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ON THE FORMATION OF STYLE.

BY THE REV. SEPTIMUS JONES, M.A.,

Local Superintendent of Schools, Belleville, Ontario.

It is familiar knowledge that the word Style is directly derived from the Latin term *Stylus*, which denoted a kind of pencil used by the Romans, having one end sharp and pointed, for writing on tablets coated with wax, and the other broad and smooth, so as to serve for making erasures. Hence the sound advice of an ancient teacher to all aspirants after excellence in the art of literary composition, frequently to "use the other end of their stylus"—that is, in other words, to be diligent in correcting their productions.

And although the word Stylus is never used in classical Latin, except in reference to the pen and the mechanical art of writing, yet it has come, in our language, to denote the peculiar manner of expression, or of literary composition which distinguishes particular authors or particular schools from one another.

There is a great *variety* of styles. Throughout all the works of God we see unity combined with inexhaustible variety, so that no two created objects, when attentively compared, will be found precisely alike. No bird, nor beast, nor tree, nor shrub, nor fruit, nor flower is identical with another. No two men's faces or minds are exact counterparts. Individuality is stamped upon each. And although the *general structure* of any two human bodies or human minds will present very much that is common to both, yet will there always be apparent certain peculiarities in their several organizations and in the qualities and proportions of their physical and mental faculties, rendering one man evidently distinguishable from another.

And as the *organizations* of no two men will be precisely alike, so neither will their *productions* be altogether similar. As is the mould, such will be the casting. No two men, therefore, do any one thing in one and the same way, whether it be to walk or stand, to laugh or cry, or throw a stone, or sign a name, or read, or speak, write poetry or prose.

Every one's peculiar manner of doing anything is his style; and every natural and true man has a style of his own, which can no more be appropriately exchanged for that of any other man, than the bark, the foliage and the blossoms of an apple tree could be transferred to the stem and branches of a pine.

This great fact must lie at the very foundation of any correct notions concerning the formation of style. To set up certain authors, be they ever so eminent, as exclusive models, by a minute and slavish imitation of which true excellence can be obtained, is a huge mistake which must lead to insipid propriety, or nerveless, heartless affectation.

Every style, in order to be good, must be natural. Excellence in writing is only to be attained by letting Nature speak.

But it may be asked, "Why, then, should men be taught and trained to *form* their style? Why not leave every man's style to form itself, to grow up like a tree without pruning or clipping it, and twisting its branches this way and that? Would not any set rules for this purpose tend to make the style unnatural, and thus bad?"

I answer that there are good reasons why every writer should be trained, and why his style requires to be formed. In writing, as in reading, walking and speaking, it is natural to almost every one to be *unnatural*. We learn to do these things chiefly by imitation. But there are no perfect exemplars, and it is most natural because it is most *easy* to imitate the faults rather then the excellencies of our model. "*Decipit exemplar vitiis imitabile.*" And even were our model pefect, *i. e.*, were its way of doing what it does perfectly appropriate and the best possible for it author, yet for the imitator it might be the most inappropriate and the worst.

We have seen an ambitious little man of five or six years old, striding along the road with the measured tread of his ponderous and venerable sire. The walk of the father was well enough, but who could help smiling at the little imitator marching on behind? So do youthful writers, scarcely out of petticoats, delight to stalk along the literary highway with the majestic gait of a Johnson or a Burke.

"Chacun, pris dans son air est agréable en soi;
Ce n'est que l'air d'autrui qui peut deplaire en moi."

One special object of training, therefore, is to guard against vices of unnaturalness, springing out of imitation.

The necessity for writers being trained will further appear from the fact that *language*, which is the instrument whereby thought and feeling are expressed, or conveyed out of one mind into another, is composed of words whose meaning is arbitrary, and which are put together in an arbitrary manner.

* * * * * * * * * "usus
Quem penes arbitrium est et jus et norma loquendi."

The meaning of words and the right method of combining those words can be gathered only from observing a multitude of instances in which they are employed by good writers, and by studying dictionaries and grammars and treatises on synonymes in which this work is attempted to be done for us. Evidently, then, none but a master can, in any language, choose absolutely the best word and set it in its right place (and this is what constitutes a good style), or correct the error of another in these respects.

Beneath these arbitrary uses of words there lie certain great principles and analogies belonging to each particular language, constituting, as it were, its idiomatic individuality. Underneath these, again, there lie principles of universal application, principles which are involved in the very laws of thought, and the organic structure of the human mind itself, and so prevail in every tongue. By developing these principles according to the immutable laws of beauty, order, strength and truth, languages are to be cultivated, and style is to be brought to perfection.

It is in order to guard against breaches of good usage, and to educate the writer to an appreciation of these internal harmonies and analogies, so that he may clearly, vividly and truthfully set forth his thought in words of unfading propriety and beauty, that a living master is to be desired.

Style is one's manner of showing his thought.

But since the written language is a revelation, likewise, of the inward processes of the mind, it betrays the mental gait and shows the manner in which the mind travels from point to point; while it reflects, moreover, its passions and tastes, whether good or evil. And it is evident that the style will greatly depend upon the structure of the mind, the moulding of its intellectual habits and the regulation of its feelings. No one has a perfect mind. No one has all his faculties completely developed—no one has all his passions under perfect command. He that would be truly a teacher, an educator, or bringer out of all that is best in men, must examine the structure of their minds, and teach them how to develop and to use their powers and get them wholly under their control.

Here appears the utility of Logic and the Mathematics which are a branch of it, for when taught in constant connection with a practical application of critical analysis and active reproduction they are a kind of mental gymnastics to train the mind, to grasp, to lift, to walk, leap, strike, build up and tear down with the greatest effect possible, in proportion to its natural organization and vital force. A perfect system of logic, when it is discovered, will show how a perfectly developed mental organization works.

Most minds are a little lame and have one leg shorter or weaker than the other. This affects their mental gait. Some men travel from premise to conclusion more swiftly, more surely and more gracefully than their neighbours. Many (especially, it is said, of the gentler sex) seem to leap to their conclusions, some run, some walk, some hobble, and some even seem to crawl.

The mere logician marches firmly, and is an Antæus in strength long as his feet touch his mother earth, but the genius, the poet so and the seer have wings, and easily rise over his head.

Would-be poets have their wings so small, their bodies so heavy and their legs so weak, that it is hard for them to get upwards or onwards, and very easy for them to fall into the mire. It is better first to learn to walk. Still, tame geese seem to enjoy an occasional flight, and I see no great objection to their making the attempt, so long as we are not expected to admire their appearance or their note. Nay, further, the writing of verses, as an exercise, helps us, no doubt, to obtain a command of language, and few men will write really rich and classic prose, who have not at some time or other been beguiled into flapping their rudimentary wings and floundering along, like Cicero himself, in indifferent verse.

"O fortunatam natam me consule Romam,"

Every true orator has wings, and although they may not qualify him to soar with the eagle, yet, by the help of his poetic pinions, he is enabled, like the ostrich, to travel with marvelously greater rapidity and force along the earth.

The organization of a man's mind will show what nature intended him to do best, and yet even in his best faculties there will be defects. Let his powers be explored, drawn out, tried, corrected, subsidized. Where one mental faculty is weaker than the average, another is often much stronger. One more readily masters a general principle, another has a more tenacious hold upon isolated facts. We must teach one faculty to help the other.

Those subjects which a man's powers are best adapted to, he will most love, and what he most loves he will most easily and completely master, and what he most loves and most completely masters, he will write about in his best style.

"No profit grows, where is no pleasure ta'en.
In brief, sir, study what you most affect."

Moral qualities also will manifest themselves in the style, and, therefore, in order to cultivate the style, the *moral character* must be cultivated also.

The treacherous cowardice of a foe "willing to wound and yet afraid to strike"; the ambiguous verdict of sceptical indecision; the self-sufficient scorn which for a refutation substitutes a sneer; the disrespectful tone of allusion to woman characteristic of an unripe lord of creation, or of a pusillanimously malicious and rejected suitor; that depravity of imagination which rejoices in a purient suggestiveness of detail from which uncontaminated nature with instinctive delicacy shrinks—how clearly are all these reflected in the splendid periods and prodigiously able and learned pages of the historian Gibbon.

Even one moral defect may place an immeasurable distance between two writers, whose intellects, possibly, are of an equal order.

Thus Cicero's style, for example, seems to me so much further perfection than that of Demosthenes.

To the irrepressible vanity of the former are attributable the chief defects of his style. His constant effort to touch every thing with so fine a point, and his palpably laborious pursuit after an artificial pomp, and a too melodious rotundity of expression, cannot escape notice; while it is difficult to say whether his prodigal expenditure of synonymes, where Demosthenes would have used only one word, and that the best, arose from mental indecision, or from a desire to display his own verbal wealth and his subtlety in discovering distinctions where others found them not.

If Cicero is to save his country, he must do it (metaphorically speaking), *perfusus liquidis odoribus*, and with his *toga* elegantly gathered upon his arm, and an admiring senate must applaud the magnificently rounded periods with which he lashes Catiline out of the city. And, if I may trust my memory, even in his moral essays, while he is professedly pointing us with outstretched finger to the pole star of eternal truth, there seems to be at times a display, by no means unintentional, of the jewelled ornament which flashes on his fair and graceful hand.

All these things substract just so much from his excellence and power, and the marvellous *practical effect* of some of his most celebrated orations is to be accounted for by remembering that they were first delivered unwritten, when he was raised above himself by the grandeur or exigence of the occasion, and were afterwards committed to MS., and corrected in cool blood when he had subsided to his ordinary level.

To hear Demosthenes thunder in the peerless Attic tongue, against the Macedonian Philip, or to listen to the Prince of Latin orators, while under the noble impulses of patriotism and humanity and righteous indignation, he levelled all his mighty powers against the brutal and rapacious Verres—this was to hear the highest perfection of style ever yet attained by mortal man.

And yet neither of these men became orators by a single effort or a happy chance. They both labored almost to agony in their vocation; subjected themselves to a length and severity of training at which we modern students may well stand amazed.

But what, think you, did Demosthenes, for example, aim at, in his laborious physical and mental culture? Was it to catch some favorite gesture of his tutor, Satyrus, or to train himself up to some actor's predominant majesty of lungs? I think not. If he ever spoke with sword suspended, point downwards, over his shoulders, it was to break himself of some unnatural shrug which might otherwise have distracted the attention of the audience. If he ever declaimed with pebbles in his mouth on the roaring beach, it was not in order that he might attain to the dainty utterence of some Athenian exquisite, or out-bellow some Athenian senator, but rather that he might remove from the polished shaft of his speech, every, even the most trivial roughness that could per-

chance impede its progress towards the mark; or, in order that from the resources of his regal intellect and indomitable will, he might reinforce the powers of that comparatively feeble physical organization through which his mighty spirit was compelled to work.

If he transcribed Thucydides, times without number, with his own hand, it was not in order to steal the historian's thunder or his trick of speech, but rather to furnish his vocabulary with the choicest, noblest words, and to learn how they should be joined together. It was to explore the secrets of success, to investigate the laws in harmony with which a master mind conceived and planned, and to ascertain the principles upon which a master hand, having laid a firm foundation, proceeded to build up of materials more durable then marble, more costly than Corinthian brass, the grandly proportioned and chastely sculptured edifice of classic thought.

In short, if these observations can be said to have any one definite point, it is this: to show that perfection of style in the highest use to which language can be applied, viz., the effective setting forth of truth (above all of moral truth) is not to be attained by a mere study of models, however excellent, or by a mastery of the arts and technicalities of author craft, be it ever so complete. The whole man requires to be trained, and all his powers are to be drawn forth.

How valuable then, nay, how indispensable, is the entire round of liberal studies as a means to this end!

By reading, knowledge is gathered in, and mind brought into vivifying contact with mind; by grammar, we are taught to use and combine words in that manner which custom declares to be most lucid and correct; by the acquisition of various languages, our verbal treasury is enriched and our memory and powers of observation, comparison and analysis are strengthened and developed; and by a familiarity with the master pieces of literature in every tongue, to which our way is thus opened, the sense of beauty and propriety is matured, many a vulgarity which would otherwise have disfigured our style is refined away, and by a kind of free-masonry, the reader recognizes, although there may be no parade of learning, the manner of a gentleman and a scholar.

By the masculine exercises of mathematics and of logic, the faculty of rational deduction and mental continuity is developed. The arts and sciences cultivate a variety of powers, and enlarge our selection of metaphors and illustrations. Music and verse refine the ear to catch those ætherial distinctions in harmonious diction, whereby the sound either reinforces or impairs the sense. The study of history enlarges our views, and expands our sympathies and lifts our minds above the bigotry and provincialism of our own indivdiual and contracted sphere. The metaphisics help to give subtlety and insight, and a power of abstraction and generalization. Poetry, sculpture and painting attune the soul to an appreciation of imperishable beauty, and tell us what is held highest and dearest by the universal heart. Moral philosophy purifies, strengthens and exalts by inculcating the grand principles of benevolence and truth and justice by which our purposes and methods in application of knowledge and the exercise of eloquence should be guided and over ruled; and while we feebly waver amid our selfishness and ignorance and short-sightedness as to the cause or course for which we ought to plead, religion comes to our help, and raising us above all temporary considerations of selfish gain and earthly glory, teaches us to plant our feet upon the rock of divine revelation, and bids us lift our aim to that grand object which will include every other worthy and desirable end, viz., the will of God, the universal Parent—the only wise and perfect one—our Almighty and eternal King.

Let a man so speak that no solecism or rusticity shall jar upon the ear, no petty exhibition of self obtrude between the hearer and the thought; let his taste be refined, his mind pure, and his memory stored with all human knowledge; let his intellect be completely trained, and his heart swell in sympathy with all that is lovely and good; and having yielded himself up to the generous impulses of benevolence, and conceived a worthy thought, or devoted himself to a worthy purpose, let him gather and marshal his mental forces behind the ramparts of a silent and patient preparation, and then, in a happily chosen hour, let him throw open wide his gates and pour forth his intellectual hosts, fair as the moon and terrible as an army with banners, upon the heart of a captivated audience—and this shall be eloquence indeed.

If there be any youth now treading our academic halls, in whose generous bosom, there are felt—little as it may be suspected by those around him—the prophetic promptings of a high and holy ambition thus to write or thus to speak; then, let him lay all his powers as a willing offering upon the consecrated altar of the Truth. Morality and religion, smiling in all their loveliness, beckon him to come and advocate their cause. It were glorious even honestly to fail in such an enterprise.

Whether he succeed or not in eliciting the plaudits or carrying off the prizes of the world, there is One, his Father in heaven, who will look down with approbation and smile upon even the feeble lispings of His child, and angels will hang upon his lips and scour the ambrosial fields for flowers wherewith to weave for him a choicer crown, for he will be endeavoring to speak as did the most eloquent of men that ever trod this earth, with the eloquence of the grandest intellect, the largest, purest and most loving heart that ever yearned and planned to retrieve the errors and lift up the sorrows of a dark and sinful world—the eloquence of Him who spake as never man spake, the eloquence of a Christ and of a God.

I. Papers on School Discipline.

1. MAINTAINING ORDER IN SCHOOLS.

DISCUSSION AT THE EDUCATIONAL ROOM, BOSTON, APRIL 3RD.

Question for debate: "What degree of 'order' should we endeavour to preserve in school, and what means should be used to secure it?"

The President of the meeting. The quietness of a school is an important division of our question, and one which is daily forced upon our attention. What shall be aimed at in this direction? Is all noise to be prohibited, or is there a certain amount or kind which shall be esteemed legitimate? Movement of the lips in study, passing from one part of a room to another, and the handling of slates, books and pencils, are all, at times, sources of disturbance; and the presentation of methods and experiences of teachers present will add to our mutual fund of information. We have seen some very still schools which did not accomplish the work of education, and some very noisy ones which did. Is that painful stillness under any circumstances desirable? Again, whispering is an evil that demands consideration. In my school it is absolutely forbidden, and yet it exists, in spite of the most stringent measures to prevent it.

Mr. Littlefield, of Charlestown. There is always a hum to business, and this I would allow, if nothing more. The school is the child's workshop and no regulations should be made which will tend to interfere with the object sought. All movements are to be made as quietly as possible, with the thought prominent that stillness is not an end in itself. I find that the order in the school-room is greatly promoted by allowing and encouraging what some might call disorder on the playground. The noise arising from their sports is so much vocal culture, and the fresh air is inspiring. The teacher ought to go out with the pupils, and, by witnessing—or, if he chooses, participating in—their plays, his own circulation will be enlivened, and he may learn from what he witnesses in the yard how to deal more judiciously with some of his troublesome scholars.

Mr. Waterman of Newton. I have learned to exercise a great degree of charity for some boys who are the leaders in sport, and yet are very dull in their studies, for it is evident that they can become able and useful men in some active pursuit. In respect to the movements of pupils, there seems to be no objection to requiring them to be made upon tiptoe whenever the noise of their feet would disturb others in their work. We are careful to enter or leave a church during the hours of worship with the utmost caution, and the children need to be trained to the same noiseless working. The amount of noise that may be permitted depends upon the number of classes there are in a room. If but one, then all are engaged in the same thing at the same time, and noise will not produce disturbance; but if there are two or more classes, some scholars must be studying while others are reciting and the necessity of quiet is much increased. I have been accustomed, on entering a new school or a new school-house, to devote a liberal portion of time, during the first day or two, to practising movements about the room, and have found that this extra labour and trouble at first, paid well afterward. Military drill, on the part of pupils in the community, has a marked effect upon the order of the children. Some noise must arise from the taking out and putting up of books, and the simplest way of removing the disorder which often accompanies these movements is, to have them made by the whole class, at a given signal and promptly. Sometimes there will be noise in a wide-awake recitation; but, if it arises from interest in the lesson, it is not objectionable.

Mr. Payson of Chelsea. I suppose all teachers endeavor to have their pupils spend the recess upon the playground, but often find that some are not inclined to go out; and I even know children to bring notes from their parents, stating that they did not desire them to participate in the exercises of the yard at all. Feeble and

unruly scholars are sometimes detained in the school-room, and the teacher is necessarily led to spend his recess in-doors. In walking across the floor, boys intentionally or heedlessly get into the habit of making distinct reports with the heel and toe,—a trouble which it is difficult to remedy. Not only among scholars, but among grown-up people, there are many who always ascend the stairs with scuffling; and I am at a loss how to cure this. When a pupil goes across the room with a heavy tread, I am accustomed to call him to me, and to ask if I am not as heavy as he is. Being answered in the affirmative, I then inquire, lifting my foot, if my boot is not as thick. This being clear, I am able to make him understand that he can and must make all his movements as quietly as I do. But the point to which our attention is chiefly called is quiet in the school-room; and I confess that, with many years' experience, I am satisfied that a deathlike stillness in the room is not to be desired. There are times when all the pupils are so busily engaged in study that the clock may be heard to tick plainly for half an hour; but this stillness arises from the nature of the work going on, and from intense interest in it. At another time some stir and noise will indicate the same measure of interest in another study; and, in every case, the noise which may properly accompany a study, or a method of instruction, is entirely unobjectionable.

Mr. Wheeler of Cambridge called for a display of hands on the part of those who require their pupils to go out and stay out at recess, and about half of those present responded. In a like manner it was acertained that about one-third of the teachers go into the yard at recess.

Mr. Mansfield of Cambridge. I have been informed by visitors that my school is remarkably quiet, and yet I am not accustomed to give many directions respecting stillness. I desire a still school, because noise is generally distracting to pupil and teacher, but yet do not believe in having much machinery at work to insure it. Why should not quiet prevade the room; A scholar is at his desk with a specific task to accomplish. He may consult this book; use this slate; open the lid for some desired aid in his study; but what should we think of some person here, who, while our discussion is going on, should drop a book from his hand several times, or knock a slate from a table? The acts would be very careless or very culpable, and we should exercise whatever authority we might possess to prevent their recurrence.

We do not want our own children to be rude at the table, kicking or pushing or speaking unbecomingly; nor do we on the other hand desire them to meekly move about as if they had no privileges and no pleasures at home.

The work of the school will proceed with the least friction when the pupils are permitted to act naturally, without undue restraint; but conscious of one another's presence, and with regard to the object for which they are assembled. I should not require my pupils to walk upon their toes habitually, but should expect them to do so whenever they would cause disturbance by walking as usual. Every person is bound in courtesy and propriety to make as little disturbance as possible, but is not to be kept in painful posture or forced stillness, It is to be feared that some teachers are giving so much attention to the mechanism of the school-room that the pupils lose sight of the true purpose of the school, and are called upon to think more of the manner in which they must sit and walk than of their studies. Let them understand that here is the work to be done, and here are the means of doing it, and they are to let nothing occur which shall delay its accomplishment.

Mr. Hagar of Salem. Reference has been made to the buzzing sound often heard in the school-room. I am generally led to believe that the method of study is wrong when this is heard. The pupils are committing words to memory; and, as one sense may aid another, the hearing helps the sight.

Most study should not be of this kind; and whenever a person is deeply engaged in tracing out a chain of reasoning, or is developing his own thought upon any subject, the harder he thinks, the stiller he is. If I assign a lesson to be learned, it is not with the design of having it mainly memorized, but studied and understood thoroughly.

In respect to walking, I recollect that in one town, as the result of the school training, persons might be seen cautiously travelling the streets with their hands folded behind them, and walking on tiptoe. The walking ought not to be so affected by any school requirements as to disturb the natural gait, and the pupils ought not to be obliged to retain a particular attitude for any length of time. In a certain primary school the little ones were never allowed to sit with their knees crossed; and when a little girl in a moment of weariness did so, the teacher placed her in her own chair at the desk, having the knees kept in that position, and then ordered all the other scholars to point at her and hiss.

There is such a thing as having so much order that it is in reality disorder, and this is to be avoided as carefully as too great laxity. Every teacher should have his school under his control, and be able to secure perfect stillness, or uniformity of position and movement, when desired. Two rules lie at the basis of all others respecting order: First, that degree of it should be maintained which is most favourable to the great design of the school; and, second, individual comfort should be secured. No positive standard can be established. In a small school, liberties may be allowed which cannot be in a large one; and one class of pupils may be permitted far greater freedom than another.

As respects position in recitation, it is hardly becoming for the teacher to sit with his feet upon the table; or for the student to recite with one foot on his seat, his elbow on one knee, and his head resting on his hand; yet these were the favourite positions of instructor and instructed at a recent examination in a New England college.

Mr. Wheeler of Cambridge thought the Grecien Bend must have originated in the town where the people walked on tiptoe with their hands behind them. He was in favour of a pretty still school, and would place his standard as this: Every scholar ought to so deport himself as if he were the only one in the room, for a school is not the place for social intercourse. No pupil should be permitted to obtain assistance from another, because it is an unfair demand upon the latter's time, and the help is in danger of being worse than none. The principal cause of noise in walking arises from the rapidity with which scholars move toward the door. They come in more slowly and more quietly; so that if slow movements can be secured, the disturbance produced in this way will be overcome.—*Massachusetts Teacher.*

2. AN ENGLISH MASTERS' VIEW OF SCHOOL PUNISHMENTS.

In these days, it is difficult to know whether the subject of punishment should be approached with tears or laughter. There is something so comic in the reaction against the old-fashioned hang-draw-and-quarter-him process, which certainly was no laughing matter, that it is almost impossible to be grave. A school is pictured by some as a troop of little angels, eager to learn, more eager to imbibe goodness, all hanging on the lips of their still more angelic preceptors. If these celestials ever do need rebuke, shame is at once sufficient; and shame is produced by a gentle but piercing glance (all school-masters have eyes of forty-angel power): the victim retires to weep in silence, until he is ready to receive the forgiveness the thoughtful teacher yearns to give, and is only waiting till the fourth pocket-hankerchief is wetted through to give it.

But in sober seriousness, this very difficult question merits the closest attention, is full of practical puzzles, and cannot be disposed of lightly, whatever the conclusion arrived at may be.

As a fact, a great school from time to time receives all the evil of the worst homes, as well as all the good of the best. What is to be done with it? The boys are sent to be trained: the angelic theory obviously will not work. The easy way of getting rid of the difficulty is to cut the Gordian knot, and dismiss a boy directly, as soon as he gives real trouble. But if this is done, what becomes of the training? Clearly, the boys who are dismissed are not trained: neither are those who stay behind; for is this summary process likely to have a good effect, when they see every difficult case got rid of instead of conquered? Besides, boys know little of the future, and think less; if the present is unpleasant, they are almost always ready to leap in the dark—that is, bad boys are, and dismissal whould soon lose its terrors for the bad in consequence. Morever, boys are very jealous about justice, and there is a rude rough sense of what is just amongst them, that is seldom far wrong in its verdict. They will not consider this clearing process justice. No boy ought to be dismissed from a great school until he has given cause for judging that the school power and influence will not reclaim him. The school is a little world of training, because good and evil are in their proper positions in it—good encouraged and predominant, evil discouraged and being conquered,—not because evil is rudely pitchforked out of it. This, if hastily done, destroys the true training power. There is no doubt that the getting rid of a bad boy at once, without trying to train and reclaim him, saves masters a great deal of anxiety and a great deal of loss. If masters consulted their immediate worldly interests, they would get rid of a bad boy at the first opportunity. There is nothing so disastrous at the time as keeping a bad boy. As long as he is in the school unreclaimed, he is putting their best plans and hopes in jeopardy —bringing discredit on his house and class, and risking their reputations. The more so, if he is really bad, more frequently than not, when in the school and after he leaves it, both he and his are vilifying everything there with an animosity that only disappointed

evil can supply. All this protracted danger, and occasional heavy loss, is got rid of at once by the dismissal system ; for much cannot be said in that case. As a part of ordinary discipline, however, dismissal is out of the question, being no training for those who are dismissed, and giving a wrong idea to those who stay behind. It is not right in a master to escape from a difficulty in this way. And it is a grievous injury to the boy, if dismissal carries with it the disgrace it now does ; a grievous wrong to schools, if an abuse of this power makes it cease to be terrible. There would still remain the question where the dismissed are to go to, and what Norfolk Island is to receive them, if the practice become common. How, then, is punishment to be inflicted ?

The efficacy of all punishment depends, first, on the certainty of its being inflicted ; secondly, on its being speedy. Severity is quite a minor point, and may be very much disregarded in considering the main question. The deterring effect of punishment is by no neans proportionate to its cruelty.

Certainty of punishment is the first necessity. On this turns very much the goodness or badness of the government as regards its treatment of its criminals. An uncertain government can never be sufficiently severe : it will proceed from cruelty to cruelty, and nevertheless fail to terrify. Such is human nature ; let there be the slightest chance of escape, and ninty-nine men out of a hundred will run the risk, however great, for a very incommensurate temptation. . . . On the other hand, certainty is conclusive. It acts as a complete extinguisher ; whereas, great risks sometimes act as a stimulant. The difference between a good and a bad system of punishment, and a good and a bad master, consists in the vigilance with which wrong is detected and dealt with, the certainty of there being no escape for the wrong-doer. If the master is inattentive, no severity will prevent his boys from being idle and undisciplined ; or if, being attentive, he is capricious, the result will be the same. *A good master does not require to be severe, because he is certain.*

Rut certainty is not all : quickness of punishment is equally necessary. We need not look far for an illustration : it is certain that all men die ; but yet, because the time of death is uncertain, and may be far off, the certainty has not the slightest effect on the lives of most men. They live entirely forgetful and regardless of it. Nay more, we often see during life, men wantonly incur a certainty of protracted wretchedness for a few short years or even hours of pleasure ; the spendthrift, for instance, the short time close to them being more in their eyes than the long time only a little farther off. Neither has the certainty of punishment any effect, in too many cases, if the punishment is not close at hand also. Indeed, cruel and lasting punishment hardens instead of training or reforming its victims, without in any way benefiting society, or deterring others. It is essential that punishment should be certain, speedy, and sharp, not cruel or lasting ; for, however cruel or lasting the punishment will be when it comes, if it does not come quickly, a very slight temptation will in many cases entirely overbear all the remoter consequences. There is no accounting for such insanity, but it is the fact. Where fear is the only restraining motive, a severe punishment a little way off is no match for a slight temptation close at hand. There are, then, two great necessities in all forms of punishment. Punishment must be certain. Punishment must be speedy. Severity without this is always useless, and with it almost always needless— a bungler's attempt to make up for want of power and influence.

These considerations affect schools exceedingly, and in many ways. In their simplest form they amount to this. No school can punish in a satisfactory manner, where faults are likely to be overlooked and unnoticed, and punishment is occasional and capricious in consequence.

Before proceeding further, it will be necessary to see clearly what the object of school-punishment is. Now, school-punishment is not vengeance. Its object is training, first of all, the training of the wrong-doer ; next, the training of the other boys by his example. Both he and others are to be deterred from committing the offence again. Hence, if training is indeed the object, no *useless* punishment should be inflicted, that is, no punishment which shall not have something in it beneficial in the doing. But, on the other hand, no punishments can be inflicted which take up much of the master's time. This cannot be wasted on offenders to any great extent. Tried by the first of these laws, the common school-punishment of setting a boy to write out and translate his lessons signally fails. It is not beneficial, but the contrary. It is wearisome without exercising the mind ; this is not good. It injures the handwriting ; this is not good. It encourages slovenly habits ; this is not good. It contains no corrective element, excepting that it is a disagreeable way of spending time. But time is very precious, a chief part of right training is the teaching a right use of time ; wasting time, therefore, is not satisfactory in a good school. The one advantage it possesses, and that is not unimportant, is this, it gives no trouble to masters, and does not take up their time.

Then comes the setting extra work ; but this does not reach far. In the first place, if a school is really properly provided with work, there is something inexpressibly absurd in setting a boy to do more work because he cannot or will not do the work he has already. This difficulty may, indeed, be partially got over by making the work not strictly additional, but by compelling a boy to spend more time on it. But this is only a partial remedy, for two reasons.

Beyond a certain point, and that a very early one, work cannot be compelled ; you can make a boy sit in his room, but you cannot make him work ; an idle or obstinate boy soon reaches his point, what is to be done then ? It is, moreover, an absolute necessity of the gravest kind that punishments, as has been stated above, should not take up too much of a master's time. These two reasons soon bring extra work to a stand-still in bad cases. Learning by heart, perhaps, is the best form of work-punishment, as the task takes a long time to learn, and a short time to hear, is thoroughly useful, and cannot be evaded if done at all. But supposing it is not done, what then ? All work-punishments with an obstinate boy soon accumulate and clog the wheels till everything comes to a dead-lock ; the victim cannot do the accumulated heap, but if he does not do it, he is conqueror, and has baffled his master. Thus the range of work-punishments is narrow, and their power soon exhausted in difficult cases. Depriving a boy of part of his playtime is of some use, but health again prevents this being pressed far. For the same reason, depriving a boy of food, or putting him in solitary confinement, are both out of the question. Very heavy punishment, however, can be inflicted in a good school by taking away the privileges and liberties of the offenders. If severity by itself had any great power in punishment, this would be thoroughly effectual, but it has not, as has been shown above ; and this kind of punishment labors under the defect of not being speedy enough, but often delayed for some time, till holidays and so forth occur. It is also too protracted ; it keeps a boy too long in disgrace, and thus tends to harden. Still, this power of deprivation is very effectual, when wisely and sparingly used.

All kinds of public disgrace cut away the very root of good punishment, destroying self-respect, and making criminals, not mending them. Excepting in rare cases, as a deterrent measure for others, rather than corrective to those who suffer, public disgrace must not be thought of. Any one who studies the question will find that the range of good punishments is exceedingly limited. There are but few to choose from, and those few soon lose their efficacy by repetition ; and though effectual enough in dealing with heavy and exceptional cases, they soon break down utterly under the daily wear and tear ; and cannot resist the friction of many and constant faults, which are simply inevitable in the complicated difficulties created by many untrained wills and intellects requiring training. It follows, then, from what has been said, that if the school-work is slack and loose, it is easy to punish, a boy who is virtually doing nothing, can be made to do something ; or if the beneficial effect of punishment is disregarded, tasks useless but vexatious can very easily be imposed. But if the school-work is sufficient and good, setting more work as a punishment is in theory absurd, and in practice very soon become impossible. In all these punishments, also, limited as their range is, there is an entire want of the great element of speed and decisive impression. Lasting torture is no substitute for a single sharp impression, even if it be thought wise to inflict lasting torture. For the above mentioned reasons, flogging in some form or other is a necessity in a great school. It is certain, it is speedy, it is much feared, and yet is soon over.

The common argument that flogging is a degrading punishment to boys, will not bear investigation. . . . A school punishment is degrading for one of two reasons. Either it is in itself degrading, or it is degrading on account of the circumstances attending it. If a flogging is in itself degrading, as being an outrage on the person, it is manifest that in any society which considers an outrage on the person degrading, there will be a total absence of blows, and every kind of personal chastisement. The idea of striking and of personal chastisement is of course utterly foreign to the boy-mind ! No blows are ever struck in boy-society ; boy never punishes boy by resorting to the ready fist ! Now all this may be, and is, in many cases, very wrong ; but this does not affect the question under discussion in the least, that question is not whether corporal punishment is wrong, but whether it is degrading in itself apart from the circumstances attending it. Whoever is prepared to say it is, may be a very wise man, but he has never been a boy. No boy ever feels the least mental infliction because he had been struck, or even kicked, by another boy, though the bodily infliction may be considerable, and the feelings with which the inflictor is regarded far from pleasant. The whole boy-life, from beginning to end, is so utterly regardless of inviolabilty of body, whether in play or in

earnest, in fun or anger, that only theorizers of mature age could entertain the notion of almost any form of bodily correction being in itself degrading. The circumstances which accompany or cause it, may certainly render it degrading. If received for gross offences, a flogging is obviously degrading; but then it is the offence that degrades, not the punishment. This is a distinction often lost sight of, as if disgrace consisted in being found out and punished, and not rather in deserving punishment. It is disgraceful to be in prison, if prison means conviction for theft; but if prison means refusal to betray your country, it is not disgraceful. Whether flogging is disgraceful or not, therefore, obviously depends on the class of faults for which it is the penalty.

There is a general floating notion that flogging should be reserved for grave moral offences, to brand them with ignominy. Let us examine this.

It will readily be granted that every punishment of the young should be inflicted with a view to correct and train either the boy punished, his companions, or both. And still more readily will it be granted that no punishment should be needlessly severe; for, if there was no other reason, it would be a waste of power, and waste of power signifies the employment of means you may want for a great thing in a little thing, so that when the great thing comes there is nothing left to do; or employing the wrong means, as using a pen-knife to cut sticks, so that it will not fulfil its daily duty of pen-mending afterward.

Grave moral offences, lying, theft, and so forth, do not form part of the daily life. This is more important than it seems at first sight, for a daily recurring offence, by frequency, much increases the difficulty of punishing it, as punishment has to be provided not only with a view to a single occasional act, but to meet many acts and their growing power. Again, with the young, grave moral offences, when detected, are felt keenly and bitterly, sometimes with exceeding bitterness; but in all cases conscience is roused to aid any right corrective, and there is great danger that wrong measures will deaden instead of improve boys fresh to sin. The object in view in all such cases is to assist conscience and the inborn shame, and to keep the impression alive as long as possible; whereas, in ordinary punishment, the direct contrary is the case, the punishment impression should be over as soon as possible, or the effect will not be good. Protracted feeling, instead of sharpness, is wanted in dealing with sin. Unless it is a wrong to society, as well as a sin, which may therefore require public acknowledgement and atonement, what end is served by a sharp and disgraceful punishment in the case of a boy who has sinned? A boy, unless hardened, ought not to have repentance made difficult, almost impossible, by public disgrace. If he is fit to remain in the school at all—for no school is bound to keep a rebel to its laws and spirit—conscience, and the bitterness of inward shame, make the task of punishment easy and utterly forbid public disgrace. A boy ought never to be allowed to think that masters can punish sin as they can intellectual or discipline faults. Unless the society laws have been broken also, flogging a boy for a sin as a disgrace seems utterly subversive of the right object of punishment, namely, repentance; and un necessary, as quiet and more protracted punishments are better; and a waste of power, as the first impression is strong enough without it. Ignominy cannot be good for heart-offences in the young, in a sphere of training. On all accounts, then, flogging should not be the punishment of sins.

The faults which principally call for the rod are discipline-faults and wilful faults. For instance, when a boy persists in coming late to school; when a boy is impertinent; when a boy, by wilful idleness, accumulates book-punishments until the work comes to a dead-lock. These and similar cases require the rod; the more so, as they are entirely in a boy's own power, and no one need incur the penalty unless he chooses. Thus, whether flogging is degrading or not, confining the punishment to voluntary and repeated offences, removes any reasonable objection to it, for it becomes a boy's own choice; whilst offences of this sort require a sharp and speedy corrective, as the temptations are constant and sometimes so strong as to be painful to resist, and a little counter-pain acts as a very salutary check. Moreover, the daily recurrence of opportunity very soon makes offences of this kind, unless summarily disposed of, become impracticable to deal with. And though often venial in themselves, taken singly, they are utterly subversive of all order, rule, and training when repeated, and the school would break up like snow in a thaw unless some decisive check is found. That there is sensitiveness about being caned is certain, but it is bodily not mental pain that causes it, unless it is administered on wrong principles and in a capricious way. Abstract the pain, and boys would not be troubled by the imaginary disgrace. If the real disgrace of shameful idleness, or carelessness, or repeated disobedience is despised, the imaginary disgrace of a flogging will matter little. The theory always imagines a sensitive, innocent, unlucky boy flogged, but the fact presents an impudent, idle, or guilty boy who has despised warning, as being flogged. All the evil of homes comes into schools, as well as all the good. School-life is real, earnest work both for masters and boys, and not a matter of rose-water theories. At one time or another, every evil that boys can do will have to be faced by the masters; and every temptation that boy-life is subject to, faced by the boys. This requires a strong government.

Moreover, one of the advantages of school is, that a boy finds himself there in a world of law and order, and constitutional rights and penalities, whilst still surrounded by friendly and loving influences; instead of under a despotic will as at home, however sweetened by love, and indeed indentical with it. He will have in after life to live by law; it is good that he should learn to do so early, and not expect to find everything free from discipline, or hardship even. How much bitterness would be saved if the vagaries of undisciplined nature, which few neighborhoods are without, had been checked in boyhood, when law could be applied to such childish ebullitions! Spoilt children of mature years are like grit in the wheels, both in society and in public life.

For the reasons which have been mentioned, caning or flogging is an absolute necessity for working the ordinary discipline of a school well. But certain precautions should be taken against its being hasty or unjust. No caning or flogging ought to be inflicted at the moment the offence is committed; or by the master under whom it was committed. The head-master should have the unenviable prerogative of inflicting it in all the more important cases. A lower master should be empowered to do so for petty offences in the lower classes. It should be inflicted at one stated time, and in the presence of all who choose to witness it. These are necessary safeguards against temper and haste. Even where there is no doubt about the offence, the question often is, not what a fault *deserves, but what is best for the culprit and the school.* And a little reflection will often decide, that what is best, is an entirely different thing from what is deserved. Be this as it may, whatever are the opinions on this subject, it cannot be disposed of in a hurry by a whiff or a sneer. The whole question of punishment is full of difficulty, and must meet with earnest treatment from every wise and practical man.

It would be easy to draw a very true and not very bright picture of boys and the difficulty of dealing with them, but it is our purpose to show a trainer's duty, rather than his trials. Nevertheless, it would be well to bear in mind that no words can exaggerate the spoiled nursery tempers, the selfishness, the indolence, the low morals, the carelessness of consequences, the transcendent folly of some boys, united with a conceit coextensive with their folly. The power of not learning, too, is quite a gift, which must be experienced to be credited; the power by which boys, and not bad boys either, will daily be brought in contact with knowledge to no purpose. How, like the children's toy, the same rabbit is moved by the same wires into the same mouth, down to the same stomach, of the same wooden bear, *ad infinitum,* always swallowed, never digested, a perpetual revolution of purposeless seeming feeding.

And in the matter of punishment, practice brings to light that the choice of wise and effective punishment is very limited; whilst serious mental mistraining may easily be brought about unawares by bad punishments, which produce habits of slovenly work and haste, and distaste for writing and reading. At all events, exceeding waste of time is often the result, though the main object in life is to learn never to waste time. And all this takes place, because men are seeking to avoid a phantom, dressed up by popular opinion to be knocked down and abused.

Grave professional questions are sure to be full of practical difficulties, requiring experience and knowledge to estimate and deal with them. Indeed, most frequently, in actual life and practice, there is no actual good possible, a choice of the least evil is the only thing open for the wise man to make.—*American Educational Monthly.*

II. Papers on Practical Education.

1. OBJECT-LESSONS FOR SMALL CHILDREN.

FLOWERS.—SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES.

I want to talk with you to-day about flowers; but first, as we cannot have flowers without plants, tell me the principal parts of a plant? Root, stem and leaves.

Of what use is the root? To absorb nourishment from the ground, and to fix the plant in the earth.

Of what use is the stem? To support the leaves, and carry them food from the roots.

What do the roots do for the plant? They take in nourishment from the air.

You have named the principal parts of the plant and told me their use, but there are other important parts which you have not yet named; can you tell me what they are? Flower and fruit.

Well; it is particularly of the flower that we wish to speak now. Name the parts of a flower? Calyx, corolla, stamens and pistil.

Which is the calyx; point it out and tell me about it? It is on the outside, and always encloses the bud.

What is its colour, usually? It is usually green; but not always.

What is the corolla; and where is it placed? It is the bright part of the flower, next to the calyx.

Point it out and tell me its colour?

Where is the pistil? In the centre of the flower.

And the stamens? Around the pistil.

Count the stamens in your flower, and tell me how many there are?

What are the parts of the calyx called? Sepals.

Of the corolla? Petals.

Of the stamens? Filament, anther and pollen,

What is the meaning of filiment? Little thread.

What are the parts of the pistil called? Ovary, style and stigma.

Point them out to me?

Of what use are flowers? They please us by their beauty and sweet smell. Some of them are used to make medicine and some to make perfumes. They tell us of God, who made the flowers.—*California Teacher.*

2. ARITHMETICAL RULES.

Mr. Payson, of Chelsea, in his remarks on teaching Arithmetic, during the discussion at the Educational Room, repeated the arithmetical rules he learned in his youthful days. He has kindly written them out, at our request, for the benefit of our readers. They certainly prove that mathematics and poetry do not go well together. What is gained in harmony is lost in clearness.

RULE FOR ADDITION.

Addition is the adding up of one
Denomination in one total sum.

SUBTRACTION.

When from a greater sum you take a less,
An answer true the difference will express;
Which being subtracted from the greater sum,
Will make the *lesser*, then your work is done.

MULTIPLICATION,

Multiplication will to you describe,
Whate'er denominations are allied.
And when correctly multiplied together,
Will then produce the just amount of either.

DIVISION.

Division instructs you without any pother,
How often one sum is contained in another.
And by rightly dividing the whole of your sum,
You'll find a true answer, and then your work's done.

REDUCTION,

Reduction is the bringing or reducing
Your several numbers without any losing.
And when descending multiply the same,
Of every number to one common name.
But when ascending, *then* you must divide
Your several terms, and carry out beside,
Whate'er remains, and place them side by side.

RULE OF THREE.

Sure as the needle points unto the north,
So here three numbers given, require a fourth.
The same proportion surely there must be,
As second to the first must well agree.

Then term the number *third*, which doth command;
Of quality, or number, *first;* then understand,
The second term the answer will command.

The *second* and *third* terms when multiplied,
The product by the *first* you must divide.

—*Massachusetts Teacher.*

DEAF MUTES COMMUNICATING WITHOUT SIGNS.

The Boston School Committee recently appointed a sub-committee to examine into the practicability of affording gratuitous instruction to such deaf and dumb children as might require it. A writer in the *Transcript* describes what occurred at a meeting called by its chairman, Rev. Dexter King, at the Winthorp House, the object of which was to hear from one of their teachers how deaf mutes were taught to communicate without signs to those around. Forty or fifty persons, including several members of the city and state governments, were present.

Miss Rodgers, teacher at the Clerk Institution, at Northampton, asked questions of several of her pupils, who by no possibility could have known what the enquiries were, from the movements of her lips. In almost every case they were answered promptly. Except when she spoke with great distinctness, and they, like children who had not yet learned to pronounce words aright, and also with the peculiar intonation of all deaf persons, one would have supposed that a conversation was going on under ordinary circumstances.

It was then suggested that she should merely move her lips without emitting any sound whatever; the same result was produced. Others, the present writer among them, asked also several questions at her request of the pupils, most of which were understood and replied to, though not with equal readiness.

The interest of the meeting was much increased by the presence of two young girls who had never been in any deaf and dumb institution, but whose parents, without any reference to what had been attempted elsewhere, had taught their children at home to speak and to understand others, as one of them expressed it, "in the way that common sense pointed out."

This way was substantially the same with that the feasibility of which we had just seen so satisfactorily demonstrated by Miss Rogers and her pupils. The two young ladies were introduced to one another, and immediately began to talk together like other people, so far as all use of signs were concerned. When talking with their immediate friends in whispers, there was absolutely nothing to indicate that one of the speakers was deaf and dumb. Stranger still did it seem when we learned upon unimpeachable testimony that the oldest young lady was the first scholar at a large school intended *not* for the instruction of the deaf and dumb, but where she was the only one who could not hear a sound.

III. Intercommunications and the Press.

1. QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS.

A correspondent whose communication we published in a recent issue of the *Planet*, again writes as follows:

In my last I promised to give some thoughts on the qualifications of teachers. Many persons think that any person who has the smallest smattering of learning is quite able to teach school, because the attainments of the pupils are small, and their advancement is slow. This is the natural result of the deficiency of teachers. It is a great mistake to suppose that any person can teach school; any person can keep school, but the two are as distinct as day and night. The tuition of the youthful mind may be considered as similar to constructing an edifice. When good and intelligent workmen are employed the edifice is sooner and more neatly erected, and the better the teacher employed the greater and more effectual advancement is made. He requires to be fully qualified as well as any other workman. Some of his qualifications are thorough knowledge. He that has learned anything thoroughly in a clear and methodical manner, and has attained a distinct perception, and an ample survey of the whole subject, is generally best prepared to teach the same subject in a clear and easy method, for having acquired a large and distinct idea of it himself, and made it familiar to him by frequent meditation, he is supposed to see it on all sides, to grasp it with all its relations in one survey, and is better able to represent it to the learner in all its ways, with all its properties and consequences. He knows how to present it to the pupil to the greatest advantage, how to propose it to the understanding so that he can comprehend it with ease; he can also present it in such a way as to allure the pupil to further inquiry.

But it is not every great scholar that is the best teacher, even though he may have a methodical as well as an extensive survey of the subject. Some have an obscure way of representation, others run into the higher parts of the subject because it gives themselves greater satisfaction, or else they are too lazy to labour for the advancement of their pupils. With all their knowledge they require ability to impart instruction. Many eminent scholars cannot bring their thoughts to a level with the juvenile mind. They have a misconception of the ability of the youthful mind, and therefore do not present ideas in that familiar way, which is so essentially necessary.

Every teacher who wishes to be successful must study familiarity of expression, and when a pupil cannot comprehend the truth in one form of expression, use other; if still there is a mental darkness, vary the expression still more until he can grasp the fact. In connection with this he requires a sympathetic disposition, which is willing to labour on in order to lead the mind to the light of truth. Sympathy will lead the teacher to use forms of expression which at once arrests the pupil's attention and convinces him that his teacher is really interested in his welfare. A sympathetic word will very frequently arouse the flagging attention and impress the truth indellibly upon the mind. It is a good means to use in school government, but not of as much force as—

Evenness of Temper. There is no good teacher who will give vent to bursts of passion; he may show that he is grieved with his pupils for sinning against the laws of the school, but to show anger with its twin-mate, envy, is no mark of a judicious teacher. He should be mild and agreeable, but at the same time possessed of great

Firmness. If he wishes to govern successfully he must give his pupils to understand that he means what he says, and that his laws shall be carried into effect, but at the same time he should not impose any rule that is in the least degree unreasonable.

Patience is also quite necessary. Many young teachers not consider this as of much importance as they should. They are apt to think that young pupils should understand the study of lessons at once; a little observation would convince them of their error. How many things are there which the ablest minds cannot comprehend at once, and these elements or rudiments are as difficult accordingly to the young pupil. They should exercise patience towards them, bear with their little inconsistencies and remember the teacher's example will be to a certain extent followed by the pupils. The style of a teacher is of great importance, but I will present a few thoughts on this at some future time.

Vivacity of manner, both mental and physical, is of great importance. As the teacher so is the school, But it should be distinctly remembered that flustration and boisterousness are no marks of genuine vivacity. It consists partly in quickness of action, decided answers, and liveliness of expression. It is closely allied to energy. Many young teachers do not for a moment consider the difficulties with which they will have to contend; they therefore commence their labours very energetically, but in a little time they begin to relax in their duties. The pupil notices this and the teacher looses his influence with them. He is something like Sampson shorn of his hair.

Distinctness of utterance is of the greatest importance. The number of school hours is comparatively few and every means must be used to gain the best advancement. If a teacher does not speak distinctly and clearly, time is lost in repeating it, besides pupils imbibe a similar utterance, and in some cases to such an extent that the evil is never overcome.

Self-control must first be learned by the teacher before he can control others. Example teaches more than precept. When a teacher is always calm and composed he can watch the pupils better, because his attention is not divided nor distracted. This gives the pupil to understand that a deviation from the proper path will be noticed, and if the teacher is respected by them they will fear to offend him. This quality will also secure respect.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education for Ontario.

As several proposals have been offered for doing away with the too prevalent custom of a frequent change of Teachers. Allow me through your Journal to offer one or two, which I have thought of for some time, and which in my opinion will entirely, or very nearly so, remedy this deplorable defect in our present system, What I would propose is this:—First, that no teacher should be dismissed from any Common School, after having taught for a greater time than one month in such school, without the Trustees of such school presenting the said teacher with a written notice that it is their desire that he should discontinue his services. This notice to be signed by the three Trustees then in office. One month's notice must invariably be given by the Trustees to the Teacher; or second, that the Trustees wishing to be relieved of the services of the Teacher, shall call a school meeting, of which sufficient publicity, had been given, at which if a major part of the voters, then present, vote for his dismissal, he shall be dismissed forthwith. Such not being the case, the Trustees not to have the power to dismiss him. The yeas and nays shall be taken of the votes and recorded in the secretary's book, to be kept for future reference.

Either of these would, in my opinion, pretty effectually remedy the great detriment to the advancement of our common schools, viz., the too frequent change of teachers. I think there are very few cases on which either a majority of the votes, or the three Trustees are arrayed against a teacher, without a good and sufficient cause, and if such good cause exists, it is surely desirable that a change should be made.

A. B. C. D., *Teacher.*

Sidney, May 19th 1869.

IV. Education in various Countries.

1. CHINESE COMPETITIVE EXAMINATION AND UNIVERSITIES.

Competitive examination was established about the commencement of the Christian era. It is the foundation of the present political system of the empire. It is Democratic in principle, and deserves the attention of statesmen in the world over. Under this system a person of the lowest condition may attain to the highest position of honour. There are several classes who are excluded from entering the course of study,—play actors, prostitutes, executioners, jailors, and inferior servants waiting upon Mandarins. Their children to the third generation are also excluded. The theory adopted is that these persons and their immediate descendants are wanting in those moral qualifications which are necessary in the administration of government. Persons who have lost a parent cannot enter the course of study till after the expiration of three years, inasmuch as hard study is inconsistant with due respect for the dead during that period of time.

The theory of the system in China is that all civil officers must be literary graduates. Three degrees have been established. The first may be obtained at the colleges in the *Hien* or district college, the second in the *Fu* or provincial college, the third in the Imperial University at Pekin.

The city of Wu Chang, being a provincial capital at the centre of the Empire and easily accessible, has become one of the chief literary centres. In this respect we may think of it as ranking with Cambridge or Oxford in England, Harvard or Yale or Ann Arbor in the United States.

ENTERING THE UNIVERSITY.

The student having been through the district college and obtaining a degree from the Chancellor, comes to Wu Chang to enter the highest courses. Each student, before coming here, filed a paper with the local magistrate, containing the name of his father, grandfather, teacher, his next door neighbour, stating also his own age, height, and complexion. The names of several literary graduates are required as indorsers for his good character, and one of these is required to be present when the student enters the University.

We meet crowds of students in the streets. They are here from every town and village in the Province. The number entering at this University is from six to ten thousand per annum.

THE BUILDINGS.

Passing down one of the streets we reach the University buildings, occupying a large area enclosed by a wall about twenty feet high, covered completely over with placards displaying the names of the successful candidates for honours at the last examination. Entering the enclosure, we behold a paved court filled with long ranges of sheds, with tiled roofs, beneath which are about ten thousand small cell-like apartments or alcoves three or four feet square, open in front, with a seat and a board which can be placed against the wall on supports for a table. These are the students' quarters, which they occupy during examination.

A Chinese University does not have recitation hall, laboratory, or dormitory. It is not a place where students spend four years in study, but simply a barrack where they congregate for a few days, —a prison rather, for while here they are shut in and are not allowed any communication with their friends.

In the centre of the area stands the "Temple of Perfect Justice," —a building erected for the convenience of the examiners, and imperial commissioners, which are sent from Pekin to decide upon the literary merits of the students, and who are sworn to render an impartial verdict. Spacious apartments are assigned them, which are well furnished, and they are accompanied by a large retinue of servants.

FIRST DEGREE—"BEAUTIFUL ABILITY."

All of the students which come to this city have taken their first degree in the district college. It is not Master or Bachelor of Arts, but the degree of "Beautiful Ability," which means quite as much in China as that of A. B. does in the United States, and without which no student can compete for higher honors.

The examinations here are held triennially, and there is never less than ten or twelve thousand competitors.

ASSEMBLING FOR EXAMINATION.

It is a great occasion. People from the surrounding country come in to see the honours conferred. Friends are here to witness the triumph of those most dear. The city is filled with strangers. It is a grand harvest time for hotel and shop keepers. Excitement is at fever heat. The student who wins brings honour not only to himself but to his friends. He is on the road to fortune, for, if he passes examination, official position awaits him. Wealth is

sure; privilege is one of the results,—graduates, like members of Congress, being exempt from arrest, except for crime. High station in life, favour of the Emperor,—everything worth living for, as viewed from the chinese stand point,—is involved in the effort.

Students bring bedding and food, as they are required to stay on the premises several days; servants and friends accompany them to the gate, but are parted from them there by soldiers, who allow none but students to enter. When all are in, the gate is shut and sealed and a file of soldiers guard all approach to the wall. No book is allowed within the premises, but each student is supplied with paper, pen, and ink; is appointed a cell, where he spreads his bed and places his basket containing his food.

SECOND DEGREE.—"ADVANCED MEN."

The commissioners announce themes from the "Four Books" of the ancient classics—upon which students are to write three essays and one poem.

As soon as the subjects are given out all hands apply themselves to composition. They have no aid, can consult no one; but must rely wholly on themselves. As fast as their compositions are finished they are handed to one class of examiners, whose business is to see that there are no great defects and that the rules prescribed have been complied with. If they pass this ordeal they are copied, so that the judges may not show favouritism by any previous knowledge of the hand-writing of the candidates.

A jury of literary men read the essays, which, if they reach a certain degree of excellence, receive a red mark of approval. All that do not come up to this standard are rejected. Those approved are passed on to the chief examiners.

The standard of excellence adopted by the final judges must be very high or the scholarship exceedingly low, for not more than one hundred of the ten or twelve thousand obtain the second degree of "Advanced Men,"—a prosaic title in comparison with "Beautiful Ability."

OVATIONS.

Great ovations await those who pass the ordeal. The best orchestras of the empire are here with one-stringed, two-stringed, and three-stringed fiddles, flageolets, cymbals, gongs, and drums; cannon are fired, bonefires kindled, lanterns are lighted, processions formed, feasts prepared, songs sung, and the whole city joins in the grand jubilee.

Messengers are started to convey the tidings to all the surrounding country. This is an election, and it is just as exciting as a political contest in America. Each district is interested in the success of its candidates, aud so drums beat and bonfires blaze over the entire province.

The name of the student who takes the highest honour is placed on the wall at the top of all the others. We cannot read the "crow tracks," but here they are in large characters, which may be read by the excited crowd from the street.

THIRD DEGREE.—DOCTOR OF LAWS.

The successful competitors, if they aspire to the third degree, have an allowance from the Imperial Treasury to enable them to go to Pekin, where a similar examination is had. If successful there, they receive the degree of the Doctor of Laws, and are prepared to occupy high official stations.

We are not to forget that the authentic history of this people reaches back to the time of Moses, and that the "Book of classics" is as old as the Pentateuch, and that the chief text book of political economy written by Confucius is as ancient as the prophecy of Isaiah.

The economy of those by-gone ages is not exactly fitted to the 19th century, and for that reason China is stationary. She is chained to the dead ages.

But nothwithstanding all this, the method of choosing political and military officers by competitive examination gives a powerful stimulus to literary pursuits. Every village has its schools, and ambitious young men seeing the possibility of attaining positions of honour apply themselves to study. Poor people deny themselves comforts that they may educate their sons. Brothers in a family unite to help one of their number, that all may obtain honour. Virtue in this respect is found in China as well as in our own land.

DEFECTS AND EXCELLENCIES.

Unfortunately the profound reverence paid to the chinese classics robs the system of some of its excellence. If mathematical and other text books of science were used instead of the "Four Classics," China would have a political system which would challenge the admiration of the world. But as it is now, if we were to choose our officials on their ability to write an essay from a text in the book of Geneses, or a poem from a passage in the Song of Solomen, we should be doing according to the present Chinese method. It is an open question whether that would not be quite as sensible a proceeding as to elect one who has just taken out naturalization papers. and whose only recommendation is that he keeps a liquor shop and can influence voters by supplying them with whiskey!

Lop off the defects of the Chinese system, adopt its excellencies, modify some of its parts, and we shall have the true Democratic system for official service. We commend it to the attention of the people of the United States.—*Carleton.*

2. EDUCATION OF WOMEN IN INDIA.

The experiment of opening schools for native women in India is successful. A Native Girls' School examination has recently taken place in the native chapel in Royapottah, Madras. Lady Napier, wife of the Governor of Madras, presided on that occasion, and a considerable number of ladies and gentlemen, European and native, witnessed the interesting scene. The native girls attending the school are three hundred in number, and, with few exceptions, were all present on this occasion; the caste girls being arrayed in their best clothes and adorned with jewels, gave the assembly a gay appearance. One of the schools under examination has been carried on for twenty years, and in the course of that time has sent out many well-educated girls, now wives and mothers, and several who are now employed as teachers in the school, and otherwise as insructors of their own sex. The caste girls' school has been formed more recently, and is only a specimen of the many schools of the same character which are in existence in the Madras presidency, the prejudices of the natives against female education having in many cases been entirely removed, and the Btitish residents, with the missionaries, taking advantage of the happy change by opening schools wherever practicable.

The Royapettah Castle Day School for Girls has an average attendance of one hundred, having won the confidence of all classes. A few Brahmin girls are among the pupils. Others are the daughters of government officials in good position, and the remainder belong chiefly to the families of well-to-do tradesmen. On the occasion referred to, the first classes were examined in scripture and geography. "The facility with which these bright girls showed a number of countries and places on the map fairly surprised us" After the examination Lady Napier distributed the prizes.

Seven years ago it was announced that there were eighteen thousand females in the schools in India and Cylon; the number is now ten times that amount, and is constantly on the increase.

3. ABOLISHMENT OF THE SCHOOL-SECTION SYSTEM IN MASSACHUSETTS.

"*The School-district (section) system in this Commonwealth is hereby abolished.*" So reads the first section of an act approved by the Governor of Massachusetts, March 24, 1869. Thus is removed the greatest obstacle in the way of educational advancement throughout the Commonwealth. For many years the struggle between the township system and the district, or section system, has been carried on with earnestness and, in not a few townships, with much bitterness of controversy. With hardly an exception, the larger townships long since abandoned the school-section system, and consequently are now enjoying the advantage afforded by good school-houses, good teachers, and well organized and graded schools; while the smaller townships, which for the most part have clung to the old system with remarkable tenacity, have, with some exceptions, made comparatively little progress in school affairs.

The origin of the school-section system of Massachusetts is found in an act passed in 1789, the second section of which provides "that the several townships and districts in the Commonwealth be, and they are hereby, authorized and empowered, in the town meetings to be called for that purpose, to determine and define the limits of school sections within their townships and districts respectively." This law provided simply for the division of each township into distinct portions of territories for the convenience of the school children, the schools being still managed solely by the town authorities.

In 1817, the districts, or sections, became corporations that could sue and be sued, and could hold real and personal property for the use of the schools. In 1827, the districts were empowered to elect prudential committees, whose functions was to have charge of the school-houses, and to select teachers and make contracts with them; and thus was the system made complete in its power to obstruct the progress of popular education in the Commonwealth.

We have neither the time nor the disposition to enter into a

formal discussion of the district system, nor is such a discussion now necessary. The system has been abolished by the almost unanimous voice of the Legislature ; only nine votes having been given in the House of Representatives in its favour, and none at all in the Senate. The successive Secretaries of the Board of Education have repeatedly and earnestly protested against the system, presenting unanswerable arguments,, which ought long since to have brought about its abolishment. An admirable summary of these arguments may be found in the twenty-sixth Report to the Board of Education, prepared by Secretary White.

We rejoice that the system, which has so long been a serious hindrance to educational improvement in the smaller towns of the State, is now among the things that were; and we firmly believe that this change in the administration of school affairs will speedily accomplish results so satisfactory that all friends of education will gladly recognize them, and will confess that, in this case at least, the new is better than the old. "Better school-houses, better teachers, better schools," will now be the demand in all parts of the Commonwealth, and the demand is sure to be liberally answered.—*Massachusetts Teacher.*

4. NEW YORK STATE AID TO COLLEGES.

The people of New York State seem to be fully alive to the importance of fostering superior education. The Legislature of that state gives the following grants, altogether $199,500.

Cornell University	$25,000
Elmira Female College	35,000
Genesee College	12,000
Geneva "	14,000
Hamilton. "	11,000
Hobart Free College	3,000
Madison University	8,500
Ransselaer Polytechinc	10,000
Rochester University	25,000
St. John's College	5,500
St. Lawrence University	25,000
Troy University	5,000
University of Buffalo	3,000
University of New York	16,500

5. ENGLISH CONGREGATIONAL NORMAL SCHOOLS.

A recent Parliamentary paper published in England contains a report by Mr. Matthew Arnold, one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, on the Normal Schools belonging to the Congregational Board of Education. The whole report is able and instructive, as might be expected from the literary reputation of its author, but its chief interest is to be found in the statement it makes as to the future policy and plans of that influential, wealthy, educated body of English Dissenters which is represented by the Congregational Board. This body has long been disturbed by difference of opinion as to the expediency and propriety of accepting State aid in the support of its schools. The controversy may be said to be now at an end. By an almost unanimous decision, these representatives of English religious voluntaryism have declared their resolution to accept in future assistance from the national treasury on the like terms with those of other schools aided by the Committee of Council on Education. In coming to this conclusion they disclaim any departure from their well known principles in respect to the union between Church and State, and they profess to do nothing more than adapt their course to that of events of the present day. But it is only in the announcement of the future policy of Congregational dissenters in respect to state aid for their schools that the report we have mentioned is remarkable, but also and perhaps especially in what is there stated as to the manner in which they propose to deal with the question of religious instruction. They have no intention of abandoning the denominational character of their schools. That, together with a liberal conscience clause, which will throw their schools open to the children of parents of any faith or of none, they are resolute in maintaining. Education is not to be severed from religion ; but the religion taught is not to be that of any one of the so-called orthodox Protestant communities, but that which is held in common by them all. Thus the denominational character of their schools will be what they designate Evangelical. In this respect these schools will be distinguished from Anglican, or Wesleyan, or Baptist, or Independent, inasmuch that they decline to teach any of their distinct opinions ; and they are also distinguished from schools of the British and Foreign School Society, because the religious instruction given will embrace doctrines which are not accepted by Socinians or Roman Catholics. There is no originality about the plan. In its idea and in its appellation it is borrowed from Germany, where all Protestant schools aided by the State are classified under the common name of Evangelical ; all other schools being ranged under the designation of Roman Catholic. How far the plan may commend itself to the majority of Protestant Christians in England can only be a matter of conjecture. There are, however, circumstances in the religious condition of people at home, which we are disposed to think make the introduction of this plan, under such auspices, not a little significant, and for ourselves it suggests thoughts of immediate practical importance. Upon these we are not disposed at present to enlarge ; and we shall therefore satisfy ourselves with adding Mr. Arnold's concluding words :—"In "seizing this notion of Evangelical Protestantism as the basis of "the religious character of their schools, and in guarding this, so "far as they could, from being a mere unreal colourless thing, made "up of vague generalities, the Congregational Board have had the "merit of conceiving a type of popular school better suited, pro-"bably, to the public school of the bulk of the people of this coun-"try, than either the so-called National School or the Wesleyan "School on the one hand, or than the British School, or still more "than the Secular School on the other; and their conception has "in it, in my opinion, elements of utility which will bear fruit in "the future."—*Montreal Gazette.*

V. Geographical and Other Papers.

1. THE RUSSIAN FRONTIER—IMPORTANT GEOGRAPHICAL DISCOVERIES.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* says :—

"We are now daily receiving the most valuable additions to our knowledge of the political geography of Central Asia. Hardly has the British public realized the idea of a high road practicable to camels, and even to wheeled carriages, crossing the Thibetan uplands from the plains of Tartary to the inner crest of the Himalayas, when information reaches us of equal importance regarding the physical features and political condition of the northern portion of the plateau which intervenes between Kashgar and the Russian frontier. The particular region, although especially interesting as the link between civilization and barbarism, has been hitherto—to British geographers, at any rate—a veritable, '*terra incognita.*' The only routes across it available to research up to the present time have either traversed the plateau of Tartary, due north from Yarkand to Aksu, and so on by the Chinese town of Kulia to Semipalatinsk, or have proceeded in a westerly direction from Yarkand byKashgar, Khokan and Bokhara, thus avoiding the Russian frontier altogether.

"Now, however, thanks to the persevering industry of Mr. Robert Mitchell, we are furnished for the first time with an English translation of the journal of the Russianized Tartar, Valikhanoff, who in 1858 was sent in disguise from Fort Vernoo to Kashgar, and who, in company with a caravan, thus traversed on two different lines the whole extent of the 'Syrt,' an elevated table-land intersected with rivers and a few rocky, though not very lofty ridges, which stretches from the southern crest of the Celestial Mountains to the confines of the Great Central Desert.

"The distances in this quarter are not nearly as great as hitherto supposed, nor is the country by any means of a difficult or desolate character. The passes, indeed, are everywhere practicable to laden camels, and the valleys of the two great rivers, the Naryn or Jaxartes flowing to the west, and the Aksu flowing to the east, are filled throughout with encampments of wandering Kirghiz.

"From Fort Varnoe, the flourishing military colony of the Russian government north of the Issy Kul Lake, to the town of Kasgar, the entire distance is under four hundred miles ; and it is understood that at the present time the Russian outposts have been advanced as far as the Khokandian fort at Kurtka, on the Naryn, which is about half way between the two points. Indeed, during the last year, Colonel Poltoratski pushed a reconnissance in force as far as the Chadir-Kul Lake, which is little more than one hundred miles from Kashgar ; and it was this demonstration, regarded as a preliminary to direct invasion, which impelled the wavering Kush Begi to send his brother on a mission of peace to St. Petersburg.

"Colonel Poltoratski's account of his discoveries in the valley of the Naryn and around the Chadir-Kul Lake is expected to be published almost immediately with the sanction of the Russian government, and will form a valuable 'pendant' to the Valikhanoff papers, which are to be prepared for the press by M. Semenoff, the well-known president of the physical section of the Russian Geographical Society. In the meantime, Mr. Mitchell's translation of Capt. Valikhanoff's journal will, it is hoped, receive prominent consideration at the hands of Sir Roderick Murchison, pointing as it

does, to the inevitable and not very distant prospect of Russian and British officers hailing—be it for weal or woe—from their respective vedettes at Kashgar and Yarkand."

2. ENGLAND BEYOND SEAS.

One hundred and one years ago the two British Secretaries of State, who until then had divided the world between them, were joined by a third. He was styled Secretary for the Colonial or American Department. Ominously enough it was in 1768 also that General Gates went to Boston. Nine years later he had captured the British army under Cornwallis; fourteen years later the "Colonial or American" Department was superseded, for our chief colonies had established their independence. For twelve years after that date, until 1794, the affairs of the colonies as well as Ireland were entrusted to the Home Secretary. The great war broke out, the war in which colonies changed hands as rapidly as railway shares change hands to-day, and the colonies were then, appropriately enough, transferred to the newly-appointed Minister of war. Under his jurisdiction they remained all through that 23 years' battle of the giants which ended at Waterloo, and through the 39 years' peace which followed. In 1854 we again had a continental war on hand, and by that time our colonies had so greatly increased that it was found absolutely necessary to separate two offices which had been held jointly until then, only because the post of Minister of War had long been extremely easy. It was because Czar Nicholas threatened to give the sick man at Constantinople his quietus that our colonies attained for the first time since 1782 the dignity of a separate department of State.

There are forty-eight colonies under the Crown. They lie scattered through every degree of latitude and longitude, through every zone, from the Falkland Islands in the far South to the frozen regions of British North America within the arctic circle. They are of every age, constitution, and physical configuration. There is Newfoundland, which we have held for three centuries. There is Queensland, which we have settled within ten years. There is Gibraltar with its strict military rule, and Victoria with a constitution more democratic than that of the United States. There are the snow wastes of Labrador and the "cinderheap" of Aden; the spice groves of Ceylon, and the fur-trapper's run in the Hudson's Bay Territory; there is the rock fortress of Malta, and there are the inexhaustibly fertile plantations of Jamaica; the continent of Australia, and the rabbit-warren of Heligoland. There are colonies which have been settled peaceably, colonies which have been ceded by treaty, colonies which have capitulated in war. There are colonies for planters and colonies for convicts; colonies for sheep-breeders and colonies for soldiers. There are colonies in which the governor has to be content with a modest £500 a year, and colonies in which he enjoys the income, and much more than the influence of, an English archbishop. All these peoples and nations and languages are governed in a two-fold way by themselves and by the mother country; by governors and councils and assemblies, and by a Secretary of State, a Government department, and Parliament.

The 48 colonies may be arranged in six groups; Europe, which includes Gibraltar, Malta and Heligoland; Asia, which comprises Ceylon, Hong, Kong, the Straits Settlements, and Labuan: Africa, by which we include the settlements on the West Coast, the Cape, and Natal, and the islands of St. Helena, and Mauritius; America, which comprehends Bermuda, British Guiana, and the Falkland Islands, in addition to that great dominion which stretches from Newfoundland to Vancouver Island; the West Indies, by which are meant not only the islands, but also Honduras; and Australia, which consists of Australia proper and New Zealand. This division is not carried out in the Colonial Office. In that establishment there are eight departments; but four of these are concerned with finance, registries, parliamentary papers, and similar matters. The rest divide the colonies among them. The West Indies have a department to themselves; Europe and a part of Africa, go together. The Eastern department includes not only the Asiatic colonies, but Mauritius and British Columbia. The most formidable group of colonies is that which is put under the supervision of the "North American and Australian" department. While the Secretary of State, and the Parliamentary Under Secretary change with the Ministry, there are two permanent Under-Secretaries. Sir Frederick Rogers, Bart., has filled his present post since 1860. Previously to that he had a distinguished career. He took a double first at Oxford, and carried off various scholarships and fellowships. Sir Frederick Rogers was also for some years a journalist. His colleague, Sir F. Sandford, is also an Oxonian, and a first-class man. But, though holding the most responsible positions next to that of the Secretary of State, they are but novices in the civil service compared with three other gentlemen. Mr. Gordon Gairdner, the chief clerk, Mr. Henry Taylor, and Sir George Barrow, the eldest senior clerks, have been in the office for nearly half a century, the two first having entered in 1824, and the third in 1825. Mr. Taylor is known outside of official circles as one of our most accomplished poets and essayists. Official life has not destroyed the imagination of the author of "Philip van Artevelde," nor the fine critical power of the author of "Notes on Books." These gentlemen have for colleagues more than a score of assistant clerks, junior clerks, and assistant junior clerks. There are also supplementary clerks, copyists, and other minor officials, making the total *personnel* of the Colonial Office about 70 in number. There is at Park-street, Westminster, a sort of *succursale* to the chief office in Downing-street; it is occupied by the Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners, 11 in number. Beside, there are 15 emigration officers, stationed at the principal ports of the kingdom. Their duties are scarcely so heavy as they might be, for the only colonies which promote immigration from the United Kingdom by means of their public funds are Victoria, the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, New Zealand, and Tasmania. One might have expected that Canada, with its boundless unoccupied territory, would have offered attractions to that capital which she so greatly needs—labour.

The political relations between the colonies and the mother country vary greatly in the degree of closeness. The colonies are of three kinds. There are first the Crown colonies, in which the Crown has the entire control of legislation, and the administration is carried on by officers under the Supervision of the Home Government. Such are Malta, Ceylon, Hong Kong, Heligoland, and many of the West Indian Islands; and here the authority of the Crown rests upon conquest or cession. There are other Crown colonies in which that authority rests upon statute. Such are Jamaica, British Columbia, Western Australia, the various West African settlements, and the Falkland Islands. The second great division comprises colonies possessing representative institutions, but not responsible government, and in which the Crown has no more than a veto upon legislation, but the Home Government retains the control of public officers. In these, laws are made by the government with the concurrence of one of two legislative bodies, of which one, at least, is representative. In the Cape of Good Hope both bodies are elective; in Barbadoes, Grenada, Tobago, Bahamas, and Bermuda the Council is nominated by the Crown, the Assembly is elected. In Natal, Honduras, and six of the West Indian Islands there is a single Chamber, partly nominated, partly elected. The third principal class comprises those colonies which possess representative institutions and a responsible government, and in which the Crown has only a veto on legislation, and the Home Government has no control over any public officer except the Governor. This class is made up of our principal colonies, those in British North America, and those in Australia.

Our colonial empire has taken long to grow. It began with Raleigh, it received a great impetus under Chatham. The first colonists were buccaneers, the second were soldiers, the third were labourers. The first took possession on their own account, and were utterly regardless of the right of the aborigines. They soon found that other powers would be as regardless of their rights, such as they were, and it became necessary to place themselves under the authority and the protection of the Crown. To that lawless age succeeded the age of regular fighting, the great wars when colonies were captured and re-captured until the treaty of 1815 settled their destination. To that period belong the two most populous of our colonies, the two which together contain half of our colonial population—the Canadas and Ceylon. The great Australian colonies, which bid fair to surpass all the rest in a very few years, belong to the third age, the age of peace and labour, the age not of the spear and the sword, but of the pruning-hook and the plough.

It need scarcely be said that there is no proportion in the colonies between area and population. Ceylon has an area of only 24,700 square miles, and a population of over 2,000,000. Queensland has an area of 678,600 square miles, and a population of less than 90,000. But then we have held Ceylon three-quarters of a century; we have settled Queensland only ten years. Moreover, large as is the total population in Ceylon, there are but some 3,000 Europeans; while in Queensland nearly the whole of the inhabitants are of our own race.

3. THE POSITION AND FUTURE OF CANADA.

The following extract from Mr. White's speech at Hamilton is well worthy the perusal of every true-hearted Canadian. Mr. White said:—

"Will you permit me, gentlemen, before resuming my seat to say a word in reference to what I fear is the great stumbling block

in the way of the solid prosperity of Canada. There is a tendency on the part of some persons to deny the ability of the country to hold its own in the struggle for wealth, personal and national, which is going on on this continent, and who, loyal though they be, and deprecating the idea of annexation as they do, are yet constantly permitting themselves to fear that the autonomy of the country cannot be maintained. Such persons have little solid confidence in the Dominion. They scarcely ever speak of its future without belittling it. The great nation to the South of us so completely in their eyes overshadows us, that we are not seen by them in anything like our own fair proportion. No feeling, let me assure you, is more dangerous to the country than this. Standing in the presence of reverent gentlemen on each side of me, let me say that faith is important in more matters than religion. No individual, no community, ever succeeded in accomplishing anything without it. The first step towards prosperity, whether individual or general, is the belief that we can accomplish it, and then a steady and honest acting out of that belief, is sure to bring it. Let us, as we love our country, give to it the benefit of this faith in its own eternal resources. We have to work out for ourselves a separate destiny on this continent, to build up an indipendent nationality. In the interests of our common humanity, it is better that there should be two great nations in North America, living together in friendly rivalry, and not one great overshadowing power, which, by its very magnitude, would be a constant menance to the world. This is our own manifest destiny, and if we have faith in ourselves we can accomplish it. The old Greeks sank soon as they lost self-confidence and self-pride, and Byron, who studied them well, has given us the cause of their downfall, in words as phylosophically as they are historically true :—

> "Enough, no foreign foe could quell
> The soul, till from itself it fell :
> Yes, self abasement paved the way
> For servile bonds and despot sway,"

We have every reason for faith and confidence. Within the last two years we have united four of the provinces into the Dominion of Canada. Already another, Newfoundland, has signified its readiness to come in. The great North West, "the fertile belt," will be incorporated in the Dominion during the next session of Parliament, and ere long we shall have the Pacific colonies as well. Thus with a confederation extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and posssessing within itself all the elements necessary for the formation of a great nation, what have we to fear? Surely with such prospects there was no ground for discouragement. So far from being awed into moral cowardice by the great nation alongside of us, we should rather be stimulated by their example of what energy and confidence will accomplish, to increase effort and a warmer patriotism on behalf of our country."—*Montreal Daily News.*

4. VALUE OF THE FUR TRADE OF CANADA.

The fur trade of the Dominion is one of considerable importance. Contrary to the general impression the catch of furs does not decrease with the settlement of the country. A change of the fur produced is all that takes place. Instead of the bear and the wolf, the mink and the muskrat are caught in stretches of land opened up by settlement. The animals requiring much cover recede, while the smaller and more numerous species take their places. There are now in the cultivated portions of Upper and Lower Canada more mink, martins, muskrats and fishers than there ever were in the most balmy days of the Hurons or the Algonquins. The reason is evident ; the larger animals cannot now prey upon the smaller creatures as the once could. The exportation of the most valuable furs has therefore increased very much within recent years. Strange as it may appear, it is nevertheless true that there are more baits set for fur bearing animals now by white people than there ever by the original sons of the forest. The professional white trapper is aided on all sides by the settler and the lumberman. The most important of all fur-bearing animals of Canada at present is the mink. The skin is small but fine, and costs from $3 to $5. It has for some years formed the staple material for ladies' goods, but shows signs of giving way in favour of South Sea seal and Persian lamb. The value exported during the last year may be set down at $200,000. A very large share enters it to local manufacture. The martin is a skin of similar size to the mink, bnt of much poorer quality. The ruling price during last season was $1 50. The whole product of the country is shipped to Europe. The number of skins caught in Canada may be estimated at sixty thousand to seventy-five thousand, and the value $80,000. The most abundant animal is the masquash. About one million of these small skins are obtained in a year. The fur, when dyed, is made into ladies' goods, and when exported is used instead of beaver for making beaver and felt hats. The value of the skins here is from 12½c. to 20c. The fox manages to elude the many traps set for his total destruction, and continues to swell the yearly catch of furs , as many as 15,000 to 30,000 are caught in a year. The price is, however low, $1 00 to $1 50. The skin is sold to the Greeks, who use it as trimmings for coats. Bears are now found only in outlying settlements, and the catch is comparatively unimportant. Lynx, fisher, otter, skunk, racoon and badger are all exported in moderate quantities. Of these, fisher and otter command the highest price. Beaver is largely used for home manufacture, as well as exported. The price per lb. has ruled from $1 to $1 50. Ladies' goods, capes, muffs, &c., are now being made from this skin when plucked. The business of exporting this is very speculative. In the case of war, luxuries are the first to fall in price, and next to diamonds furs are perhaps the most easily dispensed with. The caprice of fashion may, in one month, cause a decline in price utterly ruinous to the dealer. It is, however, necessary that some should be engaged in the enterprise, and, as in all other speculative business, there are those who come out of the exporting fur trade with a fortune secured.

The Hudson Bay Company sold at their London sales, on 19th January, 609 muskrat skins and 19,782 beaver skins. The following is the list of raw furs gathered at their various posts or forts in the Hudson Bay Territory, during the year 1868, and a large portion of which are now to be offered at their public sales, commencing March 5th :—

Muskrat	451,731
Beaver	118,982
Mink	61,484
Martin	59,073
Red Fox	17,117
Cross Fox	4,616
Silver Fox	1,225
White Fox	11,707
Lynx	59,470
Bear	4,970
Fisher	5,967
Otter	5,977
Skunk	6,520
Swan	517
Wolf	8,621
Wolverine	1,106
Rabbit	45,914
Badger	1,722

Thus far there has been but little change in the value of raw skins compared with last year's prices. Beaver and otter have maintained full rates. At the sales about to take place, the market value for the coming season will be established. Mink skins will not rule as high as formerly.—*Montreal Herald.*

VI. Financial and Other Papers.

1. SCHOOL SECTION SAVING BANKS.

From the fifth report of the Township of Vaughan Cent Savings Bank, we make the following extracts :—

"In Canada there are also many and peculiarly excellent means if the Legislature resolve to use them, for the beneficial, safe and easy establishment of such Savings' Banks at the different School Sections, or such groups of these as may find it convenient to unite for Bank purposes ; the Teachers devoting an hour once a week to receiving the cents from the children, and to a short lecture on the nature of such Banks, and the philosophy of saving and frugality, and the mighty effects that may be produced both to themselves and the country, by the aggregate of their smallest regular deposits, thus teaching the Alphabet or Accidence, so to speak, of Political economy, which the children of all schools will carry home and practically teach to their parents. And it should ever be remembered that this teaching or education is a truly importan and valuable part of the system we advocate.

The idea of any objections existing against the employment of School Teachers at the Savings Banks, from insolvency or changes at the defferent Sections is erroneous. Without entering at all on the vexed questions as to appointments of either School Teachers or School Trustees under the present or any system, the course to which we, though twenty miles distant from any established bank, have invariably adhered should be adopted, viz :—that every cent collected in one week, is regularly, at the very beginning of the next, remitted to some established Mercantile or public Banking company, and by them brought to the credit, not of each Savings Bank depositor, but of the Savings Bank whose Directors would

consist of the School Trustees and such other parties as may take an interest or be associated with them for Bank purposes. The receiving Teacher should, along with his remittance send a Duplicate page of his Day book to the Public Banking Company, (merely for safe custody and the better to vouch his particular transactions and the corresponding entries in the pupil's pass books) but he should never hold any cash balance in his hands, and all Ledgerizing should be done by a different teacher or gentleman appointed for the purpose. The Public Banking Companies too, should never hold more than regulated amounts of Savings Bank cash in their hands, but be obliged quarterly or oftener to transmit the whole surplus to the public Exchequer of the Dominion. This last provision would not prevent the Savings Banks Directors, in terms of any regulation and with the approval of the Government Officer, investing any surplus of their aggregate funds on sufficient security and interest to promote any public undertaking, improvements or local object.

It would also be erroneous to assume that, establishing any other Savings Bank whould necessarily be attended with as much preliminary or contingent expense as ours, for we have had to struggle with the inexperience and difficulties, arising from all proper Savings Banks being entirely and practically unknown in the Province, and the want of public legislation and inspection.—We had to print and circulate no small amount of reports and correspondence, and, as stated in a memorial by all our Directors, to the Postmaster General, under some impression that a share of the relief enjoyed by other Educational and public Institutions, could be equitably accorded to us, or our prospects might otherwise be frustrated, we are not yet, but hope still to be informed, that an Association truly designed and so well able as in Britain, to work harmoniously and beneficially to Post Office and all public banks themselves, and the progress of the country, will receive due consideration; neither was it possible, without power, to assure some remuneration for a sufficient future tract of time, to use the full assistance the Teachers are so well qualified to afford. But in these circumstances we are all the more bound to state, at present, our thanks to the Directors of the Vaughan plank toll gates for materially obviating the apprehended loss and diminishing the expense of communicating with depositors beyond their bars, for transmission of Pass Books and moneys, and to acknowledge the very kind and courteous way every Teacher in our neighbourhood stated his readiness gratuitously after school hours, to afford any assistanee we asked, and more especially to record the help and zeal of Messrs. Wallace and Burgess, who for a long time so efficiently acted as our Clerks and Accountant, and to thank Mr. N. C. Wallace for his letter, giving several useful details, and observations which we were gratified by the Editor of the *Journal of Education* for Upper Canada, publishing and favourably noticing in that valuable Official publication for January, 1868.

COST OF RECENT WARS.

The following curious statistics are published in a Paris paper, of the number of men killed in action between the years 1854 and 1868. The sum total in both continents of human beings sacrificed to Bellona is thus given: The war in the Crimea, 748,000; Italy, 44,000; Scheleswig-Holstein, 3,500; North America, 281,000; South America, 519,000; Germany, 45,000; Asia and Africa, 95,000; sum total, 1,736,400. The expenses amounted to 47 miliards 870 million francs, thus divided: Crimean war, 8,500,000,000f.; Schleswig-Holsterin, 18,000,000f.; North America, 23,500,000,000f.; South America, 11,000,000,000f.; Germany, 1,650,000,000f.; Asia and Africa, 1,000,000,000f.; total, 47,870,000,000f.

INTERESTING FACTS.

Glass windows were used for lights in 1222.
Chimneys first put up to houses in 1236.
Tallow candles for light, 1290.
Spectacles invented by an Italian in 1240.
Paper made from linen, 1302.
Woolen cloth made in England, 1341.
Art of printing from moveable type, 1440.
Watches first made in Germany, 1447.
Telescopes invented by Porta and Janson, 1450.
Tea first brought from China to Europe in 1501.
Circulation of blood discovered by Harvey, in 1610.
Newspapers first established in 1629.
Pendulum clocks first invented in 1639.
Barometer invented by Torricelle, in 1535.
Steam engine invented in 1649.
Bread made with yeast in 1650.
Cotton planted in the United States in 1759.
Fire engine invented in 1685.
Stereotyping invented in Scotland in 1784.
Telegraph invented by Morse in 1832.
The first deguerreotype made in France in 1839.

VII. Miscellaneous Friday Readings.

OVER AND OVER AGAIN.

Over and over again,
No matter which way I turn,
I always find in the Book of Life,
Some lesson I have to learn.
I must take my turn at the mill,
I must grind out the golden grain,
I must work at my task with a resolute will
Over and over again.

We cannot measure the need
Of even the tiniest flower,
Nor check the flow of the golden sands
That run through a single hour.
But the morning dews must fall,
And the sun and summer rain
Must do their part and perform it all
Over and over again.

Over and over again
The brook through the meadow flows,
And over and over again
The ponderous mill-wheel goes.
Once doing will not suffice,
Though doing be not in vain,
And a blessing, failing us once or twice,
May come if we try again.

The path that has once been trod,
Is never so rough to the feet;
And the lesson we once have learned
Is never so hard to repeat.
Though sorrowful tears may fall,
And the heart to its depth be driven
With storm and tempest, we need them all
To render us meet for Heaven.

OFFICIAL LIFE OF THE QUEEN OF ENGLAND.

In domestic life Her Majesty sets an example that the nobility and the wealthy classes may do well to imitate. The time not passed in the affairs of state are passed in domestic duties, for the queen eats no idle bread. Her breakfast hour is 8 o'clock. This is the social meal of England. The Queen meets her guests at the breafast table with the unaffected ease of a high born lady. Motherly, unaffected and considerate, all are put at their ease. Letters intended for her family and guests are put on the plate of each, and it is no breach of decorum to examine them. She is the woman of the household at her breakfast table, and not the queen of state. The dinner is a more formal, stately affair. The Queen attends personally to her household, to the employment and discharge of servants, to the expenses, the wages and all that pertains to the disbursement of funds. Sewing knitting, visiting the poor and sick, for Her Majesty always has a round that she goes, to employ the time not officially occupied. As a sovereign, she is the hardest worked woman in England. Her official duties usually commence at 7 o'clock in the morning, one hour before breakfast. Wherever she is, despatches are sent daily in by messengers, who ride in first class cars bearing what are called baskets. The papers from all the departments are submitted to her. These baskets are dark morocco boxes about a foot in length. These are sent from Downing street, the admiralty, the home department, the head of the army, &c. Each basket is locked by the minister who sends it. A card hanging from the inside contains the name of the minister. Every train to Windsor, Balmoral and Osborne carries messengers with these boxes. The Queen and the minister alone can unlock them. All these documents have to be read by her, for she signs nothing which she does not read. Every bill, act, treaty document, petition or paper requiring her name, are subject to her personal attention. Her Majesty is admitted to be one of the best business women in the kingdom. Each day's business is finished before the day closes. Usually the messenger waits and takes the basket, locked by Her Majesty, back to the minister from whom it came. The Queen holds a ready pen, and carries on her personal correspondence, which is very large. She pays her own postage like any lady in the land. She always gives personal attention to her children, and their religious training has been the object of much solicitude and care. Her favorite pastime at Balmoral is among the poor and lowly and the sick, with whom she talks, reads, prays, and leaves medicine, food, money and little tokens of her regard.—*Letter by Burleigh.*

VIII. Monthly Report on Meteorology of the Province of Ontario.

1. ABSTRACT OF MONTHLY METEOROLOGICAL RESULTS, compiled from the Returns of the daily observations at ten Grammar School Stations, for MARCH, 1869.

OBSERVERS:—*Barrie*—H. B. Spotton, Esq., M.A.; *Belleville*—A. Burdon, Esq.; *Cornwall*—J. L. Bradbury, Esq., M.A.; *Goderich*—James Preston, Esq.; *Hamilton*—A. Macallum, Esq., M.A.; *Pembroke*—J. W Connor, Esq., B.A.; *Peterborough*—Ivan O'Beirne, Esq.; *Simcoe*—James W. Wadsworth, Esq., M.A.; *Stratford*—C. J. Macgregor, Esq., M.A.; *Windsor*—J. Johnston, Esq., B.A.

STATION.	North Latitude. a	West Longitude. a	Elevation a: Above the Lake.	Elevation a: Above the Sea.	Barometer at temperature of 32° Fahrenheit. Monthly Means: 7 A.M.	1 P.M.	9 P.M.	MEAN.	Highest: Reading.	Date.	Lowest: Reading.	Date.	Range: Monthly.	Greatest in 24 hours.	Date.
	°	°	Ft.		Inches										
dBarrie	44.25	79.45	59	779	29.0183	28.9801	29.0030	29.0065	29.542	9 p.m. 24	28.556	1 p.m. 30	.986	.966	30—31
eBelleville	44.10	77.25	72	307	29.6326	29.6404	29.5980	29.6236	30.081	7 a.m. 22	29.160	1 p.m. 30	.921	.467	19—20
fCornwall	45.0	74.50	137	175	29.3202	29.3164	29.3390	29.3252	29.463	7 a.m. 22	28.729	1 p.m. 1	.734	.201	2—3
gGoderich	43.45	81.42	..	715	29.2596	29.2318	29.2243	29.2386	29.563	1 p.m. 24	28.777	7 a.m. 30	.786	.663	6—7
hHamilton	43.12	79.50	90	324	29.654	29.646	29.636	29.6453	29.993	7 a.m. 25	29.184	7 a.m. 30	.809	.585	25—26
iPembroke	45.50	77.10	..	400	29.2844	29.2125	29.2091	29.2353	29.791	7 a.m. 22	28.726	1 p.m. 30	1.065	.492	22—23
kPeterborough	44.20	78.25	..	629	29.303	29.274	29.277	29.285	29.740	7 a.m. 22	28.787	1 p.m. 30	.953	.526	25—26
l Simcoe	42.51	80.14	150	716	29.118	29.110	29.125	29.1175	29.481	9 p.m. 24	28.679	1 p.m. 10	.802	.452	4—5
kStratford	43.25	80.58	..	1182	28.7107	28.6997	28.6913	28.7030	29.024	7 a.m. 25	28.268	7 a.m. 30	.756	.574	5—6
mWindsor	42.20	83.00	..	620	29.4338	29.4019	29.4000	29.4149	29.764	9 p.m. 6	28.956	7 a.m. 30	.808	.675	5—6

STATION.	Temperature of the Air. Monthly Means: 7 A.M.	1 P.M.	9 P.M.	ME'N.	Mean Maximum.	Mean Minimum.	Mean Range.	Daily Range: Greatest.	Date.	Least.	Date.	Highest: Reading.	Date.	Lowest: Reading.	Date.	Monthly Range.	Warmest Day: Date.	Mean Temp.	Coldest Day: Date.	Mean Temp.	TENSI[illegible] Monthly Means: 7 A.M.	1 P.M.	9 P.M.	ME'N.
	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°		°		°		°		°		°		°				
dBarrie	19.77	29.59	21.78	23.72	36.85	11.51	25.34	40.0	17	9.6	31	50.1	27	-7.6	12	57.7	27	40.10	4	1.93	.098	.129	.113	.113
eBelleville	18.67	27.53	22.68	22.96	31.20	11.40	19.80	33.6	4	7.2	30	43.9	27	-7.6	22	51.5	27	38.46	5	5.80	.107	.146	.124	.126
fCornwall	15.52	25.88	19.87	20.42	31.20	8.21	22.99	39.7	3	7.3	30	51.9	29	-12.5	5	64.4	27	41.03	1	-1.7	.090	.124	.101	.105
gGoderich	19.13	26.81	23.32	23.08	32.24	12.83	19.41	33.7	4	7.8	6	53.2	29	-4.3	4	57.5	26	40.53	4	2.77	.102	.122	.118	.114
hHamilton	21.7	29.9	24.5	25.37	34.86	9.16	25.70	47.1	22	10.6	27	47.3	27	-8.4	5	56.2	27	41.3	4	9.3	.098	.120	.118	.112
iPembroke	8.62	22.73	19.14	16.83	33.23	0.41	32.82	48.3	5	10.2	36	45.7	29	-32.6	5	78.3	29	38.23	4	-0.70	.070	.097	.094	.087
kPeterborough	14.81	26.62	21.94	21.12	31.81	5.45	26.36	43.9	17	8.6	30	42.6	27	-19.6	1	62.2	29	39.43	4	0.76	.091	.132	.103	.109
l Simcoe	19.45	30.64	23.45	24.51	32.12	.....	.....	.....		.....		53.9	26	.....		.....	26	42.93	4	6.76	.098	.134	.108	.113
kStratford	16.68	25.37	20.37	20.81	29.46	9.52	19.94	37.1	4	6.2	27	42.1	26	-12.2	16	54.3	26, 27, 29	37.87	4	2.03	.095	.117	.106	.106
mWindsor	21.32	31.62	25.27	26.07	34.93	15.92	19.01	31.8	18	9.5	19, 24	59.0	20	-0.5	5	59.5	29	48.07	11	10.37	.113	.151	.130	.131

a Approximation. *d* On Lake Simcoe. *e* Near Lake Ontario (on Bay of Quinte). *f* On St. Lawrence. *g* On Lake Huron. *h* On Lake Ontario. *i* On the Ottawa River. *l* Close to Lake Erie. *m* On the Detroit River. *k* Inland Towns.

STATION.	Humidity of Air. Monthly Means: 7 A.M.	1 P.M.	9 P.M.	MEAN.	Winds. Number of Observations. Surface Current: North.	North East.	East.	South East.	South.	South West.	West.	North West.	Calm.	Total.	Motion of Clouds. a: North.	North East.	East.	South East.	South.	South West.	West.	North West.	Impercept.	Clear.	Total.
Barrie	83	76	88	82	4	..	5	3	6	3	10	18	32	81	..	..	1	..	..	..	3	8	55	14	81
Belleville	91	93	95	93	8	2	23	2	6	4	27	7	2	81	..	..	..	..	..	..	8	..	53	20	81
Cornwall	84	84	88	85	..	5	13	..	1	14	36	9	..	78	..	8	13	..	1	..	..	..	43	10	75
Goderich	87	78	85	83	10	2	5	26	18	3	5	8	4	81	3	2	1	8	4	5	6	1	32	19	81
Hamilton	75	68	80	75	..	9	2	..	..	32	..	..	38	81	..	4	..	..	..	26	2	..	28	21	81
Pembroke	90	73	83	82	6	2	13	13	6	8	13	18	1	80	2	..	..	1	2	1	12	2	58	2	80
Peterborough	86	79	82	82	6	3	3	1	5	7	20	9	27	81	2	1	..	..	1	4	18	9	26	10	81
Simcoe	80	74	77	77	6	5	3	1	2	12	16	18	18	81	1	1	2	1	1	10	2	8	55	..	81
Stratford	90	79	87	86	4	3	7	3	6	11	21	11	15	81	1	..	..	1	2	2	7	8	40	20	81
Windsor	88	80	89	86	8	6	7	3	9	18	10	17	3	81	1	1	..	..	..	1	7	15	40	16	81

STATION.	Estimated Velocity of Wind b. Monthly Means: 7 A.M.	1 P.M.	9 P.M.	MEAN.	Amount of Cloudiness. c Monthly Means: 7 A.M.	MEAN.	1 P.M.	9 P.M.	Rain: No. of Rainy Days.	Duration in hours.	Depth in inches.	Snow: No. of Snowy Days.	Duration in hours.	Depth in inches.	Total Depth of Rain and Melted Snow.	Auroras: Class I.	Class II.	Class III.	Class IV.	Sky unfavorable, obs. doubtful.	Sky unfavorable, obs. impossible.	Sky favorable, none seen.	When Observed.
Barrie	1.1	1.6	0.9	1.2	7.	6.	6.	6.	3	.....	.4810	7	......	17.25	2.2060	..	..	1	1	....	17	8	17th, 31st.
Belleville	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.1	6.7	6.2	6.8	6.58	4	39.30	1.061	13	64.30	24.30	3.491	..	1	..	..	....	19	7	31st.
Cornwall	1.1	1.1	1.07	1.09	7.7	6.35	5.9	6.65	..	.....	......	5	22.	16.	1.60	..	..	..	1	....	1	1	13th.
Goderich	2.3	2.7	2.1	2.4	7.4	7.0	6.2	6.8	3	7.	.3183	9	54.5	14.5	1.7683	..	..	..	1	....	16	10	31st.
Hamilton	0.6	1.2	1.0	.93	7.2	6.5	5.2	6.3	2	19.	.4965	7	70.	14.	1.8965	..	..	..	2	....	14	11	17th, 31st.
Pembroke	1.5	1.8	2.4	1.9	6.9	6.2	7.0	6.7	3	21.	.4741	13	30.	15.375	2.0116	..	..	2	7	....	16	1	11th, 31st III; 4th, 6th, 13th, 15th—18th IV.
Peterborough	1.14	2.19	1.19	1.51	7.3	7.07	5.96	6.78	4	58.8	.557	12	87.17	10.7	1.[illegible]27	..	..	1	1	3	16	6	31st III; 17th IV.
Simcoe	1.5	1.8	1.4	1.6	7.5	6.8	5.1	6.47	3	.....	.8081	7	......	9.00	1.7381	..	..	1	1	....	....	....	17th III; 6th IV.
Stratford	2.2	3.1	2.1	2.5	7.7	6.8	5.0	6.5	3	20.0	.4710	9	73.0	18.0	2.[illegible]710	1	1	..	..	....	17	12	17th II; 31st I.
Windsor	1.8	2.1	1.8	1.9	6.7	7.0	5.2	6.3	3	.....	......	8	......	......	2.5530	..	..	..	1	....	....	....	29th.

a Where the clouds have contrary motions, the higher current is entered here.
b Velocity is estimated, 0 denoting calm or light air; 10 denoting very heavy hurricane.
c 10 denotes that the sky is covered with clouds; 0 denotes that the sky is quite clear of clouds.

REMARKS.

BARRIE.—On 6th, storm of wind. 14th, great storm of wind began suddenly at 10 A.M.; continued blowing a heavy gale from the west all day. 17th, brilliant aurora; streamers perpendicular to arch; maximum brilliancy 9.45 P.M. 23rd, large lunar halo. Fogs, 26th, 29th. Snow, 6th, 10th, 12th, 13th, 14th, 22nd, 24th. Rain, 26th, 29th, 30th.

BELLEVILLE.—Snow, 2nd, 6th, 8th, 10th, 11th, 12th, 13th, 14th, 19th, 20th, 22nd, 23rd, 24th. Rain, 26th, 27th, 29th, 30th.

CORNWALL.—Snow, 10th, 13th, 20th, 30th, 31st.

GODERICH.—On 6th, flock of wild ducks flying N. 13th, small flock wild ducks flying W. 22nd, ice moved from shore. 23rd, large halo round moon. 24th, shooting star in NE at 10 P.M., falling at an angle of 45°, moving to W. 26th, robins seen. 29th, arc of rainbow in SW at 6 P.M. (sunset), extending from 20° to 35° above H; lasted 10 minutes; sun visible only part of time; no rain or sign of rain at or before the time. 30th, ice on River Maitland broke up; part near harbour still remaining; dry and wet bulb thermometers indicated same temperature at 9 P.M. March the coldest month of the winter; sleighing excellent; indications of a later spring than usual; very little maple sugar made.

HAMILTON.—On 1st, crows heard; seen on 17th. 27th, robin redbreast seen. High winds, 4th, 5th, 6th, 10th, 12th, 13th, 16th. Fogs,

26th, 28th, 29th. Snow 2nd, 5th, 6th, 10th, 12th, 19th, 20th. Rain, 26th, 29th. The month calm, with the exception of one or two stormy days. The coldest day was in 1866, 8th January, temp.—19°.5; 1867, 31st January and 12th December,—9°.9; 1868, 3rd February,—18°.5; 1869, 5th March,—8°.4; the 22nd and 23rd also went below zero,—5°.9. Indications of a late spring predominate.

PEMBROKE.—Lunar halo, 18th, 22nd. Shooting star near Z, course W to E, at 9 P.M., 31st. Wind storms, 4th, 9th, 14th, 20th, 22nd, 23rd. Slight fog, 18th. Snow, 2nd, 3rd, 4th (air thick with snow), 5th, 7th—10th, 12th—14th, 22nd, 30th. Rain, 26th, 29th, 30th. Nearly all the great snow storms have been less severe in this vicinity than farther down the Ottawa, and still less so farther up the river. The snow, however, has been very deep throughout the Ottawa Valley, and much square timber and a very great quantity of saw-logs will be left in the woods, owing to the difficulty of forwarding hay, &c. The Brockville and Ottawa R. R. was several times blocked up with snow, and since its being cleared the *cahots* have been a great obstacle to teaming. The ranges of temperature have been unusually great this month, and the snow melts very slowly. Small pox very prevalent in Pembroke and the surrounding country.

PETERBOROUGH.—Parhelion thin narrow strati north and south of sun, at 7.51 A.M.; very faint prismatic colors lasted for a considerable time. 16th, small solar halo at 1 P.M. 17th, large solar halo at 1 P.M.; narrow arch of faint auroral light at 9 P.M. close over NH. 22nd, well defined solar halo at 1 P.M. 29th, robins first observed; they came quite suddenly about 8.25 A.M. in a flock of about thirty. 31st, arch of auroral light, stretching from NNW to NNEH about 9.47 P.M., and for about 15 minutes afterwards occasionally spindles and small streamers appeared at E end of arch, which gradually disappeared, lights still remaining. Fogs, 12th and 17th. Snow, 2nd, 3rd, 5th, 6th, 10th, 11th, 12th, 13th, 19th, 20th, 22nd, 23rd. Rain, 26th, 27th, 29th, 30th. The low temperature—19°.6, reported on 1st, occurred on Saturday night, 27—28th February.

SIMCOE.—Storms of wind, 22nd, 30th, 31st. Snow, 1st, 6th, 10th, 12th, 13th, 19th, 22nd. Rain, 26th, 29th, 30th. Much cold and stormy weather this month. At 4 A.M., 18th, brilliant aurora, extending over one-third of the heavens.

STRATFORD.—On 20th, large lunar halo at 10 P.M. 24th, small colored lunar halo at 9 P.M. Storms of wind, 6th, 14th, 22nd, 30th. Fogs, 26th, 27th, 28th, 29th, 30th. Snow, 1st, 2nd, 6th, 7th, 10th, 12th, 19th, 22nd, 30th. Rain, 26th, 27th, 29th. Robins and other spring birds, 27th.

WINDSOR.—On 3rd, rainbow at 5.10 P.M. 16th, meteor from NE towards N. 18th, very large lunar halo. 20th, very large lunar halo. 21st, very large and distinct lunar halo. 24th, lunar halo. 26th, thaw carried off almost all the snow, and since 27th a little steamer has been plying between Detroit and Amherstburg, 18 miles distant. Large quantities of floating ice passing down the river. 28th, at 8 P.M. distinct and well defined lunar rainbow observed for 10 minutes; lightning, thunder and rain. Wind storms, 5th, 6th, 13th, 14th, 30th. Fogs, 9th, 19th, 26th, 27th. Snow, 2nd, 5th, 6th, 10th, 12th, 15th, 19th, 22nd. Rain, 25th, 28th, 30th.

IX. Educational Intelligence.

——VICTORIA UNIVERSITY.—The commencement exercises of this University took place in Cobourg this week, and proved highly satisfactory to the friends and the Institution. Indeed, it seems that these annual gatherings of friends from all parts of Canada proved more interesting every year. On Sunday evening, the Baccalaureate sermon was delivered by the Rev. W. M. Punshon, M.A., President of the Wesleyan Conference. The text was 1st Corinthians 12 chap. 31st verse—"But covet earnestly the best gifts, and yet show I unto you a more excellent way." He showed that however good the best gifts, such as great intellectual powers, wealth, fame, &c., may be, still spiritual grace and Christian charity were superior to all, the former enduring only for a time, while the latter are eternal. On Monday evening, the same gentleman delivered his celebrated lecture on the "Huguenots." The large audience present were held in the most rapt attention for an hour and a half, several of his incomparable delineations of character eliciting the most enthusiastic bursts of applause. On Tuesday afternoon at three o'clock, the annual address to the Alumni was delivered by the Rev. A. H. Reynar, M.A., Professor of Modern Language and English Literature, who chose for his subject the Relation of the Beautiful to the Good. It was an exceedingly finished composition. At the close of this address, the annual meeting of the Alumni Association was held. The election of officers for the coming year resulted as follows:—President, Rev. W. M. Punshon, M.A.; 1st Vice-President, J. J. McLaren, LL.B.; 2nd Vice-President, Dr. Brouse; Secretary, H. Hough, Esq., M.A.; Treasurer, J. W. Kerr, Esq., M.A.; Committee, Alumni resident in Cobourg; Lecturer for 1870, Dr. Caniff. At eight o'clock, between sixty and seventy gentlemen, members of the University and Alumni, sat down to a sumptuous dinner, provided by mine host of the Pauwel House. After doing ample justice to the eatables, the intellectual entertainment was commenced by the chairman (Mr. Punshon) proposing the usual loyal toasts, prefacing each with some eloquent remarks most appropriate to the subjects. A number of other toasts, suitable to the occasion, were proposed and responded to by the various gentlemen present. The Convocation was held in Victoria Hall on Wednesday afternoon at three o'clock. It is estimated that over a thousand people were present. Many had come from the Province of Quebec, and some from New Brunswick, while all parts of Ontario were represented. The following degrees were then conferred:—B.A.—Joseph A. Clarke, John W. Raveill, Thomas Colling, Moses McPherson, John Moore, Edwin S. Washington, John B. Wass. M.A.—Alfred H. Reynar, B.A., Hugh Johnston, B.A., Charles W. Stickle, B.A., A. R. Bain, B.A., Abraham Devitt, B.A., P. E. Moyer, B.A., Jonathan Pettett, B.A., Alexander Hardie, B.A. *Ad Eundem*—Asa F. Wallbride, B.A., of Queen's College, Kingston. LL.B.—David Ashby, Charles Barsalou, Stanislas Cote, Alexis Dessaiut, Joseph Daigneau, Oscar Desrosiers, John W. Frost, B.A., H, Gingras, Hermidas Jeanoote, Jos. Prime Mathieu, Pierre A. Mathieu, J. Alderic Ouimet, Pierre Poupart, Henri Pepin, Richard Quintal, A. A. Stockton, B.A., F. Villeneuve. M.D.—W. Anderson, G. Archambault, S. Ambuchon, J. M. Aylesworth, W. Bald, E. Boissy, R. P. Boucher, G. Brown, F. Butler, J. A. Carroll, T. Carter, C. L. Coulter, E. H. Dansereau, W. Ferron, P. O'Keefe, J. M. Platt, E. Plaute, J. A. A. Peltier, L. Proulx, J. Russel, W. B. Towler, G. B. Frazer, W. W. French, E. Gervais, P. Givoux, A. Graham, G. Halley, J. Hanley, W. T. Harrison, W. W. Hepworth, W. Henderson, E. Hurtubise, T. Kiernan, J. J. Kingston, S. Santoine, G. Stewart, P. H. Spohn, A. Tremblay, F. X. Trudel, W. W. Turver, A. S. Kirkland, E. Lachapelle, W. Lamontagne, J. Landot, A. Larose, W. B. Lindsay, W. M'Camus, T. Marchesseault, A. Munier, D. Mitchell, A. Moreau, P. B. Mignault, G. A. Neal, R. Ough, J. B. Tanguay, J. H. Watson, J. H. Webb, J. H. Widdifield, J. W. Wood. After this, Dr. Berryman addressed the medical graduates. The following prizes were then presented:—Prince of Wales Gold Medal—Joseph Adam Clarke. Prince of Wales Silver Medal—John William Raveill. The Ryerson Prize—Kenneth Dingwall. The Webster Prize—John Moore. The Hodgins Prize—Thomas Colling. The Cooley Prize—A. L. Russell. The Punshon Prize, founded by W. Kerr, Esq., M.A.—First in Elocution and Composition—John Moore. *Literary Association Prizes*—First English Essay—James Allen, Allan Bowerman, Kenneth Dingwall—*Equal*. First in Elocution—Thomas Colling. Second in Elocution—John Petch. Mr. Punshon was then called upon for an addrees, and, as usual, made a splendid speech. He gave a brief sketch of the past history of the College, and also referred to its splendid prospects in the future. We have not space to give a report of this eloquent address as we should like, and must therefore omit much that would no doubt prove interesting to our readers. The *Conversazione* in the evening was held under the auspices of the Literary Association. Some five hundred ladies and gentlemen were present. The evening was principally put in by promenading and social chat. The band supplied excellent music to the time of which the promenading was done.—*Toronto Evening Tribune.*

——WOODSTOCK LITERARY INSTITUTE.—Having been appointed to attend the Examination of the Literary Department, we present the following Report:—"We were present at the examination of almost every class, and must express our pleasure with the results as a whole. But as the work of the past term has been much interrupted by an unusual amount of sickness amongst both teachers and pupils, we will not attempt to enter into details. We were disappointed at not finding several pupils—especially among the ladies—who last year gave promise of becoming good students, but who, like some others, have left their course half completed. The plan adopted last year of giving some time and attention to drill in the Junior Classics, has been attended with very good results; and a more complete staff of teachers would enable the faculty to show even more satisfactory results in that and other subjects. We are glad to learn that there is a good prospects of in-

creased accommodation for the increasing number of pupils, with an addition to the number of teachers. These extensions are much needed, and we are confident they will pay—to say nothing of the relief to the teachers, and the increased thoroughness of the training. The course marked out for both the Male and Female Departments is liberal and well arranged; with increased teaching facilities, and a rigid adherence to the prescribed course in the case of each pupil, the best results will follow. We found the teachers very much devoted to the interests of the institute, very painstaking and laborious; indeed in some cases we think it would be for the advantage of both teacher and student if more energy could sometimes be infused into the students, if he could be kept under the continual consciousness that exact, thorough preparation was expected and demanded of him, and that—whatever the teacher might do towards himself—he meant to spare no one else. Not the least pleasant, even if the most laborious, part of our duty was the giving of a written examination to Candidates for General Proficiency Prizes. Through the generosity of some friend eight prizes varying from $5 to $15 were given; a First and Second Prize in each of the three years of the higher course; as also in the second year, without "Classics." After a pretty severe examination, they were awarded as follows:—First year—1st prize, J. P. McEwen; 2nd prize, S. Challon. Second year—1st prize, J. Bates; 2nd prize, J. C. Tichworth. Those of the Second year "without classics," were taken by two ladies: 1st prize, A. M. Bell; 2nd prize, A. McConnell. Third year—1st prize, A. Turnbull; 2nd prize, D. W. C. Troy. In addition to these, prizes in books, for English Composition, were distributed by the Alumni Association to E. W. Dadson, Sophy McGinn, Adelia McConnell, and an extra one in the same subject to Sarah M. Bodwell. J. M. Bates carried of the first and W. B. Underhill the second of the prizes annually offered by the Principal, for Public Speaking. The progress manifested throughout these and the other examinations was greater than we expected, considering the disadvantages under which all had laboured during the term. (Signed,) J. C. YULE, JOHN W. CLARK.

X. Departmental Notices.

TABLET READING LESSONS.

The new Tablet Reading Lessons, consisting of thirty-three large sheets, can be obtained at the Depository at 75 cts. per set; at $1.00, free of postage; or $4.50, mounted on cardboard. The 100 per cent. is allowed on these lessons when ordered with maps and apparatus, &c.

TRUSTEES' SCHOOL MANUAL.

In reply to numerous applications for the Trustees' School Manual, we desire to intimate that a new edition of the School Acts is now ready. Single copies, 35 cents, including postage. New School Sections will be supplied gratuitously.

CANADIAN DOMINION DIRECTORY FOR 1870–71.

[We most cordially direct the attention of the readers of the *Journal* to the following prospectus of the proposed "Canadian Dominion Directory for 1870-71," about to be published by Mr. John Lovell, the enterprising publisher of Montreal. In Mr. Lovell's hands, the public may rely upon it that this extensive work will be well prepared and carefully printed. We sincerely hope Mr. Lovell will meet with the success which his industry and enterprise so fully warrant. Mr. Lovell says:—"It is proposed to circulate not less than TEN THOUSAND COPIES of the Directory. *If undertaken*, the work will involve an expenditure of about $75,000. My aim is to produce a work of national utility—a reliable medium of communication between merchants in the several Provinces and abroad—a guide and hand-book to intending emigrants, and to show at a glance the extent and importance of our 'New Dominion.'"]

The following is the prospectus:—

CANADIAN DOMINION DIRECTORY
FOR 1870–71.

The Subscriber proposes to issue in September, 1870, if sufficient support by Subscriptions and Advertisements can be obtained to cover the cost of publication, a CANADIAN DOMINION DIRECTORY, comprising the Provinces of ONTARIO, QUEBEC, NOVA SCOTIA, and NEW BRUNSWICK; to which will be appended the Provinces of NEWFOUNDLAND and PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND. The Directory will contain the Names of Professional and Business Men, and of the principal Inhabitants in the Cities, Towns, and Villages, together with a large amount of general information, including Alphabetical Directories of Post Offices and Postmasters, Banks, Governmental Departments and *Employees*, Houses of Parliament, Law Courts, Educational Departments, Custom Houses and Officers of Customs, Ports of Entry, Tariffs of Customs, List of Patents of Inventions, Canals, Railways, *Railway and Steamboat Routes*, Benevolent and Religious Societies, Clergy of all Denominations, Registrars with their Divisions, Newspapers and Periodicals, &c., &c.; also, Statements of Imports and Exports, Revenue, Expenditure, Trade, Population, &c., &c.

To be corrected to August, 1870.

The CANADA DIRECTORY for 1857–58, published by the Subscriber, contained the Names of the Principal Inhabitants in 1,339 Cities, Towns, and Villages in Upper and Lower Canada. The CANADIAN DOMINION DIRECTORY for 1870–71 will contain a short description of at least 3,500 Cities, Towns and Villages in the Dominion of Canada, and the Provinces of Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island, together with the Names of the Professional and Business Men and of the principal Inhabitants.

TERMS OF SUBSCRIPTION:

Dominion of Canada Subscribers		......$12 Cy.	per copy
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France, Germany, &c.	do	......£3 Stg.	do

RATES OF ADVERTISING will be made known on application to the Publisher.

No Money to be paid until the Work is delivered.—This notice is given for the reason that unprincipled men have, on several occasions, canvassed for and obtained moneys *in advance*, on account of Books which they falsely represented me as being about to publish.

Persons desirous of aiding in the Publication of the CANADIAN DOMINION DIRECTORY, for 1870-71 will please send in their orders for SUBSCRIPTIONS and ADVERTISEMENTS to

JOHN LOVELL, *Printer and Publisher.*

23 and 25 St. Nicholas Street,
Montreal, May, 1869.

RUTTAN'S

VENTILATING STOVES,

HEALTH, COMFORT AND ECONOMY.

These may certify that the Board of School Trustees for the City of Toronto put up December, 1867, in their new School House, on Elizabeth Street, four of Ruttan's Air Warming or Ventilating Stoves, say one in each School Room. These stoves were in regular use, during school hours, until fires were discontinued, about the beginning of the month of May, and they have given full satisfaction in every respect. Although the weather was severe and prolonged, the Ruttan Stoves kept the school rooms comfortably warm, while the ventilation at the same time was thoroughly good. These Stoves are also very economical in fuel, as is proved by the fact that the four in question consumed only two and a half cords of wood each, during the above mentioned period of time.

(Signed) W. W. OGDEN, M.D.
Chairman Com. School Buildings.
G. A. BARBER,
Secretary, B. S. T.

Toronto, September 15th, 1868.

ADDRESS—JOHN BOXALL, QUEEN STREET WEST, TORONTO.