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THE ADVANTAGES OF A SYSTEM OF COMMON SCHOOLS.

Suppose the State undertake to provide for this responsibility, in what way shall this be done?

- 1. Leaving those who are able to educate their own children to their own voluntary action, the State may simply provide the means of paying for the education of the poor in such schools as may be furnished by private individuals. In this case there is no certainty—and there is no provision made—that there shall be schools at all. If individuals establish schools for their own benefit, the State may ask the privilege of using them, such as they are, for her poor. If individuals neglect the education of their own children, and so decline to sustain any schools at all, why the State's poor must be uneducated, too. Practically, such a system is worth very little; and yet this is the present system of education in Georgia. What provision she makes for even this pretence will hereafter appear.
- 2. Or, the State may, at at its own expense, establish and sustain schools exclusively for the poor, leaving the rest, as before, to their own voluntary action. This system, unless the poor could be congregated at specified points, would involve an enormous expense for the education of comparatively few, while no assistance or encouragement would be extended to the cause of general education. In addition to this and other difficulties that have always rendered such an attempt entirely abortive, it raises, at once, an invidious distinction between the rich and the poor, which, in this country, would totally defeat the

design. Ragged schools, as they are significantly called, may be sustained in the crowded cities where abject poverty does its perfect work; but in our country, generally, they are utterly hopeless.

3. Or, the State may provide by law for the organization of schools sufficient for the wants of the whole population, to be supported at the public expense, and open alike to all the children of the State. This is the common, or Public School system. And if the theory can be embodied in practice, it evidently provides the certain means of an universal education.

The only preliminary question as to the system seems to be, whether this is a subject matter over which the State ought to assume jurisdiction? And the answer to this question must depend upon another—whether general education be a matter of such paramount interest to the whole population, that its absence or neglect will involve a serious damage to the commonwealth? And it seems to me there can be but one answer to this question.

The orderly administration of the government, in its three distinct departments, is of vital importance to the people, and therefore the State assumes jurisdiction over the subject in all its details. Passable roads and bridges are indispensable to the public convenience and safety, and hence the State assumes jurisdiction over that entire subject. General health and morality are matters of public interest, and therefore the State assumes jurisdiction over them. So of various other matters. Now, surely general education is not inferior to these in importance, in whatever aspect it may be viewed. In fact, our constitution distinctly recognises this truth, and provides for it accordingly. All that is required, therefore, is, that the Legislature carry out the injunctions of the constitution. And if it be a public blessing vouchsafed in that fundamental charter of our political organization, the public voice should imperatively demand its entire fulfilment.

I presume it was never thought of, that the State should assume entire control over the matter of education, to the exclusion of parental wishes or convenience. This course is indeed pursued in despotic governments, but it is never contemplated in ours. Nor is it supposed that the State will prevent the establishment of other institutions of learning than those under its own control. Its duty stops with providing the means of proper education for all, so far at least as is necessary to qualify them for their duties and responsibilities as men and as citizens, and with laying before them suitable inducements to avail themselves of this privilege. Ample room would still be left for all that individual taste or preference could desire. Let me now advert to a few of the arguments by which such a system of public instruction is recommended:

1. It destroys the invidious distinction between the rich and the poor, which is perpetuated by the Poor School system; and which, in this country, has always rendered that system odious, and therefore useless. Whether right or wrong, this feeling exists. Even a child revolts at the thought of being singled out as an inferior, and especi-

ally of being placed in such a situation as will perpetually recall the sense of that inferiority. In fact, such a course destroys one of the strongest incentives to virtuous and honorable effort. There are distinctions in human society, and it is wrong to foster any other spirit than that which belongs properly to the station of each. common school system liable to objection on this ground.

The State, as a kind foster-parent, places her children here on an equality, and affords them alike the means of earning that only distinction which is worthy of being remembered—superior intelligence and virtue. Every thing in the gift of the State she offers alike to the aspirations of the rich and the poor, and she offers to both precisely the same means of reaching that goal. The mere difference of birth or fortune is left entirely out of view. Education, conducted in such circumstances, tends very greatly to promote a generous and fraternal spirit in the social relations of mankind—to repress an aristocratic pride and disdain on the one hand, and a degrading sense of interiority on the other-and thus to draw more closely the bonds of brotherhood. If any objection be raised on the score of degrading and vicious association, let it be remembered that vice and degradation are found among the rich as well as the poor. And, therefore, if any one be too vile for common association, let him be excluded from the common privilege for his vice alone, and not for his poverty. And for the reclamation of such, let there be educational penitentiaries established.

2. The common school system interests every class of citizens alike in the existence and prosperity of the schools, and thus brings the combined intelligence and means of the State to bear directly on the common cause. In this way the selfishness of men is converted to the public good. Every one who has had experience knows how very difficult it is to establish and sustain good schools, because of the ignorance of some, the indifference of some, and the penuriousness of others. The result of all this often is, that the right-minded part of the community, who have the ability, withdraw from all such attempts, and set up schools of right character for their own children. And they cannot be blamed for this step, although it is otherwise when they thus withdraw from mere unwillingness to associate with others in the common cause. But, then, the rest of the community being deprived of their counsel and assistance, are sufferers to the same extent, and the consequences fall upon their children.

Now, although this evil may not be entirely obviated, it certainly is greatly mitigated, by the common school system. Under it, every one must contribute his proportion to the common cause, and all that an intelligent interest can contribute for the advantage of one child must equally redound to the advantage of all. And then, too, as every one is obliged to bear his part in the common expense, he is much more likely to avail himself of the common advantage for the education of his children. Thus many good schools must exist where otherwise none would have existed at all, and multitudes of children be trained tor virtue and usefulness, who would otherwise be doomed to hopeless ignorance. And this is a point gained of inestimable value to the

cause of general education.

3. This system opens the higher sources of education to every class of children, and thus develops the mental resources of the whole State. How many bright intellects are but half revealed for want of training them to their full capacity! True, in some of these the fire of genius burns so intensely, that no untowardness of circumstances can quench it. But yet there is many a mind of the most substantial endowments, and which has fully come up to the measure of its advantages, but still requires the genial warmth of a brighter sun to develop its full maturity. This is particularly the case with many of the poorer class, who have no means of prosecuting their education in the higher seminaries of learning. If blessed with these advantages, they would display mental powers of the highest order.

Now, if judiciously organized, and wisely administered, the common school system provides for this deficiency. It is a mistake often made, and from which a prejudice arises against the system, that it provides for the lower branches only of what is called an English education. Even if it stopped at this point, it would be a great advance upon the present condition of things, when thousands cannot read at all, and thousands more read so imperfectly as to be scarcely the better for it. To be taught to read the English language readily and intelligently, would at once give the young mind an easy access to all the rich and varied stores of knowledge and refinement which that language con-

tains.

But I repeat, this is an error. The system of public instruction contemplates a connected gradation of schools, embracing all the literary and scientific instruction provided in our best institutions below the Universities. Now, It is true that all would not avail themselves of the entire advantages here presented; but yet the schools would be open alike to all, and bring the best means within the reach of all. And it is evident at a glance, that nothing short of this can open the fountains of general knowledge to the general mind. Hence the mental resources of the State are but partially developed. If such advantages were offered for revealing the mental wealth of the State, scores of youth would be discovered, whose quenchless desire for improve-

ment would lead them on through our Colleges, and whose matured talents would adorn and bless the world in all the departments of

mental beauty and grandeur.

4. This system, in a good degree, equalizes the expense of general education, and would afford the same advantages to all, at a cost not exceeding the present partial system. General education is unquestionably a public blessing. It brings with it a real and substantial good, of which every one in the community is a partaker. It diminishes idleness and crime and pauperism, and thus relieves a part of the expense which these always devolve upon the public. It affords increased security to life and property. It develops and renders available the manifold resources of the country, and thus increases the means of general prosperity. It elevates the character of society, and thus increases the means of social happiness to every citizen.

Now, surely, it is no hardship—nay, it is right that every one should bear his part in promoting this public good. It is true, however, that many contribute nothing, who have abundant means to do so. And even among those who do something, there is a wide disproportion among those of equal means. And this fact not only throws a heavier burden on the few who are determined, at any cost, to educate their own children, but leaves large numbers either unprovided for, or sup-

plied to a very imperfect extent.

Now, the common school system, when under a thorough organization, provides, in a large degree for this evil. Every one is required to pay his just proportion according to his means, and no more. Then, too, when the entire population is judiciously organized, and the schools are properly arranged and conducted by competent teachers, a much larger result may be accomplished by the same means. There is an actual economy in the arrangement. Under such a system the entire educational wants of the State can be supplied, while the tax assessed for that purpose will be less to the individual than is now paid by the majority of those who pay school bills.

Such are a few of the arguments in favor of the common school system. That there are objections to the plan, is readily admitted; but they can by no means overturn the arguments in its favor. It is

based upon these three strong positions:

1. The magnitude and importance of the work to be accomplished. 2. That there is no reliable means of carrying it into complete and universal effect, beside those here suggested—under the authority of the State.

3. That the objections and difficulties in the way of this mode of operation are fewer and more readily surmounted than those which

lie against any other plan heretofore suggested.

These propositions need no elaboration now; they must suggest themselves as true to the mind of every one who deliberately investigates the whole subject. Every argument on the other side necessarily involves the abandonment of the great end proposed—the universal spread of education .- Southern School Journal.

THE RELATION OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

The following extracts from a Report of Prof. Andrews, of Marietta, Ohio, upon the relation between schools and colleges, contain so much good sense upon this subject, that we are very glad to republish them. They are from the Ohio Journal of Education.

"Another principle universally recognized, is, that there must be classification—classification of schools as well as in schools. The schools themselves must be arranged in classes, as well as the pupils in a particular school. There is no one feature more prominent than this, by the best instructors in the nation. Its introduction into our towns has wrought a most wonderful transformation. There would be elementary schools for beginners, then others of higher and higher grades, till ample provision should be made for the general education

of every child and youth in the State.

"We should not expect that each pupil would complete the whole curse. Yet the number that would attempt this would be in proportion to the completeness of the classification, and to the excellence of the instruction in the elementary departments. Nor do we now ininquire how many or how high grades should be established in any individual township, town, or city; we affirm only that, somewhere, institutions should be provided, in which the wants of all might be met. To equalize perfectly the advantages of any system would be manifestly impossible. The more dense the population, the more complete the classification could be made. In the most sparsely settled regions, after progressing as far as their neighbourhood schools could carry them thoroughly and economically, the more studious would seek admission into the High School or Academy of the nearest large town. And if any should wish to make acquisitions beyond what the High School could furnish, they must repair to institutions of a higher grade.

Thus far our supposed system. Now, taking the State as a whole, have we not substantially the system already, so far at least as this feature of classification is concerned? Is there not provision for the child from his entrance into the primary school, until he shall have tinished the whole range of studies deemed necessary to a liberal education? I do not say that these schools, of whatever grade, are in every particular, precisely what they should be, but that the institutions exist which profess to furnish, each in its sphere, all that a finished general education requires.

From what has been said, we cannot mistake as to the connection between schools and colleges. Colleges constitute the highest grade of our non-professional educational institutions. They are an integral part of the system, sustaining to the high school and academy precisely the same relation which these sustain to the lower schools. "Until recently, all non professional institutions have been arranged

"Until recently, all non professional institutions have been arranged in three divisions—common schools, academies, and colleges. Of these three, the college has been much the most specific in its character. It has undertaken a more definite work than either of the others. In them a much greater variety of attainment has always been found. The academy has admitted multitudes that ought to have been in the school, and the school has been compelled to retain many that should have been found in the academy. In practice, there has been no boundary line between them, except in the case of a very few of our best academies. But the college has always had its boundaries on either side. It has required a definite amount of literary attainment for entrance, and the completion of the prescribed course of study is the completion of the student's connection with it. The inmates of the college have also been required to arrange themselves in classes, that the instruction might be rendered as efficient as possible, by giving ample time to the recitations, and by permitting the instructors to confine themselves to particular branches. Thus, colleges have ever confirmed to the two great features of classification.

conformed to the two great features of classification.

"The other departments of what I have called general education are now beginning to follow the example of the college, in the matter of classification. Formerly, the common school and the academy had no limitation in the range of studies. The pupil might enter when he chose, and remain as long as he chose. And so long as his teacher chose to hear him, he might study what he chose. Thus, the teacher was sometimes required to pass from a recitation in the primer to one in Virgil—from one in the elements of numbers to one in Trigonometry. But an improvement has commenced. The principle of division of labor, so long in use in our colleges, is beginning to be applied to schools. Most of our towns have their graded schools, each possessing a definite course of study, which the pupil must complete before he can pass on to the next higher; and when he has completed it, he must pass on. The advantages of this arrangement are so manifest in theory, and in its practical workings it combines so fully both economy and efficiency, that no doubt can be indulged of its general prevalence.

"It is sometimes said that 'Colleges are behind the age.' It is one

of the most general of all generalities, and may mean anything or nothing. Whatever may be intended by it when applied to colleges, we have seen that one of the greatest improvements introduced into our schools has been adopted from the colleges; so that, if they are behind the age, they at least have the Union Schools to keep them company.

The college then is, chronologically, the last school in our general school system. Using the most general classification and nomenclature, we have five departments—the primary, the secondary, the grammar school, the high school, and the college, occupying from two to four years each. They all have the same end in view, and differ only in the order of succession. Some think that colleges are intended specially for professional men; and so many think that high schools and academies are for the special benefit of the rich. The two opinions are deserving of equal credit. From the day the boy commences the alphabet to the day that terminates his collegiate course of study, he is pursuing those studies which the intelligent voice of mankind has pronounced to be the best adapted to the development of his intellectual faculties. Examine the course of study in all the best union schools in Ohio, and you will find a remarkable similarity. Go to other States, and it is still the same. Whence has it arisen? Manifestly from the conviction, in the minds of intelligent men engaged in the work of instruction, that these studies, each in its place, are just what the pupils require.

If, as I have before supposed, the whole school system were to be re-constructed, should we not have substantially the same grades as now exist? It would hardly be affirmed that the highest grade is unnecessary, because some of our young men are too highly educated. Nor would it be said that the studies of that grade could be better pursued without instructors. Professional education is obtained by the aid of teachers, and that, in most of the professions, at a very heavy expense. Much more, then, does general education, which precedes professional, require instructors.

What institutions shall furnish the closing portion of a good general education? Were our high schools to attempt it with their present organization, they would violate the principle which lies at the basis of graded schools. Give them a large corps of instructors, and increase the time to six or eight years, and they might do it. In that case,

however, they must be divided into at least two grades; the upper of which would be, in substance, a college. But, except in the case of our large cities, the expense of such an arrangement would be an insuperable obstacle. The metropolitan city is now making the experiment with her Free Academy, and we doubt not that it will be subsciences full.

But even if all our large cities had institutions of the highest grade for their own youth, they could not meet the wants of the citizens of our towns and townships. Parents would not send their children to the cities. There must be institutions, located at eligible points, to meet these wants. We have them already, and they are called colleges. What link is wanting in the system? It may be enlarged and perfected, but it now seems to be a continuous system—an uninterrupted succession of links.

I have dwelt more upon the relation of colleges to the other parts of the system, because of the vagueness which exists in the minds of not a few, as to the precise place which colleges occupy in our educational machinery. If the view now presented is the true one, the college is the highest of our institutions for general education, as distinct from professional. The culture which it gives may be more essential to certain occupations than to others, but it is because these require a higher culture. In this, it is not peculiar. It is the same from the beginning of the school course. Especially is it true of the high school and academy. But who calls these professional? Or what teacher, who is worthy of the name, would hesitate to affirm that the studies of the high school would be of incalculable value to every lad, no matter what might be his future employment? From beginning to end, through every stage of the successional process, which commences in the primary school and closes with the college, the culture is intended for the future man, as man—as a being endowed by his Creator with noble faculties, which need development; and not for him as a merchant, or a farmer, or a lawyer, in distinction from the other pursuits of life.

pursuits of life.

"Once more: Colleges repay the schools by scattering abroad through the community a class of men who are always found to be the warmest supporters of good schools. Liberally educated men, without exception, are anxious that their children should be well instructed. They are always foremost in employing well qualified instructors, and most ready to give them an adequate compensation. Their countenance and support may be depended upon when the teacher has to contend with the prejudices of the narrow-minded and the ignorant. Their judicious suggestions for the improvement of his school, will always meet his approbation and encouragement. When our noble system of free schools is attacked by the demagogue under the plea of economy, the educated man will be found among its most earnest and successful defenders."

(Remarks by the U. C. Journal of Education)

The above remarks are from a report by a Professor of one of the Colleges in Ohio, on the "Relation of Schools and Colleges.". What he states as a general and acknowledged fact in Ohio, ought to be a fact in Upper Canada. Not one of our Colleges would be in existence, were it not for support directly or indirectly received from Public Grants. Every person who has been educated in them, owes a duty to his country which he sadly disregards when he keeps aloof from, or neglects, or is not active in advocating or promoting, the general educational interests of his neighbourhood.

JOHN GUTENBERG, INVENTOR OF PRINTING.

From the French Correspondent of the New York Observer.

Preliminary Remark.—Birth and early years of John Gutenberg.—
His first and unsuccessful attempt in Strasburg.—Return to Mentz.
His connection with John Fust.—New disappointments.—Books
published by Gutenberg.—His last years.—Rapid progress of Typography.

A learned French writer, M. Augustus Bernard, has given to the public a work in two octavo volumes, on the origin and commencement of Printing in Europe. He has applied himself particularly to collect new information upon the life and labors of John Gutenberg, the celebrated inventor of an art which has changed the face of the modern world. I have thought that a brief sketch of this biography would be acceptable to your readers, for we must all feel a desire to know the life of a man who, by his wonderful discovery, has been one of the benefactors of mankind.

JOHN GUTENBERG was born at Mentz, on the Rhine, about the year 1400. Observe that Germany was destined, in the mysterious counsels of God, to be at once the cradle of printing and that of the Reformation. These two events are strictly connected together. Without Gutenberg, Luther perhaps would not have undertaken his glorious work, or at least would not have been so successful. But to return to our subject. He belonged to a patrician family. His name was Gensfleisch, but he took afterwards the name of Gutenberg from an estate of his mother's.

Though he was of noble birth, he never had the advantage of being rich. So far from it, he struggled all his life against pecuniary embarrassments; and in this respect he shared the lot of most inventors, who after endowing their fellow-men with marvellous wealth, reap none of it for themselves nor their families. It would seem as if the only wages allowed these geniuses is fame. As for money, it is the portion of vulgar imitators, who have more cunning than talent.

In 1420, civil discords forced young Gutenberg to quit Mentz with some other members of noble families. He sought refuge in Strasburg, which was at that time a free imperial city, and enjoyed great prosperity. Here he married. Several years he passed in retirement and meditation. It would seem that he was already occupied in new discoveries; for we see that, in 1486, he had associated with Andrew Dritzchen and other individuals, to disclose to each other the secrets they had found. A lawsuit which occurred between the members of the association after Dritzchen's death, explains what were these secrets. The first was a new method of cutting and polishing precious stones. The second was plated looking glasses, which became a substitute for metallic mirrors, till then used. Lastly, the third secret, much the most mysterious, related to typography. But the witnesses, on being interrogated, expressed themselves ambigiously, either from ignorance, or from unwillingness to reveal to the public the secret with which they were entrusted. All that we know from the report of the trial is that the question was about presses made by a carpenter, lead types, forms, and other objects belonging to printing. This trial took place in 1489; and from this fact, the city of Strasburg pretends to the honor of having given birth to the art of printing. It seems to me that this pretension is groundless. Gutenberg was not a citizen of Strasburg; he had only sought there a temporary asylum. Besides, his first attempts had not produced any definite results. No printed book existed at that time. But the city of Strasburg persists in its claim; and in 1840 erected a bronze statue to Gutenberg in a public square. We have nothing to say upon the erection of the statue; the inventor of printing certainly deserved such an bonor.

In the trial just mentioned, the heirs of Andrew Dritzchen claimed of Gutenberg the restitution of a sum of money their relative had to aned him. In vain poor Gutenberg replied that this money had been spent in the common enterprise, and that it was not right to make him bear all the expense of attempts which had not succeeded; the magistrates of Strasburg, not knowing that they had a great man at the foot of their tribunal, condemned him to pay all that the heirs of Dritzchen demanded; and Gutenberg decided, about the year 1444, to return to Mentz, with nothing in the world—nothing but his noble genius and his unshaken hope.

He had a fixed thought, namely, to find means of multiplying, cheaply and expeditiously, the copies of books. Already some incomplete attempts had been made by others, especially by LaurentCoster, of Harlem; hence, Holland claims in her turn the honour of having been the cradle of printing. These attempts, I repeat it, were quite insufficient. The only thing known and practised before Gutenberg was zylography, or the art of printing on wooden blocks, into which the letters were cut. But the works produced by zylography were rather collections of coarse engravings, with two or three lines of text, than books properly called. The pages could not be printed but on one side, and never would it be possible, by this crude method, to multiply copies of voluminous writings.

Gutenberg then returned to Mentz, and after the most patient meditations, he succeeded in inventing what he sought so long. But a great difficulty stopped him; he had not money! How could he

bring out his invention? In this penury he applied to a certain John Fust, commonly called Faust, for the necessary sum. This Faust was a jeweller, a money broker and banker, who sought in everything not to do good to his neighbor but to increase his own fortune. And yet, John Fust's or Faust's name has become illustrious! he shares with Gutenberg the glory of the discovery of printing! he even made large profits which the real inventor failed to make. It is the same case as that of Christopher Columbus and Americus Vespucius. The poet Virgil characterizes this fact: Sic vos, non volis, &c.

John Fust, the capitalist, consented, in 1450, to lend Gutenberg 800 florins on the following conditions: 1st, an annual interest of 6 per cent: 2d. a mortgage on all the instruments and stock of the establishment which should become the lender's property in case the invention was unsuccessful; 3d. a part in the profits of the enterprise, if it succeeded. You see that John Fust risked little, and had stipulated for sufficient advantages for himself.

Gutenberg then set resolutely to work. At the end of two years, the 800 florins were absorbed, and he determined to apply again for money to his associate. Fust was dissatisfied, and showed his ill humor in sharp words. Still as he had engaged in the enterprise, he consented to lend a second sum of 800 florins, adding that he would not advance another farthing more. But Gutenberg reached the harbor; he could shout with enthusiasm, like Æneas's companions: Italiam! Italiam!

In 1456, according to the most probable conjectures, appeared the famous Latin Bible in folio, printed in double columns, in moveable metallic type. The copies of this Bible are very rare. The library of Paris possesses two of them; one on parchment, the other on paper. At the end of each copy is an inscription written by the hand and dated in the month of August 1456. The capital letters and heads of chapters are also written by the hand. The name of the printer and the place of publication are not indicated. Gutenberg feared his secret would be divulged. Further, being of noble birth, he dared not avow publicly that he cultivated a mechanic art. Strange prejudice, which to us seems ridiculous! Gutenberg thought it derogatory and humiliating to be called the inventor of printing! Who would now know his name, if he had not been a printer? But it was his weakness; and throughout his life, he carefully remained anoymous.

The Bible which had cost so much pains and expense, was sold slowly. Manuscript copies were preferred, because they admitted more embellishments than that of Gutenberg. This caused Fust anxiety, and the capitalist instituted a suit against his unhappy debtor.—He sued for the sum of 2,020 florins,—neither more nor less,—that is to say, the advances he had made, with the interest accumulated. In accordance with the terms of the contract, Gutenberg was condemned, stript of his materials and almost reduced to beggary. John Fust then associated himself with an intelligent and devoted young man, Peter Schoeffer, who has also been considered one of the inventors of printing. These two men to whom the court had awarded Gutenberg's instruments and metalic types, founded a large establishment, published in 1457 the celebrated Psalter, which is now bought for its weight in gold by virtuosos, and became wealthy citizens of Mentz.

What, meantime, did Gutenberg? Being impoverished, ruined for the rest of his days, but endowed with an energetic will, he did not allow himself to be disheartened by the repeated blows of misfortune. His untiring activity, procured for him new resources; and by the aid of friends, he set up a modest printing office.

In 1465, Adolphus of Nassau, archbishop and prince of Mentz, conferred upon Gutenberg the title of Chamberlain of his court. It was an honorable rather than a lucrative office. The chamberlain received annually a suit of clothes, twenty measures of grain, two barrels of wine, and a small sum of money. It is probable that, from this moment, Gutenberg abandoned wholly the printer's trade which seemed unsuitable to his official dignity. He performed the humble duties confided to him, and died in February 1468, almost unknown to his contemporaries. His body was buried in the church of the Franciscans at Mentz, and a simple marble stone shows that here rests the mortal remains of this man of genius.

Such was Gutenberg's life. After having given to mankind the most useful discovery of modern times he regarded himself happy to be the servant of a bishop; he did not think the time would come when magistrates, princes, the first personages of Europe would bow respectfully before his statue.

The art of printing spread rapidly in Germany and other civilized countries. Between the years 1467 and 1475, we see that printing offices were opened at Cologne, Augsburg, Nuremberg, Lubec.—Monks, called Brothers of common life founded printing establishments at Brussels and Louvain in Belgium. Italy did not remain behind.—In the year 1467, a press was transported to Rome; some years afterwards, Venice, Milan and Naples followed in the same way. The art of printing came to Paris in 1469. It met with obstacles on the part of copyists who feared to loose their means of subsistence; but the king, Louis XI. protected printers. About the end of the 15th century typography was extended throughout Europe, except Russia and Turkey. In 1450, it penetrated the new world, and Antonio de Mendoza introduced it into Mexico. Since then it has filled with its products the whole habitable earth.

Miscellaneons.

THE MEASURE OF LIFE.

We live in deeds, not years; in thought, not breath; In feelings, not in figures on the dial.

We should count time by heart-throbe, when they beat For God, for man, for duty. He most lives

Who thinks most, feels noblest, acts the best.

Life is but a means unto an end—that end,

Beginning, mean and end to all things, God.

ISAAC WATTS.

Oh Watts! gentle-hearted old man! did you ever foresee the universal interest which would link itself to your name among the innocent hearts of earth? Did angels reveal to you in your dying hour how many a dying child would murmur your pleasant hymns in its farewell to earth?—how many living children repeat them as their most familiar notions of prayer? Did you foresee that in your native land, and wherever its language is spoken, the purer and least sinful portion of the ever shifting generations would be trained with your words? and now in that better world of glory do the souls of young children crowd around you? Do you hold sweet converse with those who were perhaps first ed into the track of glory by the faint light which the sparks of your soul left on the earth? Do they recognize you, the souls of our departed little ones—souls of the children of the long ago dead—souls of the children of the living—lost and lamented, and then fading from memory like sweet dreams—It may be so: and that, when the great responsible gift of authorship is accounted for, your crown will be brighter than that bestowed on philosophers and sages!—Hon. Mrs. Norton's "Stuart of Dunleath."

THE TEACHER'S AUTHORITY.

THE end of intelligent, judicious authority in school, is to subserve the purposes of education; and submission to law is the first lesson the pupil should learn.

Human nature unrestrained, makes its abode a most unlovely spot, and of all others, the school-room, a scene of confusion and rebellion.

If a teacher wishes to place his school in a position to command the respect and confidence of the community,—if he would make his scholars energetic, prompt, accurate, he must put them into a state of entire submission to law, which should emanate from himself, and be the result of his own deliberate judgment, in view of existing circumstances. To such law, he must require unconditional, unlimited obedience. It is both his right and his duty. In no other way can he secure the respect and attention of his pupils, and if not the respect, of course, not the love of those under his charge, without which the school-room becomes loathsome, and the teacher's work a task. It must then be his first and constant business to obtain and preserve order. No obstacle should hinder him, no doubt stagger him, no danger cause him to swerve.

How can good order be obtained? Not, certainly, by the promulgation of a long list of rules, with penalties annexed to their violation, many of which will probably begin to die as soon as they are fairly ushered into being. Nor by obstreporous exclamations, proclaiming "I am master of this school; I will be obeyed!" so often repeated that even the pupils soon learn to regard them as assertions of a very doubt-

ful character. Spasmodic action will never accomplish any thing desirable in the school-room; it only serves to show that there is disease in the system, which will eventually prove its overthow.

in the system, which will eventually prove its overthrow.

Seldom, perhaps, is permanent order established by a single effort.

Every act, word or look of the teacher has its influence in this matter, but there must be consistency and perseverance in a prescribed course to secure it. The habit of governing must as firmly be implanted in the teacher, as the habit of obedience in the pupil. If the one exists, the other will almost invariably follow.

Govern without appearing to govern, is a wise direction. Let there be no parade, no noise; he dignified, firm, prompt, and kind. Let your eye declare your intentions, while your words are few, distinct and decided. Never issue a command the consequences of which you have not attempted to foresee, and are not prepared to meet; but when delivered, secure its obedience, "peaceably if you can, forcibly, if you must." There must be no evasion, no taking the back track, or the labor of months may be lost, and misrule and rebellion be the consequence.

The work of government requires powers more rare than the ability to convey information; this many can do, who deserve not the name of teachers. What can be accomplished in a school-room where order and system have no place, have not the first place? Who can expect, that out of such a laboratory, shall come forth any but effeminate, imbecile minds, undisciplined by submission, and unsubdued by restraint? They may acquire some superficial knowledge, which will dazzle for an hour, but fail utterly to secure a training which will give stamina to character, and fit its possessor to brave the storms of life, and to place his mark upon the men and things with which he mingles.

The teacher who requires implicit, respectful obedience of his pupils, must expect in these days of loose principles, to meet a tide of influences wholly unpropitious to his plans, even among those friendly to his school. He may be urged to persuade, coax, hire and flatter in the ways of well-doing, but is warned against adopting decisive measures. To all this, he must have self-control enough to listen, and independence enough to follow the convictions of his own cool judgment, and compel his pupils to do right if necessary.

Thus may he hope to obtain mot merely a dutiful respect to his wishes; the warm affection of young hearts, who may joyfully be led by him in the paths of wisdom, will cluster around him, while the impress of his own character shall be beautifully blended with that of a multitude who will soon be filling life's varied stations.—Massachusetts Teacher.

IGNORANCE AND DISCONTENT.

Discontent will always exist as long as human nature remains as it is. But ignorance especially is discontented. The ignorant man meets with misfortune and poverty. He knows not who to attribute his misfortunes to, how far they are unavoidable, how far thev are the result of circumstances he can control, or how far they are the results of inviolable laws of Providence to which he should have conformed. He therefore thinks it all luck, and he envies those who are luckier than himself.

Knowledge, says Michelet, "does not make its professors malignant and envious, by what it communicates, but by what it holds back. He who is ignorant of the complicated media by which health is created, must naturally conclude that it is not created, that it does not grow, but changes hands only; and that man cannot become rich save by despoiling his fellows. Every acquisition will seem to him a publicate and he will hate all who have accumulated." (People p. 68.)

robbery, and he will hate all who have accumulated." (People p. 68.)

Again the ignorant, rich as well as poor, attribute all their misfortunes to government: and this leads to the desire on the one side and on the other to have government constantly interfering with the business and concerns of the citizen, and produces the very evils which it dreads.—Rhode Island Commissioner of Public Schools.

POLLOCK, THE POET, AND SIR JOHN SINCLAIR.

Far from ever disparaging the fame or success of any contemporary, he was always eager to bear his warmest testimony of admiration and respect to the excellence of others. It seemed as if every Scotchman was his relative, and every acre of Scotland his own, he took so keen an interest and so noble a pride in their prosperity. One instance are ong many may be recorded of Sir John's generous aid to struggling genius: One of his daughters having shown him, soon after its publication, Pollock's Course of Time, she incidentally described the state of most disastrous poverty in which the gifted author was then almost hopelessly pining, while he supported himself from month to month by writing little tales and tracts for which he received a mere trifle. Pollock, like Chatterton, was sinking into actual want, when Sir John instantly sent him a generous donation; and, after carefully studying the beautiful poem, he copied out some of the best extracts, printed four pages of them at his own expense, and distributed these specimens in hundreds throughout Great Britain, with an account guaran-

teed by himself, of the poet's circumstances. Subscriptions to the amount of some hundred pounds immediately poured in, the admirable poem was rapidly bought up, and Sir Charles Forbes, in answer to Sir John's representation, offered his interesting protegé an appointment as chaplain in India. What can be more dismal than the prosperity that comes too late? The poet's doom was evidently already sealed, and he appeared a dying man; yet his carnest desire was once to see Sir John, and personally to thank his unknown benefactor. None who witnessed that scene can ever forget it. Pollock, within a few weeks of his death, entered Sir John's drawing-room supported on the arm of a tall, florid, robust-looking clergyman, his friend, Mr. Brown. The wasted figure, the hollow checks, and the eye blazing with genius and with the excitement of grateful emotion, who can ever forget? Pollock's words, though pronounced in the broadest of Scotch, were cloquent with all the poetry of genius while he warmly thanked Sir John for having been the herald of his fame to a world he must soon and so certainly leave. It was with fee'ings of deep sensibility that the kind-hearted baronet went through this first and last interview with the poet whose works he had admired, whose adversity he had relieved, and whose celebrity he had so greatly extended. When Pollock very soon afterwards died, a proposal was made that the fund collected by Sir John for the poet's relief, should be expended in raising a monument to his memory; but the humane baronet said that the best monument would be to relieve the poet's near relatives from that penury which had been so destructive to himself; and it was done .- Chambers's Memoir of Sir John Sinclair.



TORONTO: DECEMBER, 1853.

THE YEAR 1853 will always constitute an important epoch in the history of Upper Canada. The events to which it has given birth will form essential elements of influence and power in moulding the institutions, forming the character, and promoting the happiness and prosperity of the country. The abundant harvests of the year, and the ready and advantageous disposal of the various products of the country, have rewarded and prompted enterprise in every department of human industry, have created an unusual demand and value for labor, have given an unwonted impulse and importance to our commerce, and diffused throughout the land the joyous consciousness of plenty and increase. These are abundant reasons for a people's devout thankfulness, as well as ample encouragements to their industry and enterprise. But these blessings, however great and numerous, are the material gifts of a bounteous Providence; their continuance depends essentially on the varying demands of foreign countries and the varying productiveness of domestic seasons; abundance may be followed by scarcity, under the blighting of drouth and mildew; and the fields of Europe, teeming with golden harvests, may reduce in value the grain-fields of Canada, and suspend all remunerating demand for their productions in foreign markets. A fruitful season or a fortunate market does not constitute the institutions of a country, nor form the elements of its moral and social progress. When, therefore, we speak of 1853 as a memorable epoch in the history of Upper Canada, we refer to events which will leave a deep and indelible impress upon the institutions, character, and progress of the people, apart from the bounteous gifts of a productive season and the large accumulations of a prosperous commerce.

1. The magnificent system of internal railroad communication

which has been matured and commenced, will lay the foundation for developing the latent resources of the country, and promoting its foreign and domestic trade to an indefinite extent. The most comprehensive and adventurous mind will hardly attempt to compute the end of such a beginning, in the advancement of manufactures, the creation of villages, the extension of towns and cities, the subjugation of forests, the multiplication of settlements, the increase of population, the growth of wealth—in a word, everything that constitutes the material elements of a country's rapid progress and grandenr. The year that witnessed the maturing and completion of a system of means and arrangements for the continuation of railroads from end to end of the Province, with various tributary and intersecting lines, will ever be memorable in the annals and recollections of our country.

- 2. Another event of the year, which will, perhaps, be regarded by the future Canadian annalist as second to none in importance, is the unrestricted right of local self-government, which has been so cordially and handsomely conceded to Canada by the Queen and Parliament of the mother country. The repeal of an Imperial act which had taken from the people of Canada rights previously secured to them by their original constitutional act in 1791, and which had, without their consent and against their constitutional vote, arbitrarily determined the positions and immunities of religious classes of the population-the repeal of such an act, and the placing of all the interests of the religious as well as educational institutions of the Canadian people in the hands of the people themselves, upon the simple and sole ground of their unrestricted right of local self-government, is a bloodless and noble charter of Canadian liberty, of which every Canadian may justly feel proud, whether it be judiciously exercised or not.
- 3. The completion of our municipal system, by important amendments and improvements, must exert a most potent influence upon the future character and interests of the country. The principle of self-government in all purely local affairs, applied not only to the country at large, but separately and fully to every few square miles of it, is an agency of almost unlimited capacity and power in opening up throughout the land the channels of local communication and enterprise, in regulating all affairs of neighbourhood interest, and providing the means of education and knowledge. A people possessed of such a power, and able to appreciate and exercise it, are beyond the reach of enslavement of any kind and from any quarter, and have spread out before them the most animating prospect of improvement and comfort. No element of social progress is so impulsive or more powerful than a consciousness in each man who has intelligence and industry to acquire property, that public affairs are his affairs, and that he has a proprietorship and voice in whatever relates to the well-being of his neighbourhood and country.
- 4. In regard to the general system of public instruction, the year now closing has been a most eventful one. An act has been passed creating a University unconnected with any one College, but regulating the system of public collegiate education, and invested with authority to confer degrees and honours in the arts and sciences; another act has been passed to establish a system of Grammar Schools; and a third act has been passed defining unsettled questions in the common school law, and remedying its defects. The Legislative Grant in aid of common schools has been increased; the amount raised by local

municipalities for the payment of teachers and the furnishing of schools, the number of hoble schoolhouses erected (especially in cities, towns, and villages), and the number of pupils attending the schools, are largely in advance of any previous year.

5. The system of Public Libraries, which has been brought into operation during the year, will preëminently form an era in the intellectual history of Upper Canada. It is a system which has been a subject of inquiry, consideration, and preparation for years-which has been a matter of free and public consultation in every county-which leaves the people free to act as counties, townships, cities, towns, villages, or school sections, as they please—which combines all the resources of each municipality to provide useful and entertaining reading for the whole population—and renders accessible to the remotest municipality of the country, and at the lowest prices, the best books for popular reading that are published either in Great Britain or in the United States. Through the medium of these books the sons and daughters of our land may contemplate the lives of the good, the wise, and the great of both sexes and of all ages, survey the histories of all nations, trace the rise and progress of all sciences and useful arts, converse with the sages and bards of ancient Greece and Rome, as well as with the philosophers, poets, scholars, discoverers, inventors, artists, travellers, and benefactors of mankind of all times and countries -exhaustless sources of instruction and entertainment.

A very large proportion of the municipalities of Upper Canada have already shown how worthily they appreciate the advantages offered them by means of public libraries; and it only remains for the other municipalities to follow the noble and patriotic examples thus furnished them.

Altogether, the year 1853 must ever be associated in the minds of the people of Upper Canada with pleasing and proud and grateful recollections, such as should call forth their devout thanksgivings to Almighty God, increase their love to their country, and animate them to industry and enterprise in all their avocations and pursuits.

HINTS TO SCHOOL TRUSTEES.

Blank school returns for the half year now closing were sent to trustees with the Journal of Education for last month; and all trustees are reminded of the necessity of filling up and transmitting those returns to their local superintendents by the end of the present month (December). These returns are requisite in order to make the apportionment of the half year's school fund; and no school section is entitled to share in the fund, the trustees and teacher of which neglect to make this half yearly return. (See supplementary act, 5th section.) The principle of distributing the school fund among school sections is, that every section shall receive from the fund each six months according to its works during such six months.

- 2. All trustees of schools are also reminded that the day of the next annual election of school trustees is Wednesday, the twelfth of January, at ten of the clock in the forenoon; of which trustees must give at least six days' notice, exclusive of the day on which the meetings are held. As the several clauses of the 6th section of the school act prescribe the duties of annual school meetings, trustees need not specify them in their notices of such meetings.
- 3. The omission of any one thing authorized by law to be done at an annual school meeting, does not invalidate the other authorized acts of such meeting. In case of objections to the

lawfulness of any election proceedings of an annual meeting, the objecting parties should forthwith give notice of their objections and make their complaint to the local superintendent, who (as authorized by the 6th proviso in the 14th section of the supplementary school act) is authorized, within twenty days, to receive and investigate such complaint, and confirm the proceedings or set them aside, and appoint the time and place of a new election, as he shall judge right and proper. If annual school election proceedings are not objected to and investigated within twenty days after their occurrence, they cannot afterwards be set aside or disturbed.

- 4. The trustees alone are authorized by law to select and employ their teacher or teachers, and determine the amounts of their salaries, and what sums shall be expended for school purposes of every description. The annual school meeting, or a special meeting, determines (within the limits prescribed by the supplementary school act) how such expenses shall be provided for. By the 13th section of the supplementary school act, no man can be taxed according to the whole number of his children, or the number of his children of school age; nor can a rate-bill be imposed exceeding one shilling and three pence per month for each child attending school. All the rest of the expenses of the school must be provided for in one or both of two waysvoluntary subscription and rate on property. If a school meeting resolves in favor of voluntary subscription, and only five shillings are thus voluntarily subscribed, the balance required must be provided for by a rate on property, as authorized by the latter part of the seventh clause in the 12th section of the school act. If a school meeting adopts no resolution on the subject, or if a majority at such meeting should adopt a resolution against having a school at all, the trustees can still proceed and provide for all the expenses of their school, under the authority of the clause of the school act just referred to. Thus trustees cannot be prevented from keeping open, maintaining, and furnishing a school as they shall judge fit.
- 5. Then it is also proper that trustees should be responsible for the exercise of such trust and power.-1. If the trustees do not keep open their school six months of the year by a legally qualified teacher, and thus forfeit and lose to their section the year's apportionment from the school fund, the 9th section of the supplementary school act makes such trustees personally liable to their section (on the complaint of any resident in it before a magistrate) for the amount of the apportionment thus forfeited and lost through their neglect of duty. 2. Each trustee forfeits to the school section one pound five shillings (on the suit of the local superintendent) for every week after the 31st January, that he delays sending his annual school report to the local superintendent. (See supplementary act, 10th section.) 3. Trustees who will not exert all their official powers to fulfil any engagement of their corporation, make themselves personally responsible. (See school act of 1850, 12th section, 16th clause.) 4. A trustee who refuses to perform his duty at any period of the year, or neglects to call the annual school meeting, is also liable to a fine to his school section. (See school act of 1850, 6th and 9th sections.) 5. Trustees are likewise responsible to their section for all moneys received by them. (See same act, 12th section, 18th clause.)

These provisions of the school law amply secure school sections and all parties in them who wish the education of children, against the neglect or misconduct of unfaithful trustces; while the same provisions will justify and help energetic and public spirited trustees in the exercise of the ample powers with which

they are invested, to furnish and keep open and maintain a good school, notwithstanding the false-economy opposition of any parties who may seek to shut up the school or cripple its operations. The spirit of the law is, that common school education shall be brought within the reach of all the youth of Upper Canada.

TO LOCAL SUPERINTENDENTS.

During this month blank school reports for local superintendents will be sent to all the officers concerned, with full and minute instructions as to the mode of filling them up. Should any local superintendent not receive his supply of the blank reports referred to, he will please intimate it to the Educational Department. All these reports, duly filled and added up according to the directions given, must be transmitted by the 1st of next March, in order that the apportionment of the legislative school grant for 1854 may be notified in the Journal of Education for May.

The distribution of the assessment part of the school fund among the school sections in each township for the half year now closing, will, of course, be based upon the returns of the trustees for said half year. The trustees were furnished last month with blank returns for this purpose, as well as with blank reports for the year.

This number concludes the *fifth* volume of the *Journal of Education*. Parties wishing to subscribe for the next volume are requested to forward their names and subscriptions (five shillings) by the 1st of January.

PARLIAMENTARY REPORT ON THE COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM IN LOWER CANADA.

The Legislative Assembly at its last Session appointed a Select Committee, "to inquire into the state of Education, and the working of the School Law in Lower Canada."

The Committee consisted of Mr. Sicotte, (Chairman,) Hons. Messrs. Drummond and Badgley, Messrs. Fortier, Polette, Lacoste, Sanborn, Chapais and Christie, (of Gaspé,) with power to send for persons, papers, and records.

The French Papers of Lower Canada are publishing the Committee's Report, together with the answers of persons examined or written to by the Committee.

From the *Minerve* of the 22nd November, we translate the substance of the introductory part of the Report—containing a statement of the means employed by the Committee to obtain information, and the general results of its inquiries.

- "The Committee appointed to inquire into the working of the School Law, and the means of rendering more effective the legal provisions adopted for the promotion of education in Lower Canada, report as follows:
- "In order to obtain information relative to the state of primary instruction in Lower Canada, the Committee thought it their duty to address to all the curés, ministers and secretary-treasurers of School Municipalities, a series of questions as to facts, which might furnish the basis of impartial and important statistics. The guarantee for the truth of the facts thus given, is the position and means of information possessed by the parties stating them. Statistics thus obtained have a greater value as they represent general facts, apart from mere trivial discussions, or interested official statements.
 - "Your Committee have not thought it their duty to solicit !

- "Your Committee have pursued their inquiries under the following heads:—
- "1. The state of primary instruction, and the working of the School Law.
- "2. The causes which have retarded, and do still retard the progress of education.
- "3. The means requisite to render the present law more effective, and to improve our system of primary instruction.
- "The answers obtained from more than 400 persons, upon the points proper to determine, satisfactorily, the state of primary instruction, establish the following facts:
- "The number of Commissioners, (school-trustees,) that can read and write, is only 502, out of 1025, in the municipalities from which the Committee have reports. The number of male teachers is 516, and that of female teachers is 822.
 - " The salaries are divided as follows:

Below £10,15	
do. £12 1045	
do. £20114	
From £25 to £40345	
Above £50 40	
"The age of female teachers is divided as follows:	
From 15 to 18 years, 118	
Below 2 years,	
Below 25 years, 343	

- "The number of male and female teachers declared qualified is 412, out of 1991. The number of children, who, since the operation of the law, have continued their studies in the schools, is 881.
- "Out of 1338 schools, there are geographical maps in only 396, and globes in only a very small number.
- "Out of 205 secretary-treasurers of different municipalities, which have given answers, 100 only declare that the law works tolerably well (plus ou moins bien).
- "Out of 140 priests from whom answers have been received, only 20 make the same declaration as to the working of the school law in their parishes.
 - "The number of model schools is only 78.
- "The time spent by the Inspectors, in visiting each of a great number of the schools, has been a quarter of an hour or half an hour.
- "There is no uniformity in the books, and there are frequently no books.
- "The teaching varies and changes according to the teachers employed; there is no method, and the teachers complain that each child brings a different book.
- "There is no supervision or management; to let alone is the dominant principle of the whole organization.
- "These facts present the real state of primary instruction, and indicate successively the causes which retard and render it stationary. The law passed for the education of the people, can only be efficiently administred by men more or less educated. It is impossible that instruction can be solid or progressive, when teachers are perfectly incapable. So many young female teachers cannot give sefficient and suitable instruction."

ENGLISH TRAVELLERS ON THE CONTINENT.

One of the editors of the New York Observer, who is now travelling in Europe, mentions the following incidents, which occurred while he was ascending (in company with several English and German University students) the Alps into Italy, by the famous pass of St Gothard:—

"A carriage came up in which an English gentleman was riding, with two servants on the box. I walked by the side of his carriage and fell into conversation, when he very politely invited me to ride with him. I declined of course, and told him that I was making a pedestrian tour, and designed to walk to Andermatt, three hours and a half farther up the mountain. "I spend the night there also," he said, and "I will esteem it an honor, sir, if you will take a seat in my carriage." Such an invitation, under the circumstances was not to be refused, and bidding my young friends a pleasant walk, I took a seat by the gentleman's side. How wonderfully the scenery improved, certainly how much my appreciation of it increased, when I folded my arms, and fell back upon the cushions! I found myself with an accomplished member of the London bar. He knew public men whom I had met, and was well acquainted with all subjects of international interest, so that in fifteen minutes we were comparing minds on those questions in which England and America are so much concerned. We stopped at the little village of Wasen for refreshments. I insisted on paying the reckoning, when he stopped me with this remark, "Sir, you are my guest to-day: when I meet you in America I shall be happy to be yours." All my intercourse with Englishmen abroad has been similar to this. I have seen them in public places when those characteristics of which we often read, have appeared very prominent, but whenever I have had the opportunity of conversing with intelligent men, I have found them accomplished, exceedingly affable, and apparently desirous to cultivate, rather than to repel acquaintance."

POPULAR EDUCATION IN AMERICA.

From an elaborate article in the Edinburgh Review for July, on "Popular Education in America," we extract the following paragraphs:—

"After this glance at particular States and cities, the reader will not be surprised at the results which we condense into the following summary. The returns embrace States containing more than two-thirds of the inhabitants of the Union. The others have not yet published their returns:

Number of children in States making returns of educa-

tional age	3,723,756
Number of children attending public schools in same	2,967,741
Annual expenditure on public schools ditto	
Number of students in colleges, law, and medical schools,	18,260
Number of volumes in public libraries of the United States	3,954,375
Number of volumes in college libraries	846,455
Amount of public school funds beside land	\$17,957,652
Population of the United States, 1850	23,256,972
Estimated population, December, 1852	26,000,000

The zeal for education in the United States has passed their borders, already animates Upper Canada, and is gradually penetrating the provinces of Lower Canada and Nova Scotia. A normal school has been for some time in progress in Upper Canada and will soon find countenance in the other provinces. The comparative progress of these colonies may be inferred from the annexed table:

West.	1849,	population	803,566
" '	"	children in public schools	151,891
46	"	paid for salaries	\$330,720
East,	44	population	768,344
"		children in public schools	73,551
44	66	public grant	\$50,772
otia.	"	population	300,000
	"	children in public schools	30,631
"	"	annual expense for same	136,286
	East,	East, " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " "	East, "paid for salaries

While the upper province of Canada readily adopts the school system borrowed from the improved system of Ireland, the French inhabitants of the lower province cling more tenaciously to their ancient usages and habits. Railways, however, are fast invading the provinces, and will soon bring them in contact with their more mercurial neighbors, and obliterate their prejudices.

Our glance at education in the Transatlantic States leads us to some

important results. We glean from it, not only the facts that more than 3,000,000 of pupils attend the public free schools and that large funds are accumulating for the purposes of education, but we deduce more interesting conclusions. It is obvious that the system of public instruction has taken firm hold of the public mind, and is eminently popular and progressive; that it is pervading the entire country, and assuming a higher tone and character.

There is a determination in America to unite the thinking head with the working hand, and to elicit all the talent of the country. The system of public schools drew Daniel Webster from obscurity to guide and enlighten his country; and more Websters are required. The respect for education displays itself in the embellishment of the grounds of the country schools. In place of the low and comfortless schoolroom, brick structures are now reared in the large towns, seventy feet in length by sixty in width, and four stories high, well ventilated and warmed by furnaces. The books are improved, and libraries provided. The local committees give place to able superintendents and boards of control. Music is added to the studies,—schools of design are established,—normal schools to prepare teachers are provided. Institutions are started to educate the deaf, dumb, blind, and idiotic: all these are at the public charge. Academics and colleges follow, and schools for arts, law, medicine, and divinity succeed; and to stimulate the whole, teachers' institutes, school journals, and agents are employed by the State to disseminate information, and fan the public enthusiasm. Appeals are constantly made to the public to suffer no waste of talent or intellect; to give the luxury of learning to the class doomed to toil, and to counteract the bad influences of the home of the illiterate emigrant by the attractions of the school.

Under these incentives the taxes for schools are cheerfully paid, and education progresses. What are its effects? Do we not see them in the quickened action of the American mind, in its more rapid adaptation of means to ends; in the application of steam and the great water power of the country, as a substitute for labor; in teaching it to move the spindles, the loom, the saw, drill, stone-cutter, and the planing, polishing, and sewing machines; in replacing the living man and woman by steam carpet looms and artificial reapers; in teaching the locomotive and car to surmount steep acclivities, and wind round sharp curves at trifling expense; in designing new models and new modes of constructing, rigging, and steering ships upon the sea, diminishing the crews while doubling the speed and size of the vessel; inventing new processes for spinning and bleaching; new furnaces for the steam engine, and new presses for the printer?

A few years since, the question was asked by a distinguished divine, "Who reads an American work?" The question now is, "Who does not read an American book, journal, or newspaper?" The trained soldier can effect more than the raw recruit, and the skilled artisan more than the rude plough boy. Disciplined America can entrust the guidance of her mechanism and the teaching of her children to the trained female, and devote the strength and talent of the male to agriculture, navigation, construction, and invention. Temperance seems to follow in the train of education. Thirty years since spirits were used to excess in many of the States. A marked change has occurred as education has advanced, and now in some States the sale of spirits is almost discontinued. The saving thus effected, more than counterbalances the whole cost of education.

The effect of education on morals is well illustrated by the progress of Massachusetts in one branch of manufactures, that of boots and shoes. While in some countries the manufacturer dares not entrust the materials to the workmen at their houses, in this State the artisans are scattered in their rural homes, the materials sent to them with entire confidence, and returned weekly ready for the market. Among other great branches of industry, this now amounts annually, in this little State, to £6,000,000 sterling.

In this same State, in the face of a large immigration of laborers from Ireland, and liberal outlay for their shelter, pauperism has been virtually receding. We learn from Hunt's Merchant's Magazine for June, 1851, that in the twelve years preceding, in that State, population had increased 40 per cent., welath 120 per cent., and the cost of pauperism but 38 per cent., although 2,880 foreigners were aided in 1837, and 12,334 received assistance in 1850. "Thus, in twelve years," the writer remarks, "the cost of maintaining the poor, distributed per capita upon the population, has fallen from 44 cents per head to 43, and the percentage on property has been actually reduced one-third. Native pauperism is comparatively diminished, and the principal draft on the charity of Massachusetts is the temporary aid given to the foreign emigrant.

We learn by the census returns lately published, that in 1850 the whole number of churches and meeting-houses in the United States was 36,011, containing 13,849,896 scats, or room for three fifths of the existing population. In this growing country nearly one-fifth of the inhabitants are under the age of six; and if we deduct those who from sickness, extreme youth, old age, or domestic duties, are unable to worship together, this must be a very liberal provision. By the same returns we find the whole number of foreigners in the country

was 2,210,828, or less than one-tenth the entire population; and while the annual expense for paupers was but £600,000, the permanent foreign paupers were 13,437, and the native 36,947 only. With respect to crone, the ratio is still more striking. Of 27,000 crimes in the United States during 1850, no less than 14,000 were committed by foreigners. In a country whose natives are educated, more than half the crimes are traced to illiterate foreigners, forming less than one-tenth of the whole population.

It seems, then, to be established in America, that general education increases the efficiency of a nation, promotes temperance, aids religion, and checks pauperism; whi'e all concede that it diminishes crime. Why should its effects be different in England, and why should we not find in education a cheap and most admirable substitute for prisons and penal colonies? If in America holders of property sustain education because they insure their own safety, and the security of their fortunes, by the instruction of the masses, why should not the same results attend education in England?

Again, if America with all accessions from natural growth and immigration, cannot afford to lose the mines of intellect hidden in the popular masses; if she is not rich enough in intellect to suffer their faculties to run waste, can England, comparatively stationary in growth and population, afford such loss?

The future contests of nations will not be confined to warlike encounters. They will be in the field of science and arts, and that nation will attain to the highest distinction which shall excel in the arts of peace. If other nations are cultivating and developing the human intellect, let not England be distanced in the course. She can appreciate the effective force of the skilled artisan, the disciplined soldier, and trained athlete. Will she not appreciate the value of disciplined mind, or educated labor? Do not her position, climate, and wealth, enable her to wield them with the most advantage. If the humble citizen of a village in America considers himself the foster father of the children of the poor, the natural guardian of those Heaven has intrusted to him, and under moral obligations to educate his wards, will the philanthropists of England exhibit less benevolence? And is there any country in which the natural powers of the mind offer a more favorable field for cultivation—in which education is likely to yield a more plentiful harvest—than England? We have so lately given a full consideration to the subject of popular education in this country, that we need not here dwell upon its importance: we will only add our conviction, that whenever the conflicting religious views which now impede its extension, shall have been reconciled, no difficulties of a merely economical character will prove insuperable.

EDUCATION INCREASES INDIVIDUAL POWER OF LABOUR.

Thought is the great human power; education and study enable us to join to our own experience and reflection the experience and reflection of all the human race. A man remaining uncultivated and knowing only what he has thought, what he has observed himself, and opposed to him who is enriched by the thoughts and experience of ages, is like a poor individual who would contend with his own weak arm against the combined powers of a multitude. The man also who by the obligation of manual labour must have condemned his faculties to almost constant idleness, opposed to him who by constant exercise has given to his mind rapidity, certainty and precision, has not the same means of making the most of his individual power of thought; whilst his adversary knows how to employ for his greatest advantage the treasure of thought of all those who have lived before him.—Sismondi.

AID TO ATTENDANTS ON THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS.

1. The sum to be distributed to the pupils of each school, in any one term, shall not exceed \$333.33, and any unexpended balance of a previous term.

2. The distribution shall be confined to the second and third terms of the attendance of pupils, and to those who reside ten or twelve miles from the school.

3. The distribution shall be made only to those pupils who have not the means of defraying the expenses of a course of instruction at the Normal Schools, and who shall bring from the school committees of the town in which they reside, a certificate to that effect, and who shall give entire satisfaction to the Board, of their possessing the chacharacter, habits of application, and capacity requisite for becoming successful teachers.

4. The distribution shall be made to such pupils as aforesaid, in the following proportions: to each pupil who lives ten, and under twenty miles from the school, by the nearest route, a sum, the amount of which shall depend upon the number among whom the whole is to be distributed; to those who live twenty, and under thirty miles from the school, twice as much to each as to one of the first class; and to those who live thirty miles or more from the school, three times as

much to each as to one of the first class; provided that the first class of pupils shall not receive more than fifty cents per week, each; those of the second class, not more than one dollar per week, each; and those of the third class, not more than one dollar and fifty cents per week, each.

5. The distribution aforesaid, shall be made by the visiting committee of each school, after consulting the principal of such school.

6. The first distribution shall be made for the autumn term of the year, 1853.

BOYS, REMEMBER!

I once visited a large public school. At recess a little fellow came up and spoke to the master: as he turned to go down the platform; the master said, "This is a boy that I can trust. He never failed me." I followed him with my eye, and looked at him when he took his scat after recess. He had a fine, open, manly face. I thought a good deal about the master's remark. What a character had that little boy earned! He had already got what would be worth more to him than a fortune. It would be a passport into the best store in the city, and what is better, into the confidence and respect of the whole community.

I wonder if boys know how soon they are rated by older people. Every boy in the neighborhood is known, and opinions are formed of him; he has a character favorable or unfavorable. A boy of whom the master can say, "I can trust him; he never failed me," will never want employment. The fidelity, promptness, and industry which he shows at school, are in demand everywhere, and are prized everywhere. He who is faithful in little will also be faithful in much.

Be sure, boys, that you earn a good reputation at school. Remember you are just where God has placed you, and your duties are not so much given you by your teachers or your parents, as by God himself. You must render an account of them, and you will also be called to render an account to Him. Be trusty—be true.

HOW SCHOLARS ARE MADE.

"Costly apparatus and splendid cabinets have no magical power to make scholars. In all circumstances, as a man is, under God, the master of his own fortune, so is he the maker of his own mind. The Creator has so constituted the human intellect, that it can only grow by its own action, and by its own action and free will, it will certainly and necessarily grow. Every man must, therefore, educate himself. His book and teacher are but helps; the work is his. A man is not educated until he has the ability to summon in an emergency, all his mental powers in vigorous exercise to effect its proposed object. It is not the man, who has seen most, or read most, who can do this, such a one is in danger of being borne down, like a beast of burden, by an overloaded mass of other men's thoughts. Nor is it the man who can boast of native vigor and capacity.—The greatest of all warriors in the siege of Troy had not the pre-eminence because nature had given strength and he carried the largest bow, but because self-discipline had taught him how to use it."

DUKE OF WELLINGTON.—The noblest fact in the history of Wellington was that put on record by Mr. Gleig, who had had the best opportunities of ascertaining, that, wherever the Great Duke travelled in his latter days, his companion and his counsellor was the word of God, which was read by him day by day.

YOUTHFUL NEGLECT.—Sir Walter Scott in a narrative of his personal history gives the following caution to youth: "If it should ever tall to the lot of youth to peruse these pages, let such readers remember that it is with the deepest regret that I recollect in my manhood the opportunities of learning which I neglected in my youth; that through every part of my literary career I have felt pinched and hampered by my own ignorance, and would this moment give half the reputation I had the good fortune to acquire if by so doing I could rest the remaining part upon a sound foundation of learning and science."

FAVOURS AND THEIR OBLIGATIONS.—To feel oppressed by obligation is only to prove that we are incapable of a proper sentiment of gratitude. To receive favours from the unworthy, is simply to admit that our selfishness is superior to our pride. Most men remember obligations, but not often to be grateful for them. The proud are made sour by remembrance, and the vain silent.

Man is born for action; he ought to do something. Work, at each step, awakens a sleeping force, and roots out error. Who does nothing, knows nothing. Rise! to work! If thy knowledge is real, employ it; wrestle with nature; test the strength of thy theories; see if they will support the trial; act!

LITTLE MATTERS.—One hour lost in the morning by lying in bed will put back all the business of the day. One hour gained by rising early is worth one month in a year. One hole in the fence will cost ten times as much as it will to fix it at once.

49 0

£24,098

TEACHERS PROPERLY ESTIMATED.

The King of Bavaria has lately delivered, with extraordinary emphasis, the following reply to an address of certain schoolmasters, who had sent to thank him for having increased their stipends. This royal reply deserves, says the Augsburg Gazette, to receive universal publicity:—"I thank you, gentlemen, and I rejoice if in what I have done you recognize that I am the friend of schoolmasters; that I honour and esteem your profession; not only do I esteem it, but I love it. Your mission is, I acknowledge, hard and difficult; and to fulfil it you have need of an angelic patience. Attend to the education of the people, for it is in a great measure in your hands; disseminate everywhere useful knowledge, for it is that which forms a moral and believing people. Tell your brethren that I love them, and (placing his hand upon his heart) the King gives you his word that he will do everything in his power for you."

Educational Intelligence.

SENATE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

SECRETARY'S OFFICE, Quebec, 26th November, 1853.

His Excellency the Administrator of the Government has been pleased to make the following appointments, viz.:—

The Honorable William Hume Blake, Chancellor of Upper Canada, to be Chancellor of the University of Toronto.

The Reverend John McCaul, LL.D., President of University College, to be Vice-Chancellor of the University of Toronto.

The Honorable William Henry Draper, one of the Justices of her Majesty's Court of Queen's Bench for Upper Canada.

The Honorable Adam Fergusson, Member of the Legislative Council.

Joseph Curran Morrison, Esquire, M.P.P., Solicitor General for Upper

John Langton, Esquire, M.P.P., M.A., Trinity College, Cambridge. David Christie, Esq., M.P.P.

William E. Logan, Esquire, F.R.S., Fellow of the Geological Societies of London and France.

Frederick W. Cumberland, Esquire, Civil Engineer, Vice President of the Canadian Institute.

James J. Hayes, Esquire, M.D.

The Reverend John Taylor, M.D.

The Reverend Adam Lillie.

The President of the Medical Board in Upper Canada—for the time being.

The Treasurer of the Law Society in Upper Canada—for the time being.

The Chief Superintendent of Schools in Upper Canada—for the time

The Principal of Queen's College, Kingston-for the time being,

The Principal of Victoria College, Cobourg-for the time being,

The Provost of Trinity College, Toronto-for the time being,

The President of Regiopolis College, Kingston-for the tine being.

The President, or Senior Professor, Knox's College, Toronto-for the time being,

The Principal of Upper Canada College-for the time being.

The Superior of the College at Bytown-for the time being, and

The President of the School of Medicine at Toronto—for the time being. to be Members of the Senate of the University of Toronto, under the Act 16 Victoria, chapter 89.

GOVERNMENT INSPECTION OF SCHOOLS IN SCOTLAND.

From the Minutes of the Committee of Council on Education, 1852-3, we extract the following results of the labours of Dr. Woodford and Dr. Cumming, and the assistant Inspectors.

Dr. Woodford's Report for Schools connected with the Established

Unuich .— 1. Vom 1051 and 21at		
No. of schools inspected between 1st Nov., 1851, and 31st		
Oct., 1852	2	226
Oct., 1892	189.5	90
Amount of accomodation in square feet,	100,0	
Average No. of children in attendance,	23,7	'10
Average No. of children	20,8	210
No. of children present at examination,	,	
No of cortificated Teachers		85
No. of Certification 1	9	366
No. of pupil Teachers,		,,,,
Treems of 188 of the schools:—		
Endowment, £1,82	21 0	101
Endow ment,	56 13	4 î
School pence, 36	30 16	11
	29 1	81
Other sources	20 I	03

£22,167 11

Expenditure:— Salaries,	13	5
£22,606		

	£22,606	5	83

Dr. Cumming's Roport of Schools not of the Establ	ished Ch	urch	1.
No. of schools inspected between Nov. 1, 1851, and	d Oct.		
31, 1852,	• • • • •		208
Amoeut of Accommodation in square feet,			838
Average No. of children in attendance,			312
No. of children present at examination,	• • • • •		727
No. of certificated Teachers,	• • • • •		123
No. of pupil Teachers,	• • • • •		384
Annual income of 206 of the schools:—			
Endowments,	£299	17	6
Voluntary contributions,	3,311	1	104
School pence,		3	101
Other sources,		13	11
[In Report, £21,506 17 14]	£21,216	17	1 3
Expenditure:—			
Salaries,	£17,599	18	01
Books and apparatus,	294		
Miscellaneous,	3,14	6 1	1 8
	£21,041	5	3 \$
The general expenditure of the Committee for 1855	2		
amounts to \pounds	1.056.289	6	11
Of which to Scotland—	, ,,====		
Established Church,	10,407	7	3
Free Church, etc	11,641		
T 1 1 01' 1	,		~ =

NATIONAL EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND.

Episcopal Church.....

Several meetings of the Edinburgh Committee of the National Association have taken place of late, and a final preliminary meeting was held on the 24th ultimo, in No. 6, York Place. There were present, professor Fleming, Dr. Begg, Dr. Johnston, Limekilns, professor M'Michael, Dr. G. Lees, Dr. Gloag, Dr. Bell, Mr. Adam Black, Mr. Burton, Mr. W. Duncan, Mr. James Richardson, Mr. Sibbald, etc., etc. Mr. Black was called to the chair. The draft Resolutions prepared at previous meetings, attended by, besides many of the above gentlemen. Drs. Guthrie, Harper, Alexander, and Schmitz, were gone over and finally adjusted, and a deputation, consisting of Mr. Black, Dr. Guthrie, Dr. Harper, and Dr. Begg, was appointed to proceed to Glasgow to submit them to the Glasgow section, and to report for final adoption at another committee meeting. It is also proposed to hold a great meeting in the end of November, formally to submit the resolutions to the community. To this great meeting members of both Houses of Parliament connected with Scotland will be invited. We believe the resolutions as adopted, affirm,—1. That measures should be taken to obtain such a general system as to embrace every child in the kingdom. 2. That a system which is sectarian, or which operates by public grants, can be neither acceptable nor efficient; and not only should the system be national, but the teachers should be eligible, without regard to sect or party. 3. That the present educational machinery is defective, and the status and remuneration of the teacher inadequate. 4. That an additional assessment must be provided to carry out the plan, the management and control of which should be vested in committees elected by heritors, ratepayers and parents, having children at the schools. And 5. That Scotland is ripe for this measure, and that the Government, by introducing such a comprehensive bill, would secure the support of the Association and of the country, and confer an inestimable boon upon the nation.—Scottish

QUEEN'S COLLEGE, CORK.—Dr. W. J. C. Thomson, late Lecturer on Botany in Marischal College, Aberdeen, has been appointed Professor of Natural History in the above College. The Rev. Mr. Hincks, the previous incumbent, has accepted a chair in University College, Toronto.

Schools among the Nestorians.—There are about sixty or seventy vilage schools among this interesting people, there having been a larger increase in their number the past year than in any year previous. They are also constantly becoming more efficient and useful, as young men and women go out from the seminaries better qualified for their work as teachers. Every year the seminaries are brought under a closer discipline, and aim at a higher standard of scholarship.

Literary and Scientific Intelligence.

A LITERARY PENSION of £100 a year has recently been conferred upon Sir F. B. Head, formerly Lieutenant-Governor of Upper Canada, in consideration of his having written many popular works. --- A similar pension has been conferred upon Mrs. Moir, widow of the lamented "Delta," of Blackwood's Magazine; and one of £80 per annum upon the Rev. Wm. Hickey, who has written several valuable papers upon Agriculture, under the nom de plume of "Martin Doyle."---An Observatory is about to be built at Utrecht. The King of Holland laid the first stone last month. -- Wm. Brown, Esq., M.P. for South Lancashire, England, has placed at the disposal of the Town Council of Liverpool the munificent sum of £6,000 for the erection of a free library.---It has been determined to erect a statue of the late Lord Belfast, to be placed in a suitable locality in that town, in order to perpetuate the memory of a nobleman who reflected honour upon his order, and who had made himself endeared to the people by the excellence of his life, and the earnestness which he manifested in the cause of education.

STATISTICS OF JOURNALISM.—The following account is given of the number of Newspapers in different parts of the world:—Austria, 10; Africa, 14; Spain, 24; Portugal, 20; Asia, 30; Belgium, 65; Denmark, 85; Russia and Poland, 90; Prussia, 300; other Germanic States, 320; Great Britain and Ireland, 500; United States, 1,800.

AN ACRE.—Many people are desirous of knowing its exact size. It is comprised within the distance of 220 feet length and 190 feet width. A square acre is a fraction less than 209 feet each way, being less than one inch too much on either side.

A Journal of the Albert National Agricultural Training Establishment at Glasnevin, near Dublin, has been established with the view of bringing prominently before the public, the details of the system of management pursued at Glasnevin; of affording an accurate account of the progress of industrial knowledge, as obtained from the published reports of agricultural meetings and exhibitions; of the publication of select essays on various agricultural and horticultural subjects; and of receiving and answering all agricultural queries of a useful and practical nature, &c.

COMPARATIVE SPEED.—The velocity of a ship is from eight to twelve miles an hour—of a race horse from twenty to thirty miles—of a bird, from fifty to sixty miles—of the clouds, in a violent hurricane, from 80 to 100 miles—of sound, 823 miles—of a cannon ball, as found by experiment, from 600 to 1000 miles (the common estimate is much too low)—of the earth, round the sun, 68,000 miles (more than a hundred times swifter than a cannon ball—of Mercury, 105,000 miles—of light, about 800,000,000 miles—passing from the sun to the earth, 95,000,000 miles, in about eight minutes, or about a million times faster than a cannon ball.

EXAMINATION OF COMMON SCHOOL TEACHERS.

THE Board of Public Instruction for the United Counties of York, Ontario and Peel, hereby gives notice, that an Examination of Candidates to fill the offices of COMMON SCHOOL TEACHERS, will take place on WEDNESDAY, the 21st of December, at 9, A. M., at the following named places:—

At the New Court House, City of Toronto. Examining Committee: Revds. J. Jennings, H. J. Grasset, J. Barclay, and J. Roaf; Dr. Hayes, R. Cathcart, and J. B. Boyle, Esquires.

At DUFFIN'S CREEK. Examining Committee: The Rev. R. H. Thornton, Dr. Foote; W. B. Warren, and E. Annis, Esquires.

At Brampion, Chinguacousy. Examining Committee: Revds. J. Pringle, R. H. Osler, R. McGeorge; and T. Studdert, Esq., and Dr. Crombie.

At Newmarket. Examining Committee: Rev T. Baker; Joseph

Hartman, T. Nixon, and R. H. Smith, Esquires.

At RICHMOND HILL. Examining Committee: Revds. J. Boyd, T. Wightman, Dr. Laugstaff, A. Wright, G. P. Dickson, and T. C. Prosser, Esquires.

** All Teachers presenting themselves for Examination, will be required to select the particular Class in which they propose to pass, and previous to being admitted for examination, must furnish to the examining Committee satisfactory proof of good moral character, such proof to consist of the Certificate of the Clergymen whose ministrations the Candidate has attended, and in cases where the party has taught a Common Sohool, the Certificate of the Trustees of the School Section. Each Candidate is required to attend the examination in his own School Circuit.

First Class Teachers not required to be re-examined.

The Board will meet at the Court House, on Tuesday, the 27th day of December, at noon, for the purpose of receiving the Reports of the several examining Committees, licensing Teachers and for other business.

JOHN JENNINGS, Chairman.

£ s. d.

City of Toronto, November 17, 1853.

WANTED a SCHOOL, on or about the 20th of January, by a Single Man, who holds a SECOND CLASS CERTIFICATE of Qualification from the Board of Public Instruction, in the United Counties of York, Ontario, and Peel; has attended the Provincial Normal School during one session; has had some experience in the improved methods of teaching. Apply by letter (post-paid) to S. M., Yorkville P. O., York Township, stating salary.

WANTED a situation in a good School, about the beginning of January next, by a Married Man, of several years experience in teaching,—has been in the Normal School, Toronto, for nine months—holds a FIRST CLASS CERTIFICATE for the County of Carleton, &c. Reference kindly permitted to the Rev. Mr. Lochead, Superintendent of Schools, Osgoode, Address (stating salary) D. Robertson, Osgoode Post Office.

WANTED, a TEACHER for School Section No. 2, Township of ETOBICOKE. Salary £70 per year; First or Second Class Certificate. None need apply without proper certificates of capacity and moral character. The School to be vacant in the fore part of January; the School has been free these three years. Application to be made to the Trustees, Joseph Ward, Peter Shaver, or George Jeffrey.

Etobicoke, 6th December, 1853.

MAPS OF CANADA, GLOBES, & APPARATUS

 ${
m F}^{
m OR}$ SALE at the Depository in connection with the Education Office, Toronto:—

Maps—Canvas, Rollers and Varnished.

 Bouchette's Map of British North America with latest County divisions, statistics, &c. 7 ft. 6 in., by 4 ft. 3 in Thayer, Bridgman and Fanning's Map of Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, with latest County divisions, 	2	10	0
3 ft. by 2 ft. 6 in	0	7	6
2 ft. 4 in. by 1 ft. 10 in	0	5	O
Cities, Towns, Villages, &c., (engraved on copper,) 2 ft. by 1 ft. 6. in		5	o
Globes.			,
1. Cornell's 9 inch Globes, with Stand, each	2	10	0
2. Do. 5 do. do. do. do	Ō	17	6
3. Holbrook's 5 inch do. do. do		6	3
4. Copley's 16 inch do., per pair,		ō	0
Apparatus and Cabinets.			
1. Holbrook's Box of Apparatus, with Improvements		10	0
2. Do. do. Geological Specimens, 30	0	10	0
3. Varty's do. do. 96 (large)	2	13	9
4. Do. do. do. 144 (small)	2	15	0
5. Do. Cabinet of Natural Objects	3	- 0	0
6. Do. do Showing the Natural History of the Silkworm.	0	7	6
7. Do. do do. do, do Bee	0	7	6
8. Do. do do. do Wasp	O	7	6

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

TERMS: For a single copy of the Journal of Education, 5s. per annum; back vols. neatly stitched, supplied on the same terms. All subscriptions to commence with the January number, and payment in advance must in all cases accompany the order. Single numbers, $7\frac{1}{2}$ d. each.

All communications to be addressed to Mr. J. George Hodgins.

Education Office, Toronto.

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