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POLITICAL ECONOMY—A BRANCH OF PUBLIC EDUCATION.

A Lecture delivered by the Revd. DR. RYERSON, Chief Superintendent Schools, before the Mechanics' Institute, Toronto, on the 12th March, 1852.

According to promise I am to address you on *Political Economy—a Branch of Public Education*; and if you will accompany me in the observations I shall venture to offer on this deeply important subject, I think you will come to the same conclusions at which I have arrived.

Political Economy—is one of the many branches of knowledge to which, in the process of modern civilization, the investigations of the last hundred years have given birth, and raised to the dignity of a science. It is true, political economy, like navigation, has been practiced ever since the formation of human governments, as the subjects of its inquiries has necessarily involved the chief practical interests of mankind. But as it was reserved to Copernicus, Newton, and their followers, to discover and explain the laws of the physical economy of the universe, with which Chaldean and Grecian philosophy, and mankind at large, had been conversant thousands of years: so did it remain for Adam Smith and his successors to investigate and expound the political economy of nations—that systematic arrangement of the laws which God himself has established for the creation of national and individual wealth, and by which both the individual and social relations of man are governed, in reference to the objects of his desire.

On a subject so vast, comparatively little can be said in a single discourse. All I shall attempt at the present time is, to give some notion of Political Economy; and then to evince its importance as a Branch of Public Education.

The word *economy* is derived from two Greek words, the one of which *oikos* signifies a house, or household, a family or tribe, or the property belonging to a family—the other *nomos* signifies an established law, usage, or arrangement. The word *economy*, therefore, means the law of the household, comprehending the arrangement and management of its financial affairs. The word *political*, is derived from another Greek word *polis* signifying city, state, or commonwealth. Political economy is, therefore, the economy of the State, as domestic economy, is the economy of the family; and as the latter is the prudent management of all the means by which property is acquired, saved and employed, by the members of a family, and for their interests and happiness, so the former comprehends all the measures employed by a State, by which the property and labour of its citizens are directed in the best manner for the development and success of individual industry and enterprise, and for the public prosperity and happiness. It now ranks as a *science*—a science which investigates and upholds the laws by which the individual and collective wealth of a people is produced, distributed, and consumed.

It may give you a clearer and deeper impression of the nature and objects of Political economy, if I define it in the words of some of its ablest expounders. Dr. ADAM SMITH, entitles his immortal work on the subject—“*An inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*, and states, in the introduction of his fourth Book, that “Political economy, considered as a branch of the science of a statesman or legislator, proposes two distinct objects: first to provide a plentiful revenue or subsistence for the people or more properly, to enable them to provide such a revenue or subsistence for themselves; and secondly, to supply the state or commonwealth with a revenue sufficient for the public services. It proposes to enrich both the people and the sovereign.” McCULLOCH, the learned editor of ADAM SMITH, and able expounder of his doctrines, says—“Political economy may be defined to be the science of the laws which regulate the production, accumulation, distribution, and consumption of these articles or products that are necessary, useful, or agreeable to man, and which at the same time possess exchangeable value.”(1)

MILLS the acute and skilful modernizer of ADAM SMITH, observes, that the “writers on Political Economy, profess to teach, or to investigate, the nature of Wealth, and the laws of its production and distribution; including directly or remotely, the operation of all the causes by which the condition of mankind, or of any society

(1) The Principles of Political Economy; with some Inquiries respecting their Application, and a Sketch of the Rise and Progress of the Science—By J. R. McCulloch, p. 1.

of human beings, in respect to this universal object of human desire, is made prosperous to the reverse." (2)

Such are the definitions of the nature and objects of Political Economy, given by the three principal English writers on the subject. The political Economists of the Continent, extend the range of its investigations to the fundamental principles of Civil government itself. "Political Economy," says SAY, "is the economy of Society: a Science combining the results of our observations on the nature and functions of the different parts of the social body." SisMONDI says, "The object of Political Economy, is the physical welfare of man, so far as it can be the work of Government;" and STORCH terms "Political Economy the science of the national laws which determine the prosperity of nations, that is to say, their wealth and civilization."

But McCULLOCH, happily distinguishes between the science of Political Economy and that of Politics. He says, "The politician examines the principles on which government is formed, he endeavours to determine into whose hands supreme authority may be most advantageously placed, and unfolds the reciprocal duties and obligations of the governing and governed portions of society. The political economist does not take so high a flight. It is not of the constitution of the government, but of its acts only, that he presumes to judge. Whatever measures affect the production and distribution of wealth, necessarily come within the scope of his observation, and are freely canvassed by him. He examines whether they are in unison with the principles of the science, and fitted to promote the public interests: if they are, he shows the nature and extent of the benefits of which they will be productive; while, if they are not, he shows in what respects they are defective, and to what extent they will most probably be injurious. But he does this without inquiring into the constitution of the government which has enacted these measures. The circumstance of their having emanated from the privy council of an arbitrary monarch, or the representative assembly of a free state, though in other respects of supreme importance, cannot affect the immutable principles by which he is to form his opinion of them." (6.)

Lord BROUGHAM, in his *Political Philosophy*, presents this subject in a still more clear and comprehensive light. He says "The manner in which men manage their private concerns,—the course they pursue in their dealings with each other,—their way of exerting their industry for their substance, or comfort, or indulgence—these proceedings may take place independent of the form of government under which they live; and, indeed as no ruler has anything to do with them, if each government did its duty, these proceedings would go on nearly in the same way under all governments, and only be affected incidentally by the difference in the form of each. Although, therefore, the interference of governments directly, and their influence indirectly, may affect men's conduct of their own affairs, still the principles which regulate that conduct, and the effects resulting from it, form a subject of consideration evidently distinguishable from that of government. This subject then relates to the wealth, the population, the education, of the people; and the conduct of the government, in respect to these particulars, forms an important part of the discussion. This branch of the subject is termed Economics, or Political Economy, because it relates to the management of a nation's domestic affairs as private economy does to the affairs of a family. The most important subject of Political Economy is the accumulation and distribution of wealth in all its branches, including foreign and colonial as well as domestic commerce. But it also treats of the principles which regulate the maintenance, increase, or diminution of population,—the religious and civil education of the people—the provisions necessary for securing the due administration of justice, civil and criminal, and, as subservient to these, the maintenance of police—the measures required for supporting the public expenditure or the financial system—the precautions necessary for the public defence or the military system—and generally all institutions, whether supported by private exertions or by the state, the objects of which are of a public nature." (7.)

Such is a summary view of the nature and objects of the science

(2) Principles of Political Economy, with some of their Applications to Social Philosophy—By John Stuart Mills, pp. 1.

(6.) Principles of Political Economy, p. 58, 59.

(7.) Preliminary Discourse, Vol. 1. pp. 7, 8.

of Political economy. The slightest analysis of the science will show that it is the application of the true principles of domestic economy to a whole community—that the essential principles of it, like those of morality or natural philosophy, are the same whether applied to a family or a nation, to a city or a country,—differing only in the mode and extent of their application. The primary object being the production and accumulation of wealth, the first inquiry suggested is, *What is wealth?* An inquiry, which, singular to say, has heretofore been the subject of much diversity of opinion and protracted discussion; though it is now generally agreed, that wealth is any object, or quantity of objects, capable of gratifying our desires, or of procuring for us, by exchange, objects of gratification. That quality of any object which renders it capable of ministering directly or indirectly to the gratification of our desires, is termed its *value*; and the value of any object depends upon the nature and number of our desires which it is capable of gratifying. In contemplating objects of human desire, it will be apparent that some of them, such as air, light, heat, &c., will gratify our desires, but cannot be *exchanged* for other objects; that some objects, such as articles of food, clothing, &c., will not only gratify our desires, but may also be exchanged for other objects of gratification; and that there are others, such as gold, silver, &c., capable of ministering to our gratification only by procuring for us, in the way of exchange, objects of desire. The first class of these objects are said to possess *intrinsic* value only—the last class *exchangeable* value only—the second class, both intrinsic and exchangeable value. Those objects which have no exchangeable value, such as air, light, water &c., are every where abundant, common to all, and cannot be *appropriated* by any; but the other two classes of objects, which possess *exchangeable* value are limited in *quality* and in *place*. The value of the first class of objects admits of no increase by the application of labour; the value of the other two classes of objects may be increased, and frequently altogether created, by labour. Thus labour can and nothing to the power of the air or light of heaven—the direct and free gift of God—to gratify human desire; but a lump of Iron ore, or dust of gold, is as useless as a lump of clay, or sand upon the ocean shore, without the application of human labour; and the peculiar properties of the metal in all cases result from processes to which it is subjected by that labour. Now as the objects which minister to our desires, and which may be appropriated, constitute wealth, he that possesses many of them is said to be rich; he that possesses few of them is termed poor. When employed as the means or instruments of production, they are called *capital*,—which assumes various forms according to the various kinds of human industry, as Agricultural, Manufactures, or Commerce.

The next question is, *how does human labour add to the value of objects*, and thereby create or increase wealth? This will be found to be done in three ways. 1. By changing the elementary forms of substances: as the farmer, when by means of seed and cultivation, aided by the agencies of nature, such as the earth, atmosphere, rain, and sun, changes the elementary forms of the carbon, gases, and water into grain; or, as the chemist changes the elementary forms of various substances for practical purposes; the same is the case in the manufacture of the hand, and in coining of the precious metals, and in many other occupations of human industry. 2. By changing the *aggregate form* of matter; as when the cabinet maker changes the forms of various kinds of lumber into household furniture; or, as the smith changes the forms of various pieces of metals into every description of cutlery, machinery, and other instruments of usefulness and convenience; or, as the mason changes piles of stones, brick, and mortar into buildings; or as the spinner changes the pack of wool, or bale of cotton into thread, and the weaver that thread into cloth. It is, indeed, in changing the aggregate forms of matter, that consists most of the labour of mechanics and manufactures. 3. The last mode of increasing the value of the objects of human desire, is by change of place; as fuel from the forest or the mine, to the places of its use, or groceries from the countries of their growth and production to those of their consumption—thus giving birth and development to external and internal navigation in all its modifications, to foreign and domestic commerce or trade in all its extent, and to systems *exchanges* of and *banking* in all their varieties.

It will thus be seen that it does not lie within the domain of man to create anything—that is, to make something out of nothing.

This is the exclusive attribute of Omnipotence. The entire province of human labour, skill and power, is limited to *transmutations or changes* of the form and place of the various objects which God has created, and with which his infinite wisdom and benevolence have stored and garnished our globe. The whole of human labour consists in the employment of natural agents. God created the garden of Eden with its flowers and trees, and appointed man to cultivate it. God has made the earth the air and sea, with all their treasures and properties, and has directed and limited the labour of man to develop and employ them; and by a principle of right, deeply implanted in the moral constitution of man, and recognised in almost all forms of human society, each labourer claims and is assured of the fruits of his own industry. This is the basis of all property—the right of each man to appropriate and enjoy the fruits of his labour—and is the great stimulant to human industry. The application of this principle involves those extensive branches of political economy which treat of the *distribution and consumption* of wealth.

The nature of objects and the right to appropriate them to our own use and enjoyment, being the result of labour in the three forms above stated, the question next suggested is, *what are the kinds of human labour employed, and how may it be rendered most productive?* When human labour is limited to the collection of natural productions, it is called *agricultural industry*. When employed in separating, compounding, or modifying the productions of nature it is called *manufacturing industry*, and as these processes can only be affected by mechanical or chemical means, Say justly remarks, that “all branches of manufacturing industry may be subdivided in the mechanical and chemical arts, according to the predominance of the one or the other in several processes.” When, however, labour is employed in placing within our reach objects at a distance, it is called *commercial industry*. The manner in which these three great departments of human labour contribute to the individual and public wealth of the country, and in which capital and skill can be best employed to promote them, comprehends inquiries of a vital and extensive branch of political economy.

As to the means by which human labour has been and may be rendered most productive, they will be found to embrace *Discoveries—Inventions—the use of Natural agents*, (both animate and inanimate)—*Division of labour—Education*, or the *moral & Intellectual Cultivation of labourers—wages*, or the *proper remuneration* of labour, whether simple or educated *Security of Property—Distribution and employment of capital* under its various forms,—the *Functions of Government—different kinds of consumption*, both public and private, and the laws relating to it—the end of all human labour being *enjoyment* or the *consumption* of wealth in some form or other.

Such, in a few paragraphs, is the briefest analytical view I am able to give of the science of Political Economy—comprehending it its widest range many topics of Moral Philosophy of Ethics, the chief applications of the sciences and arts, a great part of the functions of civil government, and the most remarkable developments and phenomena of modern civilization, but reducible to a few elementary principles, which I will now proceed to show may and ought to be made a branch of public education.

II. In attempting to show the importance of Political Economy, as a branch of Public education, I shall avail myself as far as possible of the words of standard authors on the subject, as of infinitely higher authority than any words of my own.

1. My first reason in favour of making Political Economy a branch of public education is, the fact that it may be easily comprehended by all classes of society. As the great truths of civil government can be as easily comprehended as the rules of the discipline which govern a school; so may the principles of economy be as readily taught and understood in respect to a nation as in respect to a family. It is true the doctrines—the science—of Political Economy are the result of profound investigation and extensive research; so also to the sciences of Arithmetic and Geometry the productions of deep speculations and mighty intellects—yet every school boy can master their elements. It required the genius of a Newton to discover the universal law of gravitation; but every child can comprehend the principle of it. The first principles of all knowledge, or, in other words, of the laws of the creation and government of God, are simple. An infant heart understands the

nature of love—while its origin and highest developments surpass the reach of all finite minds. The principles which form the basis of the science of Political Economy form a part of our original constitution and of the physical world around us; and the operations of those principles are as open to common observations, and as much within the comprehension of the multitude as the operations of any other natural laws. The author of an excellent book for schools and families, in the United States, entitled “*An Introduction to the Science of Government, with a brief Treatise on Political Economy*,” justly remarks: “The inattention to the science of Political Economy, which has so long prevailed, may be attributed, in part, to the common opinion that its principles are too abstruse to be brought within the comprehension of the great mass of the people, especially of the young. The fact, however, is otherwise. Few sciences are more simple. The youth of fifteen, though he may not be an adept in the science, nor possess the knowledge of an experienced legislator, is, nevertheless capable of understanding the general laws and principles which regulate the production and distribution of the wealth of society. These principles when duly explained, are as readily comprehended as those of Mathematics, or of Chemistry and Natural Philosophy.”

Archbishop Whately, formerly Professor of Political Economy in the University of Oxford,—long the zealous and successful advocate and promoter of Education in Ireland, in connection with the National Board—was the first to take decisive steps towards making elements of Political Economy a branch of public elementary education. He prepared a text-book on the subject, under the modest title of “*Easy Lessons in Money Matters*,” adapted, as he says, “for the instruction of young persons from eight years of age and upwards.” In the Preface of this little book, he remarks that “there are few subjects on which it is, for all classes of people more important to inculcate correct principles, and to guard against specious fallacies. All persons, in every station must when they grow up, practically take part, more or less, in the transactions in question. The rudiments of sound knowledge concerning these may (it has been found by experience) be communicated at a very early age; and that they should be inculcated early is the more important, because at a latter period there are more difficulties in the way of such elementary instruction. Many of even what are called the educated classes, grow up with indistinct, or erroneous and practically mischievous views on these subjects;—and the prejudices any one may have casually imbibed, are hard to be removed at a time of life when he imagines his education to be completed. Those, therefore who are engaged in conducting or in patronizing and promoting education, should consider it a matter of no small moment to instil, betimes, just notions on subjects with which all must in after life, be practically conversant, and in which no class of men, from the highest to the lowest, can in such a country as this, at least, be safely left in ignorance or in error.”

2. I remark secondly, that Political Economy involves, directly or indirectly, the interests of all classes of society, and ought therefore, to be made a branch of their education. Mr. McCulloch, one of the ablest English writers on Political Economy, expresses himself, with great force on the point. He remarks that; “The object of Political Economy is to point out the means by which the industry of man may be rendered most productive of those necessities, comforts, and enjoyments which constitute wealth; to ascertain the circumstances most favourable for its accumulation; the proportion in which it is divided among the different classes of the community; and the mode in which it may be most advantageously consumed. The intimate connexion of such a science with all the best interests of society is abundantly obvious. There is no other, indeed, which comes so directly home to the every-day occupations and business of mankind. The consumption of wealth is indispensable to existence; but the eternal law of Providence has decreed that wealth can only be procured by industry; that man must earn his bread by the sweat of his brow. This two-fold necessity renders the acquisition of wealth a constant and principal object of the exertions of the vast majority of the human race; has subdued the natural aversion of man from labour; given activity to indolence, and armed the patient hand of industry with zeal to undertake, and perseverance to overcome the most irksome and disagreeable tasks. But when wealth is thus neces-

sary, and when the desire to acquire it is sufficient to make us submit to the great privations, the science which teaches the means by which its acquisition may be best promoted and how we may obtain the greatest amount of wealth with the least difficulty, must certainly deserve to be carefully studied and meditated. There is no class of persons to whom it can be considered as either extrinsic or superfluous. There are some, doubtless, to whom it may be of more advantage than to others; but it is of the utmost consequence to every one. The prices of all sorts of commodities; the profits of the farmer, manufacturer, and merchant; the rent of the landlord; the employment and wages of the labourer; the influence of regulations affecting the freedom of industry; the incidence and operation of taxes and loans,—all depend on principles which it belongs to this science to ascertain and elucidate.*

To the same effect are the following graphic remarks of the Right Honourable THOMAS WYSE—an old and able advocator of Popular education, and the present British Ambassador to the Court of Greece. “Can we advance, (says Mr. WYSE) a step in any of the walks of life, without feeling its influence? Is it not another term for the laws, which regulate our whole social resistance? Is it not the regulation of every portion dependent, in the first instance, on due acquaintance with those laws? And all this being true, is it possible we can permit—I will not say approve—its reclusion, even from Elementary Education?”

“In the middle and upper schools, the justice of this reasoning is not even contested; but, as in the instance we have been just discussing, the principle is not visible in the practice. Professorships have been founded—courses are given,—a great preliminary step certainly, but still a preliminary. It should be made an integral part of Education. Though a representative be altogether ignorant of the controversy, of axioms or no axioms, in Geometry, he may yet be capable of giving an excellent vote on a district or provincial railway; but if ignorant of the great principles which determine wages, rent, currency, &c., he may, with the best intentions reduce the majority of his constituents to ruin.

“But what have the lower classes to do with these functions, and this education? We might as well be asked what have they to do with rents, with labour, with prices? What have they to do with almost every interest of their social life? This department is theirs, if any be theirs:—if they are to have any education at all, this ought to be their education. Why do they pass—often in a single night—from people to populace, and from populace to mob,—but from some supposed infringement of their rights and interests—some panic, in which their ignorance has a far larger share, than their malignity? Why do they run after gold? or cut off this or that intercourse with their neighbours, at the *dictum* of this or that Sir Oracle—such oracles upon such subjects! but from the notorious confidence which uneducated men usually place in every audacious quack who takes the trouble to dupe them,—a confidence quite natural, from their want of knowledge and consequent total incapacity to judge whether his nostrums will kill or cure. To extinguish charlatanism, you must show the people where it lies, and what it is:—to detect falsehood, they must early be accustomed to truth. Half the evils of your poor law system, would probably have been neutralized, by the diffusion of sound economical knowledge, at an early period of society;—by such knowledge, chiefly, are their consequences to be healed now.”

3. The third reason why political economy should be made a branch of public education is, that it involves questions on which the people at large are required to pronounce judgment. It involves, indeed, the chief functions of government. The principles of our civil policy having been settled—the relations and power and duties of the different branches of the government having been established by common consent, together with the wide extension and full enjoyment of the elective franchise, and right of free discussion among the people, the chief duties of government and legislation are now directed to economical questions—the development of the resources of our country and the application of those resources—the advancement of agriculture, the promotion of manufactures, the increase of trade, the diffusion of knowledge; and how can men be qualified to govern, to legislate, or to select and judge of the conduct and measures of responsible rulers and legislators, respecting the various questions which are embraced in the agricultural, the manufacturing, the commercial, the intellectual and social interests of the people? The youth at our schools will soon be

the rulers of the land; and in a country where the road to public station is open to all classes, their general acquaintance with the principles of political economy must be of high importance. “If a free government, (says the able American author of the *Science of Government*), the people have in their own hands the right of correcting the evils which result from unwise laws; but without a knowledge of political economy, a people might ignorantly oppose measures adapted to promote public prosperity.” “If it be said (says Lord BROUGHAM) that there is no reason for all the community learning Political Philosophy [of which political economy is an essential part] any more than there is of all a landowner’s family inspecting his accounts and undertaking agriculture; the answer is obvious, that all the community, and not particular classes, are the parties interested in State affairs; and that if a family can be found in which all the members, servants included, have their several shares in the property of the State, then beyond all question, each member, down to the humblest menial, however inconsiderable his share of the property, would be entitled to inspect the accounts—would be directly interested in superintending the management—and would be unspeakably foolish to remain in ignorance of the principles on which farms should be managed, and the condition and management of the estates in the neighbourhood.”*

While much evil results from ignorance on the part of citizens invested with the elective franchise respecting the economical principles which form the basis of, and are interwoven with, our whole system of legislation and government, nothing is more absurd, as well as pernicious, than for persons to discuss, and oracularly decide upon questions of which they are utterly ignorant. It would be a farce, if it were not a calamity, to see some newspapers writers, who have perhaps never even read a work on the polity and economy of civil government,—much less studied the doctrines of it—flippantly dictate to a whole country on questions involving the vital interests of society. Every person would pronounce it supremely absurd for a man to attempt to discuss the philosophy of language who was ignorant of the elements of grammar,—or to write on philosophy, or medicine, or navigation, or military tactics, who knew nothing more of any of those subjects than what he had picked up in the newspapers and reviews; yet with no better preparation, how often do we see persons discussing the philosophy of human society at large, together with its most complicated diseases and their infallible remedies—the minutest details for navigating the Ship of State in all seas and in all seasons, and for rendering a nation safe, prosperous and triumphant, against all foes, domestic, or foreign? Archbishop WHATELY, with his characteristic wit and felicity of illustration, has exhibited this kind of quackery in public affairs in its proper light. In the third of his Introductory Lectures on Political Economy, delivered before the Oxford University, he remarks as follows:—

“The most difficult questions in Political Economy are every day discussed with the most unhesitating confidence, not merely by empty pretenders to science, (for that takes place and must be expected in all subjects,) but by persons not only ignorant, but *professedly* ignorant, and designing to continue so, of the whole subject; neither having, nor pretending to have, nor wishing for, any fixed principles by which to regulate their judgment on each point.—Questions concerning taxation, tithes, the national debt, the poor laws—the wages which labourers earn or ought to earn—the comparative advantages of different modes of charity, and numberless others belonging to Political Economy, many of them among the most difficult, and in which there is the greatest diversity of opinion, are debated perpetually, not merely at public meetings, but in the course of conversation, and decisions of them boldly pronounced, by many who utterly disclaim having turned their attention to Political Economy.

“The right management of public affairs in respect of these and such like points, is commonly acknowledged to call for men of both powerful and well cultivated mind; and yet, if every man of common sense is competent to form an opinion, at the first glance of such points, without either having made them the subject of regular study, or conceiving that any such is necessary, it would follow that the art of Government, (at least that extensive and multifarious department of it pertaining to national wealth) must be the easiest of all arts;—easier than even the common handicraft trades; in

* Political Philosophy, Part First, p. 29

which no one will knowingly employ a man who has not been regularly taught; and the remark of Chancellor OXENSTERN to his son, "*quam parva sapientia regitur mundus*," must be understood to apply not only to what is, but what ought to be the state of things.

"Many of you, probably have met with the story of some gentleman, (I suppose it is usually fathered on a native of a neighbouring island,) who, on being asked whether he could play on the violin, made answer that he really did not know whether he could or not because he had never tried. There is at least, more modesty in this expression of doubt than those show, who, having never tried to learn the very rudiments of Political Economy, are yet quite sure of their competence to discuss its most difficult questions.

You perhaps wonder how it is that men should conceal from themselves and from each other so glaring an absurdity. I believe it is generally in this way; they profess and intend to keep clear of all questions of Political Economy, and imagine themselves to have done so, by having kept clear of the *name*. The subjects of which constitute the proper and sole province of the science, they do not scruple to submit to extemporaneous discussion, provided they but avoid the tide by which that science is commonly designated. This is as if the gentleman in the story just alluded to, had declared his inability to play on the violin, at the same time expressing his confidence that he could play on the *fiddle*."

"There is in fact no way of keeping clear of Political Economy, however we may avoid the *name* but by keeping clear of the subjects of it, and if it be felt as inconsistent with the character of a well educated man to have nothing to say, and to show no interest on those subjects, you may easily make it clear to any man of ingenious mind, that he ought to be still more inwardly ashamed, (though he may not be put to shame openly) at discussing them, without having taken due pains to understand them. Specious and shallow declamation may, indeed, for a time he even more favourably received by the unthinking, than sound reasoning based on sound knowledge, but this latter must have a tendency to prevail ultimately."

4. The last reason which I shall urge for making Political Economy a branch of public education is, that some acquaintance with it is requisite to a just estimate of the value of the different kinds of labour, and a right appreciation of the several employments and professions which are essential to the production of wealth and the progress of civilization in any country. That able political economist, Mr. S. SENIOR, has well defined labour to be "the voluntary exertion of our bodily and mental faculties for the purpose of production." Very little observation and reflection are sufficient to inform us that there is *rude, simple, or uneducated* labour, and *educated* labour—that there is *physical or bodily* and *mental or intellectual* labour, and, as is commonly the case, both of these united—that these several kinds of labour enter into the production of almost every article of wealth; and finally, that their productiveness greatly depends upon the intelligence and moral habits of labourers themselves of all classes, and upon the character and institutions of society at large. In the production of nearly every article of wealth, there is a three-fold process, namely—the *theory*, the *application*,—comprehending, as it has been well expressed by Dr. WAYLAND, in his lucid and comprehensive exposition of the elements of Political Economy, "*Industry of discovery, or investigation; industry of application or invention; and industry of operation.*" In the first place, then, we have the *philosopher or man of science*, investigating discovering, and unfolding the laws of nature; secondly, we have the *inventor*, applying those laws in the several departments of practical life; thirdly we have the *operative labourer*, giving effect to all useful discoveries and inventions; and I may add, lastly in word, but first in order and importance, we have the teacher of religion and morals, to regulate the conduct of man in all his pursuits and relations;—we have the instructor in letters and arts, to train the mental and corporeal faculties of man for all the employments of human skill and labour; we have the surgeon and physician, to repair and mitigate bodily misfortunes, to alleviate suffering, and to restore the wasted strength and prolong the life of man for his wonted labours; we have the lawyer and jurist to secure the fruits of industry; we have the civil ruler, the legislator, the departmental, and various subordinate officers of government, for the protection of life, liberty and property, and the numerous vital interests of man as a social being.

Now each link in this vast chain of human labour, is connected

with every other link of an order of Providence stamped upon the condition, the nature, and the destinies of man, and each particle or kind of labour possesses a value according to its cost and its tendency to promote the great objects of human industry. That there is a difference in the value of different kinds of labour, is clearly the common sense of mankind, as is evinced by the occurrences of every day life. No man thinks of placing the same value upon the labour of a gate keeper and of a master farmer in agriculture; or the labour of a hod man and master-builder in architecture; or of a messenger and manager in a mercantile establishment; or of a monitor and head manager of a school, or of a cryer and judge of a court; and similar distinctions in the comparative value of different kinds of labour suggest themselves in a thousand examples that might be adduced. To explain the philosophy of this distinction, the principles on which they are founded, and the extent to which they may be justly and beneficially applied—in the distribution of the fruits of human labour, or the payment of wages, falls within the province of political economy. And from ignorance on this important subject, the most absurd and injurious errors prevail and are every day propagated. It is, indeed, admitted that the value of two pieces of cloth is not the same, if the more labour has been bestowed upon the one than the other—that an ounce of gold and of silver is not of equal value, since the former has cost sixteen times more labour than the latter—that each farmer, tradesman, or merchant, should be compensated for the capital he invests, the expense he has incurred, the risk he runs, as well as for the personal labour he performs in business; yet how has this obvious principle of justice between man and man, this obvious principle of prudence in the social progress of any people, been discarded and outraged in the discussion of economical questions in this country. It has been attempted to reduce all kinds of labour to about the same value—to place educated labour on a par with uneducated labour;—contending that the Lawyer or Physician who has invested the capital of the many hundreds of pounds, and many years of labour to qualify himself for his work, is entitled no more for a day's labour than the man who has not spent ten pounds or a year's time in preparation for his work—that the teacher of youth who has spent years and means to fit himself for the duties of his office, is entitled to no higher remuneration than the day labourer who has never spent a penny or a day except in productive employment—that the wages of the Judges of the land and of the chief officers of state, imparting the result of long and expensive labour, of rare attainment and talent, should be less than the receipts of many an ordinary tradesman. In as far as this spirit prevails in any community, society will not advance beyond a certain point—educated labour, and especially the higher branches of it, being inadequately compensated, will be abandoned for more remunerative pursuits, and mediocrity materialism, littleness and meanness will ultimately become the characteristics of the rulers and institutions, the sentiments and feelings of a people. In the application of the true principles of political economy to the support of civil government, Dr. WAYLAND, the able American author already quoted, remarks as follows; and his remarks are equally appropriate to every situation requiring the best qualifications, from those of the humblest country school master to the President of a University, or the head of a Government.

"Economy requires, that precisely such talent should be employed, in various offices of civil government, as may be necessary to insure the discharge of the duties of each office, in the best possible manner. Many of these offices, can only be discharged successfully, by the first order of human talent, cultivated by learning and discipline, and directly by incorruptible integrity. Now it is certainly bad economy, to employ inferior talent to do badly, that which can only be of any service when it is done well.

"Hence, the salaries of judicial, legislative, and executive officers, should be such as will command the services of such talent as the duties of each office require. It is most unwise parsimony, to give to a judge such a salary as will command the services of nothing more than a third rate lawyer; and it is mean to ask an individual to do a service for the *community*, at a lower rate than that at which he would do it for an individual.

"In answer to this, it may be said, that by bestowing large salaries upon the officers of the Government, we present temptations to avarice. But, I reply the reduction of salaries, by no means diminishes the evil. Were emolument to be reduced, there would always be a contest for office. The only question then is, whether

we shall have the contest between men of *high*, or between men of *low* character; between those who are capable of *servng us for our advantage*, or those who are only capable of serving us to our disadvantage. Were the most important trust in the Government to command no higher salaries than the wages of day-labourers, there would be as great a competition for them as at present; only then, the contest would be between day-labourers, instead of being between men of professional ability."

Political economy also shows that those very employments and professions which are least appreciated by the blind and unpatriotic partizanship above alluded to, have ever been the largest contributors to the material as well as intellectual interests of mankind. The man of speculative science, the man who spends his days in his study or laboratory, is looked upon by this kind of partizanship as a public consumer instead of a public producer; clergymen, physicians, and lawyers, have been held up as public cormorants, instead of as being contributors to the public weal, equally, at least, with other classes of producers in the community. It has been said there is no need of such professions; let every man be his own clergyman, his own physician, his own lawyer. Apart from other considerations, the improvidence and error of such sentiments may be sufficiently shown upon the economical principle of the *division of labour*. With equal if not more propriety might it be said, let every man be his own schoolmaster, his own shoemaker, his own tailor, his own blacksmith, his own plough and waggon, and cabinet-maker, his own cloth and cotton manufacturer, his own grocer, and mail-carrier. Scarcely is any man so destitute of all notions of economy, as not to see that the productiveness and interests of all employments will be promoted by each man confining himself to his own, and exchanging the products of his own labours for such of the products of the labours of others as he may require—that it is far better for the farmer to sell his grain in the market, and buy his shoes and pay the postage on his letters, than to undertake to make the one and carry the other; and so with each of the other numberless employments of human life.

And are the more difficult, and therefore higher professions to be exceptions to the general rule? If it is cheaper for a tradesman to buy his bread with the products of his own mechanical labour, than to spend time in attempting to grow grain for himself—if it is cheaper for a man to hire a schoolmaster to teach his children, than to employ his time in teaching them himself, and probably teaching them very badly—is it not cheaper as well as safer for a man to employ a surgeon to amputate or bind up a broken limb, than to spend time in learning, or attempting to do it himself? And when attacked by disease, which is the better economy, for a man to procure books and spend time in attempting to study the physiology and diseases of the human system, and their appropriate remedies, or employ a physician who has devoted his life to the study and practice of such subjects? And in the disposal or purchase of property, in the recovery of debts, or maintenance of rights, whether is it better economy, for a man to buy law-books and study the laws himself, or procure the advice and assistance of a lawyer, whose business it is to study the nature and practice of the laws? And that there must be laws, and laws as various as the interests of society, no intelligent man can doubt, since there can be no society without government, and can be no government without laws and laws are of no use without persons to study and administer them. Then there can be no society much less prosperous and happy society without *morals*. And where is the country, or city, or even neighbourhood, in which there are morals without some class of the ministers of religion to teach them—for the idea of the morality of any community without Christianity, is an historical and natural absurdity, and is like virtue without honesty, eyes without vision, or a human body without a heart. The Divine Founder of Christianity, instituted a ministry for the propagation and perpetuation of its doctrines and morals; and the history of civilization from that time to this justifies the wisdom of the institution. Even the examples of the abuses and the oppressions of the Christian priesthood, like those of civil government itself, are proofs of its amazing power to do good, when rightly exercised; and in this country whatever may be the denominational diversity of religious sentiments on many points, and whatever may be their rivalry, as in ordinary associations, occupations and pursuits, all classes agree in the fundamental principles of public morality—the only basis of public prosperity.

And if we advance beyond the professions, as well as the more

material employments of human life, and contemplate the men of retirement, of study, of science we will find them entitled to the highest rank among the bountiful though indirect producers to the wealth and enjoyment of mankind. The productions of their minds in every department of science and literature, furnish inexhaustible sources of human enjoyment; while their discoveries and inventions have added an hundred, and in some cases a thousand fold to the productiveness of human labour, in agriculture, in mechanics, in manufactures and in commerce. Have not the inventors of the spinning-jenny, the power-loom, the cotton-gin, contributed more to the productiveness of manufacturing labour, and to the cheapness of manufacturing productions, than hundreds of labourers, who have spent their whole lives in manufactories? And who can estimate the value of productions which have resulted from Sir Humphrey Davy's invention of the safety lamp, Watt's invention of the steam-engine, and the invention of the application of steam-power to mechanics, manufactures, water and inland navigation? How much has Franklin's invention of the lightning-rod added to the value, and therefore to the productiveness of capital invested in buildings? And what is the value added to all classes of business and to many enjoyments, by the invention of the application of electricity to instantaneous telegraphic communication from city to city, and country to country?

Nor is the discoverer less a producer than the inventor. FRANKLIN'S invention of the Lightning-rod resulted from his own previous discovery of the identity of electricity with lightning. Nor would a tenth part of any of the most valuable inventions in the various industrial pursuits of mankind, from the navigation of a ship across the ocean, to the manufacturing of a pin, have ever existed, had it not been for the previous discoveries and calculations of philosophers like Copernicus, Galileo, Leibnitz, Newton, La Place, Sir Humphrey Davy, and many other kindred investigators and experimenters in Natural Philosophy and Chemistry. And where would have been their calculations without the geometry of the Greeks and the algebra of the Arabs.

Thus, instead of one pursuit and profession being at war with another—instead of one class of labourers being prompted to regard other classes with a jealous and hostile feeling, all classes are linked together as co-workers and fellow labourers in the grand enterprise and common interests of human civilization—they are working out that economy of the Creator, who has not only rendered various employments jointly tributary to the well-being of mankind, but has constituted men with different aptitudes for different pursuits, and with different dispositions towards those pursuits. 'One is investigated to adapt the laws of nature, and another to apply them to practice, and another to perform the operation by which these laws are made to create value; and these aptitudes are still further subdivided. One man is better adapted to investigate physical, another intellectual, and another moral laws. Thus, also, in the various pursuits of operative industry, one man prefers agriculture, another manufactures, and another navigation; and, in general a man is most disposed to devote himself to that particular occupation for which God has given him the greatest aptitude.' Every man will be most happy, as well as most successful in the employment for which he is best fitted, and which he likes best; and in this diversity of human tastes and talents, in connection with the corresponding diversity of human pursuits and wants, we recognise the Divine wisdom and benevolence.

The investigation of these subjects falls within the province of Political Economy, and cannot fail to enlarge the views, advance the interests, and promote the happiness of a people; and I, therefore think that the elements of this science should be made a branch of public education. I will only add, in the words of Archbishop Whately,—“The time is not, I trust, far distant, when it will be regarded as discreditable not to have regularly studied those subjects, respecting which, even now, every one is expected to feel an interest—most are ready to adopt opinions—and many are called on to form practical decisions.”

COLERIDGE divided readers into four classes, the first he compared to an hour-glass, their reading being as the sand; it runs in and it runs out, and leaves not a vestige behind. A second class, he said, resembled a sponge, which imbibes every thing, and returns it in nearly the same state, only a little dirtier. A third class he likened to a jelly-bag, which allows all that is pure to pass away, and retains only the refuse and the dregs. The fourth class he compared to the diamond-miners in Golconda, who, casting all that is worthless, preserve only the pure gem.

Miscellaneous.

THE BLIND BOY'S BEEN AT PLAY, MOTHER.

BY ELIZA COOK.

The Blind Boy's been at play, mother,
And merry games we had ;
We led him on our way, mother,
And every step was glad,
But when we found a starry flower,
And praised its varied hue,
A tear came trembling down his cheek,
Just like a drop of dew.

We took him to the mill, mother,
Where falling waters made
A rainbow o'er the rill, mother,
As golden sun-rays played ;
But when we shouted at the scene,
And hailed the clear blue sky,
He stood quite still upon the bank,
And breathed a long, long sigh.

We asked him why he wept, mother,
Whene're we found the spots
Where the periwinkle crept, mother,
O'er wild Forget-me-not's ;
" Ah, me ! " he said, while tears ran down
As fast as summer showers,
" It is because I cannot see
The sunshine and the flowers."

Oh, that poor slightless boy, mother,
Has taught me I am blest,
For I can look with joy, mother,
On all I love the best ;
And when I see the dancing stream,
And daisies red and white,
I kneel upon the meadowed sod,
And thank my God for sight.

THE POET MONTGOMERY.

The following sketch of the incidents of Mr. Montgomery's late visit to the Wesleyan Conference of Sheffield, is highly touching. The scene must have been singularly impressive and solemn:—On Saturday, the venerable poet of Sheffield arrived at the Conference, having kindly consented to pay the assembly a personal visit. Mr. Montgomery appeared on the platform, leaning heavily on the arm of Dr. Hannah, and was by him conducted to a seat in front of the platform. A few appropriate words from Dr. Hannah introduced him to the Conference. The President then addressed him in simple, and graceful terms, his face beaming with the peculiar sweetness and beauty which belongs to the happy smile of John Scott. Then the aged and hoary poet, somewhat bent and very feeble in body, with the silver hair shining in flakes as it fell thin upon his temples, or waved slightly upwards from the side of his head—stepped forward to the front of the platform, and raising his hands in prayer and blessing, pronounced the words "The Lord bless you and keep you ; the Lord make his face to shine upon you and be gracious unto you ; the Lord lift up his countenance upon you, and give you peace." The beautiful and impressive way in which the poet uttered the last words of this prayer was indescribably affecting. All felt that it was a patriarch of peace and purity who thus pronounced his benediction. The Christian poet, the laureate of piety and gospel heroism, the spotless Moravian brother, James Montgomery, in his 80th year, dying more and more to the world whose praise has long echoed round him, but which he soon, very soon, must leave to go to that "grave" which he has so beautifully celebrated, that resting-place, the inmate of which have no more "portion for ever in anything that is done under the sun,"—and looking more and more to that home of the blessed, where he shall join the "sister spirits"—who, like him, have learned on earth to lisp the songs, and breathe the music, which they shall soon, in full anthem, swell in heaven,—James Montgomery raised his prayer, and bent his aged form in benediction, over the assembly of the ministers of that church whose ordinances he had so long and dearly loved, and in whose public meetings of missionary zeal and piety he had so frequently presided. It was a scene long to be remembered—every trace was engraven on the heart in lines never to be effaced. Then Dr. Bunting, in words still eloquent, and, what is better still, in words full of pious feeling, responded to the visit and words of the poet. The address of Mr. Osborn, in particular, was pre-eminently beautiful. While Mr. W. M. Bunting

was speaking, another scene opened. The students of Wesley College—the tutors, scholars, and gownsmen in their proper scholastic costume—entered the Chapel, headed by their Governor and Chaplain, the Rev. S. D. Waddy. These were arranged around the front of the gallery. And now the scene was most beautiful. On the platform, were the seniors, of the Conference, men of weight and wisdom, and (some of them) of venerable age ;—in the centre of the platform, and on the right of the President, was the frail, but venerable, form of James Montgomery, his eye still beaming forth a ray of kindly genius and tremulous tenderness, and his features still revealing, amid all the tokens of decay, the sensitive and spiritual life of the poet's quick nature ;—in the body of the Chapel were the Ministers ; on the left, under the gallery, a privileged company of ladies sat, to drink to their hearts and memories the impressions of the present scene ;—around, and in front of the gallery, a crown of bright, intelligent youth, encompassed the whole. Hoary age—vivid youth—the beauty of feminine emotion—the earnestness of masculine reverence—and eager, wondering, half awe-struck gaze of brisk boyhood, solemnized for the moment, and of young aspiring youths, who had learned intelligently to venerate the poet, and to feel a filial regard for the assembled Pastors of their paternal Church—all met here in one centre—all were united in this lovely and sacred scene. What various lights, with striking contrasts, what softened shades, what brilliant hues, were all assembled here !—*London Watchman.*

THE OTTAWA COUNTRY.

The Country drained by the Ottawa river and its tributaries embraces an area of 80,000 square miles, the aggregate area of the New England States. This extensive region presents a great variety of soil and scenery. The timber producing districts occupying a large proportion of its surface are generally not well adapted for settlement, and it is not probable that these portions will ever be reclaimed for agricultural purposes. These districts, however, are the most remote and least favoured as regards climate, and for centuries to come they will continue to produce immense supplies of wood for exportation ; while the extensive country less remote on this magnificent stream and its numerous branches presents the most desirable agricultural capabilities.

The whole of this country South of latitude 48 degrees produces white pine of good quality, but the region growing red pine is limited to about one-fourth of this. The Western part of the Red Pine country extends as far South as latitude 45 degrees and Northward to latitude 47½ degrees, and the Eastern part lies between 46 and 48 degrees,—the extreme length from East to West being about two hundred and thirty-five miles, ending Westward at 80 degrees West longitude.

In its geological character, as well as in some other respects, the Ottawa Country bears some similarity to the Eastern portion of the United States. The granite formation of the prevailing one, and excepting 4,000 square miles of the country lying on the Ottawa, and some of its lower tributaries on the South side, which rest on the limestone, the region presents the usual characteristics of the primitive formation. The limestone tract referred to presents a remarkably level uniform surface, and is exceedingly well adapted for Agriculture. The other portions, though uneven, are not mountainous,—there being no elevations in the country of sufficient altitude to merit the name of mountain,—and they contain extensive tracts of beautiful land. Taking the following general classification in the aggregate, there is in the Ottawa Country, according to the most accurate information :

Red Pine country,	88,000 sq. miles.
Fit for settlement,	23,000 "
Remainder,—Lakes, rocky hills, &c., &c.,	19,000 "
	—
	80,000

The geographical arrangement of the divisions thus classified is very remarkable, as being the most advantageous possible. The part best adapted for settlement forms the Southern section, and is the most easily accessible, enjoys the best climate, and is most contiguous to the other settled part of the Province,—while the Red Pine division occupies a portion extending far Northward, and enjoys very great advantages in consequence, having longer winter, with deeper snow and steady frost, which facilitate most materially the Lumbering operations.

Of this extent of country there is now about 6,600 square miles surveyed into townships above the head of the Lake of Two Mountains, of which 2,350 square miles are occupied. According to the Census taken in January, 1852, the population was 136,848.—*Ottawa Citizen.*

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION



TORONTO, SEPTEMBER, 1852.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS OF UPPER CANADA, DURING THE YEAR 1851.

Availing ourselves of the Annual Report lately submitted to Parliament by the Chief Superintendent of Schools, we make a few extracts, with a view to show the progress which Upper Canada has made in educational matters during the year 1851:—

"1. *Moneys paid Teachers.*—The amount of the Legislative School Grant apportioned to schools in 1851, was the same, with the addition of £10 4s. 7d., as it was in 1850; but the amount of money paid Teachers in 1851, exceeded the amount paid them in 1850, by £15,402 1s. 6d. The total amount received for Teachers' salaries in 1850, was £88,429 8s. 7d.; in 1851, £102,050 12s. 6d.; increase, £13,621 3s. 11d. The total amount paid Teachers in 1850, was £82,425 5s. 6d.; in 1851, £97,827 7s.; increase, £15,402 1s. 6d. The increase under this head in 1851, is considerably more than the total increase under the same head during the whole of the three years preceding. This fact is auspicious for the prospects of the common schools, honorable to the country, and encouraging to school Teachers.

"If the manner in which this increase has been produced be examined, it will appear still more gratifying. The total amount required to be raised by the Municipalities, in order to receive the Legislative School Grant, was £19,027 1s. 6d.; the total amount assessed and collected by the Municipalities for Teachers' salaries, was £25,835 17s. 6d., being an increase on the preceding year, under the same head, of £2,398 14s. 9d., or £6,808 16s. more than the actual amount required to be raised by the Municipalities.

"The amount levied and collected in School Sections by *rate-bill*, was, in 1850, £39,043 9s. 9d.; in 1851, £33,577 9s. 3d.; a decrease of £5,466 0s. 6d.;—shewing that the system of rate-bills on parents and guardians sending children to the school, is declining; while the amount levied and collected in School Sections by a *rate on property* (on the principle of *free schools*) was, in 1851, £19,832 13s. 7d.,—a head under which there were no returns in 1850."

"2. *Moneys for the Building, Repairs, Rent, &c. of School Houses and School Apparatus.*—Under this head the total amount collected and expended was, in 1850, £14,189 14s. 0d.; in 1851, £19,334 18s.; increase £5,145s. 4s."

"3. *Grand Total of School Moneys.*—No returns were obtained in 1850 of moneys collected and expended in support of other educational institutions, including Grammar Schools, Colleges, &c. Under these heads are reported for 1851, £32,834 7s. 8d., making the grand total of moneys received and expended in Upper Canada for educational purposes for the years 1850 and 1851 respectively, according to the returns, as follows:—For 1850, £102,619 2s. 7d.; for 1851, £154,230 18s. 2d. The actual increase in 1851, in the sums available for common school purposes, over those of 1850, amounts to the sum of £18,777 7s. 11d."

"*Number of Children of School age, and attending the Schools, Classification of Pupils, &c.*—From Table B. it appears, that the number of children in Upper Canada, between the ages of five and

sixteen years, in 1851, was £258,607, being a decrease of 651 on the number reported for 1850. There is reason to believe, that the local reports for 1850 exaggerated the number of children in many of the school divisions, with a view of obtaining a larger share of the School Fund; but in 1851, a more efficient supervision of the returns was exercised, and there was not the same temptation to exaggerate the number of resident children of school age, as the fund was not, in future, to be distributed on that basis.

"The number of children reported as attending the schools in 1851, was 170,254, while the number reported as attending the schools in 1850, was 151,891; being an increase in favour of 1851 of 18,363, a much larger increase than was ever before reported in any one year.

"The total number of *Boys* reported as attending the schools in 1851, was 94,439, being an increase on the preceding year of 8,721: the total number of *Girls*, was 75,815, being an increase of 9,642.

"The total number of pupils attending the schools in the *summer*, was 83,390,—increase, 6,566; of *Boys*, 44,647,—increase, 2,863; of *Girls*, 38,743,—increase, 3,703.

"The total number of *pupils* attending the schools in the *winter*, was 84,981,—increase, 3,512; of *Boys*, 49,060,—increase, 752; of *Girls*, 35,921,—increase, 2,760.

"Table B. also shews, that in each of the various subjects taught in the schools, there is a large proportionate increase; in some of them a very large increase, especially in advanced *Grammar, Geography, Book-keeping, Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, Elements of Natural Philosophy, Vocal Music, &c.*"

"*Comparison between Upper Canada and the State of New York, in respect to the System and State of their Common Schools.*—1. There are three particulars in which we must at once yield the palm to our American neighbours. (1). They have school-houses and schools in their cities and towns, with which we have as yet nothing to compare; but from what has been done and is doing, in several of our cities and towns, I am confident this contrast will soon be superseded by comparison. (2). They have numerous school libraries, while we as yet have none; but in this they are rather declining than advancing, for want of needful authority and caution, and severe discrimination in the beginning in the selection of proper books, and the consequent introduction into their libraries of an immense amount of trash, which has greatly depreciated their value, lessened their usefulness, and in some instances led to their abandonment. I trust, if we move slowly in this part of our system, we shall proceed more safely, as well as more economically and successfully. (3). Of the 753,047 children of school age in the State of New York, 726,291 of them are reported 'as having been under instruction for a longer or shorter period, during the year 1851;' while of the 258,607 of our children of school age, but 170,254 are reported as having attended the common schools in 1851. It is, however, but just to remark, that nearly 20,000 more of our children are reported as having attended school in 1851 than in 1850; while 196,561 children in the State of New York are reported as having attended school less than two months of the year, and 212,578 of them between two and four months, and 170,005 of them for four months and less than six months. It may also be observed, though great improvements have been made in their schools in cities and towns, their annual school reports furnish very little indication of progress in the *rural* parts of the State, while school progress with us is in general more conspicuous in the rural portions of our country than in our cities, towns and villages.

"2. The average period during which the schools were kept open in the State of New York in 1851, 'was seven months and seventeen days;' in Upper Canada it was nine months and twenty-eight days.

"3. According to the last census of the State of New York, taken in 1850, the population of that State was a fraction more than four times that of the population of Upper Canada. There ought, therefore, to be four times as large a sum raised for the salaries of common school Teachers in that State as in Upper Canada. The total amount of money raised for the salaries of Teachers in 1851 (including the large School Fund) was \$1,350,345, or £337,586; the total amount raised in Upper Canada in 1851 for the same purpose was £102,052, or \$408,208—nearly one-third the amount raised in the State of New York.

"The length of time during which the schools are kept open during the year, and the amount of money raised for the salaries of Teachers are the two strongest tests of the doings of a people in regard to education.

"4. The adoption and use of an uniform series of good textbooks throughout the country, and the facilities for procuring school maps and apparatus, are a great saving of time and money to the children and people of Upper Canada, in comparison to the subjection to perpetual changes of school books and maps which are taking place in the State of New York, arising from the absence of any State authority and provision in these respects, and the representations and collusions of interested book and map sellers and Teachers.

"5. The examination and licensing of Teachers by County Boards, according to a programme, prescribed by public authority, and establishing an uniform standard of qualification and classification of Teachers throughout the country, must be a much more effectual provision to secure Teachers of good character and proper qualifications, the examination and licensing of Teachers by individual township Superintendents and Trustees.

"6. There are no Normal School buildings in the State of New York, or in any State of America, equal to those which are nearly completed in Upper Canada.

"7. The great principles, and general outline and provisions of our School Law, being the result of extensive inquiry and mature deliberation, our School Law may be considered as settled; and what appears to remain, and all that is desired by any considerable party on this subject, is, the filling up of that outline, and the extension of those provisions, as circumstances may require. But the following extract from the last Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools in the State of New York, presented to the Legislature in January of the past year, shows that, after forty years legislation on the subject of common schools, our neighbours are still considering first principles, and are proposing to adopt the peculiar features of our Canadian school system. The State Superintendent says:—

"By a resolution of the Assembly, of the 11th of July last, the Governor was authorized to appoint a commissioner whose duty it should be to prepare and report to the legislature, at its ensuing session, an entire common school code, in one act. Under this authority, the appointment of commissioner was conferred on Samuel S. Randall, late Deputy Superintendent of common schools, who proceeded at once to the discharge of the duty thus devolved upon him, and whose report will be forwarded to the legislature at an early period of its session. Following, as this resolution of the Assembly did, immediately upon the completion of a full consolidation and arrangement of the existing provisions of law in relation to common schools, under the act of the last session, the commissioner deemed himself authorized to incorporate in the new revision such amendments and modifications of the system now in force, as in his best judgment, after full and free consultation with the most enlightened and experienced friends of education throughout the State, seemed desirable and necessary. The principal suggestions and recommendations made by him in the discharge of this important and responsible duty, are fully in accordance with the views of the department; and their adoption will, it is confidently believed, place our common school system upon a permanent and satisfactory basis. They are understood to embrace as their leading and prominent objects, 1st. The separation of the office of Superintendent of Common Schools, from that of Secretary of State, and its erection into a separate and distinct department; 2nd. The substitution of a permanent annual State tax of one mill upon every dollar of the aggregate real and personal property of the State, for the support of Common Schools, in lieu of the present tax of eight hundred thousand dollars; and 3rd. The restoration, in a modified form, and with suitable guards and restriction, of the system of county supervision.

"The proposed alterations of the existing system are independent of each other; and any one or more of them may be adopted by the Legislature and engrafted upon the system to the exclusion of others, or the whole may be rejected, leaving the enactments of the present law to stand substantially as they are, with a new and improved classification and arrangement, and with such modification of their details as to adapt them more perfectly to the objects for which they were designed, and to carry out more fully the obvious views and wishes of the Legislature. Some amendments of the existing law will doubtless be found absolutely indispensable, and if combined with a full and complete revision of the system, in such a manner as to render it permanent, as far as may be practicable, there can be no doubt that the interests and welfare of the schools and of the inhabitants and officers of the several districts, will be materially promoted by such an arrangement."

ADVICE TO A YOUNG TEACHER.

MY DEAR FRIEND,—Let me advise you to keep your school room neat and clean, and do what you can to render it pleasant and inviting. This I conceive to be of great importance. It is important not only as regards appearance, order and comfort, but it is important in its educational effects. The tastes and habits of children are greatly influenced by the condition of things around them.

You should have some plan regulating the sweeping, dusting, &c., so as to secure uniformity of neatness. Unless you do this, your room will often get into disorder, and present a slovenly and untidy appearance.

Presuming that you "keep no help," and have plenty of large scholars who are not above doing house work, I would suggest that you appoint one each day to attend to the above duties, and see that everything is in its appropriate place. You might, for convenience, call this individual the monitor, or monitor of neatness. You would find it excellent economy to provide your school room with a little box, and name it the "Litter Box." Let this be passed through the aisles, by the monitor of neatness, just before the close of school each half day, to receive the scraps of paper and other litter which may have accumulated on the floor about the desks, and which every scholar should be required carefully to pick up and deposit in the box as it passes.

You should insist on having your scholars clean their feet before coming into the room. It will save you much dust and dirt. In a muddy time, it would be well to require the monitor to stand at the door, immediately after the ringing of the bell, and remind forgetful boys of this thing.

The order and neatness of scholars' books and desks should receive some attention. You may have noticed a great difference in schools, in this respect. In some, you will see the little geographies and readers neatly covered with cloth or paper, with leaves unsoiled, and handled by clean hands; and you will not discover so much as the scratch of a pin upon any desk, or a pencil mark upon the white walls of the room. In others, you will witness the reverse of this: books soiled and torn; some with covers dangling, others with their leaves falling out; desks hacked and mutilated, and the walls defaced by grotesque figures and scrawls of writing. Now this is wrong, very wrong; and teachers are chiefly to blame for such a condition of things. By exercising a little care, they can correct the evil.

Perhaps as good a way as any to arouse the attention of pupils to this matter and kindle their pride, is to appoint a committee, whose duty it should be to inspect the books and desks each week, and report their condition, in writing, to be read before the school. Commend them in all their efforts to do as you desire; and I will say to you that, as a general rule, in all your intercourse with your scholars speak a dozen words of praise to one of censure. Where this ratio is reversed, the teacher may seriously inquire, whether the chief fault does not lie in himself.

Encourage, as far as possible, the personal neatness and cleanliness of your pupils. Get up a penny contribution to purchase a wash-bowl, soap, comb, and brush, if your room is unprovided, and you will be surprised to see how such an arrangement will improve the appearance of your little fellows, who have been taught at home not to be afraid of a little dirt.

After completing all of these plans and getting them into successful operation, you might, with safety—and you naturally would—go a little further, and adorn your room with vases of flowers, house plants, pictures—if you have them—and decorate the walls with evergreens. Perhaps your scholars would be able to collect a small cabinet of Natural History, to lend an additional interest. These things would afford you pleasing subjects for occasional remark, and aid you in your endeavours to smooth and soften their rough natures, and give them some refined and elevated notions of the beautiful and excellent.

I will close this communication by saying to you, that in all your arrangements, endeavour, as far as possible to enlist the co-operation of your scholars. Tell them of your plans and your reasons for adopting them, and ask them to aid and assist you in carrying them out. Make them feel that they have a personal interest in all the affairs connected with the school; that the school, in short, is *their* school, and that its reputation is *their* reputation.—*Ohio Journal of Education.*

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

There is probably no study which, in comparison with its importance, has received so little attention as this. The school-boy soon wearies of learning the names and locations of continents, peninsulas, islands, capes, mountains, oceans, seas, lakes, rivers, &c., &c.; together with their comparative size, length, distance from

each other, their population, navigation, character of inhabitants, varieties of animals, various productions, adding, it may be, the accompanying history of events connected with the different countries; and to what purpose? To be forgotten nearly as soon, and much more easily, than learned.

The introduction of maps, as aids to the study of geography, was a great improvement over the mere verbal text, and has tended greatly to facilitate the study of this branch, so that more may now be learned in one year than formerly in two or three.

We think that the judicious introduction of physical geography, in connection with topography, will very much increase the interest of the latter, while the knowledge it will afford, in and of itself, will exceed, by far, in importance, what is usually obtained, at the present time, even in our best schools.

Of what use is it that we know that there are certain mountains, seas, or rivers in Europe or Asia, if we are totally ignorant of their effects upon vegetation, upon civilization, and the condition of mankind? or that the different continents are so many miles in length, and so many in breadth, if we are unacquainted with the corresponding oceanic influence and the resulting facts?

How many scholars know why all the great deserts of the world are situated where they are, and that the physical laws are such that it is not possible that there could be anything but deserts in those places? How many know why the northern part of the Andes is almost wholly desert upon their western slope, and the southern part upon their eastern? or that, were this chain removed to the eastern side of South America, nearly the whole division would be one continuous desert?

These things are seldom spoken of as having any connection with the study of geography, and yet it would seem that they should constitute its very foundation.

Probably the difference in the civilization of Europe and Africa, is to be attributed more to the inland seas and gulfs, and the numerous rivers of the former, and their effects; and the absence of the same in the latter, together with other physical characteristics, than to any other causes whatever; but these things are seldom learned in the schools.

The scholar learns the results of these causes as merely abstract facts, and remembers them about as well as he would the conclusion to a proposition in Euclid, without having been through with the demonstration.

These things are not too difficult to be understood by the scholars in our grammar and high schools, and many of them come within the range of the lower classes. While a class are upon the rivers of North America, for example, if their attention should be called to the four distinct water systems formed by the Rocky Mountains, Alleghanies, and the table lands of British America, and to the length and course of the rivers, as determined by these table lands and mountains, they would learn to associate these things with the natural features of the country, thereby learning facts and reasons together; and when this class should pass to any other continent they would search first for the same natural data.

In giving a lesson upon the climate and productions of different portions of North America, the difference in the temperature of the eastern and western coasts, also of the coast and the interior, might be noticed, together with the course of the mountain ranges, and the fact that this continent is a great triangle with its base upon the arctic circle, and its vortex within the tropics. Many new thoughts would be suggested here, some of which could be digested at the time, and others might be filed away for future investigation. How many classes, while they recite upon the productions of British America, and the north of Spain, locations in about the same latitude, ever take into account the difference in climate, and especially ever inquire for the causes of the same?

The trade and periodical winds are intimately connected with physical geography, and, if properly illustrated, would open a rich vein of thought to the student. These great currents of air, constantly in motion, have to do with the amount of rain, the temperature, the vegetation, the animals, and the general condition of nature and of man throughout the tropical regions, and even beyond this limit.

Let the oceans, seas, gulfs, channels, lakes, rivers, mountains, peninsulas, capes, et cetera, be all studied, not as mere words, nor as simply places in certain geographical positions upon the earth, but let them be viewed in their relation to each other, and as indis-

pensable parts of a great whole, performing well their several offices as good citizens.

To illustrate these topics, no costly apparatus is needed. If the class have not seen the ocean, they have seen a lake or pond, with its miniature islands, bays, capes, &c.; and if they have not seen the Andes, they have been upon a hill and have gathered flowers in the valley; they have felt the wind and the heat, and can easily be made to understand the effects of the latter upon the atmosphere.

Let these be called in to speak for themselves, and to teach a lesson, which, while it illustrates the subject in hand, shall lead the minds of the young out into the kingdom of nature, and shall give to the hills and brooks, over and beside which they daily gambol, a voice which shall greatly instruct them.

[In connection with the foregoing article, we would direct the attention of parties interested to the catalogue of maps and atlases specially devoted to physical geography, kept for sale at the Educational Depository, Toronto. See Descriptive Catalogue, published in this and previous numbers of the *Journal of Education*, and also to the pamphlet edition of the "*Descriptive Catalogue*" just issued.]

PHYSICAL TRAINING IN SCHOOLS. GYMNASTIC EXERCISES.

CONCLUDED.

No. V.

Action 117. Hands on the pommels, spring up, rest a moment, then throw the right leg over the horse, lifting the right hand to let the leg pass over the back pommel into the saddle, bringing down the hand quickly on the pommel. Throw the leg back again, observing the same precautions: do this several times without coming to the ground.



Fig. 76.

Action 118. As action 117, with the left leg on the other side.

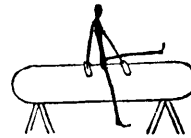


Fig. 77.

Action 119. Hands on the pommels, spring up, at the same time turn the body a little on one side, and throw the right leg over the front pommel, lifting up the left hand to let the right leg pass (fig. 77).

Action 120. As action 119 on the other side, with left leg.

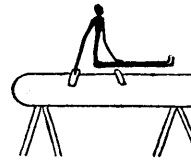


Fig. 78.

Action 121. Hands on the pommels, spring up, and instead of one leg, as in action 119, throw both legs over in front, so as to come down to the ground over on the feet, with face towards the head of horse. (fig. 78).

Action 122. As action 121, on the other side.

Action 123. As action 110, but instead of coming against the side of the horse, throw both legs over the back of the horse, and come down on the toes on the other side, with face towards the saddle (fig. 79).

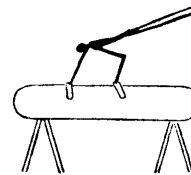


Fig. 79.

Action 124. As action 114, then swinging backwards cross both legs behind; turn the body, and sit in the saddle face towards the tail of the horse (fig. 80).—N. B. When in crossing the right leg goes over the left, you must turn the body to the right side, and when in crossing the left leg goes over the right, turn the body to the left side.

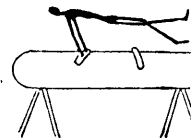


Fig. 80.

Action 125. Spring on the back of the horse, behind the saddle, place the left hand on the front pommel, and right hand on back pommel, raise the body a little, and swing round, and sit on the neck of the horse, so as to face the front pommel. Then put the right hand on front pommel, and left hand on back pommel, and swing round on back of horse; do this alternately several times (fig. 81).

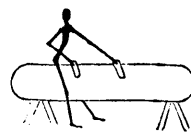


Fig. 81.

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" 2. The Tides & Phases of the Moon. " 4. The Effects of Refraction.	
(See "ATLASES," Section XI., of this Catalogue.)	

Educational Intelligence.

CANADA.

MONTHLY SUMMARY.

The *Pilot* says, "We are glad to hear that a new charter has been obtained, by which the management of McGill College will be entirely remodelled, and the direction of the institution placed in new hands. As matters have been for some years past, McGill College has been, for practical educational purposes, a mere dead letter. Properly managed, it offers the nucleus for a splendid Collegiate Institution. The new direction will be, we understand, of an entirely non-sectarian character, and will have at its head a learned Judge, whose claims to scholarship fit him more perhaps than any other man in the community for the situation." . . . The *Quebec Chronicle* states that "the Rev. John Cook, D.D., goes home for the purpose of obtaining three professors for Queen's College, Kingston." . . . The *Toronto Observer* says that the Baptists of Canada West have subscribed \$10,000 this year to the funds of the Rochester Baptist University, where the students of that body at present study. . . . The Municipal Council of Beckwith has appropriated the Tavern license fund of 1850-51 to the purchase of library books. 178 were distributed last year and 545 this year—total, 723 volumes. . . . The Grammar School of the United Counties of Huron, Perth and Bruce, was examined on the 30th ult., in presence of the Trustees and a number of parents and others interested. The exercises in the different classes were gone through with great precision, shewing that the pupils were well grounded in the principles: that they were not merely got up for the sake of shewing off at the Examination. . . . The public examination of the Cobourg Church Grammar School, took place upon the 16th, 17th, and 18th ult. The proficiency displayed by the boys must have been most satisfactory, both to the Masters and spectators. The answers in Virgil and Homer, evinced an intimate acquaintance with the language, ideas, and criticism of the authors, and ably maintained the high character which the School has already obtained, for strict and careful attention to the minutiae of the language. . . . The Secretary of the Southwold Teachers' Association requests us to state that it was organized on the 24th of August, by the appointment of Mr. P. Farrell President; Mr. J. Fraser, Vice-President; and Mr. C. Treble, Secretary-Treasurer. N. Silcox, Esq., was elected an honorary member, and the following gentlemen were requested to deliver lectures before the Association, viz:—Mr. C. Treble, on the Utility of the Association; Mr. P. Farrell, on the Science of Optics; Mr. J. Fraser, on Astronomy, and Mr. D. Wallace, on Mathematical Geography. After an agreeable session the Association adjourned until the 25th instant.

Common School Celebration—Opening of the New School Houses, Belleville.—We take the following from the *Hastings Chronicle* of the 16th August:—Yesterday will long be remembered by the people of Belleville, according to public announcement, the inhabitants celebrated yesterday the opening of the new School Houses in this town, by a grand Pic Nic in

Meyers' Grove. At half-past eleven o'clock the children of the various schools proceeded to the grove. We never saw as many of the youth of any place, who were better dressed, so well behaved, and intelligent looking as those who composed the procession which marched through our streets yesterday. It was a pleasing sight to witness the children of the rich and the poor, mingling together in one common group, and all cared for alike by the kind-hearted citizens who had provided an abundance of the good things of life for their entertainment. We had the pleasure of noticing another gratifying sight,—and it was the array of talent concentrated in the Ministers of the different Churches of Belleville, and of gentlemen of all shades of politics, on the same platform, who were to unite in boldly proclaiming the fact that the system of Free Schools was best adapted to educate the masses, and to establish and perpetuate in a country those principles which are calculated to elevate and render happy and prosperous all classes of the community.

After the refreshments had been partaken of, Paul Peterson, Esq., was called to the chair, who explained the object of the demonstration, and gave a short and interesting speech. Dr. Hope was the first gentleman called upon to speak, and after a few preliminary remarks, he showed conclusively, from statistics which he had collected, that the present mode of educating the children of Belleville, was the best that could be adopted to make a country what it should be, in an intellectual and other points of view. Other instructive addresses were delivered by Messrs. McEwen, Denike, Smart, Burdon, Benjamin, Hutton, Benson, Flint, Gregg, Davy, Galbraith, and Harding. Before closing, we will just mention that this enterprising and thriving town can boast of as good school buildings as any in the Province, and also of as efficient a class of Teachers as can be found. The brick school house, No. 3, is a perfect model. Sheriff Rutan's system of ventilation has been adopted in this building, and, for convenience and comfort, there is not another school in Canada that will surpass it. The other three buildings, erected for the same purpose, are equally commodious and convenient.

We say to the parents of those children who attend the schools in this town,—you may well be proud that you are so highly favoured in having such comfortable school houses, such sober and well qualified Teachers. Your youth are blessed above many others in our land.

Laying the Corner Stone of the new School House, Perth.—

The *Bathurst Courier* states that the ceremony of laying the corner-stone of the new public school house, took place on Saturday last. At half-past two o'clock, P.M., the Sons of Temperance and Cadets marched round to the Lodge Room of the Freemasons and Oddfellows. Here they were joined by the Masons and Oddfellows, dressed in the regalia of their respective orders. The whole then marched in procession through different parts of the town, and proceeded to the place where the school house is being erected. The proceedings were opened with prayer by the Rev. W. Bell. Mr. Thomas Brooke then read the scroll, which being deposited in a tin box along with several other documents, and all placed in a cavity of the stone prepared for the purpose, the ceremony was performed by Joshua Adams, Esq., County Warden, with Masonic honours. The band played the Queen's Anthem. W. O. Buell, Esq., then gave a rapid historical sketch of the school enterprise from the first settlement of Perth up to the present undertaking, interspersed with appropriate remarks upon the several events referred to, and with references to the action of the Legislature on the subject of education. He attributed the great changes which had taken place, tending to the establishment of a complete Provincial system of education, for the benefit of all classes, the poor as well as the rich, to the transference of power to the people in 1841, when our constitution became more assimilated to that of Great Britain, and dwelt upon the vast importance of popular education under our free institutions. He then took up the question of taxation and expenditure for school purposes in the town, and shewed that the balance of advantages were on the side of the Free School system. After some allusion to the New England States, the speaker proceeded to a series of remarks, shewing the intimate connection between education and enterprise—that an educated community was always an enterprising one—he illustrated his subject by references to the Electric Telegraph, Railroads, Manufactures, Banking and kindred associations, bringing these to bear on the condition of Perth—the speaker insisting that we had the materials, the men physically, for greater things, what was wanting was that energy, that resolution, that will which a more general and deeper attention to the cultivation of the mind must bring about. Music intervened, and Mr. McDonnell proceeded to a comparison between the state of public opinion in Perth 11 years ago and the present, when he saw a great change. He took up a number of the objections he had heard against the Free School system, and replied thereto. He was an advocate of popular education—of free schools—he was in favour of placing education within the reach of every man's child—and the present school house was being erected for that purpose—where the child of the

poor man, as well as the child of the rich man, could enter with his A B C, and come out a good classical and mathematical scholar, *free of charge*. He was opposed to class distinctions—he did not believe in any aristocracy but that of intellect, and the poor man's children had as good, and frequently a better, title to that than the rich man's—for the former had to battle their own way through the world, which called forth their energy of character, and taught them self-reliance, while the opposite was too frequently the case with the latter.

[This was, we believe, the last speech ever uttered by Mr. McDonnell. He was soon afterwards unfortunately killed by a fall from his buggy. Mr. McDonnell was always a warm friend to education in his County. A petition has lately been presented to the Board of Trustees, to permit the erection in the Perth school house of a tablet to Mr. McDonnell's memory.]

The Third Annual Educational Meeting for the Township of Whitby, will be held in the Town Hall at Brooklin, on Friday, the first day of October next, at 11 o'clock, A. M. In regard to this meeting the Editor of the *Freeman* remarks:—For the encouragement of the young arrangements were made for a public "gathering" of the several schools in the Township, annually, for two years past. These have been well attended. The children formed in procession; had music and speeches. The effect produced was good. It stirred up a spirit of emulation, and gave parents a new idea of the importance of competing in the education of their children to keep up at least with others. We think it would add to the interest of the scene, were two, three, or more of those who suppose themselves the best schools, to arrange and form a class on one or more subjects, to be examined by a Committee or by the Superintendent in presence of the audience. Prizes might be given as an inducement—perhaps the *honour* would be sufficient. This would show which school or scholars were best.

Renfrew Grammar School.—The half-yearly examination of this Institution took place last month in presence of the resident Trustees, several of the Clergy, and a considerable number of other friends, both male and female. The attendance of pupils was greater on this occasion than on any previous one—there being no less than 88 names upon the roll. The examination was thorough in every branch of education taught in the Seminary. It was delightful to witness the keen interest taken by the pupils in the business of the day—the almost invariable readiness with which the questions were answered; and the evident manifestations of progress on the part of the scholars, and of successful zeal on the part of Mr. Wilson, the Teacher.

Whitby Grammar School.—The annual examination of the pupils attending the Whitby Grammar School, was held at the Institution in this village, on Thursday and Friday the 22nd and 23rd ult. We were very much pleased with the proficiency which the scholars have attained under the able superintendence of Mr. James Hodgson. The first thing that attracted our notice on entering the school, was a great number of well executed maps, which were exhibited to view on the walls of the school room. After the examination of the maps and writing books had been finished, the master began the examination of the several classes in Spelling, Reading, English Grammar, and Latin and Greek exercises and translations, and Natural Philosophy and Agricultural Chemistry, the several classes of which acquitted themselves most honourably. The first day's exercises were brought to a close by a very rigid examination of a class of young ladies in English Grammar. The exercises of the afternoon were agreeably diversified by the pupils singing, accompanied as they were by a young lady on the piano, whose sweet notes added much to the enjoyment of those present.—*Ontario Reporter*.

BRITISH AND FOREIGN.

MONTHLY SUMMARY.

A Saracenic or Moorish building has just reached its full height on the east side of Leicester-square, and is beginning to excite attention. It is designed for an institution for science and art, under the title of Panopticon, and is intended to illustrate a wide range of practical usefulness. The council of the Panopticon desire to promote the application of science to the useful arts; to instruct, by courses of lectures to be demonstrated by instruments, apparatus, and other appliances, in the various departments of science and literature; to exhibit select specimens of work in the fine and mechanical arts, manufactures and handicrafts; to display the productions of nature and art, both British and Foreign; to illustrate history, science and literature, by pictorial views and representations, accompanied by music; and generally to extend and facilitate a greater love and knowledge of the arts and sciences on the part of the public.... Dr. Thomson, Professor of Chemistry in the University of Glasgow, died at Kilmun on the 2nd inst. Dr. Thomson was one of the most celebrated chemists of the age, and his investigations and discoveries contributed in

no small degree to enlarge and illustrate the science of which he was long so distinguished an ornament.... Arrangements have been made for the establishment of a new College for the education of Clergymen for Westmoreland, Cumberland, and North Lancashire. The Bishop of Carlisle has become the patron, the Bishop of Chester has accepted the office of visitor, and the Rev. J. A. Addison, M.A., of St. John's College, Cambridge, and Incumbent of Birthwate, near Kendal, has been appointed Warden.... The Attorney General's Solicitor has lately visited William of Wykeham's foundation, St. Mary's College, Winchester, with a view to the better administration of the noble endowments.... The Government have formally authorised St. David's College, Lampeter, to confer degrees in Divinity.... It may not be generally known that our Sovereign has, at Windsor, a Sabbath and a day class of children, belonging to the domestics, to which she unremittingly attends when the Court is held there.... A provincial French paper gives a list of the Professors of the University who have been dismissed, or who have resigned, since the *coup d'etat* of the 2nd of December, in consequence of having refused to take the oath of allegiance. Those belonging to the College de France are MM. Michelet, Quinet, Mickiewitz, Barthelmy St. Hilaire; of the Sorbonne, MM. Jules Simon, Cousin, and Villemain, have been placed on the retired list, at their own request, to avoid taking the oath; MM. Pouillet and Cauchy; of the Ecole Normale, MM. J. Simon, Vacherot, and Magy; of the School of Medicine, Doctor Chomel; of the different Colleges of Paris, MM. Bouteville, Clemencet, Senvall, Catalan, Jacques. Deschanel had been removed previous to the *coup d'etat*, and M. Despois resigned after that event.... Wong Fun, a young Chinaman, from Hong Kong, has carried off the first prize in the junior division of the botanical class, under Professor Balfour, at the Edinburgh University.... Since November last there have been coined at the Mint 3,500,000 sovereigns and half-sovereigns.... The Duke of Wellington died at Walmer Castle on the 14th inst. Lord Mahon is his literary executor.

Wesleyan Normal School, Westminster.—This Institution occupies an acre and three quarters of land in the very heart of Westminster, where land is expensive, but, at the same time, where a population is afforded of all the most in need of such instruction as the schools connected with the Normal Institution are intended to bestow, and the fittest to test and train the capabilities of the student-teachers, who are placed in the Institution to learn the art of calling forth, from the midst of impediments, and ignorance, and sin, the capabilities of an immortal spirit. The school department of the Institution comprises five schools, an infant, a junior, a senior, an industrial (girls') school, and a mixed or model village school, with twelve class-rooms, affording altogether the means of instruction for 2,333 children, and with ample and well-fitted play-grounds. The collegiate department contains accommodation for lodging, boarding, and training 100 students—including, of course, lecture-hall and library, as well as the dining-room, kitchen, dormitories, (one for each student,) &c., &c. In addition, the Institution includes committee-room, Principal's house, two masters' houses, gate-keeper's lodge, and lofty and substantial walls inclosing the whole, and effectually shutting out the degrading associations of the wretched district in which the Institution is situated. This noble Institution is the largest, the most substantial, and the most complete and beautiful building in Methodism. And its influence for good upon universal Methodism directly, and indirectly, upon this empire and the whole world, must be beyond calculation. It is at once a fruit and a seed; a fruit demonstrative of blessed influences and agencies in times past; a seed of immense and world-wide benefits in time to come. To Westminster directly, and through Westminster to London, and through London to the world, its mere school establishment will furnish the impulse of a moral sanitary movement, which will do more than anything else could do, towards the healthy ventilation of the sloughs of society, and the reclamation of the outcast masses of our race. It was a strong but a true saying of Mr. Wade's, that this mere school establishment alone, placed in the centre and core of the bad heart of Westminster, was worth the whole £40,000 that the Normal Institution had cost; but, after all, this is the least and lowest service which the Institution will perform.—[Watchman.

UNITED STATES.

MONTHLY SUMMARY.

The first prize for English composition, in the present sophomore class in Yale College, has been awarded to Ynug Wing, a native Chinese. ... Professor Augustus W. Smith, LL. D., has been elected President of the Wesleyan University, at Middleton, Ct., to fill the vacancy occasioned by the death of Dr. Olin.... The N. Y. City Board of Education have given notice that the evening schools for the free education of apprentices and others, will be re-opened this month, and will continue in session fourteen weeks. There were nineteen of these schools in operation last season, attended by 4,812 pupils under sixteen years of age; 2,748 between sixteen and twenty-one; and 1,226 over twenty-one. The number of teachers

was 55 in the male department; 81 in the female department, and 5 in the school for coloured children. The aggregate expense was \$12,606.36. The Board are prohibited by law from expending more than \$15,000 per annum for evening schools. Of the total number of females who attended last season, 148 were domestics, 58 book-folders, 84 dress-makers, 70 tailresses; and of the male, 204 were clerks, 139 errand and office-boys, 133 carpenters, 128 printers, 105 machinists, 97 masons, 75 blacksmiths, 63 paper-hangers, and 63 shoe-makers. These do not, however, comprise the whole list of the avocations, for we find among them persons engaged in almost every occupation. The total registered attendance is 8,276; and the average 3,035. The seventh annual convention of the N. Y. State Teachers' Association, was held at Elmira, last month. About 400 were in attendance. N. P. Stanton, of Buffalo, presided, and made an opening address. Mr. Newman, of Buffalo, read a report on union and central high schools. A report written by Miss Elizabeth Howard, on the education of Hayti, was read by Mr. Coburn, of Oswego. Mr. Anthony, of Albany, lectured on "law and its institutions." Rev. Mr. Chapman, from New Jersey, made a communication in regard to education in that State. Mr. McCallum, of Toronto, gave some account of the schools in Canada. Rev. Dr. Murdock, of the first Presbyterian Church, Elmira, delivered a lecture on the "Necessities which the invention of Railroads and the Telegraph create for the Education of the Masses." Professor Upson, of Hamilton College, gave an extremely interesting lecture, abounding with wit and humour. The subject was the "English Language in America." A lecture from Prof. Spencer, of Utica, on the "Connection between Thought and Language," occasionally expressed dissent from the views of Professor Upson. The next meeting was fixed at Rochester, first Tuesday in Aug., 1853.

Association for the Advancement of Education.—Newark, N. J., August 10.—The American Association for the Advancement of Education, met at Newark, N. J., the 10th ult., Bishop Potter, of Pennsylvania, presiding. The annual address was delivered by Bishop Potter. His subject was the condition of education in our country; and he said that a work on its advancement would be as valuable a contribution to the literature of the present day as was Bacon's work on the advancement of knowledge to science in his day. One great object was to enlarge the sphere of education, to carry it where it was not enjoyed, and to improve the instruction already imparted. There is a large mass in all our large cities too low to be reached by our ordinary systems, and who must be reached by the individual efforts of an enlarged philanthropy. There is a large class also who are partially educated, but withdrawn too soon from school, and launched upon the active world without parental guides. To such, evening schools and volunteer associations for mental improvement have been found of great benefit. He spoke of the want of a work on the true philosophy of education, and said that the subject might be reviewed from two stand points—divine and human. He alluded to the use of the rod, as justified by God, who punishes the mind and body, by disease, &c. Emulation is a vulgar instrument to which vulgar minds hasten, and was to be guarded against. The principle of Miss Edgeworth, never to exact submission from a child, till his consent was gained, was rationalism with a vengeance. It was sacrificing his own prospects and peace of the family to a remorseless will. Let us not be wiser than God: in his school, we have constant demands upon our faith and submission to bereavements. The imagination also has its office in teaching. After all, said the speaker, we rely too much on teaching, and too little on training. The following resolutions were passed:—

Resolved, That the standing committee be instructed to take such measures as they may deem most effectual and proper, to obtain from the Congress of the United States the appropriation of the future instalments of the surplus revenue for the benefit of the common schools of all the States.

Resolved, That this Association hear with pleasure of the establishment, in this country, of female schools of design, or schools of ornamental art, as they are sometimes called, beholding in them one of the legitimate fruits of general rudimentary education, and looking upon them as important instruments in opening up proper fields for the exercise of female industry and talent, and as laying the foundation of intelligent independence in the industrial pursuits of the country.

Resolved, That educational journals are among the most efficient auxiliaries in the advancement of popular education, and deserve the cordial support of teachers, and the liberal patronage of the community.

Mr. Chase, of New Jersey, read a paper on "School Discipline." He said:—"There was a class who thought the rod was all powerful, like the one we read of in the good book, and considered the marks on the back more indicative of intellectual advancement, and improvement, than any bumps on the head. Others, on the contrary, would not have it used at all, and would call in the civil power. Both methods are only valuable as judiciously used. We have not thought proper to place our teachers in the position of one who stood calling for Hercules, but rather to let all power centre in himself, and depend on his own judgment. The teacher fails in discipline, because the parents excuse children from duty. This was very

wrong. If the parents sent a child to school, unfit for school duty, they were to blame; but while it was able, no excuse should pass the school house threshold. In this, sometimes the teacher was to blame. There were also two sorts wanted—those who had no bodies and those who had no souls. The teacher ought not allow himself to be interfered with, or dictated to, any more than a physician. The teacher should be a self-governed man, and the embodiment of the school. He was the head which governed it, was always giving out impressions which were reflected in the pupils. Was respect necessary, self-government would receive it, for "he who governs his own spirit, is greater than he who taketh a city." The scholars would immediately perceive the cause, if he were swayed by passion. The executor of the law must himself be law-abiding. He should know when to think himself, and when to make his pupils think, and not to treat them as if his school was one soul and so many bodies. A knowledge of human nature was required." Some debate was then had upon the proper modes of school discipline. Dr. Hare, of Philadelphia, urged that the practice of threatening children should be avoided, and contended that the true method of governing them was to awaken their consciences to a just sense of duty. Mr. Greenleaf, of Brooklyn, enforced the importance of system and punctuality, and argued that the surest means of keeping good order in a school, was to make the studies interesting to the pupils, by showing the value of knowledge to them in after life. In regard to educating males and females together, he thought it might do very well in the family circle, or at the primary schools, but he should certainly deem it objectionable in academies. Mr. Ira Mayhew, of Michigan, concurred with Mr. Greenleaf. The secretary presented a report from the standing committee, announcing the appointment of the following committees, to report at the next annual meeting, viz:—On School Libraries—E. R. Potter, D. Read, Ira Patchin. On Normal Schools—Henry Barnard, S. Galloway, T. Rainey. On Uniformity in the Items and Forms of Reports by State and Local Superintendents—Hon. S. S. Randall. On Modes in which the Association can best Promote the Interests of Education in Common or Public Schools—Hon. E. C. Benedict. On the Philosophy of Education—Prof. J. Henry. On the Relative Value of Mathematics and Languages as Gymnastics of the Mind—Professor W. H. Allen. On Free Lecture Education—Dr. B. Sears, J. Johannotta, J. McCormick. On Grades of Schools—D. Washburn, of Philadelphia; J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania; Prof. Foster, of Union College; S. Chase, of Newark. A letter was read from Mr. O. B. Pierce, of Rome, N. Y., chairman of a committee appointed to report on "The Relation of Ignorance to Crime," stating that "the mere statistics of the report, independent of the deductions made by the committee therefrom, place beyond doubt or cavil, that education, at any cost, is the cheapest and only sure specific against the disease of the body public." After the various resolutions were passed, the Association adjourned *sine die*. The next annual meeting will be held in Pittsburgh, on the second Tuesday of August, 1853.

Literary and Scientific Intelligence.

MONTHLY SUMMARY.

Macaulay has finished two more volumes of his History of England, and will publish them this winter. The Dublin *Evening Mail* of Monday week says, that Lord Derby has given authority for the translation and publication of the whole of the famous Brehon Laws; and that the task has been intrusted to Dr. Todd, and Dr. Graves. Mr. Lennie, the Grammarian, and author of many other works bearing his name, died on the 20th ultimo, at the advanced age of 73. The Queen has permitted the finest specimens of Sevres porcelain to be removed from Buckingham Palace to the Museum at Marlborough House, for the use of the students in the department of practical art. The collection is reported to be the finest in Europe. An interesting relic of antiquity has recently been brought to light at the mansion of Mr. G. H. Vernon, Grove Hall, near Retford. It is a map of the county of Nottingham, in needle-work, on a large scale, worked in 1632. Some idea of its magnitude may be formed when we state that it occupies a space of nine square yards. It is the workmanship of Mrs. Mary Eyre, wife of Mr. Anthony Eyre, of Loughton-le-Morthen, and also of Kiveton Park. A most valuable work, it is said, has just been issued at Stockholm, Sweden. It is "Sketches of a Tour in the United States, by P. A. Siljeström;" and is entirely devoted to an examination of the school system in that country. M. Siljeström was sent out by the Swedish Government to make enquiries on this weighty point, and an octavo of nearly 500 pages is the result, abounding in information of the most valuable kind, and far surpassing any other European book on the subject. Mr. Tremenhoe, has just published a book in England, which is reprinted at Boston, entitled, "Notes on Public Subjects," in which he devotes a large space to the state of education in the United States and Canada. The reference to education in Canada is

an extended one. He quotes freely from the Chief Superintendent's Annual Reports.... The Royal Academy of History of Madrid is about to undertake a work of the greatest utility for the national history. It is the publication of the principal laws, statutes, and municipal privileges (*fueros*) of the provinces and the large towns of Spain. In order to collect these documents, the Academy has appointed a commission composed of 20 historians and others, who will examine the local archives for this purpose. M. Pascual Gayangos, who is already celebrated for his researches on the ancient history of Spain under the Moors, is the President of this commission.... It cost Lord Lytton twenty years to write the Life and History of Henry II.; the historian Gibbon was twelve years in completing his Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire; and Adam Smith occupied ten years in producing his Wealth of Nations.... The French Government has resolved to send a new scientific mission into the interior of South America; and instructions as to the investigations and observations in natural history, botany, astronomy, geology, meteorology, &c., which it may be desirable to make, have been demanded from the Academy of Sciences. The mission is specially to occupy itself with the provinces of Brazil, Paraguay, and Bahia.... Let us mention that we have found the children of the Sovereign, at nine in the morning, at the Museum of Practical Art; and, on another occasion, at the same hour, amidst the Elgin marbles; not the only wise hint to the mothers of England and Canada to be found in the highest place.... A letter from Vienna of the 17th, says:—Several European powers have accepted the proposition of the English Government to convoke a congress at London, in order to come to an agreement respecting the regulating of the coin. France, Denmark, Sweden, Spain, and Portugal, have been specially nominated. The invitations have been ulteriorly addressed to the states of Germany. The congress will not commence its deliberations till November next; meanwhile a statistical bureau will be established for the purpose of making the necessary preparations.... Great preparations are being made for the Industrial Exhibition of 1853, to be held at Dublin. The opening of the Exhibition has been fixed for the first week of May, and circulars have been addressed to every exhibitor whose name appears on the official catalogue of the Exhibition of last year; also, to the chief magistrate of every city, town, and burgh, throughout the United Kingdom, asking their co-operation.... There was a rule in an old debating society which might be advantageously recommended to some of our public bodies—"That any gentleman wishing to speak the whole evening should have a room to himself.".... The Manchester Free Library, which has been established at a cost of £12,000, raised by public subscription, was opened on the 2nd of September. Lord Shaftesbury, Mr. Charles Dickens, Sir E. Bulwer Lytton, and other eminent men were present. The proceedings were of a highly interesting character.... The local committee at Belfast has been actively making preparations for the accommodation and entertainment of the British Association in that town. Various excursions have been arranged during the meeting. On Thursday, the day after the meeting, a steam-boat excursion is projected to the Giant's Causeway.

Pensions to Literature and Science.—A report has been issued this week of pensions on the Civil List granted from June, 1851, to June, 1852. The following are in consideration of services in literature or science:—To Mrs. Jameson, £100 for her literary merits; To Mr. James Silk Buckingham, £200 for literary merits and useful travels in various countries; Mr. Robert Torrens, F.R.S., £200 for his valuable contributions to the science of political philosophy; to Professor John Wilson of the University of Edinburgh (Christopher North of "Blackwood") £300 for his eminent literary merits; to Mrs. Reid, the widow of Dr. James Reid, Professor of Ecclesiastical and Civil History in the University of Glasgow, £50, and £50 to his family, in consideration of Dr. Reid's valuable contributions to literature; to Mrs. Macarthur, widow of Dr. Alexander Macarthur, Superintendent of Model Schools and Inspector of Irish National Schools, £50; to Mr. John Britton, £75. We learn, also, that to Mr. Hinds, the Astronomer, a pension has been granted of £200; to Dr. Mantell, the Geologist, £100; and to Mr. Ronalds, of the Kew Observatory, £75.—*Literary Gazette.*

Schools of Design.—From a return which just has been printed, it appears that, in the five metropolitan schools there are 16 professors, masters, and assistant masters. The highest salary is £300 with a portion of fees; the lowest, £32 with a portion of fees. The head master, who receives £390 a-year, is engaged 22½ hours per week; and the assistant master with £32 a-year and fees, is engaged only five hours in the week. In the provincial schools there are 41 masters, and the salaries vary from £25 to £300. One is engaged 40 hours in the week, and all the masters receive portions of the fees, and their hours of attendance vary in number.

Fate of Books.—In a work published in 1822, it is said there are 1000 books published per annum in Great Britain, on 600 of which there is a commercial loss, on 200 no gain, on 100 a trifling gain, and only on

100 any considerable profit; 750 are forgotten within the year, another 100 in two years, other 100 in three years, not more than 50 survive seven years, and scarcely 10 are thought of after twenty years. Of the 50,000 books published in the seventeenth century, not 50 are now in estimation. And of the 80,000 published in the eighteenth century, not more than 300 are considered worth reprinting, and not more than 500 are sought after in 1822. Since the first writings, 1400 before Christ, i. e., in thirty-two centuries, only about 500 works of writers of all nations have sustained themselves against the devouring influence of time.

Editorial and Official Notices, &c.

NOTICE TO CANDIDATES FOR SCHOOL TEACHING.

The new Normal School Buildings will be completed during the month of October. The exercises of the Winter Session of the Normal School (which will commence on the 15th November and close the 15th April,) will take place in the new buildings, where every facility will be provided for the improvement of the student-teachers in training. Any information as to the terms of admission to the Normal School, and form of application, can be obtained by addressing the Chief Superintendent of Schools, Education Office, Toronto.

BOOK SELLER AND AGENT, HAMILTON.

THE Subscriber, thankful for past favours, begs to call the attention of his numerous friends, and of the public generally, to his

NEW ESTABLISHMENT, KING STREET WEST,

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