the fertility of the soil, and the advantages it otherwise possesses to become the first Agricultural district in the Island of Cape Breton, induces me to address you, in the hope, if practicable, to arouse the Agriculturists of the County of Inverness to the importance of the subject, and to stimulate their energies in bringing about a better and more perfect system of Husbandry, by which alone the wealth now lying dormant in the soil may be extracted to the enrichment of yourselves and families.

The celebrated Lexicographer Doctor Johnson has beautifully observed "though mines of gold and silver should be exhausted, and the specie made of them lost; though diamonds and pearls should remain concealed in the bowels of the Earth and the womb of the Sea; though Commerce and strangers be prohibited; though all Arts which have no other object than splendour and embellishment should be abolished; yet the fertility of the Earth alone would afford an abundant supply for the occasions of an industrious people by furnishing subsistence for them and for such Armies as should be mustered in their defence."

The subject affords too extensive a field to be entered upon fully at a time like the present; but if every member of this Society would from time to time contribute his share of information on particular branches of it, for the general good, the field may ultimately be ranged over usefully and I trust not unprofitably to all those who like you are so materially interested in it.

Permit me to enquire of you in the first place, why it is that Agriculture in this Island proceeds at a much lower rate than many other sciences? The answer is obvious. It arises from prejudice on the one hand, and the absence of the desire for research on the other. Every man becomes wedded to his own system and hence arises an overwhelming conflict of himself as an Agriculturist. Against this the promoters of this society have had to contend when urging the Advantages of Agricultural Union, many objecting to the benefits to be derived from such societies, or that any more extensive information can be imparted to them than that which they already possess.

It cannot be wondered at that such men are to be found among us, when it is considered that the Farmers in general are not readers, by which they lose all the recorded improvements of individuals and of Agricultural Societies. Having no system of Education in this Country whereby the first principles of Agriculture may be acquired, the Farmer is driven to receive his Agricultural Education from the practice of his father and the neighbourhood in which he dwells; and which having been handed down to him unadulterated and unimproved through many a year is adhered to with an obstinacy which no reason can induce him to give up or to change. To break through these prejudices by stimulating the Farmer to enquiry and investigation; to set before them the improvements of other Countries and to introduce to their notice the variety of examples in which the Farmer has been enriched by procuring the most from the soil at the least possible expense, should be the object of all persons desirous to see a Country advance by the increased wealth of the Farmer, arising from an improvement in its Agriculture.

The pursuit of improvement is not visionary or trivial; but has been sanctioned by the voice of time. It is far from being a speculation or a dream. The Art of Agriculture well named the "Parent Art" is coeval with human civilization. So long as men roamed hither and yonder, living in tents and removing wherever some green spot induced a stay and had no fixed habitation, they were barbarous; but when they chose a place for a dwelling and scattered a few grains of wheat for the purpose of harvesting and procuring means for subsistence they made a step in the march of civilization. The eldest and the best book assures us that the three first men were a Gardener, a Ploughman and a Grazier (if it be sneeringly objected that the second was a Murderer, let the reply be, that when he became such he turned a Builder.)—Genesis iv. 57.)

The art of Agriculture will survive all sneering. It has received the commendation of the past and as a celebrated writer wittily remarked, "If Heraldry were guided by reason a plough in a field arable, would be the most noble and ancient arms." Agriculture is an art which can exist with the exclusion of all others. It has been compared to speech without which society would be a dismal jumble—the other Arts are the mere figures and tresses, in fact only ornaments. Many causes have occurred to retard the progress of Agriculture in this Country, among which stand prominent the high price of labour, the limited capital of the farmers and the deficiency in the means of Agricultural research. Few if any have the means or can venture on experimental Agriculture and therefore the system however erroneous is continued; and whilst the science is advancing in other Countries, in this it remains nearly as in the earliest state of the Province of Nova Scotia. To obviate these difficulties should be the study and aim of every farmer. A Knowledge of the science must be sought after through the medium of Works on Agriculture.

I would earnestly entreat of my hearers to procure for themselves and for their respective families, that invaluable Journal published in Halifax on Education and Agriculture. This periodical is Edited by Doctor Forrester of Truro, the circulation of which is rapidly gaining the confidence of Agriculturists. By this Work and others of a like nature, we should be enabled to form opinions of the experiments of other Countries—acquire a knowledge of the variety and utility of Grass and other seeds and determine which of them would best suit our climate, and obtain information on the several varieties of stock which could be most advantageously introduced into this Country. To obtain these results we require a well selected Agricultural Library as well as the means of obtaining from other Countries such seeds as may be considered worthy of trial in ours and for procuring such stock as we deem best adapted for improving the Breed of our own. If such then be the requisites to enable us to obtain these advantages, permit me to enquire where is the Farmer by whose means alone these requisites can be supplied? Such a man is not to be found among us! Must we then abandon the hope of obtaining them? Is there a man among you who will not with me say decidedly—No. The way is open to us. The means are in our hands—Union.

We are directed to draw from the constantly productive Earth, a Bank which may be drawn upon at all times and will not fail while seed time and harvest remains. It is the mainspring that sets the whole machinery in motion, therefore apply your energies with increasing vigilance to rural pursuits. The brief period of youth is invaluable. Take each day into the account. It is barely sufficient to lay the superstructure of literary education and habits of manual industry. The edifice must be raised by the assiduous attention of after years.

Let me therefore invite you to give efficacy to those objects and to aid in rendering the society conducive to the end contemplated by uniting in the common cause, and by contributing but a tithe in value of the product of the soil; establish an institution which will not only enable us to obtain riches; but the only riches which we can call our own—by living by the product of our hand improved by our own labour.

In conclusion I request you may take home with you for the information of my female friends, that a high responsibility rests upon them. On the female sex devolves the care and training of the Infant mind. That most important period for forming the habits and principles of the *man* is confided to their care and superintendance. Remember it is their duty as well as privilege to imbibe the youthful mind with high toned morals and love of virtue. And having sown the seed in the mellow soil and done all, let us remember to look up to that benign Providence who alone can bless the labours of the Husbandman.

N. E. Margaree, 18th October, 1859.

II.—PRACTICE OF AGRICULTURE.

THE IMPROVEMENT OF PERMAMENT MEADOWS.

Previous to considering the means of improving permament meadow, it is advisable to define what lands are referred to by the term permament meadow. The term meadow is applied to lands differing essentially in their character. It is applied to those naturally wet, or those who have sometimes partially or wholly flooded by water by rivers or lakes. Thus flat lands in permament grass on the banks of streams or lakes are styled meadows. The term is sometimes applied to flat depressed lands in elevated districts, and occasionally to peaty deposits producing a grass herbage. Formerly the term was more precise, referring to grass lands naturally wet. Johnston defines "meadow—ground somewhat watery, not ploughed." Agricultural writers generally attach a more extended signification; while, in a recent paper, from the joint pen of Messrs Lawes and Gilbert, Rothemsed, the term permament meadow land appears to be intended to designate all lands kept under permament grass, but capable of being cultivated, whether the grass is cut and depastured or wholly depastured; thus only excluding hill and mountain pastures. The paper gives the results of experiments undertaken to ascertain the manurial effects of certain fertilisers, single and combined; and as such is a valuable contribution to agricultural literature. The deductions of the associated experimental chemists, Messrs Lawes and Gilbert should, however, be carefully weighed. By some these will be viewed with considerable suspicion, as there is an impression, more or less general, that the experimenters previously attempted to prove too much in support of opinions opposed to the mineral theory of Liebig, and in favour of the nitrogenous theory of the French school. There is less prominence given to the nitrogenious theory than in former papers, and it may be inferred that Mr. Lawes has somewhat modified his opinions as to the paramount importance of the nitrogenous element in the growth of the gramineæ. One objectionable feature of the experiments undertaken occurs to us—sawdust being used. Sawdust, when incorporated with the soil, gradually decays, yielding food for plant life. We have observed that partially decayed sawdust applied to a turnip crop produced a considerable increase of roots. Applied to grass, fresh sawdust acts injuriously, of which the recorded experiment at Rothamsted is an example. This substance is of very varying character, depending upon the trees from which the dust has come. It is known to resist decomposition for a considerable time, particularly where the resinous constituent is largely present. We consider therefore that any deductions from the application of this substance should not have been taken into account. Its presence on the grass has acted injuriously; while it may be assumed that it furnished none of its constituents for plant life.

In all parts of the United Kingdom there is much to be learned as to the best means of improving meadows. The most common error committed is the cutting of meadows. It is only the best description of soils on which cutting should be resorted to. The injury arising from cutting meadows, especially when the grasses are allowed to become ripe previous to being cut, is so great, that almost every meadow deteriorates under the system of cutting even once in the two years. A thinness of plant follows, some of the best grasses partially die out, their place being occupied by other plants which do not yield the same amount of food for stock, and of an inferior quality.

In England, the area under permament pasture is very great, the larger portion of which could, we think, with advantage to the owners and to the country generally, be brought under cultivation. This is not, however, the general opinion in England. Permament meadows are held in estimation by most agriculturists.—Where they are highly productive, whether the herbage is cut for hay or eaten by stock, the money return is generably considerable; but a very great portion of the lands now in grass, producing scanty herbage, could be profitably brought under the plough, and kept permamently under cultivation.

Most of the meadow lands are naturally wet, requiring to be drained for the full developement of their productive powers; but thorough draining of meadows is seldom carried out. There are certain descriptions of soils, however, composed principally of vegetable matter, in which the presence of water is so essential that draining has been found to injure their fertility. To secure a luxuriant growth of grass it is necessary to maintain water in the divisional ditches to a height from one to two feet within that of the surface of the meadows. Holland furnishes the most notable example of this description of meadows, and certainly not in the United Kingdom is the same amount of grass produced as on the partially saturated meadows of Holland. In England, the most usual means taken to improve the herbage of meadows is to apply manures, either directly or by giving corn and cake to the feeding stock depastured. When the grass is cut once in the year or every alternate year on soils of ordinary fertility, the herbage gradually deteriorates, and resource to manurial applications is necessary to restore the vegetable elements removed by the hay crop. The best and cheapest manurial substances to restore fertility is an important question, and one which Mr Lawes has attempted to deal with, but the soil of the meadow at Rothamsted, resting on the chalk formation, is necessarily exceptional in its character, and consequently not requiring calcareous and vegetable soils. Phosphatic manures have attained to a considerable repute from the success resulting from the application of bones to pastures in the dairy districts; yet Mr. Lawes' paper shows that phosphatic manures are are of little value where the grass is cut for hay—a result certainly not to be expected, and one which it would be difficult to explain, otherwise than by the calcareous character of the soil, as the removal of the crop necessarily tends to exhaust the land of the phosphatic element.

Retentive soils, particularly those naturally wet, should be drained, as freeing the land of superfluous water, as the most essential operations in effecting the permament improvement of meadows. The depth of the drains should exceed that found to be sufficient in cultivated lands of a similar character It is not so important to have the lines close as to have them of considerable depth. Draining effected, manures can be applied with the certainty that the increased produce will be considerable. At first the increase will not be so marked as in after seasons. A change in the plants occupying the soil may be expected to follow draining. In many instances the removal of the water has caused a diminution of the amount of herbage, from the change which was taking place in the plants produced, and this falling off has in some cases been so considerable as to raise doubts as to the propriety of draining meadows.—In such cases the most profitable course to adopt is to break up the lands with the plough, taking a course of cereal and root crops previous to laying down the meadow and seeding it with the permament grasses. Meadows deficient of plants and producing little food for stock can be more profitably improved by cropping them than by manuring on the surface. The incorporating of the manures with the soil produces a more uniform and succulent growth of grasses.

Surface Manuring—The most suitable manures to apply on the surface are those containing constituents in which the soil is deficient. Calcareous manures act powerfully on soils deficient in calcareous matter—lime, marl, lime compost, &c, generally at once changing the character of the herbage, rendering it more succulent as well as more luxuriant. The action of such manures depends in part on the humidity of the climate, as is most marked on land situated on the western side of the island. A second application does not essentially produce any decided improvement of the herbage. When lime is supplemented by farm-yard or other manures, the action of both manures is sensibly increased. Lime once applied, it should not be repeated for several years. While other manures can be annually applied with advantage, lime can only be used with advantage at considerable intervals The experiments at Rothamsted show that the continued application of certain manures tended to increase the produce of the meadows; but neither lime nor farm-yard manure are generally applied to meadows. The most commonly used are the manures termed portable. The consideration of these we defer until another opportunity.—*N. B. Agriculturist*

III.—AGRICULTURAL INTELLIGENCE.

EXHIBITIONS.

A goodly number of Agricultural Exhibitions have been held in the Province during this and preceding month, some of which, from all accounts, have proved exceedingly creditable. The Roots and the Grain seem, in several cases, to have been very meritorious, whilst, in too many instances, the Stock, and specially the Milch Cows, were far from being of a superior order. The above remark is specially applicable to the Exhibition held at Truro. The Turnips and Patatoes were equal to any we ever saw raised in Scotland; and were Farmers but resolving not to rest contented with anything short of five acres of the former article, a complete revolution would soon take place on the whole character of our Agricultural pursuits. We have been ex-

ceedingly gratified in reading the account of the Yarmouth Agricultural Show, evidently penned by an intelligent enthusiast in the cause. We give below a few extracts from the *Yarmouth Tribune* Were such spirited reports printed and circulated widely in the Province great good would result. All that is required in this Province to impart a stimulus to Agriculture are concentrated, combined energy and systematic order,—and these are largely promoted by these Exhibitions.

There is one suggestion which we would now offer in reference to these Local Shows, viz., that all the arrangements ought to be entered into, the articles for competition announced, &c., during the preceding Fall, or, at all events, during the Winter, that ample time may be given for preparation and for calling forth the science and the skill of the different competitors. In addition to all these local efforts there ought to be a Grand Annual Provincial Exhibition. The whole Province ought to be divided into 4 Sections, 3 in Nova Scotia Proper, and 1 in Cape Breton. Let the counties in these Sections unite all their energies, and be supplemented by an Annual Grant, out of the Public Treasury, to the amount of £250. This would at least secure the expenditure of £500 per annum for prizes, so that a powerful stimulating influence would be brought to bear on the whole Agricultural interests of the Province. Let the place of meeting in each Section, with all the Articles and conditions, be fixed at least two years before hand, and let all the Province be allowed to compete; let the Governor be respectfully invited to attend, as well as all the leading Agriculturalists in the Province, and we promise an Exhibition worthy of Nova Scotia, and one that will inspire new life and vigor into this important branch of the public service.

YARMOUTH AGRICULTURAL EXHIBITION.

An Exhibition under the auspices of the "Yarmouth Agricultural Society," took place at Hebron, on Tuesday the 1st inst. At ten in the morning most of the objects for exhibition had arrived on the ground. They were not so numerous as one might have expected, or wished, to have seen; but when it is known that the Exhibition itself was only planned a short time since, this circumstance may account for the small number of animals and other objects brought forward.

The live stock claimed the first attention. Of Cows, the finest specimens exhibited were by Mr Henry Saunders, and Mr William Durkee. They were of the old stock of the country, and were remarkably fine-looking animals. Mr Saunders' cow had the appearance of the Alderney origin—short neck, narrow horns, deep-formed head, with rather narrow muzzle; a race hardy and strong; under ordinary care being good milkers, and with a little extra feeding easily made first-rate for both milk and beef. Mr Durkee's animal was neater shaped, and cleaner limbed, and more active looking, with smoother coat and shorter hair, and had the appearance of being a cross between the Alderney and Devon. Indeed our old stock of cattle in the country have been so repeatedly crossed and re-crossed, that it is impossible to define to what original breed any particular animal may belong; but notwithstanding this, the peculiarities of the various kinds can occasionally be detected by an eye accustomed to note them.

Sheep were also poorly represented—a two year Wether, and two spring Lambs, were shown by Mr Nelson Corning, who stated them to be of Leicester stock. A few other samples were dotted about. There were two smallish-looking sheep owned by Mr Charles Cahan, and pointed out as having yielded remarkably well in their clip of wool the past summer. They were then only one year old each, and seventeen pounds of wool was taken from them both. Mr Cahan stated that after washing, he had twelve pounds of good wool fit for the mill, besides a few pounds more of shorts. This yield is far beyond a high average, and is owing altogether, in Mr C's. opinion, to the feed and care; a statement which no doubt solves the secret of success in most of such matters.

Pigs were rather better represented than either of the two last-named animals. A pair of beautiful young Suffolks, eleven weeks old, a boar and sow, owned by Mr Richard Crosby, were admired by everybody. They were pure white, clean, smooth, and round. Another pair of older animals, also good looking, and a cross between the Suffolk and our French racers, were shown by Mr Joseph Rogers. This cross produces for table use, a sweeter meat, with less fat than the entire Suffolk.

Of Oats only one sample was shown, which weighed but 32½ lbs., and only one basket of Indian Corn. The Wheat was remarkably plump, and bright, notwithstanding the wetness and coldness of the past season. It ought not to be said, after this, that good grain cannot be grown in Yarmouth. Mr Saunders obtained three bushels from an eighth of an acre; a yield which is more than double the average of the whole State of New York, but still not by sixteen or twenty bushels as great, as has been obtained before in Yarmouth. The Barley exhibited was also clean and bright.—Mr Rose harvesting 25 bushels from seven-eighths of an acre; Mr Butler at the rate of nearly fifty bushels an acre; and Mr John Trask, whose sample weighed 47½ lbs realized fourteen bushels from a quarter acre. But the Oats, we are sorry to say, were decidedly indifferent, if not poor; there was precious little inside of them; and what there was, was thin and shrivelled, and their weight was owing more to the thickness of the husk than to any inner substance. We used to be famous for our oats, and it is to be hoped that the next exhibition will not see so sorry a specimen of the grain.

The report on Turnips showed that from two square rods manured with barn-yard manure, and a subsequent light top-dressing of guano, Mr Henry Saunders obtained 645 lbs; while from the same space of ground, manured with nothing but guano, at the rate of one and a half pound per rod, Mr Isaac Killam obtained 499 lbs. This latter result is astonishing, and proves that the application of this powerful manure in such a homœopathic dose is capable of producing eighteen tons to the acre of a rich and valuable root for winter food for stock, besides several tons of green-tops, almost equally valuable, for feeding purposes. Surely it is worth every farmer's while to plant such roots for his cattle, rather than trusting to hay alone to carry them poorly through the winter.

Mr William Hall had a few bulbs of large Ruta-baga Turnips, weighing nearly ten pounds each, and which yielded nearly 900 bushels to the acre; and Mr John Holms, from Chebogue, produced three handsome specimens of the purple-top Swede, grown by him on three different kinds of manure, viz.: on lobster-shell compost, guano, and super-phostate of lime. There were also baskets of good carrots and parsnips on the ground. Mr Nelson Corning had some handsome-looking potatoes, new with us, of American origin, and called the "*Premium*." There was also a loaf of nice sweet wheat bread, exhibited by Mr Hall, to prove that we can both grow and grind good breadstuffs.

About one o'clock, dinner was announced, and upwards of 100 persons sat down in the Temperance Hall to a comfortable and substantial meal; the arrangements of the table being under the superintendence of six or eight ladies, who attended to the wants of the hungry guests, with the kindness, cheerfulness, and good temper characteristic of their sex.

After dinner, a meeting under the chairmanship of Mr Josiah Raymond, the efficient President of the Agricultural Society, was held in the Hall, when Doctor Geddes delivered a very entertaining address. After the lecture, several gentlemen, on the invitation of the chairman, addressed the meeting, and thus upwards of another hour was most pleasingly passed. Space and time will not allow of entering into the particulars of the lecture, or speeches made, except in the case of that delivered by Mr Joseph Rogers; in which he stated briefly to the meeting his experience and success during the past season, in the draining of land. He selected, he said, half an acre, in which he put one main, and three cross drains; on half of this drained land, *i. e.* on a quarter acre, he had planted carrots, and had pulled from this quarter, two hundred and forty bushels, or nearly one thousand bushels to the acre. He said that he was well convinced all our lands wanted drainage, and would be vastly improved if they had it.

A statement of this kind ought to encourage every one to do as

he has done; suppose Mr R. obtained only *one shilling* a bushel for his carrots, it would make the produce of one acre amount to nearly *fifty pounds.*

An objection to this may be started, and indeed is sometimes given—that if every body raised roots there would be no market for the produce; but instead of this being altogether a disadvantage, it would be in some measure an advantage, as they would realize more in the shape of milk, butter, cheese, beef and mutton, after passing through the machinery of cattle and sheep; and would besides assist in increasing richly the manure heap.

The meeting was brought to a termination by the offering up of a short prayer appropriate to the occasion, by the Rev E. N. Harris, at the request of the chairman.

The members of the Society cannot but have been gratified at the result of this experiment, on which they had decided not without doubt and hesitation. There is now every reason to hope that the future Agricultural Exhibitions in Yarmouth will be attended with greater interest. The Society, however, will pardon the suggestion, which is now thrown out for their consideration, whether it would not be fairer to the whole community, and more advantageous in an agricultural point of view, that they should *not restrict the distribution of their prizes to the members of their Society.* Such restrictions look narrow-minded, and act injuriously, and do not exist among the regulations of any respectable Society. The object ought to be to award the prizes to *whoever produces the best specimen* of any thing, for which a prize is to be given, so long as it is the production of the Township, whether the exhibitor be a member or not. The very fact of every one being permitted to compete fairly, would tend to create a wider interest, and induce persons otherwise lukewarm, to join a Society so useful, and which managed its affairs in so liberal a manner. It ought to be the endeavour of all farmers especially, to drop all local and private jealousies, and give their aid to such Societies. If anything in their working or mangement is wrong, let them do their best to set it right, and not leave in the sulks because they cannot have their own way. The association of individuals for a quiet and useful object is itself conducive to good; and in the kindly intercourse, and mixing up together, which always happen on such occasions, people learn to know and esteem each other better, to pay more regard and respect to one another's opinions, and at the same time, it allows the little angularities of their own tempers and dispositions to be softened down by contact with others.

In closing these remarks, it cannot be too much to say that this Exhibition, we trust, will do for our own Township, what similar Exhibitions have done for other places. The day itself was the perfection of an autumn day; everybody seemed pleased with himself and with every one around him, and face answered to face with a pleasant smile and cheerful expression. All appeared pleased and gratified with the day's proceedings; the glorious sunset, and perfect calm of the evening contributing not a little to the *happiness with which each one* went on his way home.—*Yarmouth Tribune.*

THE FARMS OF THE EMPEROR OF THE FRENCH.

The Emperor of the French farms very extensively. In addition to farms on the Crown lands and on estates which have been acquired for him in Sologne and Landes, he occupies as tenant of the State a vast tract of land in Champagne. At the present time the extent of land farmed by the Emperor is above fifty thousand acres. This extent may be increased considerably at any time by reclaiming lands in his possession, but not in cultivation. The number of farms is twenty-six, and nine additional farms are to be formed in the course of the year and incoming spring, thus making thirty-five farms. The number of new steadings and those in course of erection is twenty. Besides the lands farmed there are grazings, in the domains or parks of St. Cloud, Versailles, Meadon, St. Germain, Campagne, Fontainbleau, Biarretz, Senart, Vincennes, &c., &c. Portions of these are in grass, and portions are forest. In addition to the estates in Sologne and Landes, the Emperor has purchased a property in the South of France near to Bayonne, consisting of 2500 acres, which is being drained and put under cultivation. The lands were originally a morass; part is still to reclaim. It is understood that after this estate has been thoroughly improved, it will be presented by the Emperor to the present Minister for Foreign Affairs, Count Walewski. In the centre of the barren lands of Bretagne, the cousin of the Emperor, Princess Baciocchi, is reclaiming an extensive estate out of heath.

The date of the Emperor's commencing to farm so extensively is not remote. He began about 1852, with nearly one thousand acres on the estate of Sologne. The extent undertaken has since gradually increased The whole estate in Sologne, consisting of upwards of seven thousand acres, is now in course of being rapidly improved according to the directions given by the Emperor when in Sologne in April of 1858.

Since 1852 the sheep farm of Rambouillet has been occupied by the Emperor, being part of the crown lands—this farm having been occupied by the State between 1848 and 1853. In the autumn of 1854 we gave full notice of the flock of Merino sheep kept on the farm. Extensive improvements have been since effected, and others are in course of execution. A new set of farm offices is being erected. These improvements were begun in the spring of 1858. At the same time, the Imperial farms of Senart, Montaigne (in the Park of St. Germain), and the dairy farm of Versailles, were taken possession of by the Emperor—he being desirous to farm them himself. They were previously let to very indifferent cultivators. Seven new farms have been formed since the beginning of 1858 on the estate of Landes, eight on Champagne, one in Sologne; besides the farms of Vincennes and Fouillenses, notices of which have appeared.

The whole lands being farmed by the Emperor are being reclaimed and cultivated upon the systems the best suited for the character of the soils, climates and situations. These farms are in different parts of France, and chiefly in the less improved districts. The greater portion of the lands in the possession of the Emperor is naturally inferior soils. Where previously under cultivation, the lands had been exhausted by centuries of bad management. The amount of capital expended and being expended in improvements is necessarily large, particularly in the erection of extensive and commodious farm offices. Besides the money expended in improvements, there is the capital invested in stocking the farms with the best description of horses, cattle, sheep, implements &c. The capital applied in most instances greatly exceeds the fee-simple of the land. In some cases nearly double of the original purchase money is invested in buildings and other improvements apart from the value of the live stock

It is impossible to form a definite opinion as to the probable influence which the example set by the Emperor will exercise upon the agriculture of France. The results of so numerous undertakings cannot be ascertained for some time. It may be assumed that the large proprietors, and more enterprising of the tenantry occupying large farms, will adopt in part the improved system of agriculture carried out on the Imperial farms. Already the influence is being felt. Besides the Princess of Baciocchi, a spirited improver and a successful exhibitor of stock, the Minister of State, M. Fould, is at present engaged in the Pyrenees an extensive farm heath. In the centre of France, Count Morny is farming a large property of two thousand acres. Baron Rothschild and others are following the example of the Emperor. The influence of the Imperial example will to a greater or less extent be felt by all owners and cultivators of land in France It is in this way we believe that the most beneficial results are to follow France possesses a most extensive area, much of which is of great natural fertility, and most districts are favoured with climates such as to render almost any soil valuable to an enterprising occupant. The Imperial example is a stimulous which it is impossible to over-estimate, more particularly as the Emperor is very popular in the rural districts.

POETRY.

AUTUMN WILD FLOWERS.

BY MARY HOWITT.

The autumn sun is shining,
Gray mists are on the hill;
A russet tint is on the leaves,
But flowers are blooming still;

Still bright, in wood or meadow;
On moorlands dry and brown;
By still streams; by rivers broad;
On every breezy down—

The little flowers are smiling,
With chilly dew-drops wet,
Are saying with a sportive voice—
"We have not vanished yet;

"No, though the spring be over;
Though summer's strength be gone;
Though autumn's wealth be garnered,
And winter cometh on;

"Still we have not departed,
We linger to the last,
And even on early winter's brow
A cheerful radiance cast?"

Go forth, then, youths and maidens,
Be joyful whilst you may;
Go forth, then, child and mother,
And toiling men grown gray.

Go forth, though ye be humble,
And wan with toil and care;
There are no fields so barren
But some sweet flower is there!

Fowers spring up by the highway
Which busy feet have trod;
They rise up in the dreariest wood;
They gem the dullest sod.

They need no learned gardener
To nurture them with care;
They only need the dews of earth,
The sunshine and the air.

And for earth's lowly children;
For loving hearts and good,
They spring up all around us,
They will not be subdued.

Thank God! when forth from Eden
The weeping pair was driven,
That unto earth, though cursed with thorns,
The little flowers were given.

That Eve, when looking downard,
To face her God afraid,
Beheld the scented violet,
The primrose in the shade!

Thank God! that with the thistle
That sprang up in his toil,
The weary worker, Adam,
Saw roses gem the soil.

And still, for anxious workers—
For hearts with anguish full,
Life, even in its dreariest path,
Has flowers for them to cull.

PROSPECTUS
OF THE
SECOND VOLUME
OF THE
"Journal of Education and Agriculture."

EDITOR—REV. ALEXANDER FORRESTER, D. D.,
SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION.

THE June number will finish the first year of the existence of this periodical. Though the *Journal* has not received the support that might have been expected from the parties for whose benefit it was mainly intended, still, taking all things into account, it has had a fair circulation for the first year of its history; and both the Editor and the Publishers would gladly avail themselves of this opportunity of tendering their best thanks to the friends of Education and Agriculture, and especially to the Graduates of the Provincial Normal School, throughout the country, who have exerted themselves so strenuously in obtaining subscribers. *It is not our intention* to make any material change upon its management during the ensuing year, but should its circulation largely increase, which we hope it may, to add considerably to its bulk without any additional charge

We trust that the Clerks of the different School Boards will continue as heretofore to act as *Agents*, as well as those to whom copies of this Circular may be forwarded.

We hereby request and authorize all the Teachers in the Province to act as Agents in their locality;—and in their so doing, and thereby increasing the circulation of the *Journal*, we are persuaded they are but promoting their own usefulness and comfort.

As the first number of the second volume will be issued on or about the 15th of July next, the present subscribers will require to renew their subscriptions with the Publishers or Agents.

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