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THE ORIGIN AND GROWTH OF THE PRESENT SCHOOL SYSTEM OF ENGLAND & WALES.

A RECENT ADDRESS BY SIR JAMES SHUTTLEWORTH, BART.,
(Late Secretary to the Privy Council Committee on Education.)

In the commencement of his remarks, Sir James thus pointed out the different positions occupied by the Government and the religious denominations. The Governmental authority, he said, was purely secular—the other was strictly spiritual. The civil power desired to avoid all interference in religious teaching, but sought to protect the rights of conscience by securing perfect liberty to the parent to select the school, and to regulate the religious instruction of his child; whereas every religious communion watched with jealousy every interference of the State which might, even indirectly, limit its power over the school. Each communion regarded the school as the nursery of the congregation, in which its children and youth were to be trained, not simply in the rudiments of Biblical and catechetical knowledge, but in those sentiments, without which mental cultivation does not develop into a Christian life.

FIRST EXPERIMENT OF A GOVERNMENT NORMAL SCHOOL IN ENGLAND.

When, therefore, in 1839, the government announced to Parliament an experiment in a Normal School to be founded by the Committee of Council, the instruction in religion was to be distinguished as consisting of what was general,—or what was accepted throughout Christendom as the foundation of

Christian morality and doctrine,—and secondly, of what was special, or of those matters of instruction which were the characteristic distinctions of separate communions. This Minute disclosed the mode in which the Government desired to promote general religious instruction; and to protect the rights of parents and of religious communions in bringing up their children and youth in their own forms of faith and worship. The Executive thus sought to give proof of its intention to carry into execution the declaration made by Lord John Russell, in his letter to Lord Lansdowne, that it was her Majesty's wish that the youth of this kingdom should be religiously brought up, and that the rights of conscience should be respected. But, viewed from the position occupied by the heads of the religious communions, the mode by which the government sought to accomplish these objects excited the most lively alarm.

OPPOSITION OF THE FIRST GOVERNMENT PROPOSITION IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

That the State should charge itself with the training of teachers was apparently to declare that teachers should no longer occupy a position in the religious organisation near to that of the pastor. The teacher might train his scholars in all the common rudiments of faith and duty, unexceptionally, under the guidance of local managers, representing our common Christianity; but he became a part of the civil organisation of the country. The managers might exercise the utmost vigilance against everything which could sap the foundations of our ancestral faith. This might be done universally with success and without reproach. But the doubt remained, whether such a training would as effectually prepare the scholars for those acts of worship which are, in the great mass of the people, not simply significant external signs, but the means by which a religious life is fostered. This doubt was genuine and legitimate. I am not speaking my own opinion, but this was the genuine conviction of the communions of Great Britain. In order to give the fullest effect to teaching of religion in schools, they claimed the liberty to present truth with that earnestness and sentiment which faith gives to practical instruction in the duties of life. The proposal of the government, therefore, met so general an opposition from the religious communions that, notwithstanding the desire which probably existed in the House of Commons to take the first step towards founding a common school, it was felt that this plan could not be carried into execution. The Ministry itself staggered under the blow which

the opposition (in the storm of reprobation excited by this proposal) was enabled to inflict upon it. The Minutes of 1839, even when this obnoxious plan was withdrawn, barely escaped defeat. The grant of £30,000 for that year was passed with a majority of only two votes. Those who were responsible for the whole of these proceedings as members or advisers of the Committee of Council on Education, must recollect the denunciations with which they were assailed in both Houses of Parliament and in the press. It was a very small matter indeed to be misunderstood, to be denounced by prelates and statesmen as infidels. Under the influence of a paramount claim of duty, in private life, it would not be difficult to bear patiently even worse misconstruction. And this controversy left the impression that the convictions expressed by the religious communions of England were entitled to more respect in such a matter than even the will of the civil power.

EDUCATIONAL PROCEEDINGS OF THE GOVERNMENT IN ENGLAND—
OPPOSITION TO THE SECOND PARLIAMENTARY MEASURE.

The civil government had done little or nothing for the education of the people since the foundation of the Grammar-schools, chiefly in the days of Edward and Elizabeth. The religious communions had, towards the latter end of the last century, founded, and had since with remarkable zeal and success greatly extended and improved, the Sunday-schools of England and Wales. Such elementary day-schools as existed owed their origin to the same zeal of Christian congregations. These schools were for the most part supported by congregational subscriptions and collections—managed by the ministers and principal laymen, and conducted by a teacher appointed by them. The number of these schools was to be weighed against their comparative inefficiency. Their resources in school-pence and subscriptions formed no insignificant contribution towards the cost of a new national institution, which could not be supported in efficiency without the annual outlay of millions. The zeal of the managers, the vigilance of the ministers, the character and motives of the teachers, were such as might be brought into successful comparison with those of any body of civil functionaries. If, therefore, the age was not ripe for a school common to our religious faith; if it was not self-conscious that the several denominations of Christians are only worshipping in separate chapels of one great cathedral; and was it not required from a statesman to accept the aid of this religious organization, in order to make the means of giving an education which should ultimately eradicate the barbarism of ignorance from our people? Such ultimately was the decision of the government; but it passed through another storm of misconception in 1842. Sir James Graham, then Secretary of State for the Home Department, was painfully conscious of the inefficiency of the schooling obtained by children, who, under the Factories' Regulation Act, were withdrawn from labour for instruction during half of each day. With great zeal and sincerity, he brought the powers of Sir Robert Peel's strong government to remedy these defects. A measure was prepared with the most deliberate care, but it encountered the necessity of defining a constitution for the schools in which the factory children were to be taught. The Minute of 1839 had been constructed on the basis of religious equality,—the Bill of 1842 was founded on that of religious toleration. Even on this ground, it scarcely conciliated the cold and reluctant assent of the Church of England, whereas it encountered the reprobation of every other religious communion. The Bill therefore was withdrawn. Two such signal defeats, together with incessant controversy on almost every act of their administration, were proofs of the extreme distrust with which the Committee of Council on Education were regarded by every religious denomination.

Those churchmen who most emphatically asserted the authority of the church, claimed the instruction of the young, as the function of the priest, under the guidance of his ecclesiastical superior. Even the lay members of the church, as they affirmed, had no part in this purely spiritual duty, and the intrusion of the civil power was an usurpation. At the opposite extreme, a genuine alarm was felt lest the State should create a new authority, enabling it to control public opinion, and to benumb the energies of civil and religious freedom. If we would preserve England from a tyranny more dangerous than that of a military despotism, we were warned to reject the subtle scheme of moulding a democracy,—itself tyrannously strong,—but merely the creature of the Minister of Education. Between these two extremes, the Wesleyan communion, and the moderate and evangelical members of the Church of England, watched, with interest, the steady front which the Committee of Council showed to every demand of intolerance, of exaggerated ecclesiastical authority, and of fanatical denial of the simplest functions of government to protect the Commonwealth from barbarism. Gradually the extremes unconsciously succeeded, by their violence, in creating among all moderate parties the conviction, that co-operation with government was not an interest merely, but a duty.

PLAN PROPOSED BY LORD JOHN RUSSELL'S CABINET IN 1846.

This was the state of public opinion when the cabinet of Lord John Russell was formed in 1846. To this cabinet is due the merit of the most important step which has ever been taken in this kingdom to provide an efficient education for the children of the millions supported by manual labour.

The whole question of National Education had now been patiently studied during seven years of painful controversy. In the background, inquiries had been diligently pursued—a school of method had been tried—the training of pupil teachers in a model school, and in a college, had been experimentally tested. Each portion of the matter of instruction and various methods had been examined under circumstances which prepared public opinion for further action. Lord John Russell doubtless also saw, that the failure of the two preceding schemes left open only one plan by which the government could protect religious liberty while they recognised the claims of each communion to manage its own schools. That plan was to defend the right of the parent to choose what religious instruction should be given to his child. Practically, it went to enable every communion to found its own schools; to protect minorities not having schools by enabling them to withdraw their children from religious instruction obnoxious to them; and when this reasonable liberty was not given, to enlarge the aid ordinarily granted to found a school. That was the political basis of the arrangements adopted in 1846, but though this gradually won the consent of nearly the whole of the religious communions of Great Britain, it is to the Minutes of 1846 that we must attribute their active co-operation with the government in founding Normal Schools, apprenticing pupil teachers, competing for Queen's scholarships, and striving with persevering energy to fulfil the intentions of the Committee of Council to make their elementary schools efficient for all the secular objects of a representative government, elected by a people asserting its claims to more comprehensive franchise.

EDUCATIONAL POLICY OF THE VARIOUS RELIGIOUS BODIES IN
ENGLAND.

This great act of concord between the Committee of Council on Education and the religious communions of Great Britain has already issued in the apprenticeship of 24,000 pupil teachers, of whom 14,000 are at present serving as apprentices in day-schools,—(the majority of the rest having entered Training Colleges and become teachers.)—in the foundation of forty Training Colleges, containing 3,000 students, now chiefly Queen's scholars, who have passed through five years' apprenticeship in a day-school,—in the settlement in charge of day-schools of 10,426 teachers holding certificates of merit, of whom 6,814 are now in receipt of augmentations of stipend from the government; and in an annual supply of about 1,000 teachers who have had two years education in a Training College, and have nearly all likewise served as apprentices. In support of this great and growing machinery of elementary education, the annual Parliamentary grant has risen to £663,433, and it is probable that Sunday, day, and evening-schools are supported at a cost of about two millions of annual outlay from all sources. The accession of the Wesleyan Conference to the scheme developed in the Minutes of 1846 was a signal event. Up to that time, the aid of the government had been distributed solely to schools in connection with the National, and British and Foreign School Societies. To extend the grants beyond these limits was to take the first step, either towards the creation of common schools, or of schools under the management of congregations, and incorporated in the organisation of religious denominations. The idea of the common school had been resisted in every form in which it had been proposed. Even the British and Foreign School Society encountered embarrassment by the growth, among its chief supporters, of the principle of denominational action. The phenomena had been observed with the vigilance with which a student of nature watches the facts from which he hopes the evidences of some comprehensive law of physical force will gradually evolve. The signs of the relative strength of these social forces were studied in order that whatever was done might be in harmony with them. The problem to be solved was in what way the civil power could obtain security for the efficiency of the secular instruction, while it recognised the right of the parent to direct the education of his child, and the claim of the communion to retain the school as a part of its religious organisation. The Minutes of 1846 were proposed as defining the means by which this result was to be obtained. The inevitable consequence was that the Minutes should be so administered as to include every religious communion. The first denomination then admitted to participation in the Parliamentary grant was the Wesleyan. The consequence of the adoption of the Minutes of 1846 by the Education Committee of the Wesleyan Conference was the erection of the Training College and Model Schools in Westminster, which cost £45,000, and are maintained at an annual outlay of £25,500, having now 124 resident students, of whom 108 are Queen's scholars. We may well hesitate to affirm that even any national or

patriotic feeling is stronger than that, which since the Reformation has created the religious communions of this country. Probably, therefore, so vast an annual charge as that which will be required for a complete and efficient national school system could not have been imposed by Parliament in any form of tax, unless aided by those religious communions. Elementary education now spreads and becomes efficient in proportion as religious congregations are willing to make the success of their Sunday, day, and evening schools, a primary object of exertion and sacrifice.

DEFECTS OF A DENOMINATIONAL SCHOOL SYSTEM.

The defects commonly imputed to the denominational system are, that it needlessly wastes funds in the building and support of separate schools; that it rears scholars in separate camps for future sectarian warfare; that it thus undermines the charity of our common faith, and subjects minorities either to a submission to conditions inconsistent with the rights of conscience, to a mere toleration, or to exclusion from the civil privileges of the school. But some of these evils may be cured by creating,—as a result of an improved public opinion and of the action of Parliament,—a better constitution for schools which shall include all in their secular advantages without oppression of conscience. Where schools exist for all sects, as in great cities, every parent may secure for his child not simply sound secular instruction, but religious training and example in strict accordance with his own wishes. He may rear his child as an aspirant for all the privileges of the congregation, as well as of the school. Let us hope that the rivalry of sects in our common Christianity will be even more generous, and that the law of charity will guide each in receiving as a sacred trust, children who belong to other chapels of the church of Christ, to be brought up in all the common elements of faith and practice. [The evils of denominational schools are further noticed in the last paragraph of the paper on "Newfoundland," page 118.]

PRESENT POSITION OF THE EDUCATIONAL QUESTION IN ENGLAND— FURTHER IMPROVEMENTS.

I have thus brought under review the steps which have led to our present position. Some immediate consequences are too obvious to be neglected. This school system is capable of great extension and improvement. Rural and town districts, in which intelligent proprietors are not resident, are often neglected. The wealth is there, but the mind and sympathy are absent. These are true stations of missionary work, and under our present plans are to be met by appeals from the minister and congregation to the absent proprietors. In very spare populations the school pence and local subscriptions bear a small proportion to the teacher's stipend. Mixed schools, taught by a class of well-educated matrons or widows, would perhaps provide a partial remedy. We need a Training Institution in which matrons and widows could be prepared to give thorough efficiency to that much discredited institution, the ancient Dame school, not without reason cast aside.

The efficiency of our day-schools depends on the gradual introduction of assistant masters to aid the principal and the pupil teachers. This necessity has been, from the first, foreseen as an indispensable feature of our school plan. The number of pupil teachers and the number of students who will annually leave the Training Colleges are now so great that, under the Minute of the 26th of July, 1858, many schools will be enabled to secure assistant masters as probationers. This aid, and the capitation grant extended to evening schools, will lead in a few years to the creation of prosperous night schools, for boys from thirteen to eighteen, in connection with every efficient day-school. If, then, the Mechanics' and Literary Institutions of the manufacturing districts are encouraged to provide instruction for our artisans above this age, they make them familiar with some one or more of the following subjects, viz.,—with the laws of health in their homes, occupations and habits; with the means of self preservation in dangerous occupations, such as mining, knife grinding, management of steam engines, working in mercury, lead, and other metallic poisons: with the most obvious applications of science to industry, in dyeing; calico printing;—the laws of heat; the elements of mechanics, &c.; navigation; agricultural economy; with the rudiments of art, so as to cultivate the sense of the beautiful, a knowledge of the laws of the combinations of color, skill in design, and in the inventive faculty which adapts natural forms to the wants of society and commerce. The subjects to be selected as appropriate to the habits of the trade of each district; the mode in which their teaching should be provided for; the proper inducements to such studies in a population still addicted to sensual habits, the amount of aid which they need from local property and intelligence, and from the government,—these are all subjects which await the same patient trial as that out of which our present day-school system has sprung.

MECHANICS' INSTITUTES AND THEIR LEGITIMATE SPHERE OF LABOUR.

The Mechanics' Institutions have, however, in large towns, been useful pioneers. They have shown that it is impossible to expect

from the mass of wearied workmen steady attendance on long systematic courses of scientific instruction. The preparatory training is wanting, and therefore the rudimentary instruction is absent, and the habits of thought are not formed. Then they have also proved that the excitement of single lectures on separate subjects, (though perhaps an indication that the sensual forms of amusement are giving way,) adds no permanent element to the prosperity of these institutions. The work of Mechanics' Institutions has therefore been accomplished more and more in the class-room by assiduous teachers, who have enabled the workmen to master the rudiments, and have led the more gifted and persevering to somewhat higher studies. The necessity of providing education for those who have neglected or not enjoyed it during the usual school age, and of strengthening those trained in our day-schools in the perilous struggle of mind with the senses, through which our youth must pass, has ever been present to the supporters of Mechanics' Institutions. For this great object they have in cities and populous districts raised buildings often at large expense and sometimes of beautiful design, which ought to take their place in the scheme of national education for our workmen. There are in Lancashire, Yorkshire, and Cheshire, about 20,000 in attendance on the evening classes of these institutions; and from 45,000 to 50,000 members. In Great Britain, the evening classes probably comprise about 30,000 pupils, and the institutions 120,000 to 130,000 members. In 1853, their libraries contained 758,016 volumes, and 1,992,295 were annually issued from them to their subscribers. That would be a wasteful and narrow policy which should wilfully or ignorantly supersede these institutions;—sacrifice the large capital invested in their buildings;—rudely mortify the generous exertions which have made them what they are;—and scatter the social organization which is their strength. Rather let us strive patiently to ascertain what is the true function of these institutions. Within a few years we may confidently anticipate that, aided by the Minute of the 26th July, 1858, evening schools will be attached to all efficient day-schools in populous districts. There is work enough both for the evening school and for the Mechanics' Institution. The Mechanics' Institutions even in the thickly-peopled manufacturing districts do not comprise one per cent. of the population among the scholars of their night classes. Experience may prove that the evening classes connected with the day-schools will be most attractive to scholars who have been trained in them, up to the age of sixteen or eighteen. At that age, we may expect that the youth would prefer education with adults, and would be prepared by his proficiency in elementary knowledge to work with success in all the classes of the Mechanics' Institution previously enumerated. The day and evening schools would thus be preparatory to two great objects, and by the classes of the Mechanics' Institution the occupation in which by manual skill he must earn his daily bread would cease to be a monotonous drudgery, fixing his mental sight, with its lifelong gaze and microscopic power, on one process from which it was never withdrawn. Apart from the moral dignity of that labour which enables us to fulfil the duties of life, his intellectual insight into the relations of his own work would give him a never failing interest into that great whole of wonderful mechanical, or industrial combination, of which it formed a part, and in all those intricate weblike links which connect it with a great commercial system. Then let us not forget that, even when the Sunday-school did not exist, there were men in whom the intellectual life had a power to struggle with the grossness and want of a rude neglected boyhood. The privations, the exhaustion of daily toil for bread, never broke the resolution or chilled the ardour of these men. The divine preference for the mental over the animal life in them, resembled faith in the spiritual and the eternal, as contrasted with the sensual and transient. Their intellectual faculty enabled Brindley, Simpson, and Stephenson, to work out their own mental triumph unaided. But I would not have it so in future. For one strong swimmer who has been enabled to reach the shore, how many have perished unknown? Every Mechanics' Institution ought in its library, its museum, its classes, its naturalists' club, its mutual improvement society, its examinations, prizes, and other aids, to form for all men in whom this great instinct exists a source of help and encouragement.

INCREASING PARLIAMENTARY GRANT FOR EDUCATION, NOW NEARLY £1,000,000 PER ANNUM—PROPOSED SCHEMES.

These are some of the obvious immediate consequences of our present position. To depart from them is to enter upon a region of speculation. That subject which invites the earliest attention is one which has frequently been discussed both in Parliament and elsewhere. The Parliamentary grant is rapidly approaching one million per annum. If we estimate the annual outlay on the support of elementary schools at two millions, the sources whence that income is derived may be rudely estimated as about £700,000 from the government; about £800,000 from private subscriptions and collections of the supporters of schools; and about £500,000 from the

school pence paid by the parents of scholars. This outlay is gradually to increase until the 4,000,000 of children within the school age receive adequate instruction in the day-school, and are then carefully trained in night-schools until they enter the Mechanics' Institution, there to complete their education. The most momentous question therefore is—whence is this vast increase of annual income to be derived? Some of our politicians propose to remodel our whole system;—to make all schools free, and thus to give up half a million of school-pence;—to take the schools out of the hands of the religious communions, and place them in those of county or borough boards, and thus to abandon three quarters of a million more. Even their jealousy of centralization would have led them also to charge on local rates the £700,000 derived from the Committee of Council on Education. Parliament is much more tolerant than the parish—much more liberal than the borough—much more comprehensive in its legislation than the county;—and the Committee of Council is much more impartial in the administration of the public grant than any local board would be. Though, therefore, the Parliamentary grant has increased to proportions which excite anxieties as to its further augmentation, and cause a continually accumulating strain to secure a pure and efficient distribution, the risks and embarrassment of any plan yet proposed for decentralising the administration of this fund, have on mature reflection appeared greater than its advantages. Those plans have been most practicable which provided for the growth of the expenditure from the local rates, without interfering with the present school organization, or cutting off any of its present success of support. The school pence paid by parents are, under the Factories' Regulation Act, charged on the wages of the children and paid by the employer. The regular attendance of the scholars from the age of eight to that of thirteen, is secured by the half-time system; and its extension, together with the increase of the charge, might also be considered as one source of an increase of income. The children of the indigent who receive out-door relief may be sent to school, if not at work, by the guardians of the poor, under an Act introduced by the Speaker of the late House of Commons, and their school pence may be charged on the poor-rate. This arrangement might be rendered compulsory. Though the local adoption of a permissive school-rate would now be generally impracticable, the growth of the present system of national education is itself an evidence of the increasing force of an intelligent public opinion in favour of the early training of the masses of our fellow countrymen in efficient schools.

£15,000,000, THE COST OF PUNISHING CRIME AND RESTRAINING TURBULENCE.

We know that we lose *nine millions* in the plunder of thieves; in the force required to protect property, to detect, prosecute, and punish crime, and restrain turbulence: *six millions* annually are swallowed in the gulf of pauperism:—beer, spirits, and tobacco, cost about *sixty millions!* There is a steady progress in the conviction that property would be more secure, indigence more rare, and the whole people more provident and contented, if they were better educated. The old-fashioned alarm of the tyranny of the mob, if they learned to read and write, has changed into a dread of the ignorance, brutality, and misery of an untaught people. We have lately emerged from a General Election, in which every party in the State is agreed to grant some extension of the elective franchise. All agree that if the intelligent, sober, and thrifty members of the working-class could be sifted from the mass, they ought to possess the franchise. There is no dread of confiding this privilege to any man who as a child attended the day and Sunday-schools, and as a youth was diligent up to manhood at the evening school and Mechanics' Institution. Much more would he deserve the privilege if he had also entered the classes of your congregation. The freedom of the press; the rapidity and cheapness of political intelligence; the increase both of the power and of the disposition to use these advantages, appear not to have been followed by any of those evils which were apprehended. The press is less licentious; it pays an increasing respect to public order. Cheap literature is more moral and useful, and the good has greater vitality than the bad. "Strikes" are not made for anti-social or irrational objects, and are not supported by personal outrages or injury to property. Educated workmen are more trustworthy, intelligent, and reasonable than ignorant men. There is a decrease of political discontent; an increase of respect for the law, and of security for property. No political change is sought by conspiracy, but only by discussion. With such facts to guide it, public opinion gathers strength in favor of national education.

AMELIORATING EFFORTS OF THE LAST CENTURY—HOW THEY HAVE BEEN FOLLOWED UP.

At the very foundation of all this improvement are the labours of John Wesley and his faithful followers. I have just read an account (by Mr. John Robertson of Manchester, in the "Transac-

tions of the Manchester Statistical Society,") of the results of his work in the present moral and religious condition of the Cornish miners, prematurely perishing from *scrofula* and chest disease. They are described by Mr. Robertson as singularly temperate, chaste, domestic in their habits—with households in which "a spirit of thrift and good management prevails." Their women are cleanly and neat in dress; scrupulously careful of their clothes, but somewhat "finely dressed" on Sundays. Many of the working miners are lay preachers. Privately, Mr. Robertson has informed me that he found Bibles, Hymn-books, and Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress," in almost all the cottages, and family worship a prevailing habit. The preaching of John Wesley from his father's tomb at Epworth to the farm labourers—on the open heaths, to the handloom weavers of Lancashire and Yorkshire—in Moorfields, to the debauched, wretched, and turbulent population of London—at Kingswood, to the colliers of Bristol—and throughout Cornwall to its miners—was a great example which aroused every religious communion in Great Britain to a consciousness of the import of those words with which our Saviour opened his mission when he entered the synagogue on the Sabbath-day, and read from the Book of the Prophet Esaias:—"The Spirit of the Lord is upon me, because he hath anointed me to preach the Gospel to the poor." The teaching of Wesley and Whitfield must be acknowledged as the first sign of that motion of the "power from on high," which roused the Puritan and Presbyterian remnant of the Commonwealth to devoted efforts of Christian charity, and offered to the Church of England the loyal aid of a new Missionary Church founded by one of its most faithful pastors. These efforts have made the last century an era in the religious history of this country. Unless the teaching of Wesley and Whitfield had preceded the French Revolution, we might have had to struggle with domestic confusion as well as to confront a revolutionary propagandism and the idea of a universal European monarchy. But Wesley and Whitfield were followed by Raikes and the Sunday-school; by Bell and Lancaster, and the day-school; by Dr. Birkbeck and the Mechanics' Institution; by Lord Brougham and the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge; by the Tract and Christian Knowledge Societies; by Charles Knight and Chambers, Bohn and Cassell, and the cheap literature. The Church of England has in the present century restored her decaying religious fabrics, expended millions in erecting and endowing new churches, created new parochial districts, has outstripped every other communion in building and supporting efficient schools for the poor, in founding Training Colleges, and in adopting every improvement in organization and method. Let us hope that the spirit which has caused this vast improvement will wipe out the scandals of a defective discipline jealous of the laity, who bear the burdens of the church, without participating in its authority.

EFFECTS OF THESE INFLUENCES ON THE ARMY AND NAVY.

We are not at liberty to be silent on the great perils of the day. We have been warned by the class of statesmen who formerly defended prize fighting, that by our efforts for civilization we were enervating the people. The coarseness and the sensuality of the common people were deemed to be inseparable from their valour. And it is true that even the sottish vices of an ignorant populace failed to make the rough sailors of Nelson less eager to place their ships, porthole to porthole, alongside the enemy, where they could spring with their boarding pikes upon his deck; or to shake the solidity of those squares which never quailed under the volleys of grape which hailed upon them at Waterloo, nor broke before the repeated charges of the cuirassiers. But that the population is not enervated let Alma answer, and Balaklava, and Inkerman, and all the heroic deeds of the advance of Havelock, the defence of Lucknow, the assault of Delhi, and the conquest of Oude. To such gross conceptions of the true consequences of civilization on the mass of the people must be opposed the fact that in future wars men will act less in masses. We need more steadiness, intelligence, and skill, in the soldier whose rifle strikes its mark with precision at 1,000 yards, than in the man who never fired his musket except from his rank, with a success so doubtful that it is disputed whether one in 300 or one in 1,000 balls hits the mark. In the arts of peace we require men on whose sobriety, intelligence, and skill, we can depend, to take charge of the steam engines of our ships, factories, and mines; of the locomotives of our railways, and the complicated arrangements of their stations, telegraphs, and points; and of all the new applications of science in mechanical combinations and inventions. In war we shall have an artillery, the range of which is to be computed by miles, but with a precision of aim and a momentum of force with which no former ordnance can be compared. We shall have vast ships moved by steam engines of unprecedented power, cased in a mail of iron scales, and armed with rifled cannon. Is it not clear that these costly engines of destruction cannot be confided to the brave but rude and dissolute Jack Tars who won the battles of the Nile and Trafalgar? Let any intelligent officer say whether

the school prepares a soldier for the rifle practice at Hythe, or the sailor for the gunnery training of the *Excellent*. Then it was assumed that the religious convictions of the middle-classes not merely gave force to the great policy of non-intervention and peace, but that it would cripple the energies of the seas; in the protection of our vast commerce scattered over every ocean; in maintaining the freedom of the highways of commerce from Suez to Aden, and across the Isthmus of Panama; in protecting the English Channel, the Thames, and the Mersey from the presence of a predominant force, or even the shores of this island, unvisited for centuries, except at one time of shame, by any foreign hostile force. The answer has been given to this delusion by the conduct of the middle-classes during the Crimean war, by which we protected the highway of the world to the East; and during the rebellion of the Sepoys, in which we maintained, I trust, not the selfish predominance of race, but what will prove the benignant influence of Christian civilization in the East. But a more thrilling answer has been given in the character of such men as Havelock, and Hodson, and Hedley Vicars,—that this domestic religious training of the middle-classes produces its own forms of heroism, even in war. Throughout these terrible wars, the three names that I have mentioned have only been types of a class of Christian heroes who, in every rank of the service, were the soldiers and servants of the higher power.

CHRISTIANISING INFLUENCES OF OUR COLONISING AND COMMERCIAL EFFORTS.

In another aspect of the results of education you will have still greater sympathy. Christianity is known in the ports of China and of the Eastern Archipelago, chiefly through our rough sea-faring population—the supercargoes, agents and clerks of our mercantile establishments—our soldiers and able bodied seamen. To our Indian Empire it is practically exhibited in our vast army and civil service. The Polynesian aborigines had been weaned from the cruel rites and customs of a horrible fetishism to the adoption of the Puritan worship, before they had much contact with the rude crews of our whalers, men-of-war, long voyage merchant ships, gold seekers, and other classes of adventurers. We scatter from the restraints of domestic and social discipline, together with the enterprising colonist of far foresight and large views, also the restless, the reckless, and those without character and tie at home. Our systems of recruiting have not enlisted for either of the two great services men of the same character as those who serve in the police. The drill sergeant and the smart captain struggle with the poacher who has fled from his parish—the smuggler—the wrecker—the lad for whom the constable is seeking—the idle, or the dissipated, as well as the brave spirits who are reaping the wild oats of a thoughtless early career. Military and naval discipline are schools which teach these men cleanliness, order, certain rules of life, implicit obedience; inspire the military spirit; rouse a dormant patriotic feeling; and an instinct for the honour of the corps. Personal daring is seldom wanting in the English breast. But these qualities may co-exist with an incapacity to resist cheap intoxicating drinks, or even outrage and plunder, unless restrained, as in the Peninsula, by the sternest severity of the Provost Marshall. Some of them are habits of discipline rather than virtues; and such of them as spring from deeply seated and noble instincts do not exhibit the distinguishing features of Christianity. If we would correct the evil influence of our soldiery on the Hindu and Mohammedan, they must abstain from intoxication. If our military garrisons and civil stations are to become sources of Christian influence, our whole religious organization must be transformed, and the European population must live in reverence for the faith which they profess. The rude crews of our whalers, merchant ships, and men-of-war, must not by their orgies on shore undo the work of long missionary labour in some remote island of the Pacific. We must not permit the rough border population of a colonial frontier, like that of the Cape, to cause an outlay of millions in exterminating an exasperated, brave, savage race, whom Livingstone and Moffat would have conciliated. In Australia, while we keep the police of the seas against the pirates of China, Borneo, and the Straits, our Settlements should be centres of Missionary enterprise for new Morrisons from our Sunday-schools. On the eastern and western coasts of Africa, we have to penetrate the Zambesi and the Niger to teach the native to cultivate the cotton plant; and with industrial organization to introduce a truly Christian civilization. Now our success in this great enterprise will be proportionate to the extent to which our Sunday and day schools rear men like Moffat and Williams and Morrison:—like your own William and Barnabas Shaw of South Africa, and Calvert of Fiji. The character of every English sailor and soldier, of every supercargo, agent or merchant, is the mirror in which the subtle Hindu, the proud Mohammedan, the sensual Chinese, the brave Kaffir, the Dyaks, the gentle and pacific inhabitant of Loo Choo, the wild and treacherous Malay, and the half civilised Japanese, will read reflected the practical influence of Christianity on the life of

the English people. From any school may issue a man like Morrison, Moffat, or Williams, or Livingstone, the Shaws, or Calvert, who by a martyr-like self-devotion, an inexhaustible Christian sympathy for the lost, a truth never quailing in the face of death, and an ardour and perseverance which no trial can exhaust, may become the apostle of a whole race of men, accomplishing a work as vast, but more enduring than that of St. Xavier. But it is scarcely less important that the transforming influence of our common schools on the entire mass of the population should be such that in every part of the world, in every civil and military station of our vast empire, among the rudest, and among the most civilised races whom we govern, or with whom we trade, every Englishman should reflect at least the moral influences of Christian instruction and example, in a well ordered life, a reverent behaviour, an abounding and generous good will. If these things be true, we may gain some vision of that future when the moral elements of civilisation shall be triumphant over the physical. Commerce may prove the harbinger of Christianity, and even the sword, whose conquests introduced the reign of force, may be beaten into the ploughshare, having yielded to the kingdom of Him who said, "Put up thy sword."

WHAT HAS BEEN EVOLVED BY OUR EFFORTS—THE SUNDAY-SCHOOL CONSIDERED AS THE PARENT OF DENOMINATIONAL SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND.

But I have brought these topics under review in order that we may each feel that we are working for great ends. To many of us our first effort was in the Sunday-school. We did not foresee that the Sunday-school was to unfold into the Denominational school system of England. Others worked in humble day-schools, and did not foresee our forty Training Colleges, our 14,000 pupil teachers, our 10,000 certificated teachers, our annual outlay of two millions of money. We have often staggered under apparently insurmountable difficulties—health, faith, and hope have failed. It is therefore useful to call to mind how we have already, by the confession of all statesmen, prepared a large portion of our countrymen to take part by the franchise in the duties of citizens; how we are rearing intelligent, sober, and brave men, to use all the forces which science has combined for the defence of civilisation and freedom, that we are colonising the world with a hardy, enterprising, and intelligent English population, and that we may hope, if we persevere, that every English ship, every English regiment, every English civil and military station, every port, arsenal, and emporium of our world-wide commerce, shall become a true Missionary station, from which the influences of a genuine Christian civilisation may be diffused. These are among the triumphs of the education of a Christian nation.

II. STATE OF EDUCATION IN NEWFOUNDLAND.

According to the census of 1857, the population of Newfoundland is 116,304. Of these, 63,995 are Protestants, and 53,309 Roman Catholics. The sum voted by the Legislature in 1859 for the support of Elementary and Commercial Schools was £10,525 sterling. In addition to this, £1700 were voted for the support of four Academies; £750 for the training of teachers; and £200 for repairs of school-houses, &c. Thus the large amount of £13,175 sterling, or one-seventh of the entire revenue of the colony, annually appropriated for educational purposes. That the people, through their representatives, expend such a large sum out of the public treasury, in promoting the cause of education, is most creditable to them; and were it wisely and economically extended an excellent education might be secured for the youth of the colony.

The sum of £10,525 sterling voted for the support of Elementary and Commercial Schools, is divided between the Protestant and Roman Catholics in proportion to their respective numbers. The Protestants receive £5,612 16s., the Catholics, £4,912 4s. Adding to this the sum of £200 granted for repairs, &c., and supposing it divided equally, we find the Protestant portion of the grant to be £5,712 16s.; the Catholic, £5,012 4s. In each educational district a Protestant and Roman Catholic Board are appointed; and each Board receives a portion of the educational grant, in proportion to the population of the district. Thus local Boards expend the money voted by the Legislature, in accordance with the provisions of the Education Act. Protestant and Catholic children are educated in separate schools; and each Board is permitted to make their own bye-laws, rules and regulations, subject to the approval of the Governor in council. The fees ordered to be paid in the Elementary Schools are as follows:—for each child learning the alphabet, &c., two shillings and six pence per annum currency; for each child learning to write and cipher, five shillings per annum; for other branches, seven shillings and six pence per annum. Let us now inquire how this machinery works, and what are the results.

Two Inspectors, one Protestant and one Catholic, were appointed in 1858, and laid their respective reports, for the first time, before

the Legislature, during the session recently closed. These reports have been published, a short time since; and from them we may gather a correct idea of the condition of education in Newfoundland. The Protestant Inspector reports the total number of Protestant Schools, excepting academies, to be 131—attended by 6,521 pupils, of whom 2,934, or 45 per cent, were able to read the Scriptures. It thus appears that nearly one in nine of the whole Protestant population attend these schools. Of the whole number of schools, 98 are controlled and supported directly by the Educational Boards; and 33 are denominational, receiving a grant out of the Education Fund, but are not under the direction of the Boards. The total amount of salaries paid to 98 teachers is £3,575 currency—being an average of £36 10s. for each teacher. The sum divided among the remaining 33 is £923 currency or nearly £28 each. The teachers of this latter class, however, receive additional support from their respective denominations. The fees of the whole 131 schools amounted only to £500 currency, or about £4 per school, or 1s. 6d. per scholar per annum. Taking the whole expenditure on education, the average cost per pupil is £1 4s. currency, or £1 sterling. In Nova Scotia the average annual cost of teaching each pupil, in the Common School, is 13s. 8½d. currency, or nearly one half less; while the average salary of each teacher is £38 16s. 11d.

The Roman Catholic Inspector reports the number of schools in operation to be 91, attended by 4,522 children. In addition to these there are five convent schools, not examined by the Inspector, but aided by a grant from the education fund, and attended by 1,148 children—making a total of 5,679 pupils, or about the same proportion to the Catholic population as in the Protestant Schools. Of these, 1,811, or about 40 per cent, are able to read. The total amount of salaries paid to teachers is £2,686 currency, being an average of £29 10s. for each teacher. The five convent schools received £548 currency, making a total of £3,235. The fees of the whole 91 schools amounted only to £109 currency or £1 3s. per school per annum or 7s. 4d. per pupil. The average cost of educating each pupil is £1 2s. 2d. currency. The total amount entrusted for educational expenditure to the Catholic Boards, is £5,012 4s. sterling, or £5783 currency.

Comparing the Roman Catholic and Protestant Schools, we find that the average salary given to the teachers in the latter is £36 10s.—in the former, £29 10s. The fees in Protestant Schools average £4 per school: in Catholic, £1 3s. Thus the total average income of teachers in Protestant Schools is £49 10s.; in Catholic Schools, £30 10s. In Protestant Schools 45 per cent. can read,—in Catholic Schools 40 per cent. After paying teachers' salaries Protestant Boards retain, to meet all other expenses, £2,094 currency, or £22 5s. per school,—being, according to the above calculation, £12 10s. currency, per school beyond the necessary outlay. Catholic Boards retain, for the same purposes, out of a smaller sum, £2,543 currency or £28 per school—being £18 per school beyond a necessary expenditure.

One of the most discouraging features of the educational system in Newfoundland is the want of a Normal School. Seven hundred and fifty pounds sterling, per annum are voted for training teachers. Each Board is permitted to send two pupils to one or other of the Academies to be educated as teachers; and £25 per annum are paid out of the above grant for their board and education. Owing, however, to the poor remuneration given to teachers, by the Boards, not a single pupil offers; and thus no education is imparted to teachers of Elementary Schools, and at present there is not one under training.

Looking to the future, it is deeply to be regretted that no brighter view presents itself. It is now contemplated to subdivide the Protestant Grant between Episcopalians, Wesleyans, and other Protestants. A bill for this purpose was introduced last session,—was read a first time,—and met with no opposition; and next year it will probably be the law of the land. The effect of it will be that Episcopalians and Wesleyans will have Separate Schools:—The Episcopalians number 42,638—Wesleyans, 20,144—other Protestant denominations 1,213. The Protestant Educational Grant will be subdivided into three shares, proportioned to these numbers. The consequence will be that the number of schools in the different settlements will be augmented, and, as a necessary result, the salaries of teachers lowered, and the poor education already attainable, it is to be feared, will be deteriorated. Jealousies, rivalries, and denominational differences will be increased and embittered;—the Protestant denominations, educated apart from one another, will be more alienated and less capable of united action; and there will be no counteraction to sectarianism. The progress that has hitherto been made in education will be checked; and money will be handed over to each denomination to be expended very much as they please. Teachers will be practically under dominion of their respective clergy. All the evils that have arisen from division will be inveterated. In settlements where one school would be sufficient, and one teacher might have a respectable income, there will be three

poorly qualified teachers on wretched pittance. Thus, if abuses have resulted from division hitherto, the increase of that division will multiply and perpetuate the evil.—*Alpha, in the Journal of Education and Agriculture for Nova Scotia.*

III. Papers on Canadian Subjects.

1. CELEBRATION OF THE SECOND CENTENARY OF BISHOP LAVAL'S LANDING AT QUEBEC.

On the 16th June, 1659, the first bishop of Quebec landed on the shores of Canada. He came to plant the cross, to civilize the wilderness, redeem the red man, and open a new country to the inhabitants of the over populous France. Two hundred years have rolled over since the Huron and the colonist, with evergreens and maple boughs, welcomed the son of the proud Montmorencys to the first diocese of North America, and the anniversary of the two hundredth year of his landing, proclaims how gloriously he has succeeded in his designs, how grateful are the descendants of his former flock for his labors and his sacrifices, for his zeal and untiring efforts; the flourishing state of the institution he founded, tells how happily the successors of the See of Quebec have fulfilled his designs, and how faithfully the people have listened to their voice.

On the 16th June, 1859, the Laval University determined to commemorate, in a manner worthy of its position, the auspicious day on which the vessel bearing Mgr. Laval anchored opposite the fortress of New France. Science, patriotism, religion were called to commemorate it becomingly; they assisted, science with her gentle and beneficent light, patriotism with her enthusiasm, and religion with the majestic pomp of her mystic worship.

The eve was celebrated by a reunion of the students of the Quebec Seminary; they, the most indebted to the illustrious bishop, were the first to celebrate the coming of his two hundredth anniversary. In our youth, we were all critics, and nothing were we more disposed to criticize than the nature and plan of our studies; to gratify this desire the question as "to which is the best means of educating youth," was submitted to discussion, and each different view sustained in a lively manner. The defenders of classical studies were victorious, convincing their auditory and their opponents, that for the cultivation of the higher intellectual faculties, an intimate acquaintance with the Greek and Latin languages is necessary. The talent displayed by the young orators in this debate is a fair promise of their future success, and an evidence of their past studies. During the evening the band of the 39th regiment assisted, and their able performance contributed largely to the enjoyment of the assistants.

The same day, Mr. Larue passed the examination and sustained the thesis, necessary for receiving the degree of Doctor of Medicine. The thesis was suicide, and taken for epigraph these words of Lisle: "The religious sentiment is the safest and most powerful guard against suicide," he illustrated the subject with all that erudition well directed put at his command. His statistics—on suicidism among the Indians, and in Lower Canada since its settlement, gave a practical interest to the subject, and the comparison established by the learned licentiate, between suicidism in this country and other parts, throws a new light on this profound question of medical jurisprudence. During three hours the candidate sustained his thesis against the objections of the professors, answering the many questions with a promptitude and a fulness that so satisfied his examiners, that they unanimously consented to drop the white ballot.

Thus passed the eve. It seems to bring to our view, Mgr. Laval maturing in his cabin or on deck, amid the beauties of the wilderness plans for the future welfare of his flock, sketching perhaps the future seminary; if his spirit hovered near the scene, how delighted must it not have been to see the son of the last chief of the Hurons, foremost among the students of his beloved seminary.

A cloudless morn ushered in the new and memorable day, emblem, we hope of a cloudless future for the Canadians and their institutions.

On stepping on the shores of New France, the first act of the illustrious Laval was to return thanksgiving to God; the first act of his welcomers, kneeling to receive his benediction, and by kissing his crosier recognize his authority. The country, to return thanks for the success of his undertaking, commenced the celebration of his two hundredth anniversary by the most solemn offices of religion. Mgr. Laval returned thanks to God for his prosperous voyage by offering a high mass; and one of those who had received their education in the seminary he founded, the Right Rev. E. J. Horan, Bishop of Kingston, returned, in the name of the assembled people, thanksgiving to that Providence who had so blessed the great work of the first bishop of New France.

The metropolitan church of the ecclesiastical province of Quebec, decked out with all those ornaments that are so well adapted to its architecture, seemed to smile in lofty grandeur; flags and banners, some soiled with the dust of age, others rent by the bullet; two panels with the escutcheon of the Montmorency-Laval House; graced the walls of the cathedral.

The descendants of the colonists left the cathedral, not to collect provisions against an impending scarcity, not to repel the acts of a cruel enemy, but to meet a few hours after and see the work of their first pastor crowned with success, thanks to the men who, during the last two centuries, toiled in obscurity, to raise each successive generation to the knowledge of the beauty of science and of the sublimity of the christian religion.

Wednesday evening, at half past three, a young physician was to receive the reward of his vigils, his travels and his fatigues; a testimonial to his merits, and a place among the men of science.

For a moment, we thought ourselves transported to the college halls of the old world, where Boerhave defended his thesis and received the scroll of parchment, promise of future success and never dying fame, when entering we saw the rich robes of the professors and of the students. Observe the flushed cheek and kindling eye of yonder student; he hopes to take his place, one day, in the ranks of science, perhaps, he thinks, Canada can give the world a Cooper.

The professors are seated on an elevated platform; the candidate is before them, to whom the Rector is to confer the degree of Doctor of Medicine. Before doing so, the consent of the senior of the medical faculty is asked and granted; then takes place an interrogatory between the rector and the recipient; the licentiate promises that his conduct, blameless as to the past, shall ever be such as to reflect honor on his *alma mater*; he declares that in his instructions to his pupils, truth will always be his guide; promising ever to be attentive to his patients, to give them the best remedies, and to warn them when death draws near; he promises ever to feel for and manifest to the University a filial love and gratitude; finally, he consents that, if he should fail in but one of these conditions, to lose his grade.

The degree was then conferred with all the ceremonies which, since the foundation of Oxford, are identified with the University customs of Europe. Two of the eldest students of the medical faculty, carrying, on silver plates, the ring, wedding the licentiate to science, and the scarlet bordered epigote.

The doctor, and now ordinary professor, clothed with his robe of office, after having thanked, in an eloquent address, his former professors, took his seat among the professors of the Laval University.

Dr. Sewell, in a speech alike honorable to his intellect and to his heart, congratulated Dr. Larue; he spoke of the responsibilities of a physician, of the rising reputation of the university; he failed not to compliment the medical profession on its early entry in the university lists.

Thus ended this interesting ceremony. We congratulate the young professor for his success, the university for his acquisition.

At intervals, during the concert which succeeded, speeches were delivered: One by the Rev. Mr. Taschereau, D. C. L., the other by Professor Tessier. The former spoke of the life of Mgr. Laval: of the difficulties he had to surmount in founding the seminary; of the donations he made that institution; of his patriotism and love of civil liberty, by obtaining for the colonists the Sovereign Council, to which were called the principal inhabitants.

Professor Tessier spoke of the illustrious men the Quebec seminary has given to the country; the Hon. L. J. Papineau, twelve bishops, and Mr. Brassard, founder of Nicolet College; Mr. Girouard, founded St. Hyacinthe College; Mr. Painchaud, founder of St. Ann's College. At the close, the Hon. Judge Mondelet, in delicate and appropriate terms, thanked the Rector for the benefits his zeal had conferred; deeply moved, the reply of the Rev. M. Casault touched all present.

The assembled multitude then returned to their homes, proud of their country, of their noble institution, of the great man who founded it, of the disinterested men that govern it.

The time worn walls of the seminary appear now still more venerable, when we remember that nigh two hundred years have seen them.

Well did Mgr. Laval merit the name given him by the Hurons; truly he was "Harriouaouqui," the man of the great work.—*Lower Canada Journal of Education*.

2. UNIVERSITIES OF LAVAL AND MCGILL COLLEGE.

We received, almost at the same moment, two similar publications: the "Annuaire de l'Université-Laval for the Academical year

of 1859-60," and the "Calendar of the University of McGill College, Montreal:—Session of 1859-60." From these two periodicals may be gleaned some idea of the progress of Collegiate education in Lower Canada; and, though the practical details do not present a very flattering picture to the experienced eye, still sufficient evidence is afforded that a substantial commencement has been made by the more numerous nationality in Quebec, and by the other multifarious section of the population in Montreal. Both of these Institutions have attached to them feeders more numerous and of more general utility than themselves. We do not at present allude to the Faculties of Medicine and Law, both of which departments, but more especially the former, are on an established and almost independent basis. In Montreal, indeed, the Medical Faculty has long been an exclusive and independent section of the University, merely applying to the convocation for a confirmation of its own decisions with regard to decrees, &c.; and it has acquired a reputation for the excellent technical training of its alumni, which has not been limited to this continent. Equal progress and so complete an organization have not yet been secured in Laval University; yet, during last year, there were 31 students connected with the study of Medicine, and some 8 or 9 Professors; while in the same Faculty of McGill College there were between 60 and 70 students, with a staff of 9 or 10 Professors. There is a great equality in the Faculty of Law, the number of students in either University amounting in all to thirty. Into the Faculty of Theology we need not enter; it does not appear to be completely organised in Laval University, where it is proposed to establish five chairs in this department; and in McGill College it is altogether excluded from the category. McGill College claims to have been erected into a University in 1821, while here the classes have only been organized during the last three or four years. Laval University sprung from the Seminary, itself a collegiate establishment; while McGill College arose from the endowment of one man, and has now taken under its wing the High School of Montreal. Each Institution has a Normal School attached to it; and, therefore, we may hope, that while the Universities are supplied with a succession of students from the preparatory Seminaries, they may be enabled to send forth from their Normal School teachers properly prepared and trained for their important calling. The Faculty of Arts, in which we seek for the surest test of a due appreciation of general learning, will be found to be of slow growth in recently established communities, where the great object of life is to secure a livelihood at as early a period as possible, and by the path most likely to lead quickly to a competency and perhaps to wealth. Accordingly, we find from the "Annuaire," that though it is intended ultimately to establish eleven professorships in this most vitally important department of a collegiate course, only four of a general nature have as yet been organized: American History; Chemistry, with Mineralogy and Geology; Philosophy; Physics, Classics and Mathematics all confined as yet to the Seminary. In McGill College, according to the Calendar, this Faculty begins to assume a more imposing appearance than heretofore; we hope that it is not merely such in appearance, more specious in print than substantial in fact. There is certainly a goodly array of Professors in the Arts, Sciences and Languages; and the number of students seems to be on the increase in the regular classes, as well as in the special courses. We have thus sought to direct public attention to these two most important Institutions of the kind in Lower Canada, on the publication of their Annual Report. It is an important epoch in the history of a country's progress, when its people begin to consider practically the advantages of Collegiate training and due cultivation of the higher branches of study.—*Quebec Morning Chronicle*.

MIDDLE-CLASS EXAMINATIONS AT MCGILL COLLEGE.

We learn from the *Montreal Gazette* that the University of McGill College is about to initiate in Canada the system which has recently been found to work so well in England, of granting of certificates of their attainments to persons who have pursued their studies under private tutors at ordinary schools, at mechanics' institutes, or alone, which will extend academic honors to other deserving parties besides those who have had an opportunity of pursuing the regular university curriculum. This system will offer great advantages to the pupils of the several schools in the Province, the majority of whom are unable to afford the expense of pursuing the regular university course of study, but go from the High School, Grammar School, or Academy, to business in the counting-room, warehouse, or shop. It is proposed to hold the first of these examinations under the auspices of the University examiners, on the 20th of September next. Applications require to be made three days previously, accompanied by a fee of \$2 from candidates for the junior, and \$4 for the senior school certificate. The Board of Arts and Manufactures also proposes, in the coming month of March, to hold a similar examination of members of mechanics' institutes throughout this section of the Province.

3. TORONTO UNIVERSITY LIBRARY.

The librarian of the Toronto University Library writes as follows to the Editor of the *Leader*: "I beg to state that the library of the University of Toronto, which now numbers 15,000 volumes and is constantly increasing, may be called a public one, as the Senate have passed a Statute by which it is rendered as accessible to the public as the British museum. The very limited space now at command has been the reason why the carrying out of the statute has been kept in abeyance, but the completion of the new building, in which a reading room is provided for the public, will soon remove this hindrance. During the past twenty months many of the departments of the library have been greatly strengthened, and to those branches of knowledge which have not yet been increased, there are soon to be new accessions. Theology is one of the departments which has not yet received a recent increase. The library, nevertheless, contains at present works of great value to biblical students. Of these we may name Walton's Polyglot with Castell's Lexicon, Bagster's Polyglot, the whole or portions of Sacred Text in nearly one hundred languages, published or aided by the British and Foreign Bible Society, Fuerst's Hebrew Concordance, Philological Works of Buxtorf, Gesenius, Robinson, Winer, Uhlemann, and Staut, Rosenmuller's Scholia or the Old Testament, the Babylonian Talmud, the Introductions of Michaelis, Lardner, Horne, Havernick, DeWette, the Benedictine editions of all the most noted Christian fathers, the Bridgewater Treatises, Anderson's Annals of the Bible, the Parker Society Publications, the Works of Strype, Chalmers, Robert Hall, Massillon, Bossuet, Fénelon, &c. Of the ancient classics, there is a rich collection when the limited size of the whole library is called to mind. Almost all the existing ancient Greek and Roman writers may be found, and those of note as Homer, Herodotus, Cicero, Livy, Virgil, &c., are represented in from six to twelve or more of the best editions. Of works illustrative of the ancient classics, we may name the antiquities of Grævius and Gronovius with their continuation by Burmann, and the usually appended works of Sallengre, Polenus, Pitiscus and Gruter. The chief Encyclopædias in the English language from Rees' to the eighth edition of the Encyclopædia Britannica may be found, and also very complete sets of the Transactions of all the chief learned societies of Britain and America, with some of their most important scientific Periodicals, in conjunction with those of France and Germany. The departments of Mathematics and the Natural Sciences have been strengthened with many valuable works; also History, Archaeology, Metaphysics, and English, French, German, and Oriental literature. Many important works, especially those pertaining to the Fine and Useful Arts, to History and Travels, to Theology and Jurisprudence, it is hoped, will soon be added. When compared with the great libraries of Great Britain and the Continent of Europe, this library is small and insignificant, but when viewed in connection with the youthful career of Canada, it is the basis of a useful and valuable collection.

4. EARLY CANADIAN NEWSPAPERS.

The Rev. Stephen Miles, of Camden East, in a recent letter to the editor of the *Brockville Recorder*, thus states his recollection of newspapers in Canada. He says:—

"The first time that I ever saw a type or press, was in a printing office. It was on the 13th day of January, 1805, in Windsor, Vermont. The establishment was owned by Mr. Nathum Mower, with whom I served my apprenticeship; early in the spring of 1807 he moved to Montreal, where, at that time, there was only one paper published called the *Montreal Gazette*, printed on a small demy sheet with two columns on a page, one in the French and the other in the English language. The proprietor of this establishment was Mr. Edward Edwards, who was also the postmaster. Sometime in the month of May in the same year, (1807,) the first number of the *Canadian Courant* made its appearance, published and edited by Mr. Mower. At the expiration of my apprenticeship, 1810, an excellent young man, by the name of James Kendall, with myself left Montreal for Kingston on the first day of September, taking our press and types with us, and arrived there on the morning of the 13th a little after sunrise. Our travelling conveyance was a brigade of the old fashioned Canadian batteaux, there being seventeen in number. Previous to our arrival in Kingston there were two weekly papers printed in Upper Canada, one at York (Toronto) by Cameron and Bennet, the Government organ, called the *York Gazette*, and the other at Niagara (then called Newark) entitled the *Telegraph*, by a Mr. Wilcox. These were both destroyed during the time of the war with the United States, which commenced on the 18th of June, 1812, the last at an early period of the war, and the first on the 27th of April, 1813, when York (Toronto) was taken by the Americans. I believe I set the first type ever put into a printer's composing stick in Kingston, and the first newspaper ever printed in Kingston came out on the 25th day of September, 1810. The first nine numbers,

during my absence in the summer of 1811, were lost, but I have them from the 27th day of November, 1810, to the 29th day of December, 1819. Passing over many, to me deeply interesting events, I will just say that the *Government Gazette* was re-commenced sometime in 1816. In December, 1817, having disposed of my printing materials to Messrs. Pringle and Macaulay, the *Kingston Gazette* was discontinued and the *Kingston Chronicle* took its place, the first number of which was issued, I think, on the 2nd day of January, 1819; and towards the latter end of February, or early in March, if my memory serves me correctly, of the same year, the *Upper Canada Herald* was first published in Kingston by the late Hugh C. Thomson, Esq., but printed by Mr. Beach, who afterwards was the first proprietor and editor of the *Brockville Recorder*. When the *Kingston Gazette* was first commenced, Mr. Kendall and myself were joint partners in the concern, but from the 19th day of November, 1811, to the 29th day of December, 1818, I was the sole proprietor, printer, and editor. Thus, Mr. Editor, you will perceive that the *Kingston Gazette* was the first paper ever printed in Kingston, and the third in Upper Canada; and the only one from the time of the taking of York (Toronto) by the Americans, on the 27th of April, 1813, till the year 1816."

5. COMPLETION OF BROCK'S MONUMENT.

The *Niagara Mail* of last week announces that this tribute of Canadian veneration for the memory of the immortal Brock is at length completed, and ready for inauguration; which we hope will not be deferred longer than the anniversary of the Chieftain's glorious death, on the 13th of October next. Our contemporary says: "The side of the mountain below the monument has been cleared and scraped, so as to give a fine open view from below, and the surrounding grounds, to the extent of about forty acres, have been enclosed and laid out in a park, with a noble carriage road, and an avenue of trees leading up from the Lodge gate. An elegant and substantial stone house has been built for the keeper of the monument, and the whole surroundings of the place are tastefully laid out to correspond with the beauty of the situation and dignity of the object. We believe it is intended to make the monument a place of deposit for the colors of the *Niagara Frontier Regiments* engaged in the war of 1812, and perhaps many other interesting relics of the times of General Brock may there find a suitable resting place, all of which would tend to enhance the interest to visitors, although the tomb of Brock needs no accessions to move the deep and heartfelt reverence in which his memory is held by every Upper Canadian that visits this monument of our fallen and victorious chief."

DIMENSIONS AND ARCHITECTURAL STYLE OF BROCK'S MONUMENT.

This noble piece of architecture, erected on Queenston Heights to perpetuate the memory of General Brock, who was killed in action on the spot on the 13th October, 1812, was commenced in 1853, and completed in 1856, and has very recently had the surrounding grounds and heights fenced in, a stone lodge erected, with handsome wrought-iron ornamental gates, and cut-stone piers, surmounted with the arms of the hero, at the eastern entrance. From the entrance a carriage road has been made of easy ascent, winding up the steep, and continued on the heights by an avenue 100 feet wide, planted with chesnuts, maples, &c., terminating at the monument in a circle 180 feet diameter, the whole of which has been well macadamized and gravelled. The heights in front of the monument, to the width of fifty yards, have been cleared of the trees and laid down with grass, which, from below, gives an agreeable vista, and opens the view of the monument to great advantage, towering as it does to the height of 200 feet above the brow of the hill. The monument has been erected from the design and under the superintendence of W. Thomas, architect, of this city, who has had also under his arrangement and superintendence the erection of the lodge, laying out of the grounds, formation of roads, and all accessory works; and the manner in which he has discharged these duties has given the committee great satisfaction. Upon the solid rock is built a foundation 40.0 square and 10.0 thick of massive stone. Upon this the structure stands on a ground plinth or sub-basement 38 feet square and 27 feet in height, and with eastern entrance by a massive oak door, with bronze pateras, forming two galleries to the interior 114.0 in extent round the inner pedestal, on the north and south sides of which, in vaults under the ground floor, are deposited the remains of General Brock and those of his aide-de-camp, Colonel McDonnell, in massive stone sarcophagi. On the exterior angles of the sub-basement are placed lions rampant, seven feet in height, supporting shields with the armorial bearings of the hero. On the north side is a suitable inscription, the whole placed on a platform slightly elevated within a dwarf wall enclosure, 75.0 square, with a fosse around the interior. At each angle are placed massive military trophies on pedestals in carved stone 20.0 in height. Standing upon the sub-

basement is the pedestal of the order, 16.9 square and 38.0 in height, the die having on three of its enriched panelled sides emblematic baso-relievs; and on the north side, fronting Queenston, the battle scene in alto-relievo. The plinth of the order is enriched with lion's heads, and wreaths, in bold relief. The column is of the Roman composite order, 95.0 in height; a fluted shaft 10.0 diameter at the base, the loftiest column known of this style; the lower tones enriched with laurel leaves, and the flutes terminating on the base with palms. The capital of the column is 16.0 square and 12.6 high. On each face is sculptured a figure of victory 10.6 high, with extended arms grasping military shields as volutes, the acanthus leaves being wreathed with palms—the whole after the manner of the antique. From the ground to the gallery at the top of the column (where a magnificent view can be obtained) is continued a staircase, of cut stone, worked with a solid Nurel of 250 steps, and sufficiently lighted by loop-holes in the fluting of the column, and other circular-wreathed openings. Upon the Abacus, stands the Cippas supporting the statue of the Hero, sculptured in military costume, 17.0 high, the left hand resting on his sword, the right arm extended with baton. The height from the ground to the top of the statue is 190.0, exceeding that of any monumental column, ancient or modern, known, with the exception of that on Fish street hill, London, England, by Sir Christopher Wren, architect, in commemoration of the great fire of 1656, 202.0 high, which exceeds it in height by 12 feet.—*Colonist*.

IV. Biographical Sketches.

No. 16. THE HON. GEO. CROOKSHANK, TORONTO.

We have to record the death of the Hon. George Crookshank, which took place at three o'clock yesterday morning, at his house on Front street. He was, if we are not misinformed, the oldest resident of Toronto. He was born in New York, of Scottish parentage, but at the conclusion of the American War of Independence, his family, with others of the United Empire Loyalists, emigrated to St. John's, New Brunswick. General Simcoe, upon his appointment to the Governorship of Canada, desired to have near him some of those who had served with him in the war, and among others induced the Hon. Mr. McGill to take up his residence here. Mr. Magill was a brother-in-law of Mr. Crookshank, and when he came to Toronto, in 1796, brought the latter with him. Mr. Magill was appointed Receiver General, and Mr. Crookshank received an appointment in the Commissariat. He rose to the post of Deputy Commissary General, which he held until the conclusion of the war of 1812, when he retired upon half-pay. He received, on settling in Toronto, three hundred acres of land, now owned by Messrs. Strachan and Fitzgerald, but still known as the Crookshank estate. He was possessed of large property besides, and leaves a handsome fortune to his only surviving child, the wife of Mr. Stephen Heward. His only son died some years ago. Mrs. Crookshank's name was Lambert. She was of an American family, and has been dead many years. Mr. Crookshank derived his title from the seat which he held in the Legislative Council of Upper Canada. Since the Union, he had taken no part in politics, and for some years his once-familiar face and form have not been seen in our streets. Had he lived until Saturday, he would have been 86 years of age.—*Globe*.

No. 17. DENISON OLMSTED, LL.D., YALE COLLEGE.

The news of the death of Prof. Olmsted of New Haven, which was announced yesterday, will be received with profound regret by thousands of his pupils and hundreds of thousands of those who have heard of him, through the medium of his books alone. Professor Olmsted was born in East Hartford, Conn., June 16, 1791. His father was a farmer, and died when he was but a year old, and the means of education enjoyed by young Olmsted were limited. After pursuing a short clerkship in a country store, his desire for knowledge impelled him to seek a liberal education. He entered Yale College in 1809, and was, through the whole course a faithful and successful scholar. He graduated in 1813 with high honor. The two years succeeding he spent as a teacher in New London, and was then elected to a tutorship in Yale College. In 1817 he was appointed Professor of Chemistry in the University of North Carolina, and while in this position he made a survey of the Geology and Mineralogy of that State. This was the first enterprise of the kind in this country, and reflected great honor on both the state and the surveyor. In the words of the venerable Professor Silliman, "with a view to render himself more fit for the duties of the office, he passed a year with me, in making himself familiar with the chemical manipulations and the art of preparing successful experiments, and also to become proficient in Mineralogy and Geology, and the connected arts. * *

During the seven or eight years of his professorship at Chapel Hill, he bestowed important advantages on the College and acquired deserved honor for himself. In addition to his duties of instruction, and the necessary labor of preparing his experiments, he explored extensively and successfully the Geology and Mineralogy of North Carolina, whose territory is rich in valuable minerals, and in facts illustrative of geological theory, both of which were presented by him to the public in a small but valuable memoir, forming an interesting and instructive early record of American Geology." On Professor Dutton's death, in 1825, Professor Olmsted was elected Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy in Yale College. Eleven years later the office was divided, and since 1836 he has filled the chair of Natural Philosophy and Astronomy. The *New Haven Palladium* concludes a notice of Professor Olmsted, as follows:—"He has been widely known as an eminently successful instructor, endowed with unusual skill in imparting knowledge, and in adapting his instructions to all classes of minds. He ever manifested a warm interest in his pupils, and his fidelity and kindness won their respect and their love. Professor Olmsted has been a diligent student and a copious writer. He has contributed a large amount of important matter to our literary and scientific periodicals. The *American Journal of Science* contains numerous contributions from his pen on Geology, Meteorology and Astronomy, together with several highly interesting biographical sketches of eminent men. The interest excited both at home and abroad by his elaborate papers on the great meteoric shower of November, 1835, will long be remembered. The most important of the original views there advanced by him,—that shooting stars are celestial bodies and not atmospheric,—has, after some opposition, been generally adopted. As the author of several important text-books, Professor Olmsted is favorably known throughout the land. The chief of these are his large works on Natural Philosophy and Astronomy, and his *Rudiments* of those sciences. Many of these works have passed through numerous editions and are extensively used. They are all characterized by clear and methodical statement, and evince on the part of the author, great practical knowledge of the best mode of presenting his subject. During his whole career, Professor Olmsted has been distinguished for his untiring efforts in the cause of popular education. As long ago as 1813 he projected the plan of an Academy for school-masters, or what is now called a Normal School. On numerous occasions, by the press and by public lectures he has rendered efficient service to the improvement of common schools, and has done very much to diffuse among the masses the benefits of knowledge. In all the relations of public and private life he was a model of excellence. That he was a man of true religious feeling and earnest practical piety, all those who had intercourse with him, can bear witness. The faith in Christ which he professed at an early age, he adorned by a consistent walk and conversation, and was sustained by it in the repeated bereavements he was called to pass through, and during the painful illness which has closed his useful life.—*N. Y. Com. Advertiser*.

No. 18. OSCAR I, KING OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

A brief telegraphic despatch in the London papers announces the death at Stockholm, July 8, of Oscar, King of Sweden and Norway, after an illness which has incapacitated him from taking any active part in the government of his kingdom since September, 1857. Joseph Francis Oscar, I, King of Sweden and Norway, of the Goths and Wends, was born July 4, 1799, succeeded his father Bernadotte, to the throne in 1844, and was crowned at Stockholm on the 28th of September of the same year. He had married, in the year 1823, the Princess Josephine Maximilienne Eugenie, daughter of Eugenie, Duke of Leuchtenburgh, by whom he has had several children, viz: Prince Charles Louis Eugenie, Duke of Scania, born in 1825, now King of Sweden; Prince Oscar Frederic, Duke of Ostragotha, born in 1829, for several years commander of the Swedish marine forces; Princess Charlotte Eugenie Augusta Amelia Albertine, born in 1830; and the Prince Nicholas Augustus, born in 1831. The eldest son, Prince Charles, succeeds to the throne, and will probably take the title of Charles XV. He was married in 1850 to the Princess Wilhelmina Frederica Alexandrina Anna Louisa, daughter of Prince William of the Netherlands, and several children are the issue of his marriage. The father of the late King, the famous Marshall Bernadotte, married Desiree Clery, daughter of a merchant of Marseilles, and Oscar was the only issue of the marriage. When Bernadotte was elected Crown Prince of Sweden, young Oscar joined with him in abjuring Catholicism and embracing the Lutheran creed. He was placed in the Imperial Lyceum when but nine years of age, and subsequently his education was entrusted to Aterborn the Swedish poet. In 1818 Charles XIII. died, and Bernadotte ascended the throne under the title of Charles XIV. About this time Oscar entered the University of Upsal. After leaving the University the young Prince paid a visit to the Duke of Leuchtenberg, and married

his daughter. In 1834 he was appointed Regent on account of his father's illness, and in 1844, on the death of Bernadotte, he in turn succeeded to the throne, and at the same time to a private fortune of 80,000,000 per annum. He has ruled his kingdom for fifteen years, in comparative quiet, and without any occasion for a display of genius or great ability. He was prepossessing in personal appearance, courteous and affable, mingled freely with the people, and as well as his queen, was very popular. Education and internal improvements have progressed during his reign, but religious intolerance still prevails in Sweden. Prince Charles, who is now King, has received a purely Swedish education, and his intellectual acquirements are said to be considerable. His kingdom is peaceful and prosperous, and there seems to be no reason why his reign should not be long and happy.

V. Papers on the War in Italy.

1. STATISTICAL ACCOUNT OF THE ITALIAN STATES.

As the conclusion of the late war in Italy has directed public attention to the Italian States we have condensed a summary of the statistics of these States taken from the *Annuario Statistics Italiano* and other authentic sources.

Italy considered geographically extends from the extremity of Sicily to the Phœtian Alps between latitude 36° 35' and 47° north, and from the west point of the Cottian Alps to the east extremity of Terra d'Otranto, between longitude 6° 35', and 18° 35' east. Politically it extends 1° farther west so as to include in the Sardinian States the province of Savoy. She extends over an area of about 120,000 square miles. The area of the countries of Italy proper are as follows:—

Sardinian States:	Square miles.	Population.
Continental old	18,994	4,368,136
Lombardy (new).....	8,313	2,775,740
Island of Sardinia	9,235	547,948
	<u>36,542</u>	
Roman States.....	17,494	2,298,115
Kingdom of Naples	13,930	6,612,892
Tuscany	9,177	1,778,022
Duchy of Parma.....	2,274	502,841
Duchy of Modena	2,129	586,450
Principality of Monaco	53	6,000
Republic of San Marino	21	7,600

Italy is divided into fifteen circumscriptions, of which eight are under Italian governments, the remaining seven being under foreign rule. The population of the eight circumscriptions governed by Italian power amounts to 19,913,304, and that of the seven by foreign power 7,193,743—so that the total population of Italy amounts to 27,107,047, being about the same as that of Great Britain. The revenue of the different States amounted in the aggregate, during the year 1858, to 600,000,000 francs (\$120,000,000); and the gross expenditure to 640,000,000 francs (128,000,000). The principal branch of industry consists in the production of silk, in which Lombardy takes the lead. Cotton is also cultivated with success. The value of the silk produced in ordinary years generally amounts to from 200,000,000 francs (\$40,000,000) to 230,000,000 francs (\$46,000,000) Lombardy alone produces one-third, although she only comprises, as near as possible, one-fifteenth part of Italy. The mercantile marine of Italy, in proportion to the extent of country, is considerably more numerous than that of any other nation in Europe—England, alone, excepted. Her commerce, which is much impeded by the high tariffs in many of the States, is generally active. Italy is rich in mineral products, but has few metals except iron and lead. Sulphur, borax, salt, nitre, alum, alabaster, lava and other volcanic productions are abundant. The Apennines supply the beautiful marble of Carrara—the coasts of Sicily furnish sponge and coral. The principal imports are colonial goods, linen, woollen and cotton fabrics, jewellery and dried fish, while the chief exports consist of silk, wool, oil, honey, straw hats, and Parmesan cheese.

Italy at present possesses railways extending over a distance of 1,757 kilometres (1,098 English miles) already in operation, and of 2,339 kilometres (1,462 English miles) in course of construction—concessions have also been granted for 634 kilometres (396 English miles) additional.

The religion of the people, as may naturally be expected, consists almost exclusively of that of Roman Catholicism. The numbers are as follows:

Roman Catholics.....	27,028,874
Jews	41,497
Other religions.....	46,676
Total.....	27,107,047

So that the Roman Catholics forms 99.71 per cent. of the population; the Jews 15 per cent. and those professing all other creeds 14 per cent. The total number of bishoprics in Europe, amount to 535, of which Italy monopolizes 256, or nearly one half as many as there are in the whole of Europe. The average is 90,000 Catholics for each diocese; and in the Roman States there is one bishop for every 40,000 souls. In Sicily the Clergy are more numerous than in any other part of Italy, or indeed the world, for we find that the number of priests, monks, and nuns, amount to 33,266, being one in every 69 of the people. There are nearly 300 journals published in Italy, of which 117 are in the Sardinian States, although they contain only one-fifth of the total population. Three new papers have been established in Lombardy since the expulsion of the Austrians.

Eight of the cities of Italy have a population exceeding 100,000, viz: Rome, Naples, Palermo, Venice, Florence, Milan, Genoa and Turin, and nineteen others exceed 50,000 inhabitants, so that Italy is one of the countries in which the largest cities and towns are to be found.

Little regard seems to be paid to the value of human life in Italy, the mortality being at the rate of one death yearly in every 30 of the population. In Naples it is one in 29. In England it is one in 45; so that the value of human life in Italy is the lowest in the scale of European nations.

The climate of Italy is beautiful; its soil very rich; its lakes and rivers exceedingly useful, its harbors and ports are admirable, and its fertility boundless. The following table shows the mean annual temperature of the principal cities, together with their latitude:—

Latitude.	Mean Temperature. (Fahrenheit.)
55° 28' Milan	55.2
45° 25' Venice	55.4
43° 46' Florence.....	59.2
41° 54' Rome	60.5
40° 50' Naples	59.6
38° 6' Palermo.....	63.1

The prevailing winds are West and South-West.

An English cotemporary, speaking of Italy, says: "Its magnificent scenery of hill, valley, waterfall, volcano, glacier, avalanche, and heaven-kissing mountain, inspires the spirit of adventure, romance, patriotism and daring. Her traditions are unequalled by the world. Her language the sweetest, the noblest, the most historical; her children distinguished, we had almost said unrivalled, in every department of human greatness."

Italy is, doubtless, the land of poetry and art, as well as the land of artists and poets; as witness Columbus, Galileo, Dante, Raffaele, Michael Angelo, Canova, Marochetti, Rossini, Volta, Galvanio, Machiavelli, Beccaria, Goldoni, Sismondi, and the endless list of her physicians and natural philosophers.

2. THE KINGDOM OF SARDINIA.

The Kingdom of Sardinia is at present composed of North Italy and an island lying south of Corsica. The island was acquired by King Victor Armadeus, in exchange for Sicily, from which time he and his successors have assumed and been conceded the title of King. The Continental Sardinian States are the Principality of Piedmont, the county of Nice, the duchy of Savoy, the duchy of Genoa, the duchy of Montferret, part of the former duchy of Milan, and the State of Lombardy. It (Sardinia) is bounded on the north by Switzerland, Venice, and Tuscany, south by the Mediterranean, on the south-west and west by France. On each side, therefore, it is adjacent to the great powers of France and Austria, who have made it their battle-field. The government is a limited monarchy, administered under the liberal constitution promulgated by Charles Albert in 1848, who, in that year, undertook to expel the Austrians from Italy, but the results were disastrous, and he abdicated in March, 1849, to his son, and soon after died. The revenue in 1854 amounted to \$25,000,000 of which one half was derived from taxes, nearly \$10,000,000 from customs, and the balance from public works. The expenditures were about \$28,000,000, and in the same year the public debt amounted to \$115,000,000, one half of which was recently contracted in two large portions—one for the construction of railways, and the other by the war of 1848 with Austria. Lines of railway run from Turin, (a city of nearly 300,000 souls) to Genoa, through Alessandria, from Turin to Salvgliano, and from Turin to

the French frontier, to intersect the railways of that empire. Lines of telegraph also connect with those of France.

Piedmont ("foot of the mountain,") forms more than half of the arena of the Sardinian States, and is the central and metropolitan portion. It is nearly encircled with lofty mountain ranges, and within these natural barriers is found one of the most beautiful and fertile portions of Europe. These fertile plains are the granary of Sardinia. In many instances the fertility has been increased ten-fold by careful and scientific management. Irrigation, particularly in the eastern portion, towards the plains of Lombardy, has been carried to such perfection that whole tracts of country are literally covered by small artificial channels, so that in the plains of Piedmont half a million of acres are under a regular system of irrigation. The results are astonishing. Whole districts which had remained almost waste, have been converted into luxuriant corn fields, verdant meadows and rice grounds; and instead of a scanty and impoverished population, now rival the most densely populated regions of Europe. The surplus corn supplies the territory bordering on the Mediterranean as far as Toulon. Wheat, maize, barley, rice, hemp and fruit, are the principal crops; the wines are of inferior quality, and oil is produced only in small quantities. The silk obtained is abundant and of excellent quality, and both in its raw and spun state forms one of the principal articles of export. Fruit is abundant and fine.

The present King of Sardinia is Victor Emanuel II., who is 39 years of age—just the age of Francis Joseph I., Emperor of Austria.

3. THE COURSE OF THE WAR IN ITALY.

The *Boston Journal* gives the following concise abstract, in chronological order, of the events of the war of 1859:

The Emperor Louis Napoleon publicly expressed to the Austrian Envoy at his court his regret that the two governments are not on better terms—which creates extraordinary sensation and leads to mutual armaments—January 1, 1859.

Events growing daily more threatening, it is announced that England has sent Lord Cowley on a peace mission to Vienna, February 22.

The announcement is made that a Peace Congress will be held, the effect of which is to open long negotiations about the preliminary question of disarmament, March 19.

All hopes of peace are quenched by the news that Austria has insisted upon the disarmament of Sardinia alone, as a condition precedent to any peace negotiations, April 8.

Austrian and Sardinian forces having assembled in the neighborhood of the Ticino, Count Gyulai forwards a peremptory summons to the King of Sardinia to disarm within three days on penalty of war, April 22.

King Victor Emmanuel, having returned an indignant refusal, is invested with dictatorial powers, April 23.

Lord Malmesbury issues a final proposition for negotiation—which is accepted by Austria and rejected by France, April 25.

French troops begin to land at Genoa, April 25.

Tuscany throws off the government of the Grand Duke, and declares for Victor Emmanuel, April 25.

The Austrian army, in three divisions, crosses the Ticino, April 29.

A detachment of Austrians, in attempting to cross the Po at Frassinetto, is repulsed by the Sardinians, May 3.

Louis Napoleon issues decrees relating to his departure for the army, May 3.

Louis Napoleon leaves Paris, May 10, reaches Genoa on the 12th, and joins the army on the 14th.

The battle of Montebello is fought between the outposts of the two armies, the French, under Gen. Forey, compelling the Austrians to withdraw, May 20.

Garibaldi, at the head of 6,000 Italian volunteers, crosses the Ticino, May 23.

Garibaldi fights his way into the city of Como, where he is joyfully received by the citizens, May 27.

The battle of Palestro is fought by about 12,000 Sardinians under their King, and 20,000 Austrians under Gen. Zobel—the latter withdrawing, May 30.

The battle of Magenta is fought, in which 100,000 allies under General McMahon, rout 120,000 Austrians under General Gyulai, June 4.

The Emperor Napoleon and King Victor Emmanuel enter Milan, welcomed by the citizens, June 8.

The battle of Malegnano is fought, the Austrians under Benedick being driven from their position by the allies under d'Hilliors, June 9.

The battle of Solferino is fought under the command of the two Emperors, by nearly 400,000 troops, the Austrians being compelled to retire, June 28.

The Sardinians begin to invest the fortresses of Peschiera, June 28.

The allies cross the Mincio, June 30.

The French Emperor takes up his head-quarters at Valleggio, on the east bank of the Mincio, July 3.

The armistice between the belligerents, to last till August 15, is signed, July 8.

Peace between the two Emperors agreed upon, July 11.

4. CELEBRATED ARMISTICES.

The most celebrated armistices recorded in modern history are the following:

That of Leoben, in 1797, was signed a few days after the victory of Tagliamento, gained by Napoleon I. over Prince Charles. It was General Bonaparte himself who proposed it. This armistice was followed by the preliminaries of Leoben and the treaty of Campo-Formio. The armistice of Stayer, concluded on the 25th of December, 1800, took place after the battle of Hohenlinden. It was signed by the French General, Moreau. On the 16th of January, 1801, Brune signed the armistice of Treviso, which delivered into the hands of the French the fortified places of Ferrara, Peschiera, and Porto-Legnano. He was reproached with not having demanded Mantua. In 1805 Murat concluded an armistice at Hollebrun, which saved the Russian army, and was the cause of a severe letter written to him by the Emperor. On the very evening of the battle of Austerlitz, the Emperor of Austria demanded and obtained an armistice, which was preliminary to the peace of Presburg. Another armistice, also celebrated, was signed after the battle of Friedland, and led to the peace of Tilsit. At Wagram took place the armistice of Zhaim, which was the prelude to the peace of Vienna, 1808. Lastly, on the 4th of June, 1813, after Bautzen, was signed the armistice of Pleiswitz, which the Emperor Napoleon I. himself considered a fault.

5. THE FIVE GREAT POWERS OF EUROPE.

In modern times Austria, France, Great Britain, Prussia, and Russia have been so considered, as the following statement will show—their armies being reckoned on the peace establishment:—

	Army.	Naval Guns.
Austria	405,000	600
France	265,463	8,000
Great Britain	129,000	18,000
Prussia	121,000	114
Russia	700,000	7,000

The secondary powers are:—

Spain	160,000	721
The Netherlands	50,000	2,500
Belgium	90,000	36
Portugal	38,000	700
Sardinia	38,000	900
Naples	48,000	484
Bavaria	57,000	...
Turkey	220,000	800

The other forty-two European states have aggregate armies of 368,135 men, and 4,250 naval guns, including Denmark (20,000 men, 1,120 guns) and Sweden (34,000 men, 2,400 guns.) Of the fifty-five independent European states, five only are accounted "Great Powers." This statement is founded on an extract from the *Kolner Zeitung* in the Companion to the British Almanac for 1859.

VI. Papers on Practical Education.

1. THE GOVERNMENT OF CHILDREN IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Whoever shall discover and publish to the world a short, comprehensive, and infallible rule for the government of children will deserve well of mankind and immortalize his name. Of parental government we are not now treating, but of the best method of managing the pupils of our public schools.—Our attention has just now been particularly called to this subject, from the perusal of a set of new rules and regulations for the Central School of this town, recently adopted by the Teachers and unanimously sanctioned by the Board of Trustees. These regulations make no recognition of corporal punishment and appeal at once to the moral sense of the pupils. We have not space to speak of the details, further than to observe that these have been carefully considered,—the different kinds of offences have been classified, adequate penalties have been attached

to violation of any of the rules, and the nobler nature of the children will be appealed to, the mind and heart being reached without a passage through the flesh. As a last resort the incorrigible will be recommitted to the care of their parents, as the proper guardians of those by whom the purposes of school instruction are defeated. This system must entail much additional labor upon the Teachers, especially the Principal, but we believe it will be found to be a saving of time in the long run. We do not claim for this method of treating offences, the summit of perfection or even originality, but we regard it as based upon the right principle, and therefore give it our hearty support.

The rod, we are happy to say, has ceased to reign universally in our public schools.—The time is not far back when instruments of corporal punishment were regarded as indispensable concomitants of school furniture. No master could be without his rod or leather strap. The pedagogue was invariably associated with the means of torture and the absence of sympathy. Although these relics of barbarism still bear sway in many communities, and there are still respectable teachers who are wedded from early association and habit to the old system, we are glad to know that many have adopted other methods with great success. This revolution among teachers has been the result of a change in the public mind with regard to the real nature of children. It has been incontestably demonstrated from a variety of experiments and from philosophical disquisitions, that they are really human beings—men in miniature, possessed of natures and dispositions and endowed with faculties which require only proper development to fit them for the position of active and useful beings. Children understand and appreciate kindness, and he who obtains their sympathies can govern them almost at his will. In dealing with moral beings, we must not forget that mind is the ruling power. If a suitable influence can be acquired over that, the task of government will be comparatively easy. Now, what must be the nature of the influence acquired by that teacher who deals only in frowns, and reproaches, and blows,—whose first appeal is to the rod, and who chastises with severity from the dictates of his own passions? Such a man is the personification of terror. He is soon hated by his pupils, his admonitions pass unheeded, and his instructions are lost. Such a spirit as he constantly, though perhaps unconsciously, carries about him is calculated to engender a spirit of distrust and aversion among his pupils. Set it down as a safe maxim, that children never esteem a man unless they think they have a place in his affections; and if they have not, they are not slow to ascertain the fact.

In discussing this subject we must keep two important facts prominently in view,—1st. That government is only a secondary or subsidiary matter in a public school, instruction in the branches of knowledge being the object of the school, and government necessary as securing the proper attention and application of the pupils. At the same time we do not overlook the importance of government in forming correct habits, restraining, and fitting children for submission to authority in subsequent life. In fact, from this view we urge still more strenuously our views of moral suasion as preferable to coercion.—The second fact to which we refer is this:—The child can never feel that the teacher has the same right of compulsion over him which his parents have. No matter how much parents may uphold the authority of the teacher and impress upon their children that they are wholly under his control while at school—and every parent should do this—there is the natural feeling which can not be got over,—an involuntary sentiment which cannot be successfully combated, and we would impress upon teachers that they must look to the law of kindness to aid them in their strictness with children.

In conclusion, our opinion is that a feeling of self respect should be instilled into the minds of pupils attending our public schools. Teachers should frequently reason with them, address them in their collective capacity as a community who have a character to maintain before the public, let them know that their position in after life will much depend upon their conduct while at school, and impress them with a sense of their own interests being involved in all the rules adopted for their government. Particular cases should be patiently treated in the most private manner, and teachers should be cordial with their pupils, not too familiar, but always approachable, frank, cheerful, and never idle. By this course any man may succeed tolerably in the management of children; but after all it cannot be denied that there is with some men a natural turn for governing, and that the best system of government springs from the natural talent of the governor.—*Brockville Recorder.*

2. NOTES OF A LESSON ON TOBACCO.

1. *Name.*—According to some, tobacco received its name from Tabacco, a province of Yucatan, in New Spain; to others, from the island of Tobago, one of the Carribees; to others from Tabasco, in

the Gulf of Florida; and to others, from the Haytian word "tobako," which means not the plant, but the pipe through which it is smoked. The latter is the most probable origin of the word.*

The Latin, or scientific name, is *nicotiana tabacum*, derived from Nicot, a French ambassador, who sent seeds of the plant to Catherine de Medici, whence it was also called "Queen's herb." In Italy it was at first known under the names of "herbe de St. Croix," and "herbe de Ternabou;" because St. Croix and Ternabou conveyed it to Italy.

2. *History.*—The Spaniards found this plant in use in America when they arrived there. Columbus discovered the inhabitants of Cuba smoking cigars. In 1559, it was transplanted, as a medical herb, to Lisbon. In 1560, it was brought to France, by Nicot. In 1565, it was brought to England by Sir John Hawkins. In 1586, the use of it was introduced into this country by Sir Francis Drake and the colonists of Sir Walter Raleigh. To the latter gentleman the success of its introduction as a narcotic is mainly indebted. Tobacco was introduced into Turkey and Arabia at the beginning of the 17th century. The cultivation of tobacco preceded that of the potato in Europe 120 to 140 years. When Raleigh brought it to England, in 1586, whole fields were under cultivation in Portugal. In 1601, it was carried to Java, since which period it has spread over a large portion of the habitable globe.

At first, tobacco was manufactured in England only for exportation. The "Pied Bull," at Islington, was the first house where it was smoked in England. In 1614, the Star Chamber ordered the duty to be 6s. 10d. per lb., and its cultivation was prohibited in England by Charles II. In 1684, an act was passed, laying a duty on its importation. Its cultivation was allowed in Ireland in 1779. Afterwards this was prohibited, which prohibition was revived in 1831. In 1832, an act was passed, directing that all Irish-grown tobacco should be purchased and destroyed. In 1789, tobacco was put under the Excise; and at present the culture of more than 2½ square yards of plants is prohibited in Britain.

The introduction of tobacco met with considerable opposition. A German writer collected the titles of 100 different works condemning its use, which were published within half a century from its introduction into Europe. In Russia, smoking was prohibited, and the smoker threatened with the knout for the first offence, but the punishment was death for the second breach of the law. Pope Urban VIII. fulminated a Bull against the use of tobacco; and Pope Innocent XII. excommunicated all who were found using tobacco in the Church of St. Peter's, at Rome. The priests and sultans of Persia and Turkey declared smoking a sin against their religion. King James I. wrote against it; some Polish Jesuits replied to him in its favour. On both sides the controversy was, for a long time, hot and strong.

3. *Description.*—Tobacco belongs to the same family of plants as the henbane, belladonna, thorn-apple, and potato. It is an annual herb, with undivided, broad, and somewhat fleshy leaves. It grows from three to six feet in height. The leaves are the part used. The plant is propagated by seeds, which are sown in March and transplanted in May. In a fresh condition it has little smell or taste; but, when dried, the leaves acquire a stupefying smell, and a sharp, bitter flavour.

4. *Preparation.*—The leaves are gathered, dried under cover, heaped together to produce a slight fermentation, spread out again, and finally packed for exportation. American tobaccos are generally imported tied up in little bundles, called "hands," and packed in hogsheads.

Tobacco leaves, twisted into a kind of cord, are used for chewing, and is called *roll tobacco*, or *twist*. The leaves stripped from the midrib are rolled up into cigars and cheroots. The leaves, piled together, and shred into thin thread-like strips, are used for smoking in pipes. The dried stalks, portions of leaves, &c., dried, and ground into fine powder, constitute snuff.

5. *Uses.*—Almost all over the world, tobacco is used in some form or other—either smoked, chewed, or snuffed. It has been calculated that 800,000,000 of the human race indulge in these habits. Its earliest use in America is said to have been as an application to wounds. By means of a duty of 3s. per lb., it contributes to the revenue of Great Britain, £5,282,471 per annum. In Paris alone, it is said that 2,500 women are constantly employed in making cigars. Tobacco contains a powerful poisonous principle, called "nicotine," four or five drops of which would kill a dog.

6. *Localities.*—Indigenous to America, and extensively cultivated in North and South America, China, Cuba, Africa, and various parts of Europe and Asia. The best qualities of tobacco are those

* In Mexico, tobacco is called "yest," and in Peru "sagri." It is the "pote-ma" of the Omaganas; the "pety" of the Guaranos, the "sema" of the Algonkians; the "onykoua" of the Hurons; the "pâis" of the Chiquitos; the "cawai" of the Tamañacs; the "jema" of the Maypures; the "pitima" of the Lingroa-geral; the "béuro" of Tucano; the "djeema" of the Baniwa; the "tusup" of Vilela; the "sabare" of Moxo; and the "jema" of Tariana.

of Cuba. None of the tobaccos of Africa are met with in commerce.

7. *Consumption.*—The total quantity of leaf tobacco produced all over the world, in 1858, was computed at 4,000,000,000 lbs.* about two-thirds of which is produced in the United States. Upwards of £8,000,000 are spent annually in these articles in Great Britain, and nearly £10,000,000 in France. The average consumption at home is 19 oz. per head per annum; whilst in Denmark and Belgium the average is 4½ lbs per head; and in New South Wales as much as 14 lbs. per head.

Imports in 1857: 65,022, 670 lbs. of tobacco; 252,277 lbs. of cigars and snuff; 65,274,947 lbs. of tobacco in manufactured and unmanufactured states.—M. C. COOKE, in the *English School and the Teacher.*

VII. Miscellaneous.

1. OUR COUNTRY AND OUR QUEEN!

In other lands the bright sunbeam
With richer glow is known,
But none, however fair they seem,
Are fairer than our own;
And none a monarch can possess
As on our throne is seen:
Still then we'll pray to Heaven to bless
Our Country and our Queen!

In song let children hail her name,
For she our love hath won,
By deeds of more enduring fame
Than manhood's might hath done.
And long as language can express
What in the heart's unseen,
We'll pray to Heaven above, to bless
Our Country and our Queen!

From lordly tower, and princely hall,
And peasant's lowly home,
Where'er her gentle sway doth fall,
Her heartfelt praises come.
Our mountains their delight express,
Our cliffs and valleys green:
And still we pray to Heaven to bless
Our Country and our Queen!

Though great her glory and renown,
Theme of her people's prayers,
May she yet win a nobler crown
Than that on earth she wears:
And long may future times confess
The virtues we have seen;
But Heaven, in thy great love, still bless
Our Country and our Queen!

[For an instance of the love of the people for the Queen, see last paragraph of the "School Pic-Nic at Kingston," on page 127.]

2. THE QUEEN AS DAUGHTER, MOTHER, AND GRANDMOTHER.

Queen Victoria must be one of the youngest grandmothers in England. To those who are accustomed to see her among her own young family, and still with an infant on her knees, it appears like a mistake that the venerable title of grandmother should belong to her. The honours of that relation are seldom acquired before forty; and most people think fifty quite early enough, considering what a sacrifice of the free and improving years of youth is implied in the early marriages which bring on a new generation so rapidly. In her entrance on a new stage of her natural, honoured, and happy life, however, the Queen will have the hearty sympathy of her subjects, as on every prior one. Some of us still remember the day when she was in her mother's arms, as the widowed Duchess received the condolence of the many mourners of the Duke of Kent. During her entire childhood and youth her future people were preparing their admiration and loyal love, on the ground of her vigorous and most appropriate education. The fervor of loyalty on her accession was really dangerous, so far did popular expectation transcend any fulfilment that it was possible for a constitutional sovereign to afford. But in

* Two millions of tons is Mr. Crawford's computation of the production of the world. All the wheat consumed in Great Britain weighs little more than 4,000,000 of tons; so that the tobacco raised annually weighs as much as the wheat consumed annually by 10,000,000 Englishmen; and reckoning this at double the market value of wheat, or 2d. per lb., it is worth as much as all the wheat eaten in Great Britain.

this, again, sympathy did not fail. When it appeared that the best sovereign that England has had for generations could not cure all the evils of the State, and abolish the sufferings of human life in her dominions, she was not made to suffer for the follies of the sanguine, but gratefully credited with what she was able to do, and not asked for more. Her domestic life has been exemplarily respected—the popular feeling in regard to herself securing due recognition of the scholarly and the business-like qualities of her husband, while dealing gently with such of his political tendencies and foreign notions and habits as may require to be kept in check; tendencies which have never created such difficulties as must have arisen if she had herself enjoyed less of the national respect and attachment. As soon as she became a mother, her infants had the whole nation for sponsors. They have lived, and always will live under a truly national guardianship, an enthusiasm of protection which must cheer the twice-motherly heart which presides at once over the home and the empire. Last winter, the first marriage in her family was a national festival. Her eldest daughter was England's eldest daughter; and we were all moved and melted together with the bridal joy and tenderness, when the first of the royal children left home. Not one of the wide circle had departed in the drearier way. Death had never yet entered that threshold. All the sympathy has been joyful thus far; and now, within forty years from the day when we first heard of her, we are called upon to welcome the first of a third generation. Everybody rejoices, of course. The only variations in the sympathy of millions are caused by the differences in foresight and reflectiveness which are found throughout the ranges of millions of minds.—*Daily News.*

VIII. Educational Intelligence.

CANADA.

— U. C. COLLEGE, TORONTO.—The annual distribution of prizes took place at the close of the term, in the College Hall, which was soon crowded with a large number of the parents of the pupils, and with others desirous of witnessing so pleasing a scene. The Principal began by stating that Upper Canada College had now entered upon the 30th year of its existence; that though it could not boast the antiquity of the grand old foundation of England, it yet in its 30 years was coeval with Canada's childhood, and that if estimated by material progress, these few years were equal to many centuries in older countries. He then showed that much of this material progress was due to intelligence and education, and claimed for Upper Canada College a very large share in the work, inasmuch as it had annually sent out large numbers to discharge their duties to their country in the different learned professions, and in the various walks of mercantile life. He stated that on the College roll were not less than 3,000 names, numbering amongst them many who had distinguished themselves in the pulpit, at the bar, in the universities, in the profession of medicine, and the glorious profession of arms; that it was difficult to estimate and hardly possible to over-estimate what the effect of these 3,000 individuals—3,000 mentally, morally, and religiously trained intelligences, forming so many centres of action—must have been on the future of our young country, scattered far and wide as they were over the length and breadth of Canada; that the effects must have been enormous and, that whatever they were, Upper Canada College claimed them fairly as her own. The Principal having thus shown that Upper Canada College had been doing a great work in the land—a work which its sons would be proud to recognize—stated that a great work was still being done, and that for the last few years not less than fifty had been sent forth annually, more or less well educated to do their duty in the station of life unto which it has pleased God to call them. The prizes were then distributed according to the list which we give below, with appropriate commendatory notices of each boy as he received his prize. In the course of these observations the Principal took occasion, amongst many other subjects, to remark on the successful working of the College boarding-house, the improvement in the educational system effected by the appointment of an English classical master, the very satisfactory state of the French classes of the College, and the greatly increased number of the boys, which has averaged 300 for the past year. At the close of the delivery of the prizes and honors, the names of the successful candidates for exhibitions were given out; and the proceedings terminated with the announcement that the College year was ended, and that Thursday, 8th September, was the day for re-assembling after the long vacation.

— ST. MICHAEL'S COLLEGE, TORONTO.—We had the pleasure of witnessing the Solemn Distribution of Prizes in St. Michael's College, on

Wednesday, the 13th inst., which took place in the presence of his Lordship the R. C. Bishop of Toronto, and several members of the Clergy. We understand that during the previous week the pupils underwent a long and severe examination. The proficiency the students exhibited in the knowledge not only of their own language, upon which the utmost care is bestowed, but also in the Greek, Latin, and French tongues, Mathematics, Music, and the other branches, was remarkable; and if we may judge from the number who were so eminently successful on Wednesday evening, the result must have been certainly most creditable to the students, as well as satisfactory to the professors.—*Mirror*.

— **MODEL GRAMMAR SCHOOL FOR U. C.**—The first annual examination of the pupils trained in the Model Grammar School for Upper Canada took place on the 27th and 28th July, under the direction of the several masters. The students evinced considerable proficiency in the various branches of study, not the least important feature in which is the physical education imparted to them by their veteran instructor in gymnastics, drilling, and fencing, Captain Goodwin. At about half past three o'clock the numerous visitors assembled in the Theatre, where the annual recitations took place, and the prizes were distributed. Among those present were the Governor General and Lady Head, Mr. Chief Justice Draper, Mr. Justice Burns, Mr. Justice Richards, and several members of the Council of Public Instruction &c. The recitations were the first in order. These were followed by several original compositions, which were read by their youthful authors, and favourably received by the auditory.

Rev. Dr. RYERSON, Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada, then addressed the assemblage, giving a brief history of the Model and Normal Schools, and setting forth in connection with these the position occupied by the Model Grammar School. The pupils in this latter school were, he said, limited to one hundred—being three from each of thirty counties and cities in Upper Canada. The Model Grammar School had been in operation only a few months, and the pupils trained in it thus far had been selected from various parts of the country, as also from several schools. The organization of the Model Grammar School might be imperfect; but if they should have the happiness of His Excellency's presence at any future similar occasion, he was quite satisfied that the school would exhibit a marked improvement. All that now remained to complete the system of public instruction in this Province was the establishment of a school of art and drawing, for which they already possessed the necessary models. It would then remain for the people themselves to take advantage of the means which the Government had placed at their disposal for the education of their children. As far as their own experience went, the Model Grammar School had already exerted a salutary influence upon the other grammar schools of the country. The masters of most of these schools had spent a considerable period at the Model Grammar School, and this examination had been held one month later in order to afford them an opportunity of visiting the school during the summer vacation and of witnessing the several exercises for themselves. In order to make the school as efficient as possible, he (Dr. Ryerson) had sought in Europe for a Rector who was acquainted not only with the Scotch and English systems of education, but also with the German method of school government, and who had united with these acquirements, all that was accomplished in Oxford and thorough in Dublin. Besides the Rector, they had likewise obtained from the institutions he had named two other masters, each of whom he was happy to believe had fully come up to their wishes and expectations. (Hear, hear.) And he (Dr. Ryerson) anticipated from the operations of this school the greatest advantages to that branch of the system of public instruction which laid the foundation of correct mental discipline, and connected us with past ages. (Applause.)

The Rector (Mr. Cockburn, M. A.) in presenting His Excellency a list of the boys who had taken prizes, remarked that the paper contained the names of several youths who, besides winning honours in special branches, had obtained prizes for general scholarship and good conduct. The advantage resulting from this system was that they gave a wide and general direction to the minds of the pupils, instead of leading them to confine their studies to one particular branch of education.

Sir EDMUND presented the several prizes, accompanying each gift with a few words of encouragement, after which His Excellency rose and said—Dr. Ryerson,—It has afforded me much satisfaction on this occasion to receive from you the explanations which you have just given of the objects of this branch of the institution in which we are now assembled. For myself, I believe that the Model and Grammar School is far from being the least important feature in our system of public instruction. The com-

mon schools are of course the foundation of that system; and as this Province advances—as it grows in importance, and as its people increase in knowledge—in the same proportion will they become attached to literature and to that higher education of which the Model Grammar School is the basis. I have not had an opportunity of visiting this building—this new building—until to-day. I am very glad to see the progress which has been made, and to know that the recent addition to this institution has afforded sufficient accommodation for the different branches of education hitherto unprovided for. I congratulate you most sincerely on the position which this institution has assumed. I learn with pleasure the number of the pupils, and I feel confident, Sir, that under your guidance, as superintendent of the whole, and under the able conduct of your masters whom you have referred to in your speech, the Model Grammar School, and the Normal School in connection with it, will form the basis of a system of public instruction throughout the whole of this portion of the Province which will prove a blessing to the people, and cause the country to assume hereafter its proper place among the nations of the earth. (Applause.) Without education it can never take its proper place among the nations—without education and without literature it can never be on a level with other peoples, either on this continent or in the old world. I take this public opportunity of thanking you, Sir, for your exertions in this behalf, in addition to all you have already done in the cause of public instruction in Upper Canada. It will ever be a source of pleasure to me either by my presence, or in any other manner, to aid the efforts which you have hitherto so successfully made for the advancement of the cause of education. (Applause.)

Rev. Dr. JENNINGS then closed the proceedings with the benediction.

— **TORONTO CITY SCHOOLS.**—A very interesting meeting took place in the evening of the 29th ult., in Victoria Street School, which was crowded to its utmost capacity, to witness the presentation of prizes, and hear the result of the late combined competitive examination. The Chairman, Joshua G. Beard, Esq., said the city schools had been many years in operation—a period amply sufficient to prove their efficiency and to demonstrate the success of free schools in Canada. The Board of School Trustees had thought it right to select three pupils from each of the several school divisions, for examination by gentlemen who had been invited to test their capabilities. Rev. Mr. Porter, the superintendent, then read the report of the examiners, (the Rev. Wm. Gregg, of Toronto, and the Rev. John Laing of Scarborough,) who had ably carried into effect the instructions of the Board. The number of pupils present at the examination was 118. The writing on the whole was fair. The reading in the senior division was good, and in the other divisions tolerably fair. The spelling was not satisfactory. In arithmetic the pupils did fairly, and in grammar decidedly well. In geography the answers were very creditable, and in history generally good. The examiners in conclusion, recommended the teachers to thoroughly ground the pupils in the elements of every study, as being the only way of securing ultimate proficiency, and as much more important than an imperfect acquaintance with the higher branches of education. The reverend gentleman was happy in having the opportunity of stating that the city schools were in a much more healthy and encouraging position, as regarded the average attendance, than was by many supposed. He would for a moment institute a comparison between the average attendance at the city schools of Toronto and the average attendance at the city schools of New York, taking the year 1858 as the basis. In that year the number of registered pupils in New York was 131,672, and in Toronto the number was 4,742. The average attendance at the New York schools was 49,172, and at the Toronto schools, 2,622. Now, according to the proportion attending the New York schools, the number in attendance at the Toronto schools might have been, instead of 2,622, only 1,770—giving a difference in favour of Toronto of 852 pupils. (Hear, hear.) Mr. Henning was called upon, as the chairman of the committee on school management, to present the prizes to the successful pupils. After which he said: In order to lessen this evil (irregular attendance) the Board of School Trustees had this year given certificates of honour to those who had distinguished themselves for punctual and regular attendance, combined with good conduct, and he trusted that the result would be beneficial in stimulating children to a better observance of these virtues. He was happy to find that they were before many of the cities in the neighbouring States in these respects; but still there was room for much amendment. Rev. Mr. Gregg, (one of the examiners) took occasion to say a few words to the teachers, setting forth the responsibility resting upon them and the great influence which they exerted upon the community through the youths placed under their charge. Rev. Dr. Jennings said he thought the course taken by the Board of School

Trustees was worthy of the highest commendation, and such as must be productive of much good to the teachers themselves. He impressed it upon the children that there was no royal road to learning, and that the monarch upon the throne and the peasant in the cottage must go through the same course of study, if they would achieve anything either good or great. Above all, he impressed upon those to whom was intrusted the training of the youth the importance of leading the minds of their pupils to those great truths which would serve them not only in time but throughout eternity. (Applause.) Professor Wilson thought this was the inauguration of a new feature of our common school system in Toronto, for which he thought that the School Trustees deserved great credit. It was a system of emulation of the wisest and best kind. Each school in Toronto was here trying to excel all the rest, and he was satisfied that the competition in which they were engaged with each other must exercise a wholesome and beneficial influence upon the whole. With such a system in operation, combined with the valuable instructions of judiciously selected teachers, he felt satisfied that the common school system would be eminently successful. The children then joined in singing the national anthem, after which Rev. Dr. Jennings engaged in prayer, and the proceedings terminated.

— **QUEEN'S COLLEGE GRAMMAR SCHOOL, KINGSTON.**—The annual examination of the pupils of Queen's College Grammar School took place on the 14th July at the school house in William street. The pupils in the Classics, Mathematics, and French, were examined in the presence of the Senatus and Trustees of Queen's College and other scientific and professional gentlemen. The examination was conducted by Mr. Robert Campbell, M. A., the efficient Head Master, assisted by Mr. Alexander Campbell, Second Master, and Mr. D. Caron, French Master. In conducting the examination the masters acquitted themselves in a most creditable manner, evincing much tact in their mode of tuition and thorough acquaintance with the diverse range of studies pursued by their classes. Among the subjects in which the senior class was examined was punctuation, an auxiliary to correct reading and writing, to which, generally, little attention is paid in the schools. The boys were questioned closely with regard to the names and uses of the different characters used in printed books and newspapers, and in every instance gave satisfactory answers. In grammar, geography, and "familiar science," the lads showed uncommon cleverness, and many parents present must have felt a glow of pride at the fair promise of their sons some day being distinguished for their learning and talent.

At the close of the examination by request, the Rev. Dr. Machar addressed the pupils in an impressive manner, congratulating them on their proficiency, and urging them to continue diligent in the pursuit of wisdom and instruction. He noticed with particular approbation the award of two prizes for good conduct, one in each class, and he impressed upon them all, with all their scholastic acquisitions, to endeavor by all and every means to aim at being good as well as learned. The same gentleman concluded the proceedings of the evening by an appropriate prayer, when all retired to their homes.—*Chronicle and News.*

— **SCHOOL PRO-NIC AT KINGSTON.**—Lately, a very agreeable picnic was held in Kingston, on behalf of the city public schools: On our arrival upon the grounds the Rev. Mr. Sanderson was addressing a large congregation of little ones, and big ones not a few, on the duties of the former in availing themselves of the admirable provisions made for their education, and their attainment of usefulness and honor. Rev. Mr. Rogers succeeded Mr. Sanderson, on the duties of Common School Teachers. The reverend gentleman went on to show that Common School Teachers exercised a far greater influence on the moral and social condition of society than the teachers in the more select and higher branches of learning. The reverend gentleman expounded upon the subject with considerable eloquence, and satisfied all that had the interest of the schools at heart. His Honor Judge McKenzie, upon request, addressed the audience. His honor directed his attention particularly to the children, whom he urgently solicited to apply themselves with diligence to the important studies laid before them. He had no doubt, he said, that among that heterogeneous mass of boys there were some future statesmen, and municipal officers who would leave their mark in the annals of Canada. Mr. McKenzie's remarks were well received, and elicited enthusiastic cheers. At the close of the proceedings, the reverend A. Wilson, the local Superintendent, addressed the assemblage, expressing his gratification at the promising aspect of this particular educational institution, and the well founded hopes of its future usefulness. He thanked the gentlemen who were kind enough to address the children, and concluded by announcing a resort to the pleasurable enjoyments of the

well-stored baskets in the charge of their teachers. The children belonging to each school were grouped around their teachers in various parts of the Park, and were one and all engaged in the discussion of cakes, pies, oranges, &c., which no doubt had ample justice done to them. Each school had a banner of its own, besides a number of Union Jacks; we observed also a very beautiful crown or garland of flowers, made by Mr. Wm. Shannon. At a short distance from the stand in the centre of the Park, were grouped the children of the Orphans' Home, who sang some very nice little hymns, and around whom were collected a large number of sympathizing friends. The Victoria Brass Band arrived upon the ground at seven o'clock, and played several airs in a superior manner. The Local Superintendent then called the children together, and, after a few observations, he asked them to join in singing God save the Queen, which they did in a manner to cause the tears to start in the eyes of many of their parents standing around; one of those at our elbow exclaimed: "Aye, God bless her (the Queen) and when she dies we'll never get the like of her again." After the singing of the National Anthem, the children defiled past the stand, headed by the Victoria Band, passing to Barrie street, then along Johnson street, where they separated. The procession was upwards of half a mile in length.—*Chronicle and News.*

LEVYING COUNTY SCHOOL ASSESSMENTS ON TOWNSHIPS.

To the Editors of the Law Journal.

GENTLEMEN,—The amount of school money apportioned by the Chief Superintendent of Education, under the 35th section of the Common School Act of 1850, to a County, is, say \$4,000, divided by such apportionment among the Townships of such County as follows, viz:—

In the Township of A	\$1500
" " B	700
" " C	900
" " D	200
" " E	700

now in what manner should the County Council, under the 27th section, proceed to levy an equal amount from the several Townships; should it be by a rateable assessment upon the whole of the property assessed upon the Assessment Rolls of the County (exclusive of towns and villages) of, say a cent in the pound; or should it be by special assessment upon each Township, of a sum equal to the sum apportioned to such Township by the Chief Superintendent?

A.

[Ans. The School Act (13 & 14 Vic. ch. 48, sec. 27, No. 1) requires the County Council to levy upon the Townships of their County, an amount equal to the grant apportioned to the Townships by the Chief Superintendent; and this grant is apportioned to each Township by the Chief Superintendent (sec. 35, No. 1), according to population, or some other equitable ratio. It is also provided (sec. 40) that in case of a deficiency in this school assessment, the Chief Superintendent may deduct from the next year's grant an amount equal to the deficiency. As population is not the ratio for levying the rate, but property; and as some Townships, from being longer settled, or other causes, have more assessable property than others, which may have about the same population, and in view of the penalty, it is clear, we think, that a special rate should be levied on each Township, so as to obtain an assessment equal to the grant apportioned to such Township by the Chief Superintendent.—EDS. LAW JOURNAL.]

— **ENDOWMENT OF COLLEGES.**—Our remarks on the endowment of Colleges have been copied into the *Christian Guardian* and *C. C. Advocate*, and fully endorsed by the Editors of those Journals. Thus the official organs of the two largest bodies of Methodists in the country have given the weight of their influence to the scheme. The *Guardian* promises to continue the discussion of the subject, and the *Advocate* announces that a movement is on foot by the Board of Management of the Belleville Seminary to circulate petitions to the Legislature in favor of the proposed plan. This is the practical way of working, and we recommend it to the imitation of others. A measure so just in its provisions, making provision for all higher Institutions free from sectarian tests will we think secure the hearty support of nearly all the truly liberal classes of the community.—*Brockville Recorder.*

UNITED STATES.

— **SCHOOL TAXES IN NEW YORK.**—The tax-payers of New York were assessed \$1,745,995,71 for the support of Common Schools for the year 1858. This is nearly one-quarter of the whole tax.

— **WHAT OHIO IS DOING FOR SCHOOL LIBRARIES.**—The State of Ohio annually appropriates about \$82,000 to the purchase of school apparatus and books for her libraries. This large amount is raised by a tax of one tenth of a mill on the dollar of the entire property valuation of the State. Under this law the Hon. Anson Smyth, State Commissioner of Schools, concluded a contract last September with the Messrs. Appleton, of New York, to supply the State with library books for 1859. Accordingly all the free space on the floor of the immense salesroom at Appletons' is now occupied by a great mass of these books, piled solidly like bricks, ready for packing and shipment. In bulk they measure over twenty-five solid cords, and they weigh seventy-five tons. Piled on end, on a shelf, in the usual manner, and as closely together as possible, they would extend from the City Hall to Union Square, or a distance of two miles. We understand that the Messrs. Appleton have made arrangements to transport the entire mass by a special freight train, to be run straight through from New York to Columbus. The binding which is uniform, is beautiful and substantial. Each volume is lettered on the back with the title, the author's name, and the mark of the 'Ohio S. Library, 1859.—*N. Y. Paper.*

BRITISH.

— **COMMEMORATION-DAY AT OXFORD.**—The annual commemoration-day took place at the usual time this year. The students indicated in their usual noisy style the likes or dislikes which they felt for particular individuals. Loyalty and gallantry united to produce loud and frequent cheers for "the Queen," but equal popularity did not seem to attach to Her Majesty's Ministers. Three groans were given for "Lord Palmerston," and Mr. Gladstone's name, which was continually given out by one side or the other, elicited a mingled storm of cheers and groans. Mr. Cobden was heartily groaned at, while Lords Derby and Stanley were cheered with much zeal. Groans were given for the Emperor of the French, and mingled cheers and groans for the Emperor of Austria. The most interesting part of the proceedings is always the presentation for the honorary degrees, which on this occasion was limited to six persons. Three of those were "Indian heroes"—Sir J. Lawrence, Sir A. Wilson, and Colonel Greathed—and to them the chief applause was accorded. Sir John's reception was—even among Oxford receptions—remarkable. The whole theatre rose—the doctors waved their caps like undergraduates—ladies clapped their hands—the area was a sea of waving arms—and the undergraduates cheered as young lungs only can. Sir Archdale Wilson received an ovation only second to this, and Colonel Greathed was heartily welcomed. The reception of the Lord Justice-Clerk, of Professor Boole, and of Mr. Panizzi was more of the ordinary cast.

IX. Literary and Scientific Intelligence.

— **ONE WHO HAS WHISTLED AT THE PLOUGH.**—Mr. Alexander Somerville, author of the memorable letters, above the signature "One who has Whistled at the Plough," during the Anti-Corn Law agitation, and, who since contributed so largely to useful, and highly interesting literature in Britain, is now resident in Canada, and is about to publish a volume, entitled a "Book of a Diligent Life." This book will embrace some of the most interesting incidents in this diligent man's life as Ploughman, Quarryman, Dragoon, Leader of the Grenadiers, Commissioner of Inquiry for newspapers, Analyst, and Author; as also the author's views on Canadian affairs and Canadian institutions. Mr. Somerville left England in the summer of 1858, with his wife and six young children with a view of settling in Toronto. His wife, after a long and painful illness, died at Quebec in May last; and Mr. Somerville is thus left with a large family, looking up to him for support. He is at present with his family at Quebec; being, from want of means, and his wife being bed-ridden for nine months, unable to pursue employment elsewhere. Mr. Somerville's writings have always been held in the highest possible estimation by both peer and peasant; and we have every reason to believe, that of the many volumes which he published, the forthcoming will be by far the most interesting. To the people of Canada it must prove valuable, as Mr. S. is to treat on those economic and financial principles which ought to prevail in Canada, and in British America, in order to meet, as far as possible, those periodic depressions, and insane monetary panics, which cause so much evil to the whole community. The volume will be published by the end of October, and delivered free, price \$1. When we state that our enterprising citizen, Mr. Lovell, is to print and publish the work, we say enough, as a guarantee,

that it will be done with his usual accuracy and good taste; and fit to occupy a place in any statesman's library. Subscribers should forward their names to Mr. Lovell without delay. It will be a pity if the people of Canada will not encourage "One who has Whistled at the Plough" to remain among them; and, the best way of rendering this encouragement is by becoming subscribers for his volume.—*Montreal Pilot.*

— **MONUMENT TO THE LATE GEORGE STEPHENSON.**—A meeting of the subscribers to the proposed monument to the late George Stephenson, was held in the Council Chamber, Newcastle-on-Tyne, on Wednesday, Sir Geo. Gray, M.P., occupying the chair. The general feeling was in favour of a statue by Mr. Lough, a Newcastle man, and it was resolved that a model of a statue and pedestal should be executed by Mr. Lough for the consideration of a committee of subscribers, and that if the consent of the corporation could be obtained, the monument should be erected on a triangular piece of ground at the junction of Westgate and Neville-street, and nearly opposite the central station, Newcastle-on-Tyne. There is little doubt but that the corporation will cheerfully grant the site.

ERRATA.—In the *Journal* for July (page 104), the entry of the following School Teachers' Certificates, granted by the Chief Superintendent of Education, were erroneously printed:—No. 920. Atkinson, Edward Lewis, *should have appeared under the head of "Second Class, Grade B."* No. 925. Sinclair, John; and No. 926. Wark, Alexander, *should have appeared under the head of "Second Class, Grade C."*

MODEL GRAMMAR SCHOOL FOR UPPER CANADA.

CANDIDATES FOR ADMISSION into the Lowest Form of this School, will be examined on SATURDAY, the 17th of September, at TEN o'clock, on the following subjects:—Reading; Spelling to Dictation; Writing, the Simple and Compound Rules of Arithmetic, including Fractions, Decimals, and Simple Proportion; English Grammar and Parsing, and Outlines of Geography.

A preference will be given to those Candidates who also know the Latin Declensions, and the four regular Conjugations.

Candidates for the higher classes will undergo an examination corresponding to the class for which their previous studies have fitted them.

All vacancies will be filled up on Tuesday, the 25th September.

GEO. R. R. COCKBURN, M.A., Rector.

BISHOP'S COLLEGE, LENNOXVILLE.

JUNIOR DEPARTMENT AND GRAMMAR SCHOOL.

RECTOR:

The Rev. J. W. WILLIAMS, M.A., Pembroke College, Oxford, late Classical Master in Leamington College, England.

ASSISTANT MASTERS:

A. CAPEL, Esq., Corpus Christi College, Cambridge;
J. S. PROCTOR, Esq., St. John's College, Cambridge.

IN this department pupils are prepared, at the option of their parents, either for entering the University or for commercial life.

English Grammar and Composition, the French Language, Writing, and Arithmetic, are carefully taught throughout the School.

Those boys who are preparing for commercial life may omit the study of Greek and Latin, and devote the time thus gained to their further advancement in arithmetic and writing, under the supervision of a master who is always disengaged during such hours to give them special attention.

Religious Instruction is given by the Rector to all pupils who are members of the Church of England.

Elocution is carefully taught in all the classes.

Instruction in Vocal Music is imparted to those pupils whose parents may desire it.

TERMS:

	<i>Tuition.</i>	<i>Board.</i>
From August 1st to December 20th	£3 15 0	£15 0 0
From January 6th to April 5th	2 12 6	12 10 0
From April 6th to July 6th	2 12 6	12 10 0

There are no extra charges.

Parents may, if they please, provide for the boarding of their sons in the village.

Sons of Clergymen of the Dioceses of Quebec and Montreal are received, under certain conditions, at reduced charges.

All payments to be made in advance to the Bursar of the College.

The School is situated in a healthy and beautiful locality, is a short distance from the Station of the Grand Trunk Railway, on which line the pupils travel at half fares.

For further particulars apply to the Rector.

ADVERTISEMENTS inserted in the *Journal of Education* for three cents per word, which may be remitted in *postage stamps*, or otherwise.

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

All communications to be addressed to Mr. J. GEORGE HODGINS, *Education Office, Toronto.*