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class school teachers as well as those for the humbler classes. The government promised to give the matter their consideration. Nothing had since been done. The plan recommended by Mr. Bentley, to overcome the defect indicated, was the establishment of colleges for the training of teachers for middle-class schools, which would be under Privy Council regulations, but should be supported by private contribution.

INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION IN IRELAND.

The Rev. John Hall read a paper on "Intermediate Education in Ireland." As a member of the executive committee, Mr. Hall had undertaken, on behalf of the Rev. Dr. M'Cosh, to bring before the section the subject with which Dr. M'Cosh's name had so long been identified.

In the year 1854, Dr. M'Cosh, in a series of letters addressed by permission to the Earl of St. Germans, then Lord Lieutenant, exhibited the condition of the country in such a light as to leave no doubt on the minds of many candid and influential persons that there was urgent need for public interference. Some steps were taken towards it in parliament, but the question became complicated by the introduction of new elements, and changes in the government took place, postponing, let us hope, only till our time, the completion of the educational machinery of the country, so that the boy from the primary school may be helped onward, by a judicious outlay of public money, to the highest advantages the University can furnish. For let it be borne in mind that there is a class of schools, once numerous throughout this country, now almost disappearing before the national system. In the schools of this class a few boys learned classics and mathematics. They were not sufficiently numerous to sustain a school, but the teacher supplemented his income by the instruction of non-classical pupils. The latter, however, have gone to the national schools, and it has ceased to be remunerative to the teacher to keep up his school for the sake of the few classical scholars. Very many Irish towns and villages had formerly such adventure schools, which have entirely disappeared. That the loss is practically great, is proved by the fact that no inconsiderable number of distinguished men at the bar, and in the various churches, have been indebted to these for their preparation for the Universities of Dublin or Glasgow. Many Irish towns, as Dr. M'Cosh showed, with a population of three, four, five, or six thousand, have no classical school; and many populous neighbourhoods, thriving villages, and rising towns, are five, ten, or even fifteen miles from any classical school; while in Scotland a classical

EDUCATIONAL PAPERS READ BEFORE THE SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION, AT DUBLIN.

The Fifth Congress of the Social Science Association, held at Dublin, terminated on Wednesday, the 21st August. The following is an abstract of some of the more important papers read in the educational department of the Association.

MIDDLE CLASS EDUCATION.

Mr. Joseph Bentley read a paper entitled "The strong claims of the Middle Classes for justice in the matter of Education." The author observed that the educational improvements of late years had been confined to the upper and the lower, without having been partaken in by the middle classes, although the latter contributed, in taxes and subscriptions, upwards of a million a year in aid of improved education. Good teachers constituted the key to all improvement of the kind. Teaching required special qualifications independent of intellectual acquirements; it was susceptible of being developed as an art itself. Traditional forms and customs too much prevailed in the universities, which had not cultivated the art of teaching. Colleges for training and certifying teachers for the schools of the poor had already been established, and had produced satisfactory results. He contended for an extension of the principle to all schools. Four years ago a deputation of the Society for Promoting National Education called the attention of the Privy Council Board of Education to the subject. Two years ago Lord Brougham, in the House of Lords, presented a largely signed petition in favour of the establishment of a Government test of the qualification and fitness of middle-

education at a cheap rate, except in the thinly-populated Highlands can be had within a very few miles of any family by means of the burgh, parochial, and latterly the Free Church schools. It is easy to see how many promising and clever lads must be intercepted by the want of a connecting link between the common school and the college, who otherwise would find their way to the places of apothecary, surgeon, solicitor, or to the bar, or the ministry of the various churches. But the government has created another reason for its interference here. To Lord Stanley the country is indebted for the existing primary schools, and to Sir Robert Peel's government is it indebted for the three Queen's Colleges, each with a staff of 20 professors giving instruction in medicine, law, agriculture, and arts. In these kingdoms no higher standard of education is set up than in these colleges, and the university which they constitute; and that this standard is attained as fairly as elsewhere is proved, to the great credit of the energetic and thoroughly competent but poorly paid staff of professors, by the competitive examinations. But whence are the pupils to be drawn to the Queen's Colleges? Throughout the country there are diocesan schools and endowed schools—by no means numerous enough for the wants of the country, and in which, owing to various causes, the course of preparation is adapted to the elder university. In making reference to Trinity College, it is be distinctly understood that no jealousy towards her is felt, for no true friend of Irish Education would tower her proud position, or limit the usefulness of the distinguished men who sustain her reputation. He would not give her less, but the others more. His argument was, that the legislature having affirmed that there should be primary schools at the public expense, and that there should be Queen's Colleges and a Queen's University at the public expense, and the empire having as a whole accepted the arrangement—for, be it borne in mind, no succeeding government has touched but with a helping hand the systems originated by Lord Derby and Sir Robert Peel—it is necessary to connect the two, and to feed the latter by a system of schools in advance of the primary schools, and preparatory for the Queen's Colleges. Otherwise the educational legislation of the country, as Dr. McCosh has shewn, will be like a costly house with two storeys, each roomy and airy, but in which the builder overlooked the connecting staircase. That the Queen's Colleges have succeeded so well, with the only schools that could have been feeders to them incidentally diminished by the National Board, was a striking, in his mind a most impressive and encouraging, proof that a growing thirst for knowledge, with a laudable ambition to rise by enlightenment, pervades the great mass of the Irish nation. How the schools should be organised or sustained, we do not deem it wise to attempt to discuss in this paper, further than to say that local efforts should be stimulated, not superseded, and that the system should be separate and distinct from the National Board.

ERASMUS SMITH'S FOUNDATION.

The Rev. Professor Gibson (of Belfast) read a paper "On the Foundation created by Erasmus Smith for Educational Objects," with a view to shew that it was originally designed for the elevation of the middle classes in Ireland. Of the personal history of the founder little was known, except that he was an alderman of London who lived in the seventeenth century, and of whose intentions the late Commission of Inquiry had no other documentary evidence than that supplied by the charter granted by Charles the Second. The original indenture, however, by which Erasmus Smith made over certain of his estates for such objects had been since discovered in the Birmingham Tower in Dublin Castle, and had been transcribed by him (Professor Gibson) entire. This deed, dated 1657, made over upwards of 13,000 acres of land in several counties for the formation and endowment of grammar schools, vesting the same in trustees, of whom six were leading Non-conformist ministers, and the others were the chief officers of state under the commonwealth. The clerical members were the same as had been selected by Cromwell for revising, with a view to their confiscation, the entire episcopal revenues in Ireland, and for introducing other sweeping changes; while the non-clerical were men after Cromwell's own heart, enjoyed his fullest confidence, and prepared to carry out all the measures of his government. They were, in short, Cromwellians out and out, about whose religious profession and standing there could be no question. Read in this light, it was not difficult to account for one provision in the deed, otherwise inexplicable, namely, the founding of scholarships in connection with Trinity College, Dublin, by one who was himself a zealous Puritan. Of the first fellows of our national university, two were Scottish Presbyterians, of whom one was tutor to Archbishop Ussher; and Cromwell, when he assumed the reins of government, seemed to have resolved to restore the constitution of the College to its primitive model. Hence the designation of the two trustees, Winter and Mather, to its highest honours. When Erasmus Smith placed his schools on the basis of such a deed, and made in it, as he did, provisions for having it ratified by Act of Parliament, "according to the true in-

tent and meaning of these presents," with the sanction of "His Highness the Lord Protector, under the great seal of England," there could be no reasonable doubt of his intentions. Additional evidence of his non-conformity was to be found in the fact that he was elected alderman in 1659, the ninth year of the Commonwealth, a time when the Independents were in all their glory. But shortly after the original indenture was executed, Cromwell died, and all things were changed. With the restoration came all sorts of edicts against Nonconformity, Acts of Uniformity, Conventicle, and Five-mile Acts, in consequence of which none of the six clerical trustees might shew himself within five miles of a corporate town or city, while the rest were *ipso facto* disbanded, and were no more heard of in the administration of any civil or religious trust. Twelve years after a charter was obtained, vesting the administration in far different hands, requiring that every schoolmaster and usher in the schools should be approved by the episcopal authorities, and that a lectureship should be founded in connection with Trinity College. One important provision remained, namely, that the scholars should be regularly taught the catechism of Archbishop Ussher, a broadly evangelical formula, similar in structure to that of the Westminster Assembly, of which Ussher was himself a member. The principle of making laws or regulations for the schools was also secured to the founder. The charter had not been in operation more than fifty years till new legislation was adopted, and an act was passed authorizing the application of the surplus which had accumulated to charitable uses, empowering the trustees to found two lectureships and three fellowships in Trinity College, and ratifying an agreement entered into with the Blue Coat Hospital for the maintenance of twenty pupils. In 1791 the surplus had increased to more than £1,400 a year; and in 1807 there were in hand £35,000. £900 or £1000 annually were expended on Trinity College; an examination hall was built at a cost of £2500, and the College was presented with a library at an expense of £9,000. During all this period little or no attention was paid to the founding of grammar schools, "the primary object," as the late commission had once and again characterized it, of the trust. About half a century ago the trustees began to stud the country, north and south with English schools, amounting three years ago to 119 in all, and maintained at a large outlay, while on the four grammar schools only some £700 or £800 annually were expended. A suggestion had been made by a special commission in 1791, to erect a professional academy of a high class in Dublin, but it was not attended to. In one important respect also the intention of the founder and requirement of the charter had been disregarded, namely, in regard to the use of Ussher's Catechism, which was superseded by others. Upwards of £17,000 had been lost owing to the discontinuance of English schools, on which it had been expended. "Thus have the governors," said the late commission, "not only neglected the primary trust of the grammar schools, but have not managed prudently the secondary trust of English schools, which they have developed to an extent disproportionate to their resources." Much of the mismanagement was attributed, and was doubtless due, to the constitution of the governing board itself, seven of whose members were *ex officio*, and the remainder self-elected. An entire revision of the management was necessary, and demanded legislative interference. Intermediate instruction was the educational requirement of the day, and in the case of Erasmus Smith's schools, the net revenue of his estates, consisting of upwards of £7000 a year, which should have been applied to this important object, agreeably to the intentions of the founder, was a loss to the community. It was to be hoped that ere long the legislature, which had once again interposed with reference to this trust, would interpose once more, and place it on a basis on which, as originally designed, it would subserve the objects of the entire educational interest in Ireland.

The Very Rev. Dean Graves, as an Erasmus Smith Professor, and one of the commissioners alluded to in the paper, wished to say a few words without entering into the antiquarian part of the question. He thought that the funds were admirably administered, and the existing schools ably directed under the direction of the present governors, who were all episcopalians. At the same time he thought the governors would have acted more wisely if they had devoted a larger part of the funds to the encouragement of grammar schools, and had not given so much to elementary schools. But they did nothing illegal in acting as they had. He believed, however, that since the report of the commission had been issued, the governors had made great exertions to improve their schools by raising the standard of education and employing competent teachers. This was only one of the good results of the commission.

THE CHURCH EDUCATION SOCIETY OF IRELAND.

The Rev. A. M. Pollock read a paper "On the Educational position of the Established Church in Ireland." Among the agencies at work in Ireland for the education of the great body of the population, the Church Education Society deserves a prominent place,

both on account of the extent and importance of its operations, and also because of the wide-spread hold it possesses upon the regard and sympathy of the vast majority of the clergy and gentry belonging to the Established Church of the country. For upwards of twenty-one years the Society has been carrying on its labours over all Ireland, diffusing the blessings of sound and wholesome secular instruction, and training the young in the knowledge and practice of those virtues which make for their advancement in the present world, as well as in acquaintance with and in obedience to those heavenly truths that lead to salvation in the world to come. During all this time, its operations have been maintained exclusively by voluntary contributions. Its central establishment consists of the extensive model schools, situate in Kildare-place, for male, female, and infant scholars, conducted by a large staff of teachers of the highest capability and qualifications, together with the admirable training school, second in efficiency to none in the entire kingdom, in which candidate teachers from all parts of Ireland are received and boarded, and are instructed in the most improved methods of educational science. For the advancement and perfecting of these the Society spares no expense nor pains. The Society has also model and training schools on a lesser scale, but in vigorous working order, at Belfast and in Bandon. As regards its operations throughout the country generally, it is enough to say that the schools in connection with it are principally maintained by their respective patrons, whether lay or clerical, though frequently aided by grants, in both money and requisites, from the central committee. There is likewise a regular system of inspection maintained by qualified officers. The income of the Society has for many years exceeded £40,000 annually, and last year it reached the sum of £45,669. The number of pupils on the roll, according to the latest report, was 73,497, of whom 49,100 were members of the United Church of England and Ireland; 14,269 were Protestant Dissenters; and 10,128 were Roman Catholics. The Society has, in direct connection with it, 1,659 schools; but besides these there are also a large number of others in the country conducted strictly upon its principle, though under other voluntary societies, or else (owing to their peculiar circumstances) prevented from being placed in union with any educational society whatever. The distinctive principle of the Church Education Society is, that instruction in the Word of God should form a necessary part of the daily exercises of all the pupils in attendance on its schools. It is owing to their adherence to this principle, that the schools of the Church Education Society have been precluded from a participation in these ample funds, which are annually granted from the public purse for educational purposes in Ireland. It is on this account that the Established Church of the country has so long continued to hold (at a great annual sacrifice) its painful position of disagreement with successive governments on this all-important question; but with every returning age and with every fresh development which has taken place of the effect of an unscriptural, an irreligious or a purely secular education upon a people, the upholders of this extensive society have become more and more convinced that their views on this subject are just and sound, and that the true education for any people is that, and that alone, in which divine teaching—meaning thereby the knowledge of God and of His revealed word—is made the basis of all the instruction provided. The present position of the Established Church of Ireland, as regards the educational working of the country, is not only distressful but wholly anomalous. The legitimate and proper province of the Church of any country is that of being the recognized educators of the people; and while (in a free state) the fullest liberty should be granted to such persons as conscientiously dissent from the form of religion established by law, and while the utmost facilities ought to be afforded to them to bring up the young of their communions in their own particular religious belief, yet that the scruples of every other denomination should receive the fullest, while those of the Church of the land and of its Sovereign are wholly disregarded, is scarcely capable of defence. It is imagined by some that the foundation for the present system of education in Ireland was laid by the report of the Royal Commissioners, which was presented to Parliament in the year 1812. This opinion is an error. These Commissioners found a multitude of schools in existence and in as healthy action as the circumstances of the times allowed. They felt, however, that their number was too limited, and also that the means at their command were inadequate to the wants of the country. Hence they recommended the establishment of additional and supplementary schools in all such places as they should be required, admitting persons of all religious persuasions to partake of their advantages. But they also—and principally—recommended that the existing parochial schools should be more liberally supported, that good books should be provided for them, and that they should be made truly effective under the superintendence and care of the parochial clergy. But, that the Church schools should pass utterly away, as they since have done, from the care and cognizance of the State, was never for a moment in the contemplation of the

Commissioners. It has next been maintained that the present system of National Education in Ireland, to which the great body of the Protestants of the country object, is the outworking of the scheme laid down by the Right Hon. Mr. Stanley (now the Earl of Derby) in his letter to the Duke of Leinster. This likewise is a total mistake. Since the original establishment of the existing system (not to speak of its first framing, as set forth in that remarkable State letter) the alterations made in it have been so numerous and so great that it scarcely retains any resemblance whatever to the type by which it was to have been modelled.

THE CLAIMS OF SCHOOLMASTERS FOR APPOINTMENTS AS INSPECTORS OF SCHOOLS.

Mr. D'Orsey, English Lecturer at Cambridge, said, he feared the remarks which he was about to make would be at variance with popular feeling, preconceived notions, and aristocratic prejudice. Few would listen with patience to any project bearing on intermediate education that referred to the important principle of training the man who was to be the educator. He asked permission as a schoolmaster, to speak very plainly on this point. He would confine himself at present to the question of the social position of the schoolmaster. The phrase "only a schoolmaster," although going out of fashion, was still not altogether extinct. There had been in some places, and still was, an impression that those who failed in other professions would do for that of a schoolmaster. It was replied to him, when speaking on this topic the day before yesterday, that the highest circles in the realm had received schoolmasters. His reply was, that the reception was not in virtue of the position of schoolmaster, but in virtue of the ecclesiastical position which the gentlemen enjoyed. The highest classes of schools—Eton, Harrow, and many others in England and Ireland—enjoyed the direction of, perhaps the most eminent men that the University sent forth, and might perhaps be taken as exceptions to his observation; but of the middle class of schools, a large proportion lying between the schools he had mentioned on the one hand, and the National schools on the other, were, as had been well stated already under a class of men—might he dare to use the expression—not very far removed from the "Wackford Squeer's" order. Canon Robinson, of York, whose name ought to be known to every educationist, had said in a recent article in the *Museum*, that a large number of private schools were under the direction of bankrupt publicans, dismissed railway clerks, and tailors who could not find sufficient employment in their profession. It was easy to point out defects, but it was difficult to suggest remedies. He knew it would be said, that if men were deserving, they were sure to obtain the place suited to their talents; the world would ultimately do every man justice. But his proposition in connection with this question of middle-class schools was, that Government had not done justice to the profession of schoolmaster, as such. He maintained, and he hoped he should not shock anybody's feelings, that schoolmasters as schoolmasters, and not merely as clergymen, should be at least upon the same level with other professions in yielding a crop of royal inspectors of schools. He hoped he should not offend any gentleman connected with Normal schools there when he said that a good many of those schools—he would not say all of them—were aiming too much at "cramming," to use a familiar but most expressive word, and not sufficiently at training of a professional character. If of two men, one were possessed of ten per cent. of attainments and ninety per cent. of teaching powers, and the other had these proportions reversed, the former would make the better teacher. Practical skill, far more than profound knowledge, was the essential desideratum in schoolmasters for all sorts of schools.—*Educational Times*.

LORD BROUGHAM'S REMARKS ON EDUCATION.

(Extracts from his Opening Address before the Social Science Association in Dublin.)

In coming to the next department—Education—our attention is first of all arrested by the great event which has happened since our last meeting, and to which our unwearied exertions have most essentially contributed—the repeal of the paper duty, the heavy tax upon knowledge in every one of its various branches. That gross and glaring anomaly in our legislative as well as administrative proceedings, has now ceased. We can no longer be charged with, at one and the same time, paying for schools to teach and raising the price of the books taught—of encouraging the people to read, of patronizing authors, and multiplying readers, while we make it unprofitable for the former to write and hard for the latter to read. The effect of this most salutary change has been immediate and it has been great. Over what an ample field its operation extends may be seen from this,—that one daily penny paper has a circulation of 80,000; and a halfpenny weekly journal, with excellent cuts, has been established, and already issues above 8,000. My complaints

made at the Liverpool meeting can therefore no longer be urged, and a prodigious benefit has been conferred upon all the departments of knowledge by the steady perseverance of Mr. Gladstone in carrying this great measure against the most formidable resistance both in parliament and beyond its walls. Of that benefit we of the National Association have our full share, along with the gratifying reflection on the part we took in obtaining it. The good thus bestowed seems to be free from all admixture of evil; for the alarm felt by some, affected by more, at the cheap newspaper press, is really groundless. The bulk of readers, always influenced by the more rational and better informed part of the community, will entirely discountenance and prevent those outrages upon the taste as well as truth and decency which we have seen in the press of some countries—of one particularly, so gross as almost to pass belief. But the character of the people must not be judged as if they could approve of such things. We might as well charge the French countrymen of Lavoisier and Lafayette with being robbers and murderers because the daily papers of Marat and Hebert preached wholesale pillage and assassination, as hold the countrymen of Washington and Franklin answerable for the sins of their press—a compound of slander, fraud, and bluster. So the incomparably lighter excesses with which our journals may be chargeable in the heat of factious controversy, are never more than passing and temporary, giving way to the predominant good sense and good taste of the community. The solid benefit obtained by the multiplication of cheap papers, and works of all kinds, is real and permanent, and a subject of just congratulation, if it were for nothing more than their tendency to free the public from the monopoly of the established papers, and the domination which that monopoly has its effect in producing. But our proceedings touching education have been successful in other directions. At the Bradford meeting, the vice-president over this department was Mr. Chadwick, so well known for his invaluable services on the Poor Law Commission, thirty years ago, and without whose aid and agency that great measure of practical social science, the New Poor Law, could never, in all probability, have been prepared. At Bradford he communicated to Mr. Senior, one of the Education Commissioners, who attended our congress, the result of the discussions in the department over which he presided, upon the important subjects of reducing the time consumed in teaching at schools, and of forming those schools and unions so as to lessen the cost and increase the efficiency of instruction. The Commissioner requested him to examine these points in detail when the congress broke up. He did so, and collected a most valuable body of information, by visiting the schools in the manufactories of the West Riding, conferring also with school inspectors and with medical men. His report was, unfortunately, too late to be inserted in that of the commission; but it has since been moved for in the House of Lords, and is presented with his letter to Mr. Senior. It may be considered as an event in the history of education, and it is quite certain to occasion extensive improvements, increasing the number of children taught, lessening their labour, and making it conducive to the health both of the body and mind. I certainly regard Mr. Chadwick as having rendered to education a service equal to that which the amendment of the Poor Law owes him. On the former occasion I gave him what I deemed his due commendation, speaking as a Minister of the Crown, in the assembly over which I presided. I knew him not personally, nor was I aware that he then belonged to the newspaper press. Panegyric is never popular; and mine was not soon forgiven; I don't know if the subject of it was assailed; I well remember the author of it was pretty severely and pretty generally.

"Satire is sure to find a willing ear,
And they who blame the sinner, love the sneer.
But righteous tributes no emotion raise,
And those that love the virtues, hate the praise."

In this congress I hope that my motive may plead in extenuation of the fault, and I may be pardoned for being dull by the consideration that I have been just. A further and an important advantage has been gained by the last congress for the interests of education. The progress of popular instruction had been grievously obstructed by the separate and oftentimes conflicting proceedings of its promoters, attached, and conscientiously attached, to different sects of religion, acting in opposition to each other, though if brought together, and to a clear understanding, they might, from their honest zeal for a common object, have been led to co-operate, or at least not to conflict. This great step was made in the congress at Glasgow. For the first time the leaders of the Established Church party, of the Free Church party, and of the United Presbyterians, met together and maintained their respective views before the members of the association. The result was the formation of a representative committee (of the chief denominations), whose labours there was every reason to expect will lead to a reduction of the points of difference, and a removal of the main obstacles of progress. Both at that meeting and at Bradford the important advan-

tage was gained of bringing the ecclesiastical school teachers in more full communication with the laity and with the professors of sanitary science. It would be improper to leave the great subject of education in the country where we are now assembled, without mentioning a fact that has been reported to us on good authority, and even under the influences of prejudices which it rather thwarted. In Scotland it is found that the Irishmen educated at the larger national schools are, in consequence of their greater steadiness, sobriety, and general trustworthiness, preferred to ill-educated Scotchmen, for the places of foremen in the manufactories; and our good countrymen of Scotland have a similar complaint of the greater number of Irish educated at the colleges being successful candidates for Indian civil service appointments.

II. THE VIEWS OF GOVERNMENT ON THE REPORT OF THE ROYAL EDUCATION COMMISSION.

Mr. Lowe, the Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education, in the debate on the vote of £643,794 for Public Education in Great Britain, made the following statement respecting the changes about to be introduced by Government:—"Passing over the economies which we mean to effect, I come to the question—in what manner are we to deal with the defects which have been pointed out by the Commissioners? There are three faults found:—first, that we teach superficially, ambitiously, and imperfectly; secondly, that we do not spread our schools as widely over the country as we should; and, thirdly, that our system is full of complications. It seems to me that it is quite possible to suggest a system which may in a great degree do something towards remedying these defects. What we propose to do will be embodied in a minute which will be laid on the table as soon as possible. I will merely state the outline of the minute, prefacing it with the assurance that the committee need not be afraid that we contemplate any *coup d'état*, because the nature of the grant is such that we cannot make any innovations until the end of the next financial year. It appears to me that the complexity resolves itself into this, that not content with giving the grants on the performance of particular conditions, which I think is a right principle, we have also insisted on paying those grants to the persons for whom they were designed. It might be necessary before the schools were organized to do this. But now we have been in communication with between 6,000 and 7,000 managers of schools, and on no occasion has there been any doubt that money paid for a particular purpose has found its way to its destination. If the payments are made direct to the managers, that will be an enormous advantage, even if the payments remain the same as now. This is a recommendation of the Commissioners, and it is also a recommendation of the Commissioners that these payments shall be discontinued, and that, instead of graduated payments of the complicated nature which I have described, augmentation allowances to teachers, varying from £15 to £30, and augmentation allowances to pupil-teachers, varying from £12 to £30—payments in the nature of capitation grants—shall be substituted. We think it will give great simplicity to the system and much facilitate its working. But then comes the question, on what conditions shall the capitation grants be given? We think that at present the capitation grant is not given on sufficiently stringent conditions. We think we ought to be satisfied not only that the children have attended a proper number of times and that they have been taught by properly qualified teachers, but that something has been done worthy of the attendance and of the teaching powers of the masters. At the same time we must not be understood as proposing to base our payments upon results simply and by themselves. We think it would be rash and imprudent to sweep away a machinery which has been constructed with great labor, care, and dexterity,—which, although it may be complicated and difficult to work, has answered many of the purposes for which it was designed,—in order to substitute the new and untried plan of trusting merely to the results of examinations. What we mean to do is to take care that the capitation grant, when paid, shall be paid only upon our being reasonably satisfied that the desired results have been attained. We propose, therefore, to give the capitation grant on the number of attendances of a child above a certain number, provided always that the school is certified by the inspector to be in a fit state, and provided also that there is a certified master. These are the conditions necessary for the payment of the capitation grant; but, in order to spread the system more widely, we propose to create a fourth kind of certificate, which will be lower than the present certificates, which may be taken by a younger person, and which will probably be more available for the purposes of rural schools. Having thus secured attendances we propose to go a step further. We propose that an inspector shall examine the children in reading, writing, and arithmetic. If a child should pass in the whole the full capitation grant will be given; but if he fail in

writing, for instance, one-third of the grant will be withdrawn; if he fail in both reading and writing, two-thirds will be withheld; while if he fail in reading, writing, and arithmetic, no portion of the grant will be paid. Thus, the House will see that we shall never pay anything for a child unless that we have been satisfied—first, that he has attended above a certain number of times; secondly, that he has attended a school which is under a certified master; and, thirdly, that he has satisfied an inspector of his capacity in reading, writing, and arithmetic. I hope the change we propose may have some effect in correcting the evils in the teaching which have been complained of. Our object is to secure, as far as possible, that the attention of the master shall not be confined to the upper class of his school, but shall be given to the whole, and we endeavour to effect that object by making the payment of the capitation grant depend upon the manner in which he has instructed each child. I may add that we do not intend to break in upon the system of pupil teachers as now existing. I can hardly hope that I have made myself intelligible. The matter is one of considerable complexity, and I may be allowed to recapitulate the main features of our plan. We propose to give capitation grants on so many attendances above a certain number—say above 100—the object being that we shall not be paying money for a child who has been taught by another master, and who comes to school merely for the purpose of getting the grant. We also require that there shall be a certified master, in order to secure good order, discipline, morality and competent teaching. Lastly, the grants will be subject to reduction upon failure in reading, writing, or arithmetic. It will be seen, therefore, that when a grant is paid, we shall have secured, as far as we can, not only the presence of a competent teacher, not only the attendance of the child, but also some knowledge of the actual results of the teaching.

Sir J. Pakington.—Will the capitation grants be given in all cases on a smaller number of attendances than at present?

Mr. Lowe.—I have not committed myself upon that point, but my impression is that the grants will be paid on a smaller number of attendances than at present, because there are other conditions which must be complied with. I shall now briefly state some of the advantages which I think will arise from our plan. It leaves the whole system of the Privy Council intact. It merely substitutes one kind of payment for another, and that a much more simple and convenient one. It will be attended by a considerable diminution of trouble. It leaves to the managers of schools greater freedom of management than they have at present, and it has always appeared to me that, so long as certain indispensable conditions are complied with, you ought to minimize your interference with the management of schools. Heretofore we have endeavoured to provide the means. We are now extending our view, so as not only to provide the means, but also to see that those means when provided are used to the best advantage. That, I think, is a decided step in advance, because what is the good of attendance and of teachers unless they lead to real instruction and knowledge in the children? We also give the master a much stronger motive for exertion than he has at present. If his children do not pass the examination he will fall into disgrace with his managers; while if they do pass he will naturally be highly esteemed, and will have an opportunity of rising in his profession. Our plan, in short, will give an impulse to the profession of schoolmasters, and to the laudable ambition of men who wish to raise themselves in life. At present our schoolmasters are treated upon the principle which Mr. George Potter and his friends desire to apply to the case of all workmen. We first ascertain the capacity of a teacher, and then we pay him a certain sum whether he works or not, just as Mr. Potter contends that a man who is lazy and inefficient should be paid as much as a man who is active, industrious, and skilled in his trade. For that system we propose to substitute the wholesome stimulus which must be afforded by an inquiry into the actual results of the teaching in a school, testing the exertion which the master has used in teaching, not the upper class only, but all the children under his charge. Hitherto we have been living under a system of bounties and protection; now we propose to have a little free trade. Our plan carries out the idea of the Report, though free, I trust, from many of its objections. The Report suggests the propriety of our being satisfied that the children possess the elementary accomplishments of reading and writing. I think that suggestion is a valuable one, and we have acted upon it. What we propose to do is built upon the present system of the Privy Council. No attempt has been made to introduce any change. The schools will continue to be denominational, and religious teaching must be the foundation of all. The inspectors will still conduct a religious examination; in short, there is no proposal to make any change in the religious character of the schools. It only remains that I should point out the evils of the system. As the system spreads we must increase the number of inspectors. I am afraid that is unavoidable. We have considered the recommendation of the Commissioners that we should employ

schoolmasters instead of inspectors; but it appears to us that, considering the delicate and difficult duties which inspectors have to discharge, we ought to retain as inspectors persons of the same class as we have them now. We believe the work will be more efficiently done by them than it would be by any schoolmasters. They will, as I have said, increase with the extension of the system, but I hope not very rapidly. We must recollect that inspection and the increase of inspectors are evils inseparable from a central system. We grant money; it is necessary we should ascertain that it has been properly applied, and we know not how we can get that information except through persons appointed to examine and report. But let me say, that if the number of inspectors should become too large, Government and the House have the remedy in their own hands. The number of inspectors is far larger than it need be at this moment, because each denomination has its own inspectors, and it often happens that three or four gentlemen are sent to the same town to inspect the schools in it. That, of course, involves an enormous waste of time and money, and some good might be effected by making the same gentlemen inspect all classes of schools, with the exception, perhaps, of those belonging to the Roman Catholics. However, we propose nothing of that kind; I merely point out what might be done. Another evil is that we shall pay over the money to the manager of a school, instead of the person who is to receive it; and therefore we are not quite so sure that the money will reach the hands for which it is designed. That, however, is more a theoretical than a practical objection, and I have no doubt that the charitable and religious persons who manage schools will be found in every respect qualified to discharge this trust. I have now laid before the House, I am afraid at too great length, the views and intentions of the Government with respect to the report of the Education Commission. I hope that, whatever hon. gentlemen may think of our proposition—upon which, of course, I cannot expect them to deliver a judgment until they have seen the details—they will, at least, believe that we have honestly endeavoured to do our best, under circumstances of great difficulty. We have endeavoured to meet the case as well as we could; and we hope, by the kind assistance of the House, to succeed in giving greater efficiency to the present system. The House must not expect from us impossibilities. We cannot combine in the same system the advantages of the voluntary principle with those of the system of public grants. We want to carry out the best system under present circumstances as far as we can. So far as we can elevate it—so far as we can make it more comprehensive, more efficient, and more economical, we are most anxious to do so.—*English Journal of Education.*

III. EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION, 1862.

The following is a classified list of objects admissible into Class 29, devoted to "Educational Works and Appliances."

A.—BUILDINGS, FITTINGS AND FURNITURE*

I. *Buildings.* Plans,* Sections, Elevations, Drawings Photographs, and Models of Schools; Infant, Primary, Secondary, Industrial, Sunday, Adult, Trade, Art, Technical, Swimming, Riding, Fencing, &c.; Higher: Lecture rooms, Institutes, Public Libraries, Museums, Private Studies, Dormitories, Training Colleges, Universities.

II. *Fittings and Furniture.* Specimens, Models, Drawings, &c., of desks, galleries, forms and seats, black-boards and easels, ink-stands, and wells, tables, worktables, &c., teachers' and pupil-teachers' desks and boxes, beds and cribs for infants, timepieces, curtains for schools, cases and stands for maps and diagrams, receptacles for hats, cloaks, &c.

III. *Sanitary Arrangements, specially suited for Colleges, Schools, and Institutes.* Apparatus for heating, lighting, and ventilation; play and exercise grounds, lavatories, waterclosets, urinals, &c.

IV. *Furnished or Fitted Models,* and collections of furniture, &c. requisite for schools and other educational institutions.

B.—BOOKS† AND INSTRUMENTS OF TEACHING GENERALLY.

I. *Reading and Spelling.* (a) Books: Primers, reading books, works on elocution, &c. (b) Tabular Lessons: Alphabets, spelling exercises, &c. (c) Materials: Boxes of letters, &c.

II. *Writing.* (a) Books: Manuals for teachers, copy-books, &c. (b) Copies and models for imitation: Diagrams of forms and proportions of letters. (c) Materials: Slates, pencils, pencil-holders, pens, pen-holders, pen-wipers; ink, rulers. (d) Mechanical

* Models of buildings should be on a scale of $\frac{1}{4}$ in. to a foot; ground-plans on a scale of $\frac{1}{16}$ in. to 1 foot; and block-plans on a scale of $\frac{1}{16}$ in. to 1 foot. Materials and cost should be specified.

† It is hoped that arrangements may be made under which the books in this class may be consulted by visitors.

expedients for directing the hand, or otherwise assisting the pupil in learning to write.

III. *Arithmetic.* (a) Books: Theory or practice of arithmetic, mensuration, or book-keeping. (b) Tabular Lessons: Elementary illustrations of number. Sheet exercises and sums. (c) Pictorial illustrations and diagrams of weights and measures; illustrations of the various systems of weights and measures in the United Kingdom. (d) Mechanical Appliances: Ball-frames, cubes, &c.

IV. *Religious Instruction.* (a) Books: Bible manuals; compendiums of Scripture or ecclesiastical history; catechisms; books for Sunday-school use, &c. (b) Bible Pictures: Illustrations of Eastern life and manners, &c. (c) Maps, Charts, and Models, illustrating the chronology, history, or geography of the Bible.

V. *History (Secular).* (a) Books: Manuals of ancient or modern history; biographies; reading books. (b) Chronological charts and diagrams; systems of mnemonics applied to chronology, &c. (c) Pictures, in series or singly, exhibiting historical events.

VI. *Geography.* (a) Books and Atlases. (b)* Maps, Charts, Models, and Diagrams. Outline maps: simple projections. (c) Globes, plain or in relief. (d) Miscellaneous Appliances. Slate globes, maps in relief, models and pictures of physical phenomena, &c. (e) National Surveys.

VII. *Language.* (a) Books: Works on composition, the analysis of sentences; the philosophy and structure of language; dictionaries and grammars of ancient or modern languages; editions of classic authors; courses of reading and instruction. (b) Tabular Lessons in parsing, etymology, or logical analysis.

VIII. *Mathematics.* (a) Books: Treatises and exercises on pure or applied mathematics. (b) Illustrations: Geometrical diagrams; models and drawings for elementary lessons on form and quantity, &c. (c) Mathematical Instruments: Simple and cheap instruments for school use, singly or in cases; mariner's compasses; sextants, theodolites, levelling instruments, &c.

IX. *Physical Science.* (a) Books: Text books and manuals on astronomy, mechanics, electricity, chemistry, mineralogy, &c. (b) Drawings and Diagrams illustrating scientific truths. (c) Models and Apparatus employed in teaching. (d) Cheap Collections of Objects adapted for chemical, electrical, or other scientific experiments.

X. *Natural History.* (a) Books: Manuals or reading books on botany, zoology, and geology. (b) Drawings and Pictures; Illustrations of structure, appearance, relative sizes, or local distribution of plants and animals. (c) Charts and Diagrams to simplify or exhibit systems of classification. (d) Elementary collections of natural history.

XI. *Music.* (a) Books: Theory or practice of vocal or instrumental music; exercises. (b) Compositions: Chants, part songs, school songs, &c. (c) Diagrams and Tabular Lessons, shewing scales, systems of musical notation, &c. (d) Instruments of Instruction: Black boards for music lessons; tuning forks, pitch-pipes, metronomes; cheap musical instruments for schools, juvenile bands, &c.

XII. *Drawing, Painting, and Design.* (a) Books: Hand books of instruction for teachers, exercises for pupils, &c. (b) Copies: Drawings and pictures, models, casts, &c. (c) Materials: Paper, pencils, rubbers, chalks, brushes, easels, colours, canvas, palettes, &c. (d) Diagrams and Models: Illustrations of theory of perspective, laws of vision, &c.

XIII. *Domestic Economy.* (a) Books: Text books and reading books adapted for school use, on needlework, cooking, choice of food, materials for dress, management of a house, &c. (b) Illustrations; Pictures, diagrams, models, and specimens of household implements, furniture, &c., suitable for educational use.

XIV. *Industrial Education generally.* (a) Books: Manuals of gardening, agricultural, or other industrial work done in schools, or other institutions of technical instruction, whether for children or for adults. (b) Instruments and illustrations employed therein.

XV. *Social and Economic Science.* (a) Books: Manuals and reading books, on wages, capital, labour, the conditions of industrial success, &c. (b) Tabular lessons; or other visible illustrations of such subjects.

XVI. *Physiology and the Laws of Health.* (a) Books: Text books and reading books on animal physiology, functions of the skin, cleanliness, food, ventilation, respiration, general conditions of health. (b) Diagrams and drawings. (c) Anatomical models for teaching.

XVII. *General Knowledge.* (a) Books: Text books on common things, the philosophy of every-day life, &c.; lessons on objects;

courses of miscellaneous instruction. (b) Drawings and diagrams exhibiting the structure and use of familiar things, as a watch, a door-lock, tools and simple machines, weights, lengths, &c. (c) Models and specimens used in teaching.

XVIII. *School Registers.* Roll-books, registers of attendance, payments, progress, &c.; expedients for facilitating the collection of educational statistics.

XIX. *Tablets and Pictures for Wall use,* including contrivances for rendering school-rooms cheerful and ornamental.

XX. *Teaching for the Blind, the Deaf, and Dumb, Idiots, or others mentally or physically deficient.* (a) Books: Embossed for the blind; alphabets for the dumb, &c. (b) Treatment of defective utterance. (c) Instruments and apparatus adapted for these purposes.

XXI. *Special and Professional Education.* (a) Books: Manuals of military, naval, legal, medical, engineering, or other professional instruction. (b) Instruments and apparatus used in such instruction.

XXII. *Theory and Practice of Teaching.* (a) Books: Methods and systems of teaching; model lessons; teachers' manuals; courses of pedagogy; schemes of examination; histories of education; reports, &c., of Committee of Council on Education, Boards, and societies of education; statistics of education, histories, reports and regulations of public libraries, book-hawking societies for promoting the sale of pure literature, literary and scientific societies, institutes, &c.

XXIII. *Libraries.* Collections, lists, or specimens of books adapted for school libraries, either by their cheapness, or by arrangement or classification.

C.—APPLIANCES FOR PHYSICAL EDUCATION.—TOYS AND GAMES.

I. *Manuals of Drill,* military, naval, or general, for boys, girls, or adults; exercise books, &c., for the use of teachers.

II. *Gymnastic Apparatus.* (a) For Play-grounds: Specimens, models, and diagrams of swings, poles, parallel bars, inclined planes, &c. (b) For Indoor Use: Dumb-bells, chest expanders, &c.

III. *Apparatus employed in Infant Schools.* (a) Articles used in *Kinder-Garten* occupations. (b) Models, puzzles, and expedients for educating the eye or hand. (c) Specimens of the commoner tools used by workmen, as smiths, carpenters, gardeners, &c., and models of articles of household furniture generally. (d) Picture books and cards. (e) Instructive games and toys.

IV. *Materials used in, and Photographs and Pictures* illustrative of, national and other games and exercises of strength or agility.

V. Miscellaneous toys and games.

D.—*SPECIMENS OF SCHOOL-WORK.

I. *Writing* plain, ornamental, or illuminated.

II. *Drawing and Design.* Plain and coloured drawings from maps, copies, models, nature, memory; modelling in clay, wax, &c.; cutting out paper, from copies or invention.

III. *Needlework.* (1) Ordinary: Sewing, knitting, darning, &c. (2) Artistic: Embroidery, lace work, worsted work, &c.; specimens of dressed dolls, &c.

IV. *Industrial Work generally.* (a) Basket work, artificial flowers, matters, &c. (b) Floral, and other decorative work for school fêtes, &c.

E.—MUSEUMS.

I. *Museums.* (a) National. (b) Local. (c) Trade. (d) Itinerating. (e) Classified collections, of small cost, for educational use, to illustrate common objects, specific sciences or studies, or particular books or courses of instruction. (f) Special floras or faunas, &c.

II. *Taxidermy.* (a) Methods of mounting, labelling, and preserving objects from dust, insects, &c. (b) Specimens.

NOTE.—The "Educational Works and Appliances" of all nations are to be exhibited in the Educational Court (Class XXIX.) In this Court the primary classification will be according to nations; so that the present condition, and idea, of education in each nation may be separately illustrated. Certain objects, however, (e.g. books) with advantage to the exhibitors, may be differently classified, i.e., according to their uses; and it is hoped that arrangements may be made for such a sub-classification in the cases in which the exhibitors may desire it.

* Maps should be fitted in cases or on spring rollers. It is hoped that arrangements may be made under which the maps in this class may be examined by visitors.

* The conditions under which these specimens have been produced, the age of the pupil, and the character of the institution—whether an elementary or secondary school, a workhouse, reformatory, asylum for the blind, or otherwise—must in every case be certified either by the Committee of Council on Education, the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland, or by an Educational Society or Board. No specimen of school work can be received from individual schools, teachers, or pupils.

IV. Education in Foreign Countries.

1. EDUCATION IN BENGAL.

At the recent meeting of the Social Science Association in Dublin, Mr. Rakhool Das Haldar, a native of Bengal, read a paper entitled "Education in Bengal, and its results." More than half a century has elapsed since the first effort was made for diffusing the European system of education and European knowledge in that portion of India known as Bengal. Some millions of money have been spent towards that object, not only from the Government Treasury, but also from the private purses of members of the British nation. Some hundreds of persons have devoted the best part of their lives in securing the same object. It may, therefore, be interesting to residents in Great Britain and Ireland to have some idea of the result of the expenditure of money and of energy and talents for social amelioration in Bengal. In speaking of the early stages of British education in Bengal, the mind is carried back to the days when books like the "Young Man's Best Companion," and "The Universal Letter Writer," were in vogue. Such books were imported into Bengal long before the close of the last century. There were no public schools for English education. Those who wished to make themselves serviceable to the English used to read the above books at home, taking lessons probably from their employers. Such men generally belonged to the highest castes in Bengal, the Brahmin, the Kayasth, and the Vaidya, whose chief ambition was to be clerks. It was considered highly unbecoming for a man of an inferior caste to aspire to a clerkship. The acquirements of those who learnt English were so indifferent, that the students could not even write a sentence of their own with correctness. The extent of scholarship was to be able to read the tales of the Thousand and one Nights, whether intelligibly or not. There were no Anglo-Bengali Dictionaries in existence, so that the students were obliged to collect words for their own use. These collections, in the form of manuscript vocabularies, descended for some time from the senior to the junior members of the same families, and were the sole help towards expressing their ideas. Anecdotes are told and laughed over at the present day, how ludicrously the Bengalis of former days spoke and wrote the English language, and it is wondered how their English employers could at all manage them. As the chief object of the greater portion of those who studied the English was to be copyists, great attention was paid to penmanship; and in this comparatively unimportant branch of English education the Bengalis were scarcely inferior to the English themselves. No impression, however, was made on their minds by the example of English life, nor by the perusal of English books. Their religious prejudices were not shaken. They contented themselves with deciding that God had established different religions, manners, and customs for different races of men, and what was good for one nation was not so for another. They thus preserved their caste in all its integrity, and so faithful were they to their erroneous beliefs that they would not drink a drop of water or eat a morsel of food without changing the clothes polluted by the touch of Europeans. It is, therefore, not to be wondered at, that when a proposition was made for establishing public schools, the Hindus in Bengal were very much averse to it. They said that a tolerable knowledge of the English language was so far necessary as a means of livelihood; but what would be the use of public schools? If a person wished to be a learned man, he should go to the Professor of Sanscrit, and be taught the divine Shāstras. But an English school would not only be useless, but might possibly be injurious to the interests of Hinduism. Of course the proposition for the extension of European knowledge in Bengal had originated with Englishmen and Christian Missionaries; but it was not without the support of a few sagacious natives like the Rajahs Rammohun Roy and Radhakant Deb. Before the year 1820, the Hindu College in Calcutta, the Missionary College at Serampore, and a few minor schools, were established in the face of opposition, and a perseverance of fifty years has changed the state of things in Bengal. The prejudice which was at first supposed to be insuperable, has been broked down! In the beginning free pupils were sought after, but at present, not only are applications from pay pupils numerous, but also, as a fact strongly illustrating the decay of prejudices, many young Hindus may now be seen dissecting dead bodies in the Calcutta Medical College—an act no Hindu would have dared to perform fifty years ago. It is a pleasing fact to British philanthropists that men, natives of Bengal, may now be found by hundreds holding converse with the great ones of the earth, with the mighty spirits that lived to instruct and humanize them, with the philosophers, poets, mathematicians, and orators of Europe—men who, without English education, would probably have been seen worshipping idols, and leading a most indolent, if not vicious life. English education has created a class of men called "Young Bengal," an epithet originally applied as a reproach. The educated natives of Bengal have been appointed by the Government

as uncovenanted civil judges and magistrates, and in various executive capacities, and they have not merely been found equal to these appointments, but have been considered by local British officers as capable of higher trust. Formerly "public spirit" was never known or understood; but it has been so far developed, that natives may now be seen establishing schools, libraries, debating clubs, hospitals, and other institutions for the common good. To the diffusion of European knowledge is to be attributed the rise of a class of natives who are considered still to be low in caste—he alluded to the social advancement of the artisan and manufacturing classes. Members of these classes can vie with the Brahmins and others in respectability and intelligence. A word or two about female education might not be inappropriate before he concluded the subject. The condition of Hindu women is pretty well known in Great Britain and Ireland. Still, there may now be found Hindu women able to read and write, and a few literary compositions by female writers have already appeared in Bengali periodicals; but the female schools have hitherto been failures. Even the Calcutta Female School, founded under the auspices of the late Hon. Dr. Drinkwater Bethune, has not answered to the expectations originally formed of it; its present number of pupils, if he was informed aright, was not more than ten. As to the cause of female education not having made a steady progress, it may be mentioned, that the superstitious Hindus do not educate their daughters, simply on account of prejudices, while the educated natives respect too much the popular opinion. The time has not yet arrived in Bengal, when a gentleman will marry only a well-educated and accomplished lady. Such is a rapid view of improved education in Bengal and its results. The money and talents expended upon it have not been wholly thrown away. So much has been done as to promise a better and brighter future. It is, however, only by a prolonged course of salutary discipline, aided by friendly external influences, derived from a free people and an enlightened Government, and carried on through several generations, that his countrymen could hope to reach a standard of character that would fit them for all the dignified occupations and pursuits of civilized man.

2. EDUCATION IN DENMARK.

The Altona correspondent of the *Morning Post* gives an interesting account of the state of Education in Denmark. He says:—

In every parish there are at least two, and sometimes three or more, primary schools, which are under the charge of teachers who, according to the proposal of the municipal or communal council, as the case may be, in the town or country, are appointed either by the Bishops or by the Minister of Instruction, but who before their nomination must undergo an examination in an establishment specially formed for their training and instruction. The attendance at these primary schools is compulsory on all children between nine and fourteen years of age, at which latter period they generally receive the rite of ecclesiastical confirmation. The instruction which they receive includes reading, arithmetic, and writing, besides religious training, and lessons on the elements of geography, on the history of their native country, and occasionally also on matters connected with natural history. It is a very rare circumstance to find any one, even among the poorest, who cannot read and write; and among the army recruits there is scarcely one who is not possessed at least of these accomplishments. In the primary schools of Copenhagen a somewhat more extended programme of study has been recognized, though in the gratis schools there the usual branches only are taught; but in these schools where the parents pay a certain portion of the expense, mathematics, drawing, &c., are also included, and it should be remarked that the attendance at these schools is very large, because even poor parents look upon it as an affair of honour to contribute something, be it ever so little, towards the payment that is required for the instruction of their children. In this way the numbers who attend the public schools of Copenhagen amount to nearly 7100 scholars of both sexes, which is a very large proportion when the extent of the population is considered. Some years ago an idea struck one of the teachers, that it might be possible to procure for the children attending these schools an opportunity by which they might have the benefit of physical recreation during the holidays, by having them transferred from the less healthy atmosphere of a large city to the purer air of the country, while they would at the same time be withdrawn from those temptations which idleness in a town often presents. In concert with some of his colleagues, he made application in this spirit to various persons in the country, and his appeal to their hospitality was most successful. The clergy, landed proprietors, farmers, and even peasants, hastened to intimate that they would be most happy to receive such children; and those who had the management of the railways and of steamboats, likewise gave their aid to the project by offering gratuitous conveyance to these young passengers. The King also had the kindness to put a great many carriages at the disposal of

those who took an interest in these children, and even the Post-office department offered its assistance. Since that time there has been a regular emigration of gratuitous young travellers during the accustomed holidays, who are in this way spread over the whole country, even to its most distant boundaries, and who return at the end of some weeks fresh and rosy, filled with many happy recollections, and enchanted with the delights of their rustic sojourn. Not less than 1300 children, belonging to the poorer classes of Copenhagen, have this year enjoyed the advantages of this rural hospitality from one end of the country to the other; and it is only doing justice to all parties concerned to put it on record that the instances in which their good hosts have had to make complaints against their visitors have been exceedingly rare, and that special requests have often been made that the same children that had been with them one year might be sent to them the next, when the happiness of again meeting has always been mutually felt by both parties. There is something in the whole arrangement, which, though primitive, is exceedingly interesting; and it might be productive of much good, if the example which has thus been set by the kind and good-hearted Danes, could be generally followed in quarters where the benefits to be conferred may be still more needed.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION,

Upper



Canada.

TORONTO: NOVEMBER, 1861.

* Parties in correspondence with the Educational Department will please quote the number and date of any previous letters to which they may have occasion to refer, as it is extremely difficult for the Department to keep trace of isolated cases where so many letters are received (nearly 1,000 per month) on various subjects.

APPOINTMENT OF SCHOOL SECTION AUDITORS.

The School Law Amendment Act, passed in May 1860, provides, among other things, for the annual appointment of two Auditors for the examination of the Trustees' School Section Accounts. The school trustees are required to appoint one of these Auditors "before the first day of December," and the school electors the other. The meeting for the appointment of this second auditor should be called by the Trustees, about the fifteenth of December, so that the meeting might take place not later than the 22nd of the month. Should the Trustees neglect or refuse to do so by that day (the 22nd), then "any two qualified electors" are authorised by law to call the meeting.

The following are the provisions of the law on the subject:

"8. In order that there may be accuracy and satisfaction in regard to the School accounts of School Sections, the majority of the freeholders and householders present at the annual school meeting shall appoint a fit and proper person to be Auditor of the School accounts of the section for the then current year, and the Trustees shall, before the first day of December in each year, appoint another Auditor; and the Auditor thus chosen or either of them shall forthwith appoint a time before the day of the next ensuing annual School meeting for examining the accounts of the School Section.

Trustees to submit their School Accounts to the Auditors.

"And it shall be the duty of the Trustees or their Secretary-treasurer on their behalf to lay all their accounts before the Auditors or either of them, together with the agreements, vouchers, &c., in their possession, and to afford to the Auditors or either of them all the information in their power as to their receipts and expenditures of School moneys in behalf of their School Section:

Powers and Duties of School Section Auditors, &c.

"And it shall be the duty of the Auditors to examine into and decide upon the accuracy of the accounts of such section and whether the Trustees have truly accounted for and expended for School purposes the moneys received by them, and to submit the said accounts with a full report thereon at the next annual School meeting; and if the Auditors or either of them object to the lawfulness of any expenditures made by the Trustees, they shall submit the matters in difference* to such meeting, which may either determine the same or submit them to the Chief Superintendent of Education, whose decision shall be final, and the Auditors shall remain in office until their audit is completed. The Auditors or either of them shall have the same authority to call for persons and papers and require evidence on oath and to enforce their decisions as have Arbitrators appointed under the authority of the *eighty-fourth*, *eighty-fifth*, and *eighty-sixth* sections of the said Upper Canada [Consolidated] Common School Act; and it shall be their duty or that of either of them to report the result of their examination of the accounts of the year to the annual School meeting next after their appointment, when the Annual Report of the Trustees shall be presented, and the vacancy or vacancies in the Trustee Corporation be filled up, as provided by the law:

Remedy in case the Trustees fail to call the Meeting for Auditors.

"And if the Trustees omit to call such public meeting by notice issued not later than the *twenty-second* day of *December*, the same may be called by any two qualified Electors;

Remedy in case the Trustees fail to appoint an Auditor.

"And if the Trustees neglect to appoint an Auditor or appoint one who refuses to act, the Local Superintendent shall appoint one for them;

Penalty on Trustees refusing information, &c., to Auditors.

"And if the Trustees, or their Secretary in their behalf, refuse to furnish the Auditors or either of them with the papers or information in their power, and which may be required of them relative to their School accounts, the party refusing shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon prosecution by either of the Auditors, or any rate payer, be punished by fine or imprisonment as provided by the *one hundred and fortieth* section of the said Upper Canada [Consolidated] Common School Act."

ANNUAL SCHOOL MEETINGS.—DUTIES OF CHAIRMEN AND ELECTORS—APPOINTMENT OF SCHOOL AUDITORS. (Extracts from the Consolidated Common School Act, with notes.)

Annual Election on the Second Wednesday in January.

3. The annual meetings for the election of school trustees, as hereinafter provided, shall be held in all the cities, towns, townships and vilages of Upper Canada, on the *second Wednesday in January* [8th.] in each year, commencing at the hour of *ten* of the clock in the forenoon.†

* * * * *

* That is, the lawfulness, and not the expediency of the expenditure. The Trustees are the sole judges of the expediency of any school expenditure on behalf of the section. See page 34.

† The Act of 1860 further enacts, that: 4. The poll at every election of a School Trustee or Trustees shall not close before *eleven* of the clock in the forenoon, and shall not be kept open later than *four* of the clock in the afternoon; In School Sections the poll shall close on the same day the election is commenced.

Chairman and Secretary to be appointed at Meeting.

9. The [resident assessed] freeholders and householders, of such school section then present, shall elect one of their own number to preside over the proceedings of such meeting, and shall also appoint a secretary, who will record all the proceedings of the meeting.

Duties of the Chairman.—His casting Vote.

10. The chairman of such meeting shall decide all questions of order, subject to an appeal to the meeting, and in case of an equality of votes, shall give the casting vote, but he shall have no vote except as chairman.

Mode of recording votes at School Meetings.

11. The chairman shall take the votes in the manner desired by a majority of the electors present, but he shall at the request of any two electors, grant a poll for recording the names of the voters by the secretary.

* * * * *

*Copy of proceedings to be sent to the Local Superintendent.**

14. A correct copy of the proceedings of such first and of every annual and of every special school section meeting, signed by

† The usual form of proceedings at public meetings as compiled from the late Rules of the Legislative Assembly of Canada and from other sources is as follows :

1. The Chairman shall preserve order and decorum, and shall decide questions of order subject to an appeal to the meeting.

2. Every elector, previous to speaking, shall rise and address himself to the chairman.

3. When two or more electors rise at once, the Chairman shall name the elector who shall speak first, and the other or others may appeal to the meeting, if dissatisfied with the Chairman's decision.

4. Each elector may require the question or motion in discussion to be read for his information at any time, but not so as to interrupt an elector who may be speaking.

5. No elector shall speak more than twice on the same question or amendment without leave of the meeting, except in explanation of something which may have been misunderstood, or until every one choosing to speak shall have spoken.

6. The names of those who vote for, and of those who vote against the question shall be entered upon the minutes, if two electors require it.

7. A motion to adjourn shall always be in order; Provided no second motion to the same effect shall be made until after some intermediate proceedings shall have been had.

8. A motion may be debated but cannot be put from the Chair, unless the same be in writing and seconded.

9. After a motion is read by the Chairman it shall be deemed to be in possession of the meeting; but may be withdrawn at any time before decision or amendment, with consent of the meeting.

10. When a question is under debate, no motion shall be received unless to amend it, or to postpone it, or for adjournment.

11. All questions shall be put in the order in which they are moved. Amendments shall all be put in the same order before the main motion.

12. A motion to reconsider a vote may be made by any elector at the same meeting; but no vote of reconsideration shall be taken more than once on the same question at the same meeting.

* A report in the following form should be sent to the local superintendent :

—————, 186—, [— Post Office.]

SIR,—In conformity with the *fourteenth* section of the Upper Canada Consolidated Common School Act, we have the honour to inform you, that at a meeting of the [resident assessed] freeholders and householders of School Section No. —, in the Township of ———, held according to law, on the — day of —, [Here insert the name or names or address of the person

the chairman and secretary, shall be forthwith transmitted by the [chairman] to the local superintendent of schools.*

A School Trustee to be annually elected in each Section.

15. A trustee shall be elected to office at each ensuing annual school meeting, in place of the one whose term of office is about to expire : and the same individual, if willing, may be re-elected; but no school trustee shall be re-elected, except by his own consent, during the four years next after his going out of office.

Mode of Proceeding at Annual Meeting.

16. At every annual school section meeting in any township, as authorized and required to be held by the *third* section of this Act the [resident assessed] freeholders and householders of such section present at such meeting, or a majority of them

Appointment of Chairman and Secretary.

(1) Shall elect a chairman and secretary, who shall perform the duties required of the chairman and secretary, by the *tenth* and *eleventh* sections of this Act [and also by the *nineteenth* section of the School Act of 1860.

Trustees' Financial Report to be submitted.

(2) Shall receive and decide upon the report of the trustees as required by the *twenty-first* clause of the *twenty-seventh* section of this Act.

Annual Election of School Trustees.

(3) Shall elect a [resident assessed] trustee or trustees, to fill up the vacancy or vacancies in the trustee corporation; † and

To decide on manner of supporting the school for the year. ‡

(4) Shall decide upon the manner in which the salaries of the teacher or teachers, and all other expenses connected with the operation of the school or schools, shall be provided for.

or persons elected] — chosen School [Trustee or Trustees] of said Section.

The other business transacted at the meeting, of which due notice was given, was as follows:—[Here insert it.]

We have the honour to be, Sir,

Your obedient servants,

To the Local Superintendent of Schools

D. E. Chairman.

For the County or Township of ———

F. A. Secretary.

NOTE.—The Trustees elected must be resident assessed freeholders or householders in the Section for which they are elected.

The *twenty-fifth* section of this Act authorizes Local Superintendents to investigate School Election complaints within *twenty* days after the Election.

* The School Act of 1860 further enacts that : [19. Any chairman who neglects to transmit to the local superintendent a copy of the proceedings of an annual or other school section meeting over which he may preside, within *ten* days after the holding of such meeting, shall be liable, on the complaint of any rate-payer, to a fine of not more than *five* dollars, to be recovered as provided in the *one hundred and fortieth* section of the Upper Canada [Consolidated] Common School Act aforesaid.

NOTE.—The omission on the part of the chairman to transmit this notice, does not invalidate the proceedings of the meeting itself, but it renders him liable to a fine for neglect of duty.

† See *eighteenth* section of the School Act of 1860, and the *twenty-fourth* section of this Act.

‡ It belongs to the *office of Trustees* to estimate and determine the amount of the teacher's salary and all expenses connected with the school; but it appertains to the majority of the resident assessed freeholders and householders of each School Section, at a public meeting called for the purpose, to decide, as authorized by the *one hundred and twenty-fifth* section of this Act, as to the manner in which such expenses shall be provided for, whether (1) by voluntary subscription; (2) rate bill in advance, of twenty-five cents (or less) per calendar month, on each pupil attending the school; (3) rate on property. But as the Trustees alone, as authorised by the fourth, fifth, sixth, eighth and twelfth clauses of the *twenty-seventh* section, determine the

Auditors' Report to be received.

(5.) The eighth section of the School Act of 1860 also provides that the meeting shall receive the report of the auditors of school section accounts for the previous year, and dispose of the same.

School Section Auditor to be appointed.

(6) Shall appoint an auditor of the school accounts of the section for the current year.

[The seventeenth section has been superseded by the third section of the School Act of 1860, as follows:]

Who are legal Voters at School Meetings.

3. The seventeenth section of the Upper Canada Common School Act, sixty-fourth chapter of the Consolidated Statutes for Upper Canada, shall be amended so as to read as follows:— No person shall be entitled to vote in any School section for the election of Trustee or on any School question whatsoever, unless he shall have been assessed and shall have paid School rates as a freeholder or householder in such section; and in case an objection be made to the right of any person to vote in a School section, the chairman or presiding officer at the meeting shall, at the request of any rate-payer, require the person whose right of voting is objected to, to make the following declaration:

Form of Declaration required from School Electors.

"I do declare and affirm that I have been rated on the assessment roll of this School section as a freeholder (or householder, as the case may be), and that I have paid a public School tax due by me in this School section imposed within the last twelve months, and that I am legally qualified to vote at this meeting."

Penalty for making a false declaration.

Whereupon the person making such declaration shall be permitted to vote on all questions proposed at such meetings; but if any person refuses to make such declaration his vote shall be rejected: And if any person wilfully makes a false declaration of his right to vote, he shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction, upon the complaint of any person, shall be punishable by fine or imprisonment in the manner provided for in the [following eighteenth and the one hundred and fortieth section of the] said Upper Canada [Consolidated] Common School Act.

18. If any person wilfully makes a false declaration of his right to vote, he shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and be punishable by fine or imprisonment, at the discretion of the Court of Quarter Sessions; or by a penalty of not less than five dollars, or more than ten dollars, to be sued for and recovered with costs before a Justice of the Peace, by the trustees of the school section, for its use.

Separate School Supporters not to vote at Common School Meetings.

19. No person subscribing towards the support of a separate school established under the Act respecting separate schools and belonging to the religious persuasion thereof, and sending a child or children thereto, shall be allowed to vote at the election

amount required for the support of the school, which they are required to keep open at least six months of the year, they are authorized by the tenth clause of the same section, to provide the balance, including all deficiencies, by a rate upon the property of the section, should the vote of the annual meeting not cover all the expenses of the school (over and above the cheques for the School Fund) or should the annual meeting omit or refuse to provide a sufficient sum. But for all the money received and expended by them, the Trustees must account annually to the School Section auditors, as prescribed in the eighth section of the School Act of 1860.

of any trustee for a common school in the city, town, village, or township in which such separate school is established.

Place of Annual School Meeting to be appointed by the Trustees.

20. The trustees of each school section shall appoint the place of each annual school meeting* of the freeholders and householders of the section, or of a special meeting for the filling up of any vacancy in the trustee corporation occasioned by death, or other cause, or of a special meeting for the selection of a new school site; and shall cause notices of the time and place to be posted in three or more public places of such section at least six days before the time of holding such meeting, and shall specify in such notices the object of such meeting. They may also call and give like notices of any special meeting, for any other school purpose, which they may think proper; and each such meeting shall be organized, and its proceedings recorded, in the same manner as in the case of a first school meeting.

Penalty on Trustees for not calling certain School Meetings.

21. In case any annual or other school section meeting has not been held for want of the proper notice, each trustee or other person whose duty it was to give such notice, shall forfeit the sum of five dollars, to be sued for and recovered before a Justice of the Peace, by any resident inhabitant in the section for the use thereof.

** Form of Notice for an ordinary Annual School Section Meeting:*

SCHOOL NOTICE.

The undersigned, Trustees of School Section No. — in the Township of —, hereby give notice to the [resident assessed] Freeholders and Household-ers of the said School Section, that the Annual Meetings will be held at —, on the second Wednesday in January, 186—, at 10 o'clock in the forenoon, for the purpose; 1st. Of receiving and deciding upon the Annual Report of the Trustees; 2nd. Of appointing an Auditor of the School Section accounts; 3rd. Of electing a fit and proper person as a School Trustee for the said Section; 4th. Of receiving and disposing of the report of the Auditors of School Section accounts; 5th. Of deciding upon the manner in which the salary of the teacher; and, 6th. How the other expenses of the school shall be provided.

[Should there be any other business to bring before the meeting, it must be distinctly mentioned in the notice, otherwise it cannot be entertained.]

Dated this — day of —, 186—,

A. B. } Trustees of
C. D. } School Section No. —
E. F. }

NOTE.—1. The manner of proceeding at the annual meeting is prescribed in the sixteenth section of this Act.

2. Should the Trustees neglect to give the prescribed notice of the Annual School Section Meeting, until it is too late to give six days' notice, they forfeit each the sum of five dollars, recoverable for the purpose of the School Section, under the authority of the twenty-first section, and then any two qualified electors of the School Section are authorized, within twenty days to call such meeting. The form of notice is appended in note * to the twenty-second section.

3. The foregoing notice should be signed by a majority of the existing or surviving trustees, and posted in at least three public places of the School Section, at least six days before the time of holding the meeting.

4. The object or objects of each school meeting should be invariably stated in the notices calling it; and the notices calling any school meeting should, in all cases, be put up six days before holding such meeting. One form is sufficient for calling a special school meeting of any kind.

5. The second clause of the twenty-fifth section of this Act, page 26, authorizes Local Superintendents to call special school meetings, under certain circumstances. The twenty-sixth section also authorizes certain other persons to call special meetings, in case of the death of all the trustees, &c.

Meetings to be called in default of first or Annual Meetings.

22. In case, from the want of proper notice, any first* or annual school section meeting, required to be held for the election of trustees was not held at the proper period, any two freeholders or householders in such section may, within twenty days after the time at which such meeting should have been held, call a meeting by giving six days' notice, to be posted in at least three public places in such school section; and the meeting thus called shall possess all the powers and perform all the duties of the meeting in the place of which it is called.

Penalty for refusing to serve as Trustee.

23. If any person chosen as trustee refuses to act, he shall forfeit the sum of five dollars; † and every person so chosen who has not refused to accept the office, and who at any time refuses or neglects to perform its duties, § shall forfeit the sum of

* The form of Notice in this case should be as follows :

SCHOOL NOTICE.

The Municipal Council of this township, having formed a part of the Township into a School Section, and designated it "School Section No. —," its boundaries and limits are as follows:—[Here insert description.] And the person appointed to call the first School Section Meeting having neglected to do so.—We the undersigned qualified electors of the School Section above described, in conformity with the twenty-second section of the Upper Canada Consolidated Common School Act, hereby give notice to the [resident assessed] freeholders and householders of said School Section, that a public meeting will be held at —, on — day, the — of —, at the hour of 10 o'clock in the forenoon, for the purpose of electing three fit and proper persons from among the [resident assessed] freeholders and householders as School Trustees for the said Section.

Dated this — day of — 186—. A. B. } Qualified Electors.
C. D. } School Section No. —

NOTE.—The same notice can be given, in case the Municipal Council neglects to appoint a person to call the first annual school meeting. Care should, however, be taken to insert the description of the section, as embodied in the resolution or by-law of the Municipal Council—a certified copy of which should be obtained from the Township Clerk for this purpose. A local Superintendent may also call this meeting in case of any neglect or omission to do so. See page 26.

† Form of Notice of an Annual School Section Meeting to be given by two qualified electors.

SCHOOL NOTICE.

The Trustees of School Section No. —, in the Township of —, having neglected to give notice of the Annual School Section Meeting, as prescribed by the twentieth section of the Upper Canada Consolidated Common School Act, the undersigned hereby give notice to the freeholders and householders of the said School Section, that a public meeting will be held at —, on — day, the — day of —, at ten o'clock in the forenoon, for the purpose of electing a fit and proper person as trustee, as directed by law.

Dated this — day of —, 186—. A. B. } Qualified Electors
C. D. } School Section No. —

NOTE.—The mode of proceeding at a School Meeting thus called, is prescribed in this Act. This meeting may also be called by the local Superintendent. See second clause of the twenty-fifth section of this Act.

‡ The School Act of 1860 further enacts:

11. No person shall be eligible to be elected or to serve as school trustee, who is not a resident assessed freeholder or householder in the school section for which he is elected.

§ The School Act of 1860 further enacts:

18. Every person elected as trustee, and who is eligible and liable to serve as such, shall make the following declaration of office before the Chairman to the School meeting:

"I will truly and faithfully, to the best of my judgment and ability, discharge the duties of the office of School Trustee, to which I have been elected."

Fine for default, or in case of neglect to make declaration:

And if any person elected as trustee shall not make such a declaration within two weeks after notice of his election, his neglect to do so shall be sufficient evidence of his refusing to serve, and of his inability to pay the

twenty dollars, to be sued for and recovered before a Justice of the Peace, by the trustees of the school section for its use, as authorized by the one hundred and fortieth section of this Act.

Trustee may resign—Absence a forfeiture of office.

24. Any person chosen as trustee may resign with the consent, expressed in writing, of his colleagues in office and of the local superintendent.

The School Act of 1860 further enacts that—11. * * * a continuous non-residence of six months from his school section by any Trustee, shall cause the vacation of his office.

Mode of proceeding in contested Elections in School Sections.

25. Each Local Superintendent of Schools—

(1) Shall, within twenty days after any meeting for the election of common school section trustees within the limits of his charge, receive and investigate any complaint respecting the mode of conducting the election,* and according to the best of his judgment confirm it or set it aside, and appoint the time and place for a new election; and may—

(2) In his discretion, at any time for any lawful purpose, appoint the time and place for a special school section meeting.

VI. Papers on Practical Education.

1. LESSONS ON OBJECTS.

So many examples of object-lessons have been given in the second volume of "Papers for the Teacher"—a work that ought to be in the hands of every educator, that I need not devote much time to that subject here; but I may make some suggestions towards it in passing. Special lessons on qualities, particularly form, colour, &c., should be given at an early period. I think it is a common error to select objects too complex, or not within the reach of the child's observation. I would first familiarise the child with the habit of describing such simple things as he knows all about from his own observation. Let us for example take a common clay brick. After several lessons on its form, color, weight, and all its sensible qualities, such as can be observed in the school-room, let the class be taken to a brick wall in process of building, and there made to observe the use and manner of laying bricks. At another time let them go to the brick-yard, and trace the material from the bed of clay through the various processes of manufacture to the finished brick; and either on the spot, or in the school-room, each pupil should be made to tell correctly and carefully all he had seen and learned.

LESSON ON A TABLE.

At another time, suppose a common plain black-walnut school table is the object of study. The qualities of the table, the structure, or mode of combination of its parts, its uses, the materials of which it is composed, compared with other kinds of wood, specimens of which should be collected by the pupils and preserved for future lessons in the natural history of the tree, are subjects which will require many lessons continued through many days. In pursuing still further the study of a table, let the teacher on a pleasant day take his school or class into the forest, to find the tree from whose wood a black-walnut table is manufactured. When the tree is found, she may proceed to ask questions, calling attention to the size, form and colour of the trunk, the surface, marking and texture of the bark, and, tearing that off, of the underlying wood, the arrangements, direction, size, ramification, &c., of the branches, the form, surface and venation of the leaf, and all the numerous characteristics in their season of the bud, flower and fruit. These

* See list of Professional Books for Teachers, in the Journal for August.

fine, as provided for in the [preceding] twenty-third section of the said Upper Canada [Consolidated] Common School Act.

The School Act of 1860 further enacts that

13. It shall be the duty of a local superintendent of schools to receive, investigate, and decide upon any complaints which may be made in regard to the election of school trustees, or in regard to any proceedings at school meetings; Provided always, that no complaint in regard to any election or proceeding at a school meeting shall be entertained, unless made in writing within twenty days after the holding of such election or meeting.

observations must be made at several different times, as the tree changes in its foliage and its organs of fructification. Let the pupils also see a tree felled. Some of them may perhaps be able to tell why it falls in a certain direction. Let them count the rings formed by the annual suspension of growth, but let their curiosity to know the cause of these rings be kept in suspense till the opportunity is afforded of shewing by a series of experiments how a tree grows. Let them visit a saw-mill and a joiner's or cabinet maker's shop, and the whole process of making lumber and working it up be traced from the log to finished table. But let special care be taken not to crowd too many things before the child's mind in one day; and let him tell frequently what he has learned before he forgets it. The same lessons should be talked about and repeated with such variations, improvements and additions as seem desirable, till the pupil has become quite familiar with the object of study, and can, unaided even by a question, go through with a full and correct account of it.

LESSON ON A BRICK.

Suppose a brick is the object taken up: tiles would naturally be suggested as belonging to the same group, then stone and earthenware, mortars, some paints, &c., which would form different groups of a family of earths. Some articles of iron may then be studied, always in the same slow, careful, detailed, thorough manner, as a nail, a bolt, a horse-shoe, a flat-iron, a fire shovel, a stove. Again, articles of brass, of tin, of lead, may be noticed and grouped, each kind of metal by itself, but all being combined into a larger group of manufactured metallic objects; and belonging, with the earths, to a still more comprehensive class, the mineral kingdom.

A plain school-room table might for some time occupy the pupil's attention. He may then be desired to observe the differences and resemblances between this and those he sees at home. Then a chair might be studied, a desk and seat, a book-case, &c. The pupil may then point out the characteristics common to all these; as their being of wood, being articles of furniture, being made by a joiner. Each pupil may be desired to tell what articles at home belong to the same group, and to describe them.

LESSON ON TEXTILE FABRICS, TOOLS, &c.

Textiles may at another time be taken up, and after studying cotton, linen and hemp fabrics in all their variety of forms, and showing their relationship and vegetable origin, the child will see that they are another group under the class of vegetable manufactured objects. Wool, in its various manufactured forms, will be seen to have some resemblance to the last group, but to differ from it in the important fact that it is of animal origin, and belongs, on that account, rather to the family of objects manufactured of leather, hair, horn, feathers, &c., and to the same class as another group comprising milk, butter, cheese, certain oils, &c.

Classification may also be made without reference to material, but with reference to the uses of objects: as tools for the different trades; articles of dress; articles of food, &c. Perhaps still other methods of classification may be devised, according to the fancy of the teacher or of the pupils. After thus synthetically building up classes of objects, they should be analytically represented on the board pictorially; and also on a table or the floor with the real objects. If not convenient to present objects for study in a scientifically systematic order, care should be taken at least in these pictorial and real arrangements, to direct attention to the qualities and circumstances most important in forming groups and classes. The pupil will, with very little aid from the teacher, see the difficulty of arranging objects with reference to unessential qualities, and thus of himself infer the necessity of distinguishing between these and essential qualities.

LESSONS IN DRAWING, MOULDING, &c.

In connection with these lessons, and forming an essential part of the plan, the pupil should be taught to draw. Instruction in this art should be given along with his earliest lessons in objects. He will not perhaps be able to draw all the objects he studies; but the teacher, so far as he can do so consistently with thoroughness, should require him to draw outlines of all the simple forms he studies. The letters, figures and geometrical forms must of course be drawn as they are learned.

An exercise in moulding forms in clay, wax, snow or other plastic substance, may be adopted to give skill to the hands and to assist in fixing more definitely in the mind a precise idea of the forms of cubes, prisms, spheres, and all mathematical solids, which, as well as other simple forms may be moulded in clay, and then drawn upon the slate or board.

LESSONS ON MECHANISM, SKILL, &c.

Some discipline too may be given to mechanical and constructive skill, by a proper direction of their choice of plays and games, and by furnishing the pupils with small wooden blocks shaped like bricks or like the courses of an arch; also small beams, boards,

window and door frames of corresponding dimensions, that they may exercise themselves in building walls and arches for miniature houses, bridges and other structures. Every one has observed how fond little children are of building playhouses, even of such rude materials as brickbats, bits of boards and earthenware, brush and leaves. A little attention on the part of the skillful teacher will develop in these plays a much neglected, though most useful faculty.

LESSONS ON NATURAL HISTORY.

Along with common object lessons and natural history, and accessory in part to them, but still previous to the introduction of letters, there may be taught something of arithmetic and geography, some few of the more obvious facts of natural philosophy, chemistry and astronomy. But an *observed* knowledge of facts in abundance, should precede any attempts at theorizing.

An important element in this course of primary education, is a cabinet of natural history, and of various objects of art. This cabinet need not be an expensive one, for the teacher, aided by the pupils, who will be found to engage in making collections with a success and enthusiasm quite astonishing to one who has never observed it,—may gradually gather together a valuable cabinet of specimens illustrating each of the three kingdoms of nature. These collections may embrace an herbarium of dried plants, specimens of different kinds of wood and bark, nuts and other imperishable fruits and seeds, from the vegetable kingdom; stuffed birds and quadrupeds, insects, shells, horns, skeletons, feathers, &c., from the animal kingdom; the ores, fossils and specimens of different rocks of the neighbourhood, from the mineral kingdom; models of colors and of mathematical forms, and of such objects of manufacture as time, space and the means and wants of the school from time to time seem to demand. The variety of natural objects in the cabinet may be increased to an indefinite extent by collecting duplicates and exchanging with other districts whose natural productions are different. The arranging of this cabinet or parts of it, after the manner before suggested, will be from time to time not only a discipline of the perceptions, but a most useful lesson in classification.

LESSONS ON GEOGRAPHY.

The study of geography, instead of beginning as is usual, with the whole world—which even mature scholars cannot fully comprehend—should begin, just after a shower, with the rills and miniature lakes, bays, capes, islands, &c., found in the nearest field. The rills should be traced to the nearest stream, and the whole valley of the latter studied, from its source in some spring to its junction with a larger stream, and as far as the range of the child's observation extends. The child should be made to observe, in its incipiency, the washing of earth, which, so insignificant within the range of a limited observation, produces in the aggregate such mighty effects in the structure of the earth's surface. The study of geography should proceed no faster than the pupil can draw the maps illustrating the subject. These may begin with the school-room, a plan of which, showing the arrangements of the furniture, may be the first lesson. They may then extend to the whole house and school grounds, the street and adjacent lots, and so on embracing by a gradual extension, the whole neighbourhood, which should be walked over many times, the distances measured by counting the steps, and notes taken of the fields or lots, streets or roads, hills, hollows, springs, streams and their rainy-day branches, mines, cliffs, houses, and whatever of interest may exist in the district. This thoroughly understood, the geography of books may be studied with much greater success.

LESSONS ON PHYSIOLOGY.

I need not speak of physical education generally. Its wants are pretty well understood, though I regret to say, very little attended to. But I would call attention to one branch of the subject. The cultivation of the vocal powers. How many persons suffer through life for want of power to speak to be heard across a street. How many are deficient in the physical ability to produce those musical sounds that go so far towards making our enjoyment of life. How many indeed go down to an early grave, the victims of pulmonary complaints, brought on by neglecting to give early and efficient training to the lungs and vocal organs. The child should be taught to keep his lungs expanded; to exercise his voice by gradual but not too great exertion in producing sounds soft or strong, grave or acute, harsh or mellow, from the depths of his chest or from the top of his throat; and to exercise that firm and nice control of it so indispensable to good singing. Words alone are insufficient to describe the process necessary. The teacher must instruct by example. I fear very few teachers are qualified to instruct in this art as it should be taught; but they should make it their study as much as they would mathematics. It would be well perhaps for every large town to employ a special teacher for elocution and music, including of course the proper physical training of the vocal powers, and a clear articulation of the elementary sounds. But every primary school teacher should do what she can; and there is no

doubt that with some study and practice on her own part, she can give the children such a training in vocal gymnastics, as greatly to improve the quality and distinctness and enlarge the powers of the voice, and at the same time improve and invigorate the health.

It is evident from this view of the character of a primary school, that the teacher must not be a person of inferior talent or education. She may not need great learning, as that term is usually understood, but she does want a *kind* of cultivation. She should be far better versed in natural history and the kindred sciences than a majority of even the higher grade of teachers now are. She should possess correct habits of speech, skill in drawing and music, a talent for training the faculties of observation, comparison and generalization, and above all, that tact, so rare, of interesting children and encouraging them in the practice, and cultivating in them the growth of the social virtues and affections—that go so far toward promoting a healthy condition of society.

With such discipline as these exercises indicate, the pupil learns to bring into use, on all occasions, the resources of his own mind. He is less a slave to books and to the dicta of others. He becomes more self-reliant, and thus is better fitted to pursue a knowledge of truth untrammelled by a blind veneration for what he cannot understand. This course of discipline continued to the age of eight years, will be of more value to the child than much longer time spent in the usual routine of school studies. It will fit him to go forward in the more literary processes of book instruction with vastly increased speed and power, and stamp a decidedly marked superiority upon the character of his whole life.—*Wisconsin Jour. Education.*

VII. Miscellaneous.

1. INDIAN SUMMER.

BY EMLINE B. SMITH.

Just after the death of the flowers,
And before they are buried in snow,
There comes a festival season,
When nature is all aglow—
Aglow with a mystical splendour
That rivals the brightness of spring,
Aglow with a beauty more tender
Than aught which fair summer could bring.

Some spirit akin to the rainbow
Then borrows its magical dyes,
And mantles the far-spreading landscape
In hues that bewilder the eyes:
The sun, from his cloud-pillowed chamber,
Smiles soft on a vision so gay,
And dreams that his favourite children,
The flowers, have not yet passed away.

There's luminous mist on the mountains,
A light azure haze in the air,
As if angels, whilst heavenward soaring,
Had left their bright robes floating there.
The breeze is so soft, so caressing,
It seems a mute token of love;
And floats to the ear like a blessing
From some happy spirit above.

These days, so serene and so charming,
Awaken a dreamy delight—
A tremulous, tearful enjoyment,
Like soft strains of music at night.
We know they are fading and and fleeting,
That quickly—too quickly, they'll end,
And we watch them with yearning affection
As at parting we watch a dear friend.

Oh! beautiful Indian Summer!
Thou favourite child of the year—
Thou darling whom nature enriches
With gifts and adornment so dear!
How fain would we woo thee to linger
On mountain and meadow awhile,
For our hearts, like the sweet haunts of nature,
Rejoice and grow in thy smile.

Not alone to the sad fields of autumn
Dost thou a lost brightness restore,
But thou bringest a world-weary spirit,
Sweet dreams of its childhood once more!
Thy loveliness thrills us with memories
Of all that was brightest and best;
Thy peace and serenity offer
A foretaste of heavenly rest.

2. THE QUEEN AS "LADY OF THE MANOR."

The Queen of England may be seen galloping on a Highland pony along the banks of the Dee, scarcely noticed by the peasantry on her estates. Every Highlander believes himself to be born a gentleman. In his conduct in the presence of royalty he fully justifies his pretensions. Instead of standing and staring in the exercise of a vulgar curiosity as the Queen rides past, he uncovers his head and barely looks at the royal lady, or looks as if he looked not. Those neat white cottages that cluster round the royal property have been built by the Queen. That beautiful school-house has the same royal origin. That lady you may see any day paying a visit to the former, and hearing an examination in the latter, is the Queen of England. The exquisite lichens of endless variety that cover the birches and granite rocks are as expressive and eloquent proofs of the wisdom and presence of the Deity, as the pines and birches that have waived in the hurricanes of a hundred years. Even so these little acts of personal sympathy on the part of the Queen are richer evidences of her worth than the more imposing acts which history records, for in these the woman shines through the Queen, and the Christian glorifies both.—*From "The Queen in Scotland" in the London Review.*

VIII. Short Critical Notices of Books.

— OLIVER CROMWELL; New York. A. D. F. Randolph.—This sketch of this remarkable man's life is edited by the Rev. Francis L. Hawks, D.D., LL.D., of New York, and is one of a series of "Biographies of the Heroes of History." The work does not profess to be anything more than a brief sketch of the life of the Lord High Protector, during his eventful career. It is illustrated with several good wood engravings.

— ALCOHOL AND TOBACCO; Philadelphia. Lindsay and Blakiston.—This is a most valuable book on two of the most potent destroyers of mankind. It was specially written for the popular reader, and is therefore happily divested of many of those technicalities of expression which are so uninteresting to the general reader. The essay on Alcohol was written by Professor Miller, at the request of the Directors of the Scottish Temperance League, and was published by them. The other essay was written by the eminent Dr. Lizars, Professor of Surgery in Edinburgh, and had passed through eight editions there in 1859. This two-fold book cannot fail to have a very decided influence in arresting the baneful practices of drinking alcoholic liquors, and of smoking, chewing, and snuffing tobacco.

— ROUGHING IT WITH ALICK BAILLIE, PAROCHIAL SCHOOLMASTER, NORTH BRITAIN AND ELSEWHERE. By Wm. J. Stewart. New York: R. Carter and Brothers. As "Ernest Bracebridge" gives a graphic account of life in an English school, so does this book give an equally graphic account of life in a Scotch school, but of a lower grade. The plot of the story reminds the reader of some of Dickens' tales, but the details and incidents are, of course, less artistic. The character of Richard Baybee, thought doubtless the representative type of a class, is a sad blot upon the book, which, however, that of his brother, the kind and pensive William Baybee, relieves.

— FARADAY'S CHEMICAL HISTORY OF A CANDLE. New York: Harper and Brothers. This book is a reprint of a course of Six Lectures on the Chemical History of a Candle, to which is added a Lecture on Platinum, by Prof. Faraday, delivered before a juvenile auditory at the Royal Institution of Great Britain during the Christmas holidays of 1860-1. In this juvenile auditory were some of the Queen's children, which fact gave additional éclat to the lectures, and probably led to their publication. They are nevertheless admirable in their style, arrangement, and matter; and although the title is so modest, their illustrations are by no means confined to the homely phenomenon of a Burning Candle. The subjects of heat, light, hydrogen, oxygen, water, air, acid, car-

bon, charcoal and gas, are introduced and explained in the lecture on a candle. In like manner, the lecture on that "beautiful, magnificent and valuable metal" platinum, embraces illustrations of the welding, ignition, fusion and volatility of various kinds of metals. In these lectures Prof. Faraday has succeeded admirably in popularising what to the unscientific mind is often both dry and uninteresting.

IX. Educational Intelligence.

CANADA.

— UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, TORONTO.—The annual convocation of University College was held October 15th, in the Convocation Hall, a very large number of ladies and gentlemen being present. The first business was the admission of matriculants. The recitations of prize compositions followed. Mr. A. M. Lafferty, third year, Greek verse prizeman came forward amid loud applause to read his composition. The subject was—Massinger, "The Bondman," act I., scene 3, from "It is your seal" to "Do not repent." The Latin and English verse prizemen—Mr. N. McNish, second year, and Mr. S. Woods, third year—were equally warmly applauded. The prizes and certificates of honor were then announced as follows:

ARTS.—*Greek and Latin.*—S. Woods, prizeman, J. Loudon, W. G. Crawford, G. Cooper; N. McNish, prizeman, J. M. Gibson, A. M. Lafferty; J. W. Connor, prizeman, W. H. Vandersmissen, T. J. Robertson, W. N. Keefer, J. S. Small, H. E. Buchan. *Composition in Greek Verse.*—A. M. Lafferty, prizeman. *Composition in Latin Verse.*—N. McNish, prizeman. *Logic.*—N. McNish, prizeman, T. D. Craig. *Metaphysics and Ethics.*—G. Grant, prizeman, A. Grant; J. M. Gibson, prizeman; N. McNish, prizeman; J. McMillan, prizeman. *Chemistry.*—A. Grant, prizeman; W. Tyler, prizeman, W. M. Roger, R. A. Reeve, W. H. Withrow; R. Harbottle, prizeman, S. F. Ramsey; J. B. Thomson, prizeman, E. F. Snider, J. McMillan. *Mathematics and Natural Philosophy.*—J. H. Thom, prizeman, D. Ormiston; J. Loudon, prizeman, J. A. McLellan, J. Fisher; T. Kirkland, prizeman, A. M. Lafferty, T. W. Wright; T. J. Robertson and J. S. Wilson, prizemen, J. Rutledge, F. E. Seymour, E. F. Snider. *History.*—J. M. Gibson, prizeman, J. M. Buchan, S. Woods. *English.*—D. Ormiston, prizeman, J. Turnbull. *History and English.*—W. D. Ballantyne, prizeman, J. McMillan. *Composition in English Verse.*—S. Woods, prizeman. *Natural History.*—W. Tyler, prizeman, W. M. Roger; E. F. Snider, prizeman. *Mineralogy and Geology.*—A. Grant, prizeman; W. B. McMurrich and T. W. Wright, prizemen, R. Harbottle, T. Kirkland. *Modern Languages.*—J. Turnbull, prizeman; J. M. Gibson, prizeman, J. M. Buchan; W. Oldright, prizeman, W. Mulock; J. Wilson, prizeman. *Oriental Languages.*—G. Grant, prizeman; J. Hubbert, prizeman; J. M. Gibson, prizeman; F. Patton, prizeman, J. Harley, A. K. Baird.

AGRICULTURE.—G. Peck, prizeman; J. B. Thompson, prizeman, D. Schöfield. Special Prizes, established by the College Council, and awarded by the College Literary and Scientific Society. *Public Speaking.*—J. M. Gibson, prizeman. *English Essay.*—W. A. Reeve, prizeman.

The prizes were awarded to the students by the Professors of the respective departments, all of whom highly complimented the successful competitors upon their industry and application to the various subjects in which they had shown themselves so successful. The prizes consisted of handsome and valuable books from the establishment of Mr. H. Rowsell, King Street, printer to the University. After their distribution the President closed the Convocation with an address of some length, in which he displayed his usual eloquence and spirit. He said that on such occasions as the present it was customary to close the proceedings by some brief statement explanatory of the present condition and future prospects of the institution of University College. Conformably to this usage, he proposed to direct the attention of his audience for a few minutes to some of the leading features connected with the topics he had just mentioned. This institution of University College, Toronto, was of very recent origin. It traced back no farther than the year 1827, when by an act of the Legislature the then existing University of Toronto was divided into two branches, two institutions—one retaining the name of the University of Toronto, and the other called the University College, Toronto. They both had their homes in the same building, but they were very distinct and differed materially in their functions. The functions of the University were to prescribe subjects of examination, to appoint examiners, to confer

degrees, scholarships and prizes; of the College, to teach those subjects to the students. In the University, the knowledge was tested; in the College, the knowledge was acquired. In a word, the main duty of one was to examine, of the other to instruct. In the year 1853, as he had said, the act was passed to erect University College. In comparing its condition then with the present condition there were three leading features to be referred to—the staff of teachers, the subjects to be taught, and the number of students. The year 1853-4 was a year of transition. He would not therefore refer particularly to it, but pass on to the next. First, with regard to the staff, comparing that year with this, there were no changes. All the professors remained the same, with this exception, that a professorship of meteorology was conferred upon Prof. Kingston, Director of the Observatory, and a Classical Tutorship upon Dr. Wickson. With regard to the subjects of instruction changes had been made since that time. Those changes had been made by the University, and accepted by the College, inasmuch as in the Provincial statute provision was made that the College should adopt the law of the University so far as the subjects of examination were concerned. It might be proper to state, however, that the general features of these subjects were the same—embracing classical literature, metaphysics and the laws of natural and revealed religion, history, languages and so on. But the greatest and most important change made since 1853-4 was in the number of students. The Registrar (Dr. Wickson) had prepared for him a statement of the number of students from the commencement, and with their permission he (the President) would read it, as perhaps the best way of showing what had been done in the College. He found that in the year 1853-4 the total number of students was 110; 1855-6, 145; 1856-7, 126; 1857-8, 192; 1858-9, 168; 1859-60, 188; and 1860-61, 225. (Applause.) Satisfactory as these statistics appeared, they would prove even more so if analysed. In these totals were included both matriculants and occasional students. Now, one of the characteristics of this institution, derived from the newer academic institutions at home, was that they admitted those unable to pass the matriculation examination to attend such lectures as they might think would prove advantageous to them in their path through life. This was a benefit both to them and to the institution; but he need scarcely say that its main strength arose from the number of matriculants, those who took up all the subjects prescribed, those who went forward for degrees, and those to whom the College looked, when they advanced their position in life, as affording the best practical evidence of the sound and substantial instruction received in the institution. (Applause.) He found that in these last University College had steadily increased from 28 in 1854-5, 35 in 1855-6, 37 in 1856-7, 56 in 1857-8, 63 in 1858-9, 80 in 1859-60, to 129 in 1860-61. (Renewed Applause.) So far he had merely spoken of the past, but it might be inquired what was the condition of the institution at the present moment? They had just commenced a new academic year; the returns he had read were made up to the end of last year, and did not embrace the beginning of the present. On referring to the register he found that they had of matriculated students at the present time no less than 127. (Applause.) These statistics, he thought, justified him, or any one, in stating that this institution had been steadily advancing and moving forward. He thought the inference that might be drawn from the facts he had given was, first of all, that throughout the country there was a growing appreciation of the benefits of collegiate education. The knowledge was rapidly spreading throughout the land that there were benefits to be derived from this source which the people were not before aware of. They began to perceive now that a grammar school education, however excellent in itself, was not to be the end, and that when they left those schools they were then qualified to commence their studies in this institution. It was not to be wondered at that this knowledge had been so long in spreading in this country, that the people heretofore should have been so little interested in this University—more especially when it was remembered that the people of Canada could point to some of its sons who occupied and adorned the highest walks in life, who had not had the advantage of an academic education—men who discharged their high duties with honour to themselves and benefit to the country to which they belonged. But it should never be forgotten that of those men there was not one who did not regret that he had not had the opportunity of an academic career, the best proof of which was to be found in the fact that they invariably sent their sons to the University. Another inference which he thought might fairly and legitimately be drawn from the figures he had presented, and an inference that any one might draw, was that this institution was growing in the confidence of the people of Canada, that they

believe it was a valuable and beneficial institution, and shewed it by the number of students sent to it, that they appreciated the exertions made in it for the diffusion of academic education, and believed that the duty of its professors was faithfully and efficiently performed. On other occasions he had said—and he had no reason to believe differently now—that number was not a true criterion of the education imparted, but it was of the confidence of the public. But many perhaps would be disposed on looking at the facts to say—"You have done well, but this is nothing to what ought to have been done in a Provincial Institution, as this was destined to be by the Legislature, with a liberal endowment for the purposes of education." The answers to these were obvious. First of all, there was an absence of means. In this country, not as at home, there were many respectably off, others comfortably off, and a few very well off, but affluence was not general, and only a few could afford to send their sons to the University and maintain them there for the greater period of the year. And during the past few years this fact had been felt most sensibly, and felt with regard to the numbers sent there as well as in other respects. He need scarcely say that a few years since men's eyes were dazzled with speculative schemes of every kind which had led to distress and difficulty, from the effects of which they had hardly yet recovered. Another reason for the number being so small was the want of adequate preparation on the part of those who presented themselves for matriculation. There was a want in Canada of a sufficient number of qualified teachers and instructors, which fact might be shewn in the result of last year's examination. More than one hundred candidates for matriculation presented themselves, but from an inefficient training one-fifth of them were rejected. Another reason too for a deficiency of numbers was that there were other institutions of the same character in the country. There was Trinity College, a Church of England educational institution; Victoria College, a Methodist; and Queen's College, a Presbyterian; all of which took some students who would otherwise have attended this. They of course shared in the benefits arising from the wide spreading feeling in favor of education. Another reason besides these was to be found in the want of information in the country with regard to this institution. There was no doubt whatever that there was that want of information. Some were not acquainted with the opportunities it afforded to all alike. And there were others who thought that the only object of the College was to educate men for the learned professions. To these he would say that they had no special training for either law or medicine, but that they laid the foundation for both, and gave instruction in those subjects which became not merely the members of these professions but also the merchant and the farmer. In other words, they taught those things which it was essential that a gentleman should know. But, it might be asked, when he stated fairly the difficulties that at present embarrassed and the circumstances that diminished the number of their students, what were the prospects of the future? Most unquestionably he believed them to be good. He believed the difficulty presented by the want of means was being gradually removed. Through the bounty of the giver of all good our hills have been crowned with plenty and our valleys made to smile with rich harvests, the granaries are filled, and the farmers' hearts rejoiced and made glad. The result of such a state of things must be to place the country, and hence this institution, in a better condition. As to the want of proper teachers to discharge the duties of instructors to the youth of the land, every year that want was being diminished by the graduates sent forth from this University; and he had no doubt that with the improvements made by the Board of Public Instruction, the grammar schools would be made highly beneficial. As to the want of information, the very discussions now going on with regard to the University would be productive of good. Now, under such circumstances, believing that these difficulties he had mentioned would speedily be removed, he entertained the sanguine hope that the institution was yet destined to prosper, even in a much greater degree than had hitherto been the case. If compared with the ancient institutions of the mother country, unquestionably the infant Provincial institution presented many great differences; and it presented many points of inferiority when brought into comparison with institutions invested with the majesty of almost immemorial antiquity. With them generation after generation have enriched them by the gratitude of those who remembered what their *alma mater* had done for them. With this, but seven years had passed, and of those on whom it depended for shewing the benefit of its instruction, but few had advanced to that position in life which doubtless they were destined to attain. They were not able yet to manifest in a substantial form their gratitude, but he knew it was their earnest and dearest

desire to benefit to the extent of their power this institution. (Applause.) For his part as year after year he saw men leaving the establishment and going forth into active life to fill those positions to which it might please Providence to call them, he could not but entertain the hope, the sanguine hope, that the time would yet arise—it might not be in his time nor in that of his colleagues—for perhaps the trees of the forest might sigh over the grassy mounds that covered their bones; but still he hoped that the time would come when some son of Canada who pointed to this as his *alma mater* would present to the world an "Athenian Canadensis" in which he might record the names of those who had come here from a distant land to advance this institution and who had discharged their duties with faithfulness and efficiency, serving God, honouring the Queen, and benefitting their country. The President resumed his seat amid loud and general applause.

Three cheers having been given by the students for the Queen, three for the Professors and three for the ladies, the audience separated.

—**BARRIE GRAMMAR SCHOOL.**—We learn from the *Barrie Advance* that William Irwin, Esq., M.A., Oxford University, England, has succeeded the Rev. Mr. Checkley as Principal of the Grammar School.

—**PRIZE FOR ENGLISH IN LOWER CANADA SCHOOLS.**—The Rev. Henry Hope, LL.B., better known under the name of the *Old Countryman*, recently announced his intention of giving a prize of \$20 to the best scholar in the French language at the examination of 1863 in the Upper Canada College. The reverend gentleman has also intimated to the Hon. P. J. O. Chauveau his intention of giving an equal sum, in 1863, to the best scholar in the English language, in any Lower Canadian School to be chosen by Mr. Chauveau—the competitors to be of French Canadian parentage, and not more than fourteen years of age on their last birth day.—*Quebec Chronicle.*

BRITISH AND COLONIAL.

—**COST OF THE ENGLISH EDUCATION COMMISSION.**—A parliamentary return just issued shows the total cost of the Education Commission from its appointment on the 30th of June, 1858, to the conclusion of the inquiry on the 30th of June, 1861. For salaries of the establishment, the sum of £3,383 13s. 11d. was paid; for inquiry by the twelve assistant commissioners, £7,456 8s.; for statistical returns, shorthand writers' notes, stationer for copying and books, inquiry into educational endowments, travelling and hotel expenses of the commissioners, and office expenses, £1,850—in all £12,689 16s. 11d. This return is exclusive of the expenses incurred in printing and stationery. The account has been made up to the 5th July. There was a balance of cash of £145 4s. 3d. in the hands of the commissioners, which, it was stated, would be quite sufficient to cover any expense to the close of the commission on the 30th July.

—**EXPENSE OF THE INSPECTION OF THE ENGLISH SCHOOLS.**—On the 31st March last, there were employed under the Committee of Privy Council on Education thirty-six inspectors and twenty-five assistant inspectors of schools, at a total cost of £43,565 9s. 1d. Of the inspectors seventeen, and of the assistant inspectors twenty were clergymen of the Established Church. The salary, personal allowance, and travelling expenses of each inspector range from £765 to £1,017; and of the assistant inspectors, from £586 to £678 yearly.

—**CITY OF LONDON COLLEGE.**—A movement is on foot in London to systematize the education of the young engaged in business, and to afford them a place and means of instruction. The plan involves the re-constitution of evening schools on a collegiate basis. At a public meeting over which the Lord Mayor presided, it was stated that more than six thousand young men had been instructed in the evening classes for French and other continental languages in the schools started under the auspices of the Bishop of London. Only £2,500 were desired to put the college on a self-supporting basis.—Speeches were made by several distinguished gentlemen, among others the Bishop of London, who moved a series of resolutions. The Bishop expressed the highest confidence in the eagerness of the clerks of the City to attend the classes, and their ability to sustain and manage schools for their own benefit. He also recommended the work to the clergy of his diocese. Mr. Henry Cole proposed to raise double the sum named above. Subscriptions made already amounted to £1,040.

—**MIDDLE CLASS EXAMINATIONS IN IRELAND.**—Following the example of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, in this country, local examinations were held in Ireland by the authorities of Queen's University in

Ireland, on the 11th of June last. The Division lists are now printed, and they suggest the inference, either that the standard was high, or that most of the candidates over-estimated their own attainments. They also show the strong tendency which has often been noticed to overlook certain elementary subjects with which all educated persons ought to be familiar. There were 87 candidates entered, but, owing to illness, withdrawals, and other causes, only 72 underwent examination—45 seniors and 27 juniors. Of these 23 passed, or less than one third, nearly all of them answering satisfactorily on their special subjects of study, but failing in the preliminary examination. Of the senior candidates, 18 passed, or two in five, and of the junior five, or between a fifth and a sixth. Of those who succeeded, the Province of Leinster furnished 11, Ulster 7, Connaught 3, and Munster 1; the remaining one was a lad from Durham in England, who had been at school near Dublin. The following analysis of the failures show the subjects which the 49 unsuccessful candidates ought to have known better and exhibits also the degree of attention paid to them respectively. In analysis and parsing of English, 39 failed; in writing from dictation, 33; in general geography, 31; and in arithmetic, 4. The causes of failure are shown in notes appended to a supplementary table, in which the candidates are represented, not by names, but by their respective numbers. Thus revelations of a personal kind are avoided, while the facts are given. The very occurrence of these examinations is a step in advance, and it is not unlikely that in 1862 the percentage of successful candidates may be more than doubled.

— UNIVERSITY OF DUBLIN.—The degree of LL.D. was conferred upon Lord Brougham, Sir J. Shaw Levevre, Sir James Emerson Tennant, and M. Michel Chevalier, of Paris, by the University of Dublin, at its late commencement.

— COST OF NATIONAL EDUCATION IN IRELAND.—A return, which has been issued from the office of the Board of National Education, states that the sums voted by parliament for the purpose of national education in Ireland, from the commencement of the system to the end of the year 1860, amount in the whole to £3,317,964. The local contributions in aid of teachers' salaries were £43,961 in 1860, and there are also other local contributions in support of the system. No less than 4973 schools have been built without parliamentary aid. The Queen's University in Ireland, following the example set by Oxford and Cambridge, has lately instituted a system of local examinations, the details of which will be found below. Seventy-two candidates underwent examination, of whom 45 were seniors, and 27 juniors.

— IRISH NATIONAL SCHOOLS.—From a parliamentary return just issued it appears that the number of pupils on the rolls of the Irish National schools for the last quarter of 1860, and whose religious denominations had been ascertained, was 548,138 of whom 30,863 belonged to the Established Church, 455,582 were Roman Catholics, 59,086 Presbyterians, leaving 2,607 others. The total number on the rolls within the year is estimated at 804,000.

— KING'S COLLEGE, WINDSOR, NOVA SCOTIA.—We learn with great pleasure from the Halifax Church Record, that the late Chas. Inglis, Esq., the son of one bishop of Nova Scotia, and the grandson of another, has bequeathed the Clermont estate to King's College, Windsor, together with one thousand volumes of books, and also made the institution his residuary gagee. He has also devised a valuable farm to the Church at Aylesford for the especial sustenance of the clergyman and the support of the Sunday-school. The bequest to the College is to be specially appropriated to the support and encouragement of young men preparing for holy orders. —W. K. Reynolds, Esq., lately deceased, has also granted £1000 to the poor of the churches of St. Paul, St. Luke, and St. Matthew, in Halifax; £500 to the National School; £500 to the Acadian School, for free scholarships to the poor; and £500 to the Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb.

— EDUCATION IN INDIA.—Sir George Clerk, the Governor of Bombay, has issued a minute on the education report of Mr. Howard for 1859-60. His Excellency does not agree with Mr. Howard that the English schools have been "starved to benefit the vernacular," as they receive a sum of 155,389 rupees out of the total grant of 372,440 rupees. The number of schools in Bombay, chiefly vernacular, increased from 291 in 1855 to 761 in 1860, and the number of pupils in the same period from 23,681 to 44,166. In Bengal the number of schools, chiefly English, increased from 147 in 1855 to 592 in 1860, and the scholars numbered, in 1855, 12,865, to 40,366 in 1860. This progress, which has been equally rapid in other provinces, is very remarkable when it is remembered that a check was placed on the expenditure on the outbreak in 1857.

XVI. Departmental Notices.

NO PENSIONS TO COMMON SCHOOL TEACHERS UNLESS THEY SUBSCRIBE TO THE FUND.

Public notice is hereby given to all Teachers of Common Schools, or Teachers of the English branches in Grammar Schools, who are legally qualified Common School Teachers in Upper Canada, who may wish to avail themselves at any future time of the advantages of the Superannuated Common School Teachers' Fund, that it will be necessary for them to transmit to the Chief Superintendent, if they have not already done so, their subscriptions, at the rate of \$5 per annum for each preceding year, commencing with 1854, and at the rate of \$4 per annum for the current year's subscription. The law authorizing the establishment of this fund provides, "That no teacher shall be entitled to share in the said fund who shall not contribute to such fund at least at the rate of one pound per annum." No pension will be granted to any teacher who has not subscribed to the fund, in accordance with the preceding regulations of the Council of Public Instruction.

PRE-PAYMENT OF POSTAGE ON BOOKS.

According to the new Postage Law, the postage on all books, printed circulars, &c., sent through the post, *must be pre-paid by the sender*, at the rate of one cent per ounce. Local Superintendents and teachers ordering books from the Educational Depository, will therefore please send such an additional sum for the payment of this postage, at the rate specified, and the Customs duty on copyright books, as may be necessary.

INDISTINCT POST MARKS.

We receive, in the course of the year, a number of letters on which the post marks are very indistinct, or altogether omitted. These marks are often so important, that Postmasters would do well to see that the requirements of the Post-office Department, in relation to stamping the post-mark on letters is carefully attended to.

ASSORTED PRIZE BOOKS IN PACKAGES,

Selected by the Department, for Grammar or Common Schools, from the Catalogue, in assorted packages, as follows:—

Pkge. No. 1.	Books and Cards, 5cts. to 70cts. each.....	\$10
" No. 2.	Ditto ditto 5cts. to \$1.00 each.....	\$16
" No. 3.	Ditto ditto 10cts. to \$1.25 each.....	\$20
" No. 4.	Ditto ditto 10cts. to \$1.50 each.....	\$26
" No. 5.	Ditto ditto 15cts. to \$1.75 each.....	\$30
" No. 6.	Ditto ditto 15cts. to \$2.00 each.....	\$36
" No. 7.	Ditto ditto 20cts. to \$2.25 each.....	\$40
" No. 8.	Ditto ditto 20cts. to \$2.50 each.....	\$46
" No. 9.	Ditto ditto 25cts. to \$2.75 each.....	\$50
" No. 10.	Ditto ditto 25cts. to \$3.00 each.....	\$56
" No. 11.	Ditto ditto 30cts. to \$3.25 each.....	\$60
" No. 12.	Ditto ditto 30cts. to \$3.50 each.....	\$66
" No. 13.	Ditto ditto 35cts. to \$3.75 each.....	\$70
" No. 14.	Ditto ditto 35cts. to \$4.00 each.....	\$76
" No. 15.	Ditto ditto 40cts. to \$4.50 each.....	\$80

Special Prizes, in handsomely bound books, singly, at from \$1.05 to \$5.50. In sets of from two to six volumes of Standard Literature, at from \$3.00 to \$10.00 per set.

* * Trustees are requested to send in their usual orders for the coming holiday season at as early a date as possible, so as to ensure an early despatch of their parcels, and thus prevent disappointment.

TERMS: For a single copy of the *Journal of Education*, \$1 per annum; back vols., neatly stitched, supplied on the same terms. All subscriptions to commence with the January Number, and payment in advance must in all cases accompany the order. Single numbers, 12½ cents each.

All communications to be addressed to J. GEORGE HODGINS, LL.B.,
Education Office, Toronto.