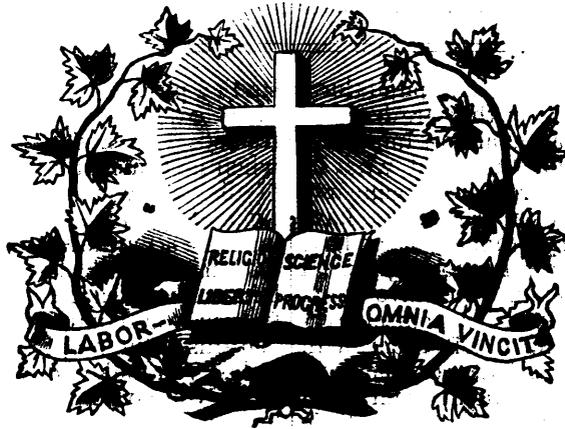


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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<p>The Rt. Revd the Lord Bishop (Dr. Temple) of Exeter's Advice to Examiners, Teachers, and Scholars..... 33</p> <p>School Management and Methods of Teaching..... 35</p> <p>Joyce's School Management... 36</p> <p>Dr. McCosh on School Inspectors ..... 37</p> <p>Dr. McCosh on American Colleges..... 38</p> <p>Hints on the Etiquette of Teaching..... 39</p> <p>Mr. Jolly on Teaching as a Science ..... 40</p> <p>"A Chair of Education"..... 41</p> <p>OFFICIAL NOTICES. — Appointments:—Members of Boards of Examiners, School Commissioners, School Trustees. — Diplomas Granted by Boards of Examiners. Annexations and Erections of</p>	<p>School Municipalities. Dis-solution of Board of School Trustees, ..... 42</p> <p>EDITORIAL:—Appeal in Behalf of Bishop's College, Lennoxville..... 43</p> <p>European Royalty..... 44</p> <p>Girding the Earth with Postal Service..... 45</p> <p>The British Empire of To-day 46</p> <p>BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES:—</p> <p>Baron Rothschild..... 46</p> <p>Mr. Herman Merrivale..... 47</p> <p>Mr. Shirley Brooks..... 47</p> <p>The Hon. J. Johnstone..... 47</p> <p>Jules Michelet..... 47</p> <p>Ex-President Fillmore, U. S. 47</p> <p>Senator Sumner..... 48</p> <p>Revd. John Irwin..... 48</p> <p>Mr. William Stewart..... 48</p> <p>Meteorology..... 48</p> <p>Wanted..... 48</p>
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### **The Rt. Revd the Lord Bishop (Dr. Temple) of Exeter's Advice to Examiners, Teachers, and Scholars.**

The Public Distribution of Prizes and Certificates, awarded to Pupils at the Christmas Examination of the College of Preceptors, took place on the 28th January last, in the Theatre of the University of London, under the presidency of the Right Rev. the Lord Bishop of Exeter. The meeting was very fully attended, both by Members of the College and the friends of the pupils interested in the examination.

The BISHOP of EXETER, in opening the proceedings, said:—I have come here with very great pleasure to take part in promoting what I believe to be the very useful work which is carried on by the College of Preceptors, to which I have belonged for many years. I have been asked to distribute the prizes to day, and I hope I may be allowed to make a few remarks as an old schoolmaster, and to give a few words of advice to examiners, teachers, and scholars; to tell what is the use they can make of such examinations as this College is engaged in conducting, and the dangers that constantly attend them. The use to be made of them, although it is very clear to those

who have studied the matter, is yet very often not so clear to the learners, who sometimes are not aware why it is that they should be subjected to these examinations, and what is to be gained from them. Generally speaking, it would be better if they would take the trouble to understand exactly what is the purpose of putting their knowledge to such tests, because by that means they would be most likely to make good use of the examinations. Their real purpose, then, is to secure both teachers and learners against the delusion, that is exceedingly natural and almost inevitable, of fancying that we know things that we do not know, and that we have taught things when we really have not done so. The worst of this delusion is, that the best teachers and the cleverest scholars are, perhaps more than any others, liable to be ensnared by it. When a very good teacher has put before a scholar a perfectly lucid account of what he is teaching, he naturally believes that it has been carried away by the pupil; and again, in proportion to the clearness with which it has been understood by the learner, so does he believe that he has really mastered it; but it very often happens that, simply because the teacher has stated his knowledge so clearly, he has contributed to deceive the learner into the belief that he has learnt more than he really has; very often a clever boy, or a quick-witted girl, who sees what is said to them instantaneously, is most likely to go away with the belief that a thorough mastery has been obtained, whereas experience often shows that would be a mistake. The old adage that "knowledge is power" is so true, that you may very fairly take power as a test of knowledge. Now when you come to apply the test, you constantly find this—the teacher has taught a particular subject, which he feels he has expressed quite clearly, and the learner has appreciated it and learnt it; and yet, when the learner is set down to utilize it, he finds he can make no use of it at all; that he cannot reproduce it or apply it. He finds, in fact, that his mind during the process has been entirely passive; and it is quite certain, unless there has been a spontaneous activity in the mind of the learner, and he has not really made what he has learnt part of the substance of his own mind, he has a great deal more to do before he can really be said to possess his knowledge. It is for the purpose of preventing this mistake that these examinations are held.

We often find that when teachers fancy their pupils have obtained a thorough mastery of a subject, they are deceived because they have not noticed that, in almost imperceptible ways, they have been doing for the pupil what he ought to be doing for himself. I have repeatedly gone into a school, and on examining it, say in arithmetic, have been told by the master, "It is very strange that the boys do not know it; I thought they knew it thoroughly." I have always asked them this, "When you have examined them, have you made them answer for themselves?" And the reply has been, "Yes; I have left them with themselves except just the very slightest possible help occasionally; just enough to prevent them from wandering about." That is the whole thing. That very little help is the thing which vitiated the examination altogether; and the test of real mastery is that the knowledge shall be produced without any help at all. When a man or woman in after-life come to use their knowledge, they will find that the knowledge is really of no use unless they are able to apply it absolutely without assistance, and without the slightest guidance to prevent them falling into the most grievous mistakes. For this reason these examinations should be used to guard us against this sort of mistake. I have said these words rather for the sake of the scholars than the teachers, because teachers are almost driven to find it out for themselves. I know, however, it is not by any means familiar to the learner, and I want, if I can, to get them to see the absolute necessity of using these examinations for the purpose to which I have been speaking, to test what they can do absolutely unaided. But now I wish to add, what is perhaps still more important to all, as to the danger which always attends such examinations. There is a perpetual danger that they shall crush the study as it were into a mould; that they learner should learn, not with a view to knowledge, but with a view to being examined; that instead of the knowledge growing in the mind in the healthy and natural way, developing, as it were, from within, that the learner should be always looking forward to the black day when perhaps he may fail in his examination; that he shall always be asking himself, What sort of questions shall I be asked? and that he shall be endeavouring, if possible, to fit every thing that he learns to what he anticipates will be in the paper that is put before him. In the same way there is a danger that the teacher, instead of studying the subject, shall study the examination papers; that these papers for one year shall be the guide for the teaching of the next, and that the teacher shall have constantly present to his mind the probability or improbability of particular questions being asked. In all these cases it is quite certain that examinations damage teaching. Learning, if it is to be worth anything, must have a spontaneous character, and must have a growth within the mind peculiar and proper to itself. It must be adapted to the mind of the learner. And, moreover, the teacher must adapt as he gives it to his own mode of teaching, and all this is liable to be set aside by the thought of the examination for which the teacher and learner are to prepare. Moreover, these examinations are intended to secure that there shall be such an absolute mastery of the knowledge as will be required in after life to be applied to practical purposes, and in all examinations there is an almost inevitable tendency not to make the examination at all like the sort of trial that will be found in life afterwards. Both in the examiner and in the examinee there is a natural tendency to have the answers neat, clear, and precise, and to frame the questions accordingly. But when the learner goes out into the world, he will never by any chance get precisely such questions as these to which to apply his knowledge. Thus, for instance, if he has

studied physics or mechanics, and has answered a great many examination questions, all this will have been framed with a view to neat and precise answers; but when he comes into actual life, he will find the presence of that awkward element, friction, which disturbs all calculations, and will never allow anything to come out neat and accurate at all. So, again, to take a different illustration. A learner has studied chemistry, and in doing so he has been dealing always in the laboratory with carefully prepared ingredients, as pure as they can be obtained; and this is the proper way, for you cannot study well unless you make your study as simple as you can. But when you go out into life, and have to apply that chemical knowledge, you never get the ingredients precisely such as you find them in the laboratory, but all sorts of foreign elements come in and disturb your calculations. So, again, to take an illustration from a different source. A learner has learned, with great pains, to write themes and essays, taking great care in the composition and arrangement of his sentences, and this is an admirable preparation for a great deal that he will afterwards have to do; but nevertheless, in after life he will inevitably find that he is often called upon to use this power under circumstances where he is no longer able to sit down and frame his sentences just as he would wish; perhaps he may be called upon to speak without any previous preparation; or to write without any time for thinking, or even, perhaps, without those means of information which he has been accustomed to use. Thus in many ways a man finds that there are difficulties in applying that knowledge which he carefully acquired in the process of education. For this reason it is that all through the process of acquiring knowledge it is essential that the mind should be fresh and vigorous, and maintain its own spontaneity; and in proportion as it loses that spontaneity, and gets to work by rule and according to routine, in that proportion will it be found that the knowledge acquired is not suited for the purposes of after-life. Hence, therefore, the danger that these examinations may have the effect of making knowledge more precise and more reducible, but less living; with less of the man's mind in it, and consequently with much less elasticity, and much less adaptability to the purposes for which it will afterwards be wanted. There is one rule which it has always appeared to me should be followed in these matters, viz., to make the examination follow the school, rather than making the school follow the examination. We should, as far as possible, endeavour that the school should share in as free a course and as unfettered a choice as possible. Instead of putting before them a rigid course of examination, and saying, 'Mould your teaching to that,' we should rather say, 'Let us know how you teach, and we will endeavour to accommodate our examinations to that.' And it is because I believe the College of Preceptors has endeavoured to follow this principle that its work has been so good. Nevertheless, what I have said may not be altogether out of place, because even if this principle be adopted, it is as well that it should be consciously expressed and held out as the end at which the College is aiming. It is as well, in a matter of this sort, that we should all know what we are doing, and see clearly the reasons for it. Although I may claim to have some knowledge of the matter, from long experience and the devotion of a life, I have no doubt there are many listening to me who are much better able than I am to say all this; but still I do not think it is at all unfitting that on such an occasion I should say it. I rejoice, therefore, to see the work that the College of Preceptors is doing. I rejoice to observe, from the Report your Dean has sent to me, that the number of candidates has steadily increased from 1517 in 1870 to 2313 in 1873—an increase of over 50 per cent. And not

only so, but the number of those who have passed the examinations has increased in a corresponding ratio from 1070 in 1870 to 1854 in 1873—an increase also of more than 50 per cent. Meanwhile I have no doubt that both schools and examinations are improving step by step; that as time goes on the teachers are better able to put before their pupils knowledge in such a way that they can receive and reproduce it. At first it is often very difficult to do this. When these examinations were commenced it was exceedingly difficult to do anything of the kind; but in all schools, if they are doing their work well, there grows up a body of tradition of learning and of teaching; I do not mean rules whereby they bind themselves, but a kind of spirit whereby each successive generation of scholars and teachers is affected by what has been done by those who preceded them; and as time goes on the boys learn more and more from each other, and they see better what it is that their teachers are aiming at. And in schools of some standing it will always be found that the school itself, almost independent of the teacher, adds a great deal to what he teaches, simply by the way in which the school acts upon all who enter it. The consequence is that as time goes on these examinations are more and more put to their proper use, and more and more test the reality of the knowledge which is imparted. The pupils know how to, and do, use them better, to a great extent unconsciously, simply because they catch from one another the power of doing so; and the same with regard to the teachers. But at the same time it is necessary that I should warn you that as the advantage of these examinations increase, so also do their dangers. The danger of which I spoke just now is an existing and real one, and one which, as long as teaching goes on, we have perpetually to be watching against; for depend upon it, nothing is so dangerous to real knowledge, as to have it dried up as it were at the heart by the want of the true scientific aim and purpose both in teachers and learners. There is nothing which in the end will tell against the real efficiency of any teaching so much as to find that both teachers and learners are unconsciously—for I do not believe that any teachers would so far forget their duty as to do it consciously—drifting towards what has been so often and so properly condemned, the system of cramming for examinations. This danger is very real. The learner must still hold for his aim, not the passing of the examination, but the mastery of the knowledge; and if he observe that his teacher is teaching him something which, as far as he can see, will be of no use to him in the examination, he must still trust that the teacher is doing the wisest thing that can be done, giving him knowledge for its own sake; and he will inevitably find that in the end he will have gained far more than he may appear to have lost for the time. It is quite possible that in such a case the learner may not do quite so well at one particular examination, but he may be sure that if the teacher knows his business at all, he is doing the right thing, and he ought to give his mind to it, and so follow the course marked out; learn to learn for learning's sake, and for the sake of really knowing that which he wishes to know; not merely for the sake of exhibiting his knowledge to his fellows, and perhaps winning a prize. It is excellent to do well in an examination, and it is excellent to win prizes; but it will not be an excellent thing, but a positive hurt, to any one who has made the passing of the examination, and the winning a prize, the real purpose with which he has studied. Therefore I beg you all, teachers and learners, to never let that temptation lay hold of your souls; for if you do, you will surely find that the true and real thing at which you all are aiming, will escape you altogether.

—*The Educational Times.*

### School Management and Methods of Teaching,

By P. W. JOYCE, A. M., T. C. D., M. R. I. A., Head-Master, Central Model Schools, Dublin.

Some time ago we promised to give our readers such extracts from this practical work as our space would warrant, and now—to redeem the somewhat tardy fulfilment of the promise—give a first instalment, rather short but for which we shall compensate in future numbers.

Besides the above named work, Mr. Joyce is author of “The Origin and History of Irish Names of Places,” “Irish Local Names Explained,” and “How to Prepare for Civil Service Competitive Examinations.”

So far as a reader can say he is acquainted with an author, we knew Mr. Joyce through his works, but in the Autumn of 1872, it was our privilege to make the personal acquaintance of the author in the class-room—just the place to judge of a teacher. We found him a courteous, affable, scholarly gentleman. Nothing about the man, in word or act, which announced “I am Sir Oracle.” We observed that the first personal pronoun singular number was conspicuous for its absence. He was ready to afford any information sought without launching into a dissertation on the subject. We were struck with the easy but respectful familiarity that seemed to exist between him and the pupils,—we believe one of the most essential and successful points in a good teacher. He is the only teacher with whom we ever found ourselves in perfect accord not only as to the *desirability* but the *necessity* of having the children talk to the teacher more than is usually permitted. We were always of the opinion that there was too great a gulf or barrier between pupil and teacher. Whether it be traditional and sacred and must not be touched by an irreligious hand, or whether it be that the teacher entrenches himself in his dignity behind it, so that pupils may not trespass, or whether it be that the child finds a relief in finding himself so far removed from what he considers his natural foe, we know not, but that it exists, there is no doubt. Mr. Joyce, we were glad to see, had bridged the chasm. He must have proved himself capable in the many other departments he filled under the Board before being placed in charge of over a thousand children, besides the Teachers in Training while practising in the several Model Schools. That our appreciation of the author may not be construed into a one-sided partiality for the book, we give in another column the opinion of the *School Board Chronicle* of the work.

The author states in the Preface that:—“In the year 1856, the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland appointed fifteen organizing teachers, for the purpose of introducing among the National Schools an improved and uniform organization, and of diffusing among the teachers a more extensive practical knowledge of school keeping. To fit them more perfectly for their duties, the organizers underwent a preparatory course, of instruction and practical training under P. J. Keenan, Esq., then Head Inspector of schools, now resident Commissioner. Mr. Keenan delivered a series of lectures on the science and practice of school management, and this Hand book may be said to have originated in those lectures. On my own part, I have given the principal results of my experience, both as a teacher and as an organizer. While carefully avoiding all mere theory. I have endeavoured to render the instruction contained in it plain, useful, and practical; there is not, I believe, a plan, opinion, or suggestion in the whole book, that has not been carried out successfully either by myself, or by others under my immediate direction.

I have not entered on the question of moral and religious training; for many reasons I have thought it

wiser to leave this important part of the subject to others better able to deal with it".

### PART I.

#### CHAPTER I.—HOUSE.

The site of a school should be dry and cheerful, and easily accessible to the great bulk of the population. No trees should be allowed to grow very close to the house in either front or rear. Trees too near a building generally render the walls damp; they are, besides, gloomy, as they more or less exclude the light and obstruct the view. These are matters of importance in an ordinary dwelling-house—much more so in a school-house.

A school should be large enough "to accommodate conveniently the largest daily attendance which the locality is likely to furnish." In estimating the proper size of a school, eight square feet, at least, should be allowed for each child in average attendance. By the adoption of a proper organization and furniture arrangement, the school business can be carried on with small inconvenience, and with sufficient freedom of movement, even if the room be so crowded on any particular day, or succession of days, as to allow only six square feet to each child *actually present*. Allowing eight, therefore, provides for a fluctuation of about a third over the average. Thus a room  $30 \times 16$  will accommodate an average of 60, and is sufficiently large for an occasional attendance of 80. With this number, however, the room would be much crowded, and would require the most careful and thorough ventilation.

The walls of a school should never be less than twelve feet high, and in all large schools they require to be still higher. Anything lower than this will scarcely allow sufficient head room for ventilation, or wall space for maps.

The best general shape for a school-room is that of a plain rectangle, having the length twice the width. If an attendance sufficiently large be expected, to warrant the appointment of an assistant, a class room, *immediately off the principal room*, will be found a most useful appendage. If the principal room be very large, it will be better to have two moderately sized class-rooms than one very large one. Observe, however, that a detached class-room is of scarcely any use, unless there is a second responsible teacher in the school. If the room be small, the fire-place may be in one end; if large, either it should be in the middle of one side, or there should be two—one at each end. The fuel should never be exposed to view.

The next subject in order is the floor, which he recommends to be of wood in preference to any other material, as this is used in this country Mr. Joyce's remarks are not applicable

#### CEILING, WINDOWS, OFFICES.

If the house be of only one story, comfort and health both require that the room be ceiled. The room is subject to all vicissitudes of temperature in the absence of ceiling. If the ordinary plaster ceiling be thought either too heavy or too expensive, the room may be covered neatly with a sheeting of thin boards, which should always be white or of some light colour.

It must be borne in mind, though it is frequently forgotten in practice, that a house is furnished with windows for *two* purposes—to give light and to afford ventilation. For the latter it is quite necessary to have them in at least two opposite sides of the room. They should be raised at least five feet from the floor, so that they may be beyond the reach of the idle children either to gaze through or to break, and that sufficient wall space for black boards, tablets and maps, may be secured, and that the currents of air may pass over the heads of those in the room. If the sill of the windows be less than five

feet from the floor, the lower panes should be muffed or screened. Both the upper and lower sashes should be made to open for purposes of ventilation; the cheapest and simplest contrivance for opening and closing being the common side pulleys.

No school should be without suitable out-offices; they should be neither in immediate proximity to the school, nor yet so far removed as to render frequent supervision inconvenient. In schools attended by both sexes, there should be separate out-offices, either at opposite sides of the school or with opposite approaches—in the latter case completely separated by a high wall.

(To be continued.)

#### Joyce's School Management.

The copy before us of Dr. Joyce's "Handbook of School Management" is one of the fourth edition and of the seventeenth thousand, and therefore it is to be presumed that the work is already in the hands of a large number of teachers. Indeed, the book has to some extent made its reputation. But its success so far has been greater in Ireland than in the other parts of the kingdom, and there are a great many teachers, school managers, and others in England and Wales, as well as in Scotland; who will be glad to be informed that there is a really practical work on school management to be obtained at a reasonable price. Upon a subject like this there is so much lecturing, so much dissertation, so much theorising, and airing of individual opinions, that those who are in want of simple and business like help and not mere talk are not able to judge by the mere title of such a work as this, that it is the kind of work of which they stand in need. Let it be understood, then, at the outset, by those who are unacquainted with Dr. Joyce's book, that it is just what it professes to be—a handbook; that it affords instruction and good guidance on the whole range of the duties of teaching and the conduct of elementary schools, and that every paragraph in the two hundred and twenty pages is the result of abundant, varied, and intelligent experience. "There is not, I believe," says Dr. Joyce, "a plan, opinion, or suggestion in the whole book that has not been carried out successfully, either by myself or by others under my immediate direction."

The work is not for teachers and managers only, but for members of School Boards; for it begins not when the children are assembled in the school room but at the interesting stage when a site is being selected for a school. The author insists, for example, on dryness, light, and cheerfulness in the ground and situation; and he asks that no trees shall be growing near the building, as "they render the walls damp," and are "gloomy." Then he goes into the questions of the size of the rooms, height of ceiling, floors, windows, furniture, construction of desks, and all the teaching apparatus. By the aid of a number of simple diagrams he shows how the desks should be arranged, and the manner in which space should be left for the teaching of drafts from classes standing in a semi-circle round the teacher, the tablet, or the black-board. Many of these points have been a great deal under discussion among managers and school management committees, and in some cases recourse has been had to Dr. Joyce's book for suggestions; but there are many more cases in which difficulties have been encountered and needless experiments have been made for want of the help of so excellent and experienced a guide. Dr. Joyce is not always right, perhaps, and we have no doubt that if he were now, towards the close of 1873, to go among the school management committees of the

School Boards in England and Wales he would learn that improvements have been made upon some of his plans and methods. More especially in the structure of school desks, to which so much intelligent attention has been given during these last two years, we have no doubt he would hail some of our patent contrivances as improvements upon those whereof he has had so much experience in Ireland. But taking the work as a whole, and looking at the very large ground that it covers, it is only remarkable that there should be so little to call in question, even though the original edition of the work has been written some years. His chapters on the timetable, on the bipartite and tripartite systems of dividing the school for instruction, on classes, drafts, home-lessons, and the like are such as must in the main commend themselves to teachers generally. To monitors Dr. Joyce has devoted a very carefully considered chapter, and his advice is of the kind which might be with much advantage more generally followed. He protests against the system of allowing the monitor to perform the greater part of the teaching in the department in which he is engaged. "Let the teacher never forget," he says, "that on his own individual teaching, and on that of his assistants, if he have any, the success of the school mainly depends, and that he employs monitors to assist, and not in any degree to supersede his own labours." Another point on which he has much to say is the extra instruction that is due to the monitors. He has observed considerable dereliction of duty in this respect, and hence he says—

When a paid monitor is appointed to a school the teacher enters into an express compact to teach him, and to allow besides a portion of the school time every day to attend to his own improvement. It is of the utmost consequence to every teacher to understand that it is as much his duty to teach the monitor as to teach the school.

Passing by much useful instruction as to the mechanical arrangements of the school, and some excellent remarks on discipline, order, cleanliness, &c., we come to Part II., on "Methods of Teaching," which every tutor may read with profit. From his general observations on method we make one extract as a specimen; he is deprecating the abuse, without decrying the judicious use, of what is called "simultaneous answering."

The teacher puts his question not to any particular individual but to the whole class; all who are able may answer, and those who are not commonly chime in with the others, so that every question is commonly followed by a chorus of answers, which are apparently simultaneous and universal. To a person unskilled in the art of teaching this appears a most attractive method of managing a class—it is fishing with a net—teaching all together instead of one at a time; and then it is usually attended with great animation. And there are even many teachers who constantly practise it, either through mere negligence or beguiled by plausible appearances into a conviction of its superiority. These pleasing features are, however, purely deceptive; for with all its attractiveness it entirely fails in individual effectiveness, and invariably terminates in the most wretched results. There are always two or three pupils—seldom more—who are really thinking and answering; all the others are mere parrots, catching up and echoing their answers mechanically. This is done so quickly that to an unpractised eye the answers appear perfectly simultaneous. Children when learning will not think if they can help it, and here is a ready way of avoiding it.

We are glad to find ourselves in close agreement with Dr. Joyce on methods of teaching the alphabet and the first rudiments of reading and spelling. He insists always on reading and spelling as two distinct things. The child who is asked to spell *ox* must say "o" "x" "ox," but on being told to read the word "ox," he is not to be allowed to mention the letters, but must simply say "ox." Here he is in substantial accord with what we have insisted upon several times in reviewing elementary reading and spelling books:—

Let the teacher remember that these spelling exercises should be carried on independently of the ability to read; that is, even though the children be able to read at sight all the words, they should also

be exercised in spelling them. Reading and spelling are in fact essentially different things; and a child may be sufficiently expert in one while knowing little or nothing of the other. Thus a child may be taught to recognise and read at sight every word in the lessons without learning to spell even the simplest; and in like manner he may learn to spell with facility, without being able to read a single word.

Without entering now upon the discussion of so interesting a question, it may be mentioned that Dr. Joyce has not much opinion of the efficacy of rules for spelling or of elocutionary rules for reading. He doubts whether they are of much assistance. "It may perhaps be questioned," he says, "whether any one ever practically improved himself in reading by their means," referring to the usual rules of elocution; and speaking of "verbal distinctions" and "rules for spelling," he observes:—

These matters may be very interesting in other points of view; but for teaching spelling—that is, for enabling the children to write with correct orthography—I am very decidedly of opinion that they produce no appreciable effect, and that they do not repay the trouble of committing them to memory.—*School Board Chronicle*.

### Dr. McCosh on School Inspectors.

In an article in the last number of the *International Review*, Dr. McCosh says so far as Elementary or Primary Schools are concerned the United States rank as high as any country in the world. Other nations have been looking to them, and have profited by the example which they have set in earnestly seeking to furnish a good education to every child in their wide dominions. All Americans feel that if their republican institutions are to continue and to prosper, they must have an education as universal as the suffrage. But in gratifying their national sin of self-adulation they must not allow themselves to forget that other nations are making rapid progress, and if the States are to keep before them, they must be anxiously looking round for suggestions, and ready to adopt improvements from all quarters. In one respect the educational system in the States is behind that of several nations of Europe, and, unless they awake to their usual energy, will soon be behind those of Canada, Australia, and even Hindostan. They are without that organized system of superintendence by highly educated Inspectors, set apart for the special work of visiting and examining schools, which is in thorough operation in England, Scotland, Germany, Austria, Holland, and other lands. The author of this article is so old as to remember the time when the systematized inspection was introduced into Great Britain, and he noticed the immediate effect produced on the character of the teaching. We may sketch the Irish system of inspection, which is the most thoroughly organized we have fallen in with in any country. First there is a Board of Education in Dublin, with two (1) high class School Inspectors, a Protestant and a Catholic, ready to visit any school in which a difficulty arises. There is a Head Inspector in every county, a man of scholarly attainments, and paid at a higher rate than the professors in American Colleges; and there are trained Sub-Inspectors in every district, receiving upwards of a thousand dollars a year, besides a limited sum for travelling expenses. It is the business of these Sub-Inspectors to visit every school in their district at least once in the quarter; and in doing so they see that the scholars are properly organized into classes, they examine every class

(1) This is not quite accurate as there are six Head-Inspectors and sixty-six District and Acting Inspectors at present on the staff. We shall give an article on this subject in a future number. S.-E., J. E.

and every pupil, take down on their books the designation of every class and every pupil, mark the precise stage at which every class and every pupil is, and leave, in a book kept in the school for the benefit of the teacher and local managers, and open to inspection by all, their estimate of the school, particularly mentioning both the excellences and defects. When a defect is pointed out in the organization, or in any particular department, such as arithmetic or grammar, the teacher and local manager are bound to see it removed. If this is not done by the time of the next visit, if the class in any study is as far behind as it was, the case is reported to the Dublin Board, which issues peremptory orders, which are sure to be attended to, as otherwise the salary will be withdrawn. If any dispute arises, which seldom happens, there is an appeal open to the County Inspector or the Board itself. Besides these visits of formal examination the Inspector may look in upon the school at any time he is passing, to see that proper order and prescribed hours are kept. There is not in Ireland any such thing as we have seen in America—a school opened half an hour behind the time. This inspection is far from being obnoxious to the teachers—is never disliked by good teachers. They are enabled thereby to get valuable hints by which they profit.

They are encouraged by the favorable notices taken of them. Their work is felt to be less of a drudgery when they find it appreciated; and excellent young teachers have a means of letting their excellence be known, and are put in the way of promotion. Parents and the community generally all know and acknowledge the benefit derived from this superintendence, in the stimulus given to the teacher, and the improved efficiency and accuracy of the instruction he imparts. We know that many of the most enlightened educationists all over America are beginning to feel the want. We find very strong expression on this subject by the State Superintendent, Mr. Newton Bateman, in the Report from the State of Illinois, 1871-2 :

“Sooner or later, and the sooner the better, there must and will be some effectual means provided to secure competent and qualified county school inspectors. Around the fact that in some counties the office is held by persons notoriously unfit for the position, and incapable of performing its duties, cluster nearly all of those objections to the office which have in them a color of reason and force.” “It is believed that this great evil can be reached, and that it ought to be as speedily as possible. The interests involved are too weighty, the results too far reaching, to be needlessly sacrificed.” “It is a solecism in our school system that while no teacher can be employed or paid in any school of the State, under any circumstances whatever, without due examination and licensure, no conditions or qualifications of any kind or degree are required of the man who conducts the examination and issues, or refuses to issue the licensure.”

#### Dr. McCosh on American Colleges.

We cannot close our article without saying something about the highest educational institutions in the country—the colleges. We are prepared to testify from a pretty large acquaintance with both sides of the Atlantic, that to the great body of students the American colleges impart as high, and certainly as useful, an education as any European university : as Oxford or Cambridge ; as Edinburgh and the Scottish colleges ; as Dublin and the Queen's Colleges in Ireland ; as Berlin and the great German universities, in all of which there are fully as many idle students, and fully as many graduating with a

miserably defective scholarship, as in the American colleges. But it is quite as true that in the higher colleges of Europe they produce a select few, at most one-tenth of the whole, who have attained a riper scholarship, or a riper culture, or who leave college with a more fixed determination to do original work, literary or scientific. The grand question for the friends of American colleges to consider at present is, How may we retain all the excellences we have gained and add to them the special culture of the great European universities ?

So far as we have noticed, the answer of the most enlightened educationalists in this country is : Elevate the standard of examination for entrance, raise the average age of entrants, and thus, it is said, you will secure a higher scholarship. Are we not in this way running the risk of losing some of the advantages of the American colleges, which have sent forth a greater number of well educated young men, at a comparatively early age, into the professions and useful walks, than any other colleges except the Scotch ? We do believe that in most of our colleges there should be a higher entrance examination. We maintain farther, and as more important, that the colleges should be made, by public opinion brought to bear upon them, to carry out their own professed standard. Surely there is pretension, in fact iniquity, involved in a college advertising a high standard in its catalogue in order to gain a character, and the paying no attention to it. Such a college should be made to feel that it is losing all character. But there is a limit to be set to this elevation of standard, especially in States in which there are few upper schools. We do not believe that it would be for the good of education so to raise the standard as to make it impossible or difficult to enter college till the candidate is eighteen or twenty years of age. For observe the necessary consequence : Young men would not be ready to begin even to learn their professions till they are twenty-two or twenty-four. Is this country ready to stand this ? Is New York ready for it ? Is Chicago ready for it ? We believe such cities are ready to decide, and to proclaim aloud, “If such be your requirements we will not send our sons to you.” Are parents, are pupils ready for it anywhere ? Can young men afford to spend all this time before beginning even to learn the occupations by which they are to earn their sustenance ? The average years of man's life upon earth are said to be between thirty and forty ; is it right to spend twenty-two or twenty-four of these in preparation for learning, and then three or four years more in learning the business of life ? Dr. Barnard thinks he has proven that the number of young men who go to our colleges, in proportion to the population, is diminishing. Is there not a greater diminution ? But it is said that a boy is better at an academy till the age of eighteen or twenty than at a college. We dispute this. If our schools were what they should be, and were constrained so to be by public opinion, they might have a healthy young man ready for college by sixteen or seventeen ; and one who has been all his previous life at a school, with its drill, needs about this time a change ; and when he enters college, with its greater freedom, he has a new life imparted ; and when he joins the junior class at the age of eighteen or nineteen, he has a still higher life evoked as he takes up the studies which require independent thought ; and at the age of twenty or twenty-one, he is ready to set out to learn his profession ere his habits have become too stiff to master what is to be his occupation for life. We are sure that our merchants, our lawyers, our theological teachers, will tell you that they would rather have a pliable youth of twenty to instruct than a confirmed man of twenty-five, with his ways all settled.

How, then, it is asked, do you propose to gain the end

you reckon so important? Observe what is the end: it is to have a few higher minds. We say a few, for we hold it to be impossible to make all students great scholars, great mathematicians, great metaphysicians. No college—certainly not Oxford, or Cambridge, or Berlin—has succeeded in this. Let us keep what we have got, and which is so good. Let us encourage the preparatory schools to send to our Freshman classes young men of the age of sixteen or seventeen. Let us give them there the four years wholesome instruction of the American colleges to make them all fair general scholars. In the Junior and in the Senior classes let us give them a choice of studies always along with obligatory studies. By this time the students themselves know, and their instructors know, who are fitted to be superior scholars. Let the ten per cent or so, who have the taste and the talent go on to higher studies, to special studies—as no man in these times can be a universal scholar. Let him give himself for a time to philology, to philosophy, to social science, or original research in one or other of the various departments of physical science. Let encouragement be given to this by fellowship earned by competition, and held only by such as give evidence that they are devoting themselves to the special studies in which they stood the examination. We affirm confidently, that to such a system, you will in a few years add all the excellences of the European to those of the American colleges, and produce a select body of scholars fit to match the first wranglers of Cambridge, the double first of Oxford, or the doctors of philosophy and the doctors of science of the other European universities.

#### Hints on the Etiquette of Teaching.

This is a small tract by B. Healy, "Sanctioned by the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland," which the Sub-Editor of this Journal received, amongst many others, when on a visit to the Education Office in Dublin, in 1872. We shall just let the work speak for itself.

The author in his preface says:—In the following pages no new method of teaching is put forward; no particular system is preferred to another. They are offered to teachers in Irish National Schools, to assist them in forming *manners* and *habits* of speech that will render the discharge of their school duties alike creditable and pleasing to themselves, and useful and agreeable to their pupils.

To improve the relations that exist between teacher and pupil, and to elevate the tone in which their intercourse is carried on, is—it may at once be stated—the full extent of the design. The Hints are one and all practical.

##### INTRODUCTION.

"A thousand nameless little things, which nobody can describe, but which every body feels, conspire to form the *whole* of pleasing, as the several pieces of mosaic work, though separately of little beauty or value, when properly joined, form those beautiful figures which please every body. A look, a jesture, an attitude, a tone of voice, all bear their parts in the great work of pleasing. The art of pleasing is more particularly necessary in your intended profession, than, perhaps, in any other; it is, in truth, the first half of your business."

##### I.

School is the dominant thought with teachers, whether they will or not; it is not in their power to resist it. The influence of school follows them abroad, and clings to them at home; and if they do not make school a source

of pleasure and pride, it will of itself, as it were, bring them numberless troubles and humiliations. It is their interest, then, to devote themselves to it, with all reasonable care and industry.

The title must not lead the reader to suppose that, under the name of Hints on the Etiquette of Teaching, he will find a number of remarks on dress and personal cleanliness, or a collection of familiar precepts, inculcating love of study and application to school business. It is understood that he is well established in the practice of these duties.

##### II.

Be active, but never hurried, in school; hurry would fill your path with annoyances, and produce short temper. It is prejudicial to the business of teaching. An admirable means to avoid hurry would be, to get to school in good time, and not be in haste to leave it.

The latter clause encourages the teacher not to look upon as lost those stray half-hours which business or accident obliges him to spend in school, over and above the regulated time. These intervals bring ample rewards. Their influence extends beyond routine and etiquette, even into the morality of teaching. Silent occasional half-hours, spent in school morning or evening or during vacation time, with no very pressing business to discharge, have a beneficial effect on all young teachers. To such pauses—when the stillness contrasts pleasantly with former bustle, or repose is made doubly grateful by reason of past exertion—many a one who, entering on a teacher's duties, found them dull and disagreeable in the extreme, attributes his earliest reflections, and in time the progress of that beneficent change of sentiment which, in revealing the better aims of his daily labours, has divested them of all their irksomeness.

##### III.

When placed in charge of a school, you cannot help learning what is its state of order; another matter of importance is the Tone of the school. You are, doubtless, well acquainted with the one; it may be necessary however, to define—or attempt to define—the other. Tone is the moral treatment given to any or every subject in discussion. Order and Tone are not, in fact, so closely connected with, or so dependent on one another, as they are commonly supposed to be. It may sometimes happen in a given school that the order is admirable, whilst the tone is low; and, again, the tone may be high, and the order indifferent. It is a duty you owe to your school to improve both its order and its tone—a duty which the following suggestions will (it is to be hoped) help you to fulfil.

Experience will furnish several means of justly appreciating tone: the beginner may hear the true tone of a school by attending to the pupils of it when they collectively speak of the late teacher, or by noting the degree of credence they give his own promises on his coming amongst them, and first making their acquaintance.

If they speak but little of the person whom you have succeeded, it is likely he was a favorite with them. If they speak highly so much, the better. They may try your patience, however, by the frequency and warmth of their reference to him. In such a case you must take care not to lose your temper. You ought not to regard the late teacher as a rival, but as a name to be mentioned with discretion.

To take offence with the pupils on account of the sentiments they express towards him would be a most unworthy proceeding, and one that could not fail to display the character in an unfavorable light; but to endeavour to depreciate his labours or his plans, with the design of

exhibiting your own superior merits, is so ungenerous and so unwise that you will not permit yourself to descend to it.

On the other hand, should the children disparage your predecessor, let them understand from you in a quiet way that you do not intend to join in their censure, and that it is no part of school business to discuss such topics. When you speak of him yourself, let it be in a friendly and gentlemanly style; and be assured, at the same time, it is not advisable to set a very great value on the opinion your pupils entertain of him, or even of yourself. Do not commit yourself to the doctrine that they can be governed by love alone—that is impracticable—content yourself with being consistent and considerate.

#### IV.

When a pupil comes from another school to yours, it is usual and proper to examine him on the several subjects he has been learning. But, in doing this, there should be neither the intention nor (if possible) the appearance of reflecting on his attainments, or on the teacher he has left.

The entrance examinations of "new pupils" may be turned to good account by a prudent teacher. They furnish opportunities of setting himself right with his scholars. In this way: He finds a child well versed in one or more subjects, and imperfectly acquainted with others; he concludes that this is the effect of particular bias of mind in either the boy himself or the person that taught him, or that it is owing to the fact that the latter estimated the importance of the different subjects by a scale, which he, the teacher, is not inclined to adopt. If his reasoning goes no farther, he gains very little by it—a slight and perhaps erroneous notion of the person's predilections. To be useful it must extend beyond this point, and, leaving the consideration of every other school, apply singly to his own. He will take occasion to ask himself, has partiality to one branch of learning led him to cultivate that to the exclusion of others; he will find that preliminary examinations enable him to compare what he has done with what he proposed to do, and he will see that they serve to enlarge his knowledge of school work.

#### V.

When your way of conducting the school shall be commented on, and the points in which it differs from the common course called in question by persons who are not warranted in offering either their opinions or their advice, instead of changing your methods at their instances, bespeak a fair trial, and rest content with remarking, that, while you give credit to the others for having done what they thought best under the circumstances, you, from the same motive, must choose a different practice. This, or some other truthful but commonplace observation, will answer your purposes very well.

(To be continued.)

#### Mr. Jolly on Teaching as a Science.

At a Scotch Educational Meeting, M. Jolly, H. M. Inspector of Schools, introduced a motion on the desirability of establishing chairs for the science of Paideutics in connection with the universities and from his address the following summary is taken from *The Schoolmaster*:

Mr. Jolly remarked at the outset that the memorial he had to speak to was based on the conviction that education was a science and art which required special training for its students. Surely such a truth did not require to be enforced in an assembly of teachers, whatever ignorance and error might exist outside of the profession. If they,

as a profession, were to deal with a being governed by mental, moral, and physical laws, surely they ought to know something of those laws. For several reasons this was a proper and wise time to bring forward the subject referred to in the memorial. As had been so well said by the retiring chairman, they had entered a new era in education. They had now had inaugurated a national system. The denominational system of the past was now superseded, and there was the possibility of the beginning of a new unity in the profession such as had never before existed. New interest was being felt in the work both inside and outside of the profession. Desiring to take advantage of this rising tide of interest in their work, they brought forward the present proposal, hoping that if it was taken at its height it might lead on to fortune. In the past, as a profession, they had no education in the science and art of their work. In the future, therefore, they must have higher, broader, ampler training. How and where was such training to be provided? That question, he thought, was to be answered by asking another question—How and where had the other professions been trained in the work they had to do? The answer was—In the universities. These had provided the means of professional accomplishment for law, divinity, and medicine. But there was not one representative class of education within the walls of one of our universities. Arts classes did not afford sufficient training for the work that they had to do. Such an omission in our universities was most natural in the past, when it was not known that there was such a thing as the science and art of education. Such an omission was not creditable now, when education was recognised by the best thinkers on the subject as a science and art. It was their duty, then, to supply this want. What had been the history of the universities? The gradual supply of new educational wants to meet rising intelligence, and to give expression to new thought. Edinburgh University was originally in every respect a kind of Normal School. Mr. Jolly enumerated the chairs that had been established in Edinburgh University during the last hundred years (including means of teaching various branches of medical study, music, theology, languages, engineering, geology, political economy), and went on to say that there was yet one patent want before them—to supply a Chair of Education. In 1868 an attempt to establish such a chair was made by the Education Institute. He held in his hand the prospectus of that honourable endeavour. It was therein stated that "It is acknowledged by all enlightened educationists that (1) regular scientific and practical instruction in *paideutics* is as necessary for a teacher as the like instruction in *therapeutics*, or the scientific art of treating diseases is to a physician or surgeon; and that (2) a knowledge of mental philosophy is as essential to practical skill in the art of educating as a knowledge of anatomy and physiology is to practical skill in surgery and medicine. When the Educational Institute was formed in 1847, the foundation of such a chair was contemplated as one of its most important objects; and its General Committee of Management, at their statutory meeting held on the 26th of December, 1857, unanimously agreed that the time was come for seriously addressing themselves to the task." The thing had not yet been done, and it remained for the members of the present institute to set themselves to do it. For the endowment of these chairs they would require assistance from the outside—assistance from such moneyed men as Sir David Baxter, or the millionaire Mr. Baird—who had already been referred to; and he thought if such men as these—men looking for an avenue for their means—were convinced that such a want existed, they would come forward and say—"Gentlemen, I found a chair of education in such and such a university." The

Edinburgh hospitals seemed to have a surplus of money that they did not know what to do with, and there was a proposal to establish a chair of technical education. He would recommend to the governors of Heriot's Hospital that this patent want was an admirable means for disposing of their money and for raising education, which George Heriot left his money to give. School Boards might endow such a chair. He was astonished that met with their laughter. Who could tell what enlightened men might be in the School Boards of the future? Who could tell—they might be wise in their own generation, and see that if they were to have their children properly educated—if they were to get full value for the excellent salaries given to the teachers, they must take means to have them thoroughly trained for the work? Government should do something. That was beyond doubt. They had taken this profession in hand. They were all now, as members of the teaching profession, under their management; and were they efficiently to do the work they had set themselves to do, what better could be done than by establishing such a chair? He came next to ask what was the duty of the profession? He answered unhesitatingly, their duty in regard to this matter was to help themselves—to show that they were in earnest and felt the importance of the subject—to prove that they were united, and had now power of mutual action such as they had never had before. There was too much of the spirit to wait for help from without. He thought they should act on the principle—"Heaven helps those who help themselves." And if they were to launch this educational chair they must "paddle their own canoe." The institute might set themselves to establish the first and the fourth of the requirements mentioned in the memorial—a professor of education, who would give a full course of lectures on the sciences and art of teaching; and an educational library, museum, and reading-room, with a full collection of all works on education, and of all educational apparatus and appliances, similar to the Educational Department in Kensington Museum. \$40,000 would do both—\$50,000 would do well. He would say that teachers themselves ought to subscribe. In 1861 the number of teachers in the country was 5,200; that number had largely increased since then, and at \$5 each—contributed, it might be, by instalments—that would reach a sum of more than £25,000. One teacher, though not a very rich man, had told him the other day that he would willingly put down his name for \$50 and he knew one professor who would not be loath to put down his name for \$500. Then the pupil-teachers should do something. Even at half-a-crown per head they would realise about \$2,500. Another means would be for teachers to endeavour to enlist the sympathies of their scholars in the matter. At present a penny per child for every one in attendance at school, would realise the sum of \$10,300, and if every child were at school who should be, the amount would be \$13,100. In that way he thought a great deal could be done. The organisation that he would propose was that the Institute appoint a central committee, with a secretary and treasurer, and let it be distinctly understood that no moneys of the institute be appropriated towards any such chair, and that any expenses incurred should be defrayed by subscriptions. Then there should be a local committee, composed of men of influence, in every parish, with a secretary and a treasurer. These committees could call meetings, and endeavour by every means in their power to rouse interest in the subject. Mr. Jolly concluded by saying that he left the matter with confidence in the hands of the Institute.

In the course of his address M. Jolly alluded to the opinions of some eminent educationists regarding the necessity of training. Among others he quoted the following:—

*Dr. Donaldson.*—"I think experience without a knowledge of the science of teaching does not go for very much." His first years, "though outwardly successful, were in reality anything but a success. I was struggling on with wrong methods."

*Dr. Abbott.*—"Personally I feel that by some kind of professional training, I should have been saved from many mistakes that I deeply regret; for I gained much valuable experience in teaching, in a room at yonder corner, at the expense of my pupils. And I think that many other teachers entertain with myself a feeling of regret approaching to something more keen, at the mischief they have done their pupils from inefficiency."

*Dr. Jones.*—"It is said we must learn by experience. Some of us never do so learn; others only partially learn; and even those who have become tolerably good school-masters have become so at the expense of their unfortunate pupils. We have been practising upon them those tentative haphazard methods by which we have at last learned what we ought, at least, to have had some idea of before we commenced our work at all."

#### "A Chair of Education."

The men who desire to excel in athletic sports place themselves for a time in training. They deny themselves comforts, and spend many hours in preparing for the approaching contest. They are guided in their preparation by the advice of ancient veterans of lengthened service. And so is it in the arena of professional life. The youth who aspires to fame and fortune prepares himself for his life-long race. If his tastes are legal, he not only makes himself familiar with the written law, but frequents the halls of justice where the subtle weapons of defence and attack are wielded by those who have reached the heights which he himself hopes to climb. If the healing art be his choice, the human frame is a perpetual study, and its great professors are models on whom his eyes are centred. Experience teaches, and by the pathway of practice comes that wisdom which is the parent of success. Is there in the members of our own profession the same youthful zeal for excellence? Is the work of preparation as complete for the art of teaching as for the practice of medicine or law? The answer is inevitable, that hitherto the science of education has been almost totally neglected, and the great majority of the scholastic profession have entered upon their business with a miserable knowledge of the principles on which they should proceed. So far as mere knowledge is concerned, the young teacher may be well provided; but the methods by which that information may be conveyed to others are altogether unfamiliar, unless they are simply a reproduction of the plans of his own instructor.

We may be told that, so far as the normal schools and training colleges are concerned, this desideratum has been supplied. Masters of method have been appointed, and, by regular lectures, have expounded the principles of teaching. These teachers have apt pupils—men who, in the great majority of cases, have spent several years as pupil teachers, and thus acquired an intimate knowledge of the routine duties of the schoolroom. In too many cases, however, these instructors have been young men altogether lacking in the essentials of experience and erudition. A master of method should be a man of ripened scholarship, well read in the literature of his calling, and greatly experienced in the varied round of educational work. Were such men always appointed, their labours would be more productive of good than those of a youthful though zealous theoretical lecturer.

The training colleges have done much to elevate the work of teaching to the level of a scientific profession; but they must accomplish more than they have done before their labours can be declared satisfactory. It must be remembered, however, that an immense number of teachers never enter a training college. In the higher walks of our calling, they pass from the university to the schoolroom, with no preparation for their work beyond their scholarship. In the lower scholastic regions they come from all manner of places, not only untrained, but also frequently untaught. There is some prospect now that when the public, through its ruling representatives, resolves to put the Education Act into complete operation, these ignorant and unskilled workmen will gradually disappear. Shall nothing be done for the higher ranks of schoolmasters? Shall they be left to acquire their skill "at the expense of their unfortunate pupils"? Shall no step be taken to secure for the pupils of our higher schools a succession of masters not merely well taught but well skilled in teaching? The time seems opportune to supply the long felt want; and we hail with satisfaction, therefore, the able advocacy of Mr. Jolly, one of Her Majesty's inspectors, whose address on the subject we quote in another column.

Mr. Jolly's plea is that a Chair of Education should be founded in connection with one or more of the Scottish universities; but we feel assured that his sympathies are deep enough to desire a similar appointment in connection with every seat of learning in Britain. While the student acquired the information which qualifies him for his degree or fits him for his future calling, he could, were such a chair established, obtain practical familiarity with the business of instruction. It is not intended that the chair should be filled by a mere lecturer, but that the practical work of teaching should be exemplified. There should be ready access to excellent schools already in operation, or model classes should be formed, which the students might have the opportunity of teaching and of seeing taught. All appliances required in school should be exhibited and explained; the various methods by which a given subject may be taught should be contrasted and valued. And as the lives of great men all remind us how we ourselves may make our paths sublime, the career of great teachers in the past should be held up for the consideration of the youthful student. There can be but one opinion regarding the desirability of such chairs, if your profession, as a whole, is to be equipped for the proper discharge of its duty. From the humblest village school to the highest in the land, there should be present in the teacher a fitness for his post—a high aim to excel, however narrow the sphere in which he labours—a head well stored with knowledge, and the best means of spreading it among his flock, combined with a heart imbued with the high and holy objects of the profession in which he is engaged. The eyes of the public are upon us; and if we are to be true to ourselves, we must use our influence to elevate the standard of our work and of those who enter our ranks. In the belief that the scheme so ably advocated by Mr. Jolly would aid us in this direction, we give it our hearty approval, and trust that his hopes may be speedily realised.—*The Schoolmaster.*

## OFFICIAL NOTICES.

Ministry of Public Instruction.

### APPOINTMENTS.

MEMBER OF CHARLEVOIX AND SAGUENAY BOARD OF EXAMINERS.

The Lieutenant-Governor,—by an Order in Council, dated

26th ult.,—was pleased to appoint the Rev. M. Joseph Sirois to replace M. J. N. Gingras, resigned.

### MEMBERS OF GASPÉ BOARD OF EXAMINERS.

The Lieutenant-Governor,—by an Order in Council, dated 6th inst.,—was pleased to appoint M. Louis Z. Joncas to replace the late Hon. John Lebouthillier, and William Flynn, Esq. to be an additional member—that a *quorum* may always be possible at the meetings of the Board.

The Lieutenant-Governor,—by an Order in Council, dated the 27 January last,—was pleased to appoint the following

#### SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS :

St. Charles de Caplan, Co. Bonaventure :—The Rev. M. André Audet and Messrs. Edouard Lepage, Frédéric Frélat, Salomon Babin, and Adolphe Poirier ;  
St. Charles Borromée, Co. Joliette :—M. Michel Jubinville to replace M. Amédée Cornelier ;  
East Farnham, Co. Missisquoi :—M. H. Allen to replace himself ;  
St. Anaclet, Co. Rimouski :—MM. Joseph Lavoie and François Lemieux to replace MM. Narcisse Roy dit Lauzon and Germain Vignola ;  
St. Roch (North), Co. Quebec :—M. François Cliche to replace M. Joseph Richard.

The Lieutenant-Governor,—by an Order in Council, dated the 26th ult.,—was pleased to appoint the following

#### SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS :

St. Placide, Co. Charlevoix :—M. Philibert Audet, to replace himself, and M. Leon Perron, to replace M. Alexandre Côté ;  
Ste. Blandine (Macpés Township), Co. Rimouski :—MM. Pierre Lepage, Paul Lepage, Antoine Proulx, Damasse Brisson, and Nazaire Emond.

The Lieutenant-Governor,—by an Order in Council, dated 5th inst.,—was pleased to appoint the following

#### SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS :

Clifton, Co. Compton :—Mr. William Pierce, to replace Mr. A. J. Martin ;  
Newport, Co. Gaspé :—M. Benjamin Cormier, to replace Mr. John Cordier ;  
Cherbourg, Co. Rimouski :—MM. Roch Tremblay, Fabien Turcotte, George St. Pierre, Paul Langlois, and Elzéar Ross.

The Lieutenant-Governor,—by an Order in Council, dated 9th February last,—was pleased to appoint the following

#### SCHOOL TRUSTEES :

St. Dunstan, Co. Quebec :—MM. David McAvoy, Edward Kelly and Patrick Brown.  
By an order of 26th of same month.—  
Huntingdon Village, Co. Huntingdon :—Mr. James Walsh, to replace Mr. John Cain.  
By an order of 5th inst.—  
Côteau St. Louis, Co. Hochelaga :—Mr. Thomas Hall, to replace Mr. A. Nelson ;  
Ste. Julie, Co. Megantic :—MM. George Benson Hall, junr., Archibald McKillop, and William Gardiner.

### DIPLOMAS GRANTED BY BOARDS OF EXAMINERS.

#### BEDFORD (PROTESTANT).

Session of February 3, 1874.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, 1st Class (E):—Misses Estella Holden, Martha M. Martin, Louisa Parker, Hattie A. Wells, and Maria Wetherby.

2nd Class (E) :—Misses Hattie Wetherby, Jane Ann Wallace, and Mr. Eldon H. Westover.

Wm. Gibson,  
Secretary.

#### BEAUCE.

Session of February 3, 1874.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, 1st Class (F) :—Mlle. Marie Drouin.

J. T. P. PROULX,  
Secretary.

## CHICOUTIMI.

Session of February 3, 1874.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, 1st Class (F):—Mlles. Marie-Louise Girard and Marie-Josephine Bergeron.  
THOMAS Z. CLOUTIER,  
Secretary.

## CHARLEVOIX.

Session of February 3, 1874.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, 1st Class (F):—Mlles. Marie Gagnon and Marie Gauthier.

CHS. BOIVIN,  
Secretary.

## GASPÉ.

Session of February 3, 1874.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, 1st Class (E):—Misses Rebecca Adams and Anastasia Connick.

2nd Class (E and F):—Miss Carmelia Rooney.

PHILIP VIBERT,  
Secretary.

## KANOURASKA.

Session of February 3, 1874.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, 1st Class (F):—Mlle. Marie-Clara Beaulieu.

J. G. PELLETIER,  
Secretary.

## MONTREAL (CATHOLIC).

Session of February 3, 1874.

MODEL SCHOOL DIPLOMA, 1st class (F):—Mlle. Louise Fontaine.

2nd Class (F):—M. Ernest Drouin.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, 1st Class (F):—Mlles. Eugénie Bourget, Cordélia Bourque, Diana Brault, Victorine Fontaine, Hermine Graton, Maria Héroux, Rose-de-Lima Joliceur, Marie Louise Landry, Ursule Lebeau, Valérie Miqué, Alfge Préfontaine, Céleste Robert, and M. Alfred Généreux; (E):—Miss Catherine Nary; (E. and F.):—Misses Hermeline Primeau and Mary Hanna.

2nd Class (F):—Mlles. Georgiana Bernard, Olivine Blain, Louise Charbonneau, Julie Demers, and Angelina Neveu.

F. X. VALADE,  
Secretary.

## OTTAWA.

Session of February 3, 1874.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, 1st Class (E):—Misses Maude Andrews and Margaret Carson.

2nd Class (E):—Misses Margaret Cosgrove and Violetta Parker.

JOHN R. WOODS,  
Secretary.

## QUEBEC (CATHOLIC).

Session of November 4, 1874.

ACADEMY DIPLOMA, 1st Class (F):—MM. Pierre Blanchet and Joseph Drapeau; (E. and F.):—M. F. X. Rosario Saucier.

MODEL SCHOOL DIPLOMA, 2nd Class (F):—Mlle. Marie Guenet.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, 1st Class (F):—Mlle. M. Lumina Bernier.

2nd Class (F):—Mlles. M. Alexandrine Bernier and Belzémire Bolduc; (E.):—M. Ann Kennedy.

N. LACASSE,  
Secretary.

Session of February 3, 1873.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, 1st Class (F):—Mlles. M. Alina-Odélie Gauthier and M. Hélène-Caroline Gauthier.

2nd Class (F):—Mlles. Adèle Fortier, M. Wandalia Gingras, M. Adèle Miville-Dechêne, M. Virginie Trépanier, and Cléopée Trudel.

N. LACASSE,  
Secretary.

## SHERBROOKE.

Session of February 3, 1874.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, 1st Class (E):—Misses Mary E. Steere, Martha Varney, and Clara J. Varney.

2nd Class (E):—Mr. Morrill Lindsay and Miss Mary L. Weir.

S. A. HURD, Secretary.

## THREE-RIVERS.

Session of February 3, 1874.

MODEL SCHOOL DIPLOMA, 1st Class (E and F):—Mlles. Adèle Beauchemin, Clarisse Champoux, Clarisse Prince, Lydia Triganne.

2nd Class (F):—M. Etienne Dostaler.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA (F):—Olivine Godin, Délia Poudrier, Amanda Lamirande, Reine Alie, Marie-Eléonore Lacourse, and Gilles Jutras.

2nd Class (F):—Mlles. Mary Jane Lafond, Julie Girard, and Marie-Louise Carignant.

EPHREM DUFRESNE,  
Secretary.

## ANNEXATIONS AND ERECTIONS OF SCHOOL MUNICIPALITIES.

The Lieutenant-Governor,—by an Order in Council, dated January 9th, 1874, was pleased

1. To erect that part of the School Municipality of St. Barnabé, in the County of St. Maurice, lying north of the river Yamachiche and running from the property of Zoël Bourassa, inclusive, as far as the limits of the said Municipality, to the School Municipality of Yamachiche, the residents not being numerous enough to form a separate District and too far away from the others to send their children;

2. To annex the Township of Neigette, in the County of Rimouski, to the Municipality of St. Anaclet,—until the said Township becomes sufficiently peopled to form a separate School Municipality

The Lieutenant-Governor,—by an Order in Council, dated 5th inst., was pleased

1. To annex the lands hereinafter described in the Municipality of St. Jean-Baptiste de Rouville, in the Co. of Rouville, to that of St. Césaire for school purposes;—namely, abutting on one end on the road in front of the Range *Dix terres*, on the other on the lands of Martin Lacaille and Aubert Fontaine; on the West on the lands of the Range of the Branch of the Rapids, and on the other on the lands of the Range of *Dix terres*, belonging to Denis Alix and Adonias Poirier;

2. To erect into a School Municipality, to be known by the name of Cherbourg, County of Rimouski,—the following,—namely, bounded on the North by the river St. Lawrence, on the North-east by the Township of Dalbert, on the South by the division line between it and the adjoining Township, and on the South-west by the Municipality of Ste. Félicité.

## Notice.

## DISSOLUTION OF BOARD OF SCHOOL TRUSTEES.

Notice is hereby given that the Dissentients of St. Pie, in the County of Bagot, having had no School in operation for more than a year, either in their own Municipality or conjointly with other Trustees in a neighboring Municipality, and that they are not taking any steps to carry out the school law, I shall recommend the Lieutenant-Governor in Council to order that the Board of Trustees for the Dissident Schools of said Municipality shall be declared dissolved after the expiration of three months from the date of the present notice, in conformity with Sec. 16, Cap. 16, 32 Vic.

(Signed) G. OUMET,  
Minister of Public Instruction.

Quebec, February 16, 1874.

## THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

QUEBEC, MARCH, 1874.

## Appeal in Behalf of Bishop's College, Lennoxville.

The buildings of the College School at Lennoxville having been recently destroyed by fire, the Corporation of Bishop's College are compelled to appeal once more to the public of Canada for the help necessary to rebuild the same.

The Corporation, in making this appeal, venture to submit the following facts in connection with the past history of the School, which may perhaps interest the friends of education generally, and at the same time give increased weight to their present appeal for aid.

Bishop's College School, established fifteen years ago as an educational experiment, and settled in temporary quarters in the village of Lennoxville, was enabled within a few years of its foundation, through the wise and able management of its first Rector, to attain such a position as to claim for itself a permanent and local habitation of its own. Guided by the advice mainly of the late Lord Bishop of Montreal, the Corporation decided upon erecting its School buildings on the College grounds and in near proximity to the College itself, with a view to utilizing in common for the two institutions the chapel, dining-hall and kitchen. A subscription list was accordingly set on foot, the College heading it with the gift of \$2,000, and its call was most generously responded to. Ultimately, however, it was found that the amount raised was not sufficient to cover the cost of the new buildings, and the College was compelled, in addition to its original gift, to make good the deficiency, thereby crippling for a time its resources very materially and impairing its efficiency as an educational establishment.

Latterly the School has been able to make some return to the College for its help in earlier days, by the payment of an annual rent in proportion to the amount advanced. This, combined with the most careful and strict administration of its finances, has enabled the College successfully to overcome the difficulties which threatened it. Its staff of Professors is once more complete, its resident students are more numerous than they have been for years, and the same prosperity which has attended the fortunes of the School seems once more to have revisited the College. The School, meanwhile, under its successive Rectors, was amply justifying the hopes and intentions of its foundation. Not only had it secured for itself a home, but it had also won for itself a name, second perhaps to none among the Schools of the country. Its old boys are to be found everywhere throughout the Dominion, reflecting and upholding in their various pursuits and callings the honour and credit of their School. The number of boys in the School, subject as it has been to the ordinary fluctuations to which all Schools are liable, has, during the 15 years of its existence, averaged 100 yearly. For the term immediately preceding the fire the School list included 125 boys—96 of whom were resident pupils, occupying the whole of the then accommodation of the School. The number might have been even larger had the School house afforded more room, the Rector having had to refuse, or at least postpone, the applications of many parents who sought admission for their children. This fact will show in a measure the positive advantage secured to the country by the existence of such an institution, and will perhaps commend itself even more strongly to the minds of some, when they consider that Lennoxville offers instruction and training which is religious as well as secular, that its spirit and tone is that of the English Public Schools and that its objects has been to rear its boys educationally, morally and socially to satisfy the requirements of any position they may be called to hold in after years in this or any other country.

The College, as may be surmised from facts mentioned above, feels itself hindered, and indeed by a recent enactment of the Corporation, is strictly prohibited from devoting any portion either of its capital or of its revenue to the re-erection of the School buildings. The Corporation would trust, therefore, that the people of Canada will respond generously and cheerfully to the appeal they

now make in behalf of the interests of higher school education, and supplement the efforts made by them in the earlier days of the existence of their College school. They feel that they can with justifiable pride point to the past history of this noble Canadian school as a ground, if any be needed, for their present appeal, for although other schools of a similar character and intent have been founded in Canada since Lennoxville attained its fame, still the want of such an institution is more and more felt throughout the country, while the truly national, Canadian feeling it has always fostered is more and more appreciated.

The total cost of the buildings destroyed, including furniture, was.....\$31,000 00  
 From this deduct loss covered by Insurance... 15,000 00  
 Leaving a net loss of.....\$16,000 00

(Signed) J. W. QUEBEC,  
 President of Corporation.

- R. W. HENEKER, Chairman.
- CHARLES H. BADGLEY, M. A.
- A. C. SCARTH, M. A.,
- B. J. MORRIS, Lt. Col.,
- HENRY ROE, B. A.,
- Building Committee.

February, 28th, 1874.

**European Royalty.**

“ALMANACH DE GOTHA” FOR 1874.

The present issue of this little, dumpy, yet very aristocratic publication, the “Almanach de Gotha” for 1874, is the one hundred and eleventh. Persons in possession of these hundred or more volumes might be able to work up a most interesting study on the fate of prominent royal families of Europe in the century past. Europe consisted, before 1859, of fifty-six independent States; and now, after the smaller Italian States have been swept out of existence and the German States are consolidated into an Empire, the number of really independent States has been reduced to fifteen—not including the petty independencies of Liechtenstein, San Marino, Monaco, Andorra, nor the semi-independent States of Roumania, Servia and Montenegro. The fifteen independent States of Europe are Russia, Germany, France, Austro-Hungary, Great Britain, Italy, Spain, Turkey, Sweden and Norway, Belgium, Portugal, Holland, Switzerland, Denmark and Greece. Some of these again are made up of smaller semi independencies. The German Empire is composed of twenty-six separate existences. The Czar of Russia is at the same time the Grand Duke of Finland; the Emperor of Austria is the hereditary King of Hungary; the Sultan enjoys the sovereignty over Roumania, Servia and Montenegro. The entire population of Europe is some 30,000,000, of which 147,000,000 are Catholics, 71,000,000 Protestants, 70,000,000 Greek Catholics, 5,000,000 Jews, and 6,500,000 Mahomedans. The foreign possessions of European States have a population of nearly 280,000,000, over 200,000,000 of which belong to England alone. Spain has 6,000,000 of subjects in her colonies.

In the following list will be found all the European States, independent and semi-independent, with their populations and rulers, and the age and length of rule enjoyed by the latter. The independent States enjoy the honor of being “numbered” in the list. Some of the independent States are so small that to include them at all in the list of royalty is sufficient.

EUROPEAN STATES AND RULERS.

COUNTRY.	RULER.	Age.	Length of Reign.	Population.
Catholic Christendom.....	Pope Pius IX.....	82	27½	
German Empire.....	Emperor William.....	77	3	41,000,000
Prussia.....	King William.....	77	13	24,656,078
Bavaria.....	King Ludwig II.....	28	10	4,852,026
Saxony.....	King Albert.....	45	2	2,656,244
Wurtemberg.....	King Carl I.....	51	9½	1,818,539
Baden.....	Grand Duke Frederick.....	47	22	1,461,562
Hesse.....	Grand Duke Ludwig III.....	67½	25½	852,894
Meck-Schwerin.....	Grand Duke Fred'k Franz.....	51	32	557,897
Saxe-Weimar.....	Grand Duke Carl Alex'r.....	55½	20½	286,183
Meck-Strelitz.....	Grand Duke Fred'k -Wm.....	54	13	96,992
Oldenburg.....	Grand Duke Peter.....	46½	21	312,696
Brunswick.....	Duke William.....	68	42½	311,764
Saxe-Meiningen.....	Duke George II.....	48	7½	187,857
Saxe-Altenburg.....	Duke Ernest.....	47	20½	142,122
Saxe-Cob'rg - Gotha.....	Duke Ernest II.....	55½	30	174,339
Anhalt.....	Duke Frederick.....	43	3	203,439
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt.....	Prince George.....	35	4½	75,523
Schwarzburg-Sonderhausen.....	Prince Gunther.....	72	38	67,191
Waldeck.....	Prince George V.....	43	29	56,224
Reuss (older).....	Prince Henry XXII.....	28	14	45,094
Reuss (younger).....	Prince Henry XIV.....	42	6½	89,032
Schaumburg-Lippe.....	Prince Adolph.....	56½	13	32,059
Lippe-Deimold.....	Prince Leopold.....	52½	23	111,135
Lubeck.....	Free City.....			52,158
Bremen.....	Free City.....			122,482
Hamburg.....	Free City.....			338,974
Alsace-Lorraine.....	Imperial.....			1,549,587
Total of the German.....				41,000,000
Russia.....	Czar Alexander II.....	55½	19	71,174,190
France.....	President MacMahon.....	65½	1	36,102,921
Austro-Hungary.....	Emperor Francis-Joseph.....	43½	25	35,904,435
Great Britain and Ireland.....	Queen Victoria.....	54½	36½	32,300,000
Italy.....	King Victor-Emmanuel.....	53½	13	27,000,000
Spain.....	.....			16,800,000
Turkey.....	Sultan Abdul Aziz.....	44	13	9,800,000
Roumania.....	Prince Carl I.....	35	8	4,500,000
Servia.....	Prince Milan.....	19	1½	1,325,000
Montenegro.....	Prince Nicholas.....	33	13½	120,000
Sweden and Norway.....	King Oscar II.....	45	1½	6,013,000
Belgium.....	King Leopold II.....	39	8	5,087,100
Portugal.....	King Louis I.....	35	12	4,000,000
Holland.....	King William III.....	57	25	3,674,000
Switzerland.....	Republic.....			2,669,000
Denmark.....	King Christian IX.....	56	10½	1,865,000
Greece.....	King George I.....	28	10½	1,458,000
Liechtenstein.....	Prince John II.....	33	15	8,320
Monaco.....	Prince Carl III.....	35	17½	3,127
Andorra.....	Republic.....			12,000
San Marino.....	Republic.....			7,306

The four latter principalities and republics in the list are placed as a matter of curiosity, and for the sake of completion. Their populations do not amount altogether to much more than 30,000—enough for a small town. On glancing over the list it will be found that the Holy Father is the oldest, eighty-two; then follows the Emperor of Germany, seventy-seven; then Prince Gunther, seventy-two. His Holiness does not seem to have any intention of pleasing his enemies in a hurry. The rumor of his sickness brought many to Rome in April last; but the aged Pontiff recovered, and has been heard of since then. The Emperor

William has recovered from his recent attack. Death has been busy in the royal ranks during the year. The Emperor Napoleon died on the 9th January. The Grand Duchess Helene of Russia followed on the 21st of the same month. Duke Carl of Brunswick, elder brother of the reigning Duke, died at Geneva in August. He had enjoyed the pleasures of rulership for a time, but had been driven from his throne and declared incapable of reigning by the German Bund in 1830. The most important change caused by death was the accession of King Albert to the throne of Saxony, succeeding the lamented King John. The new King, who delights in a long name—Albert Friedrich August Anton Ferdinand Joseph Carl Maria Baptist Nepomuk Wilhelm Xavier George Fidelis born on the 23rd of April, 1828, began his reign by coming into gentle conflict with the Empi e. He thought it necessary to his dynasty as King by the grace of God to send special Ambassadors to the European courts to inform them that Albert was now king. He also issued an address to the Saxon army, calling it "his," which claim offended the Kaiser in Berlin. He now talks of getting crowned and anointed, and has the idea of asking his august uncle at Berlin to attend, and give character and dignity to the imposing ceremonies then to take place. The year 1873 produced "one more unfortunate" dismissed from his throne. King Amadeus abdicated the Spanish throne on the 11th of February.—*Frankfort Correspondence.*

Girding the Earth with Postal Service.

The Cunard steamship Parthia, which arrived at Boston on the 26th day of January last, brought, among other mails, that for the Australian colonies, New Zealand, Sandwich Islands, etc., from London, consisting of one hundred and eighty sacks. These were forwarded to San Francisco for the steamer which sailed on the 31st of the same month. This was the first mail landed in the United States in connection with the establishment of the new mail line of steamships between London and Australia via San Francisco, opened for service on the 13th day of January. The connections were promptly made, and, it may be added, the fact illustrates the rapidity with which the commercial world is moving toward a complete, rapid, and universal postal system, involving the closer interchange of trade between the United States and England's great colonies in the Southern Seas, and creating mutual advantages calculated to bind the two countries in still closer bonds of friendship.

This great mail-route of over ten thousand miles, girding the earth in about fifty days, has only been established after repeated efforts. Thrice has the attempt been made, but never before with greater prospects of permanent success than those which now present themselves. The previous mode of communication to Australia from London, for mail purposes, was via Suez, and the time consumed in making the trip over fifty days. The steamers now employed under the new arrangement, will be only temporarily employed; four fast steamers, of 2,500 tons register each, are being built, to be ready for service some time next summer. The McGregor, which arrived at San Francisco January 26th, was the pioneer antipodal steamer of the line. She brought dates from Sydney, New South Wales, to December 20th, and from Auckland, New Zealand, to December 22nd. Upon her return, which was January 31st, she carried the mail to the Sandwich Islands and to the Australian colonies, stopping at Cordova, a station in the Feejee Islands, to connect with a steamer to Sydney and another to New Zealand. In this connection, consequent upon the establishment of this mail-line, the New-Zealand Navigation Company has placed, on the passage between Auckland and Poverty Bay and Napier, a steamer, and also one to engage in the coast-trade.

The establishment of this mail-line of steamships is worthy of more than passing notice. It is a striking feature in the romance of commerce and the advance of civilization. While among the stupendous ideas of modern commerce, we have an inkling of traversing by rail a distance of six thousand miles, by the Euphrates-Valley Railroad to India, through Turkey, extending to and crossing the Bosphorus by ferry thence straight to Adalia, on the Mediterranean, thence through the Euphrates-Valley, and along the shores of the Persian Gulf and the Arabian Sea, to its destination; while the railway under the Alps will shorten and cheapen the distance between the extreme East and the West; and from Egypt to London in a week, and to New York in seventeen days, will sooner or later, be reduced in time, and from New York to Bombay in eighty days instead of ninety-three, we are reminded, in a very striking manner—that the "iron horse" is jealous of the marine engine; that the palace-car vies with the sumptuously appointed cabin of the magnificent steamship. Viewed in the light of inter-commercial

progress, the establishment of the new postal line between London and New South Wales, *via* the United States, is one of the results, and perhaps the direct result, of the establishment of submarine cables, in connection with land-telegraphs, around the world. The girdle between England and Adelaide, South Australia, distance 12,650 miles, has tended to bring commerce nearer the millennium of its destiny. The telegraph, quickening the currents of trade, and tending to reduce the whole business world to a level, has created additional lines of steamships, as a commercial necessity. The merchant in his counting-room at New York, for instance, can now direct his agent at Melbourne what to do daily, but he cannot have the patience to wait one hundred days, or even fifty days, for his goods or for his letters. As there is now nothing impossible in the realm of telegraphy, so there is nothing impossible in commercial cooperative alliance, establishing new steamship lines and postal routes, bringing the distant parts of the earth into still nearer and closer commercial friendship.

The connection of the British colonies with the United States makes America a link between Australia and England, and the interchange of commodities which will no doubt take place by means of this route between the colonies and this country will increase the stability of the enterprise and strengthen the intercourse. America is peculiarly interested in the growth and productions of those colonies. New South Wales has an area of 300,000 square miles, and, with its adjuncts, a population of nearly 2,000,000; and the colonists export wool, hides, tallow, wheat, gold, sugar, wines, etc. Australia, in 1840, produced less than 10,000,000 pounds; and, in 1870, over 175,000,000 pounds. The number of sheep in the British colonial possessions in 1870 was nearly 70,000,000, or twice as many as in the United States at that period. The dependence of the American woollen manufacturers upon the sheep industry of the colonies with which the new mail steamship line has been connected, is well known. The value of American exports to Australia has now reached a large figure, and this commerce is constantly growing. Australia itself is a continent, with an area of 3,000,000 square miles; and Melbourne, adjoining New South Wales, has a population of 150,000. The distance from New York to Melbourne, *via* Cape Horn, is 13,390 miles; *via* Cape of Good Hope, 12,895 miles; *via* Panama, 11,165 miles. The distance by the new mail-route is still shorter, as three thousand miles of it is overcome by railroad—traversed in seven days. The progress of Australia has been rapid, and now has the aspect, in some respects, of an old-settled country. New Zealand, of which Auckland is the chief port, consists of three islands in the South Pacific Ocean, and 1,200 miles southeast of Australia. The population is about 150,000. The country is mountainous, but its flora is remarkable, while even tropical fruits may be raised. The British colonists have divided the country into seven provinces, and the exports consist principally of wool, tallow, flax, gums, and copper-ore. The value of the exports now amount to millions of dollars annually, and the imports to a sum more than twice as much. Auckland, the most northerly province, has a population of about 35,000, and the Bay of Islands, a small settlement fifty miles north of the city, is much resorted to by American whalers, and is the seat of a United States consulate. The Feejee Islands, where the mail steamships touch on the way to New Zealand, also lie in the South Pacific, and extend over an ocean area of 40,000 square miles, and the population is estimated at 300,000. The port of Cordova has a good harbor, and here, as well as near by, is where most of the white residents live. The first commercial intercourse between Europeans and the natives commenced in 1806. The islands support a paper, called the *Feejee Gazette*. A late number contains interesting items respecting the growing commercial industries of the group and their relation to other countries.

The steamers composing the new Australian mail-service are the *McGregor*, *Tartar*, *Mongol*, *Mikado*, and *Cyphrenes*, and the rates of fare, from San Francisco to Sydney, first class, \$200; to Melbourne, \$225; to Auckland, \$200; to Wellington, \$230; etc. The through-fare from London to Melbourne is less than \$500, according to the printed rates. It now no longer takes a letter or passenger three or four months to travel between London and Melbourne, as was the case only a few years ago; but we are promised despatch between the two points in forty days upon the completion of the new steamships.—*Appletons' Journal*.

### The British Empire of To-Day.

The recently published census of the British Empire recalls the splendid rhetorical figure of Daniel Webster about the drum-beat of its armies awakened by the sunrise, re-echoing from land to land, till it encircled the whole globe "with one continuous and unbroken train of the martial airs of England." The Queen of England now rules over 234,762,593 souls. There

is only one other more populous empire on the globe, that of China, which is calculated to have 477,500,000 of people. Russia which stands third in the list, has short of 80,000,000—only about a third of the numerical size of Great Britain. The United States is the seventh nationality in point of numbers, but in the course of a dozen years will probably stand next to Russia. The area of the British Empire is put down at 7,769,449 square miles, which makes it a trifle (in the midst of such figures) smaller than the Russian Empire, now possessing 7,862,568 square miles. The United States is the third in landed possessions—3,578,392 square miles—and Brazil is the fourth, having within about 200,000 square miles of our own extent of territory. The subjects of Queen Victoria are said to live in 44,142,651 houses, which, if the figures are accurate, can give but little practical idea either of value or comfort, for they would comprise dwellings of all grades from Holland House to the hut of the Hindoo or the New Zealander. Such, however, are the statistical outlines of the British Empire of to-day, the richest and most imposing, if not the most powerful materially and intellectually, of this age, and immensely superior to the great empires of antiquity.

The centre or hub of this vast nationality is the United Kingdom, which has but 121,608 square miles—which is almost exactly the size of our Territory of New Mexico, or about the same as the combined area of New England, New-York and New Jersey. There are 260 persons to the square mile in the United Kingdom, but only 38 to the square mile throughout the empire. In some parts of the colonies, however, as in portions of India, the density of population is greater than it is in England or Scotland. The European portion of the British Empire, aside from the home region, consists of but three little dots, as it were: Heligoland, with five square miles of territory, Gibraltar, with less than two, and Malta with 115—the last two being military stations, with garrisons amounting to some 14,000 men. The total population of the three is about 178,000.

In crossing the Atlantic a very different state of things is seen. In the Canadas or the Dominion, as it is now called, a population but slightly exceeding that of Scotland, inhabits a country ten times the extent of Scotland and is increasing steadily, but not rapidly, at something like an average rate of 14 per cent, in the decade. The total population is 3,789,670, inhabiting an area of 3,376,925 square miles; nearly the extent of the United States. The only other British possessions on the main land of the Americas are British Honduras, having only 377 whites, and Guiana having about 200,000 inhabitants, including 50,000 "immigrant or coolies from Asia." The West India Islands with 13,109 square miles and about a million of people and the little Falkland Islands, with 803 inhabitants, close the list of British American possessions.

On the African continent and adjacent Islands the English claim to be masters of 236,860 square miles of territory, peopled by 1,813,450 inhabitants. In Australia we find six divisions, ranging all the way from 24,000 inhabitants up to 731,528 in Victoria. The greatest of all the British colonial possessions, however, is India, whose population is reckoned at 191,307,070, distributed over an area of 938,366 square miles and inhabiting 487,061 villages. In addition are the Island of Ceylon, with over two millions of people, Singapore, Malacca, Hong Kong, etc. Truly, Mr. Webster's imagery was as correct as it was striking.—*Boston Journal*.

### Biographical Sketches.

When a man dies who has lived a long and useful life, it is fitting, both in honor to the dead and for the benefit of the living, that his peculiar traits of character should be made known.

#### BARON MEYER AMSCHEL DE ROTHSCCHILD,

Of Mentmore, Bucks, J. P. and D. L., late M. P. for Hythe, died on the 6th ult. He was born June 29, 1818, the youngest son of Nathan Meyer Rothschild, of Frankfort, created a Baron of the Austrian Empire in 1822, and was grandson of Meyer Amschel Rothschild, the banker of Frankfort and founder of this famous family of financiers.

This founder was a Jewish citizen of Frankfort, who got an extraordinary start as money lender through the patronage of

the Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel. Circumstances and his own money-making genius so favored him that when he died, in 1821, he had five sons stationed at the head of immense establishments at Frankfort, London, Paris, Vienna and Naples. They were all leagued together, so that they controlled the finances of Europe, and often imposed peace when irate monarchs wanted war. They were almost invariably prosperous in their operations, but on one occasion, during the February revolution of 1848, they lost over forty millions of dollars, without causing them the least apparent embarrassment. The head of the house in London was Nathan, second son of the Frankfort founder, and generally considered the most like his father in financial ability. He left two sons, Anthony and Lionel, the latter having three sons, one of whom, as we have said, was the Baron just deceased. The family were Liberals in politics.

#### MR. HERMAN MERIVALE.

Herman Merivale, Esq., C. B., D. C. L., Under-Secretary of State for India, author of "Lectures on the Colonies and Colonization," of "Historical Studies," and of the concluding volumes of "The Life of Sir Henry Lawrence" and "The Life of Sir Philip Francis," died on the 8th February last, in his sixty-ninth year. He was son of the late John Herman Merivale, of Barton Place, Devon, Commissioner of Bankruptcy, by Louisa, his wife, daughter of Dr. Drury, Head Master of Harrow. He received his education at that celebrated school and at the University of Oxford, where he obtained a first class in classics, the Ireland and Eldon Scholarships, and a fellowship at Balliol. He was called to the Bar in 1831, and was the second to fill Mr. Henry Drummond's chair of Political Economy at Oxford. In 1847 he was appointed Under-Secretary for the Colonies, and in 1848 Permanent Under-Secretary at the India Office.

#### MR. SHIRLEY BROOKS,

Charles Shirley Brooks, late Editor of *London Punch*, died on the 23rd ult., and was interred at Kensal-green Cemetery, in the presence of a few of his many attached personal friends. We would refer our readers to *The Illustrated London News* of March 7, for an obituary of Mr. Brooks.

Before assuming the editorial chair at the *Punch* office, he wrote for the *Illustrated London News* a weekly article on the topics of the day. Latterly the readers of that Journal enjoyed the graces of his contributions, in "By the Way," and the preceding series of "Nothing in the Papers."

Mr. Brooks was born in 1815, being son of the eminent architect, William Brooks. He was educated at a city public school, and was articled to a solicitor, but left the profession for the work of a newspaper reporter, from which, like Charles Dickens, he passed by an easy transition to light literature and to the composition of plays and novels. He was sent by the *Morning Chronicle* to examine and describe the condition of the peasantry in the South of Russia, after the repeal of the corn laws, and his letters were reprinted in a separate volume. His best novels are "Aspen Court," "Gordian Knot," and "the Silver Cord," which have gone through several editions.

#### THE HON. J. JOHNSTONE.

The Hon. J. Johnstone, Judge in Equity of the Supreme Court of Nova Scotia, whose death at Cheltenham took place on the 15th ult., was born in 1792. His grand father Lewis Johnstone, a Scotchman of the Annandale family, having married Miss Peyton, removed to Georgia, and was Governor of that province when the United States were still colonies of Great Britain. His father entered the Army in 1775, and served during the war of American Independence, three of his uncles being killed in action, fighting on the British side. His mother was the only child of captain John Lichtenstein, of Austrian extraction. Judge Johnstone was educated by a private tutor, the Rev. Dr. Duncan, of Ruthwell, Dumfriesshire. He went to Halifax, Nova Scotia, at the age of nineteen, was called to the Bar in 1815, and rose to distinction as one of the foremost lawyers in British North America. At an early age he adopted a political career, and until his elevation to the Bench he represented continuously one of the largest constituencies in the province. He was a member of the Executive Council, and became, successively, Solicitor-General and Attorney-General,

was the acknowledged head of the conservative party, and the leader of the Conservative Government when in power. Judge Johnstone was one of the earliest advocates of the Confederation of the British Provinces, which measure he warmly supported throughout his life. In 1857 he was sent, together with the Hon. Adams Archibald, on a delegation to England, on behalf of Nova Scotia, to adjust the claims of the mining associations. In June, 1873, he was appointed Governor of Nova Scotia; but his declining health prevented his acceptance of the post. Judge Johnstone was distinguished as an eloquent orator, a man of great legal acumen and knowledge, of marvellous grasp of intellect, of chivalrous honour, and unswerving rectitude.

#### JULES MICHELET.

The death of the French historian, Jules Michelet, took place on the 19th ult. The deceased was, born at Paris, August 21st, 1798, and was son of an employé in the office for printing assignats. Young Michelet, after a preparatory course of study, entered the Collège Charlemagne. Here he devoted himself to the study of history, and after many brilliant successes he appeared as a public teacher. In 1821 he contested the Chair of History in the Collège Rollin, where he also taught ancient languages and philosophy up to 1826. While in the Collège Rollin he produced his first work, "Tableaux Synchroniques de l'Histoire Moderne," which procured for the young author the nomination of President of the Board of the Normal School. After the revolution of 1830 Michelet was appointed Chief of the Historical section of the Archives of the Realm; at the same time M. Guizot, unable, on account of his political duties, to continue his lectures on history in the Faculty of Literature at the Sorbonne, named Michelet as his substitute. The King also conferred on him the position of Professor of History to the young Princess Clementine. At this time he produced the first volume of his "History of France," which was succeeded by a series of other works on the same subject. In 1838 Michelet succeeded M. Daunon in the Chair of History in the Collège of France, and also took the Chair of Science and Morals in the Academy, vacated by Count Reinbard. He was also at this time elected member of the Institute. In 1847 appeared his first volume of "The History of the Revolution." This year the Liberal Party requested Michelet to become a candidate for the Assembly, but he declined the nomination, preferring to devote himself to the completion of his great historical works, then unfinished. Michelet still retained his position in the Collège of France, but owing to his strong democratic ideas the Government stopped his course of lectures in March, 1841, against which he vigorously protested in the public journals. After the events of the 2nd December, Michelet refused to take the oath to the new government, and, as a consequence, he had to resign his position as chief of the Historical portion of the Archives. Afterward, having lost his wife, he retired to private life and engaged himself in the publication of his historical works. In 1856 he published "L'Oiseau," "L'Insecte" appeared the year following, "L'Amour" the next year, "La Femme" in 1859, "La Mer" in 1861, "La Sorcerie" in 1862, all of which were republished at Bruxelles, and "Lamontagne" in 1868. At about this period also appeared his polemic works, which had a vast circulation, among which are "La Pologne Martyre" and "La Bible et L'Humanité." His principal works are: "Tableau Chronologique de l'Histoire Moderne," 1825; "Histoire de France," sixteen volumes, 1837-67; "Introduction à l'Histoire Universelle," 1843; "Precis de l'Histoire Moderne," 1833; which went through twenty editions; "Precis de l'Histoire de France jusqu'à la Revolution Française," 1842, seven editions. "Origines du Droit Français Cherchées dans les Symboles et Formules du Droit Universel," 1837; "Les Femmes de la Révolution," 1855; an imitation of the "Scienza Nuova," of Vico, entitled "Principes de la Philosophie de l'Histoire," 1831; a translation of the "Memoirs de Luther," 1835. Besides his numerous works he was a contributor to the public journals and scientific periodicals. Of late years Michelet lived a very retired life, seldom appeared in public, and almost entirely ceased from his literary labors.

#### EX-PRESIDENT FILLMORE, U. S.

Millard Fillmore, thirteenth President of the United States, who died at Buffalo, N. Y., on Sunday night 8th inst., was born in Cayuga County, N. Y., in 1800. After trying the trades

of tailor and wool-comber, which he did not much like, he was advised to study law, and in 1823 was admitted to the Bar, settling and practising at first in Aurora, N. Y. He was elected to the New York Assembly, and subsequently to the Federal Congress. Being a Whig, he had no opportunity to come to the front till 1841, when, owing to financial embarrassments into which the Union had been plunged under Democratic ascendancy, that party were overthrown, and the Whigs swept the country. In the subsequent measures to retrieve the financial position he took a leading part as Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means. He was elected Vice-President under General Taylor in 1848, and on the subsequent death of the latter became President. The N. Y. Herald says of him:

It is a noteworthy fact that Millard Fillmore became a prominent figure in politics with the advent of the Whig party as a political power in 1840, and that the party expired with his Presidency in 1852. He was essentially a man of compromises. Had he been a strong man, as Chase was, for instance, he would have seized upon the opportunity to make the Whig party an anti-slavery party. As the leader of the House in the Twenty-seventh Congress, Mr. Fillmore had the opportunity of becoming the great anti-slavery leader of the country. In failing to grasp the distinction he attained the highest dignity in the Republic; but that other distinction brought him no marked honors.

SENATOR SUMNER,

The eminent American Statesman, died at Washington, on the 11th inst., at the age of 65.

He was born at Boston, on the 6th of January, 1811, graduated at Harvard and studied law there after taking his degree. He practised at Boston in 1834, when he was called to the Bar, visited Europe three years later and was in Paris at the time of General Cass' embassy. At his request it was that he wrote a defence of the rights of the United States in reference to the questions at issue between the two governments. His opposition to the annexation of Texas, his support of Van Buren's candidature for the Presidency in 1848, and above all his determined policy in the matter of abolitionism, brought him into notoriety both on this continent and in Europe. In 1841 he succeeded the Great Webster in his place in the Senate, and when the war of Secession broke out, became known as one of the bitterest opponents of England. Nevertheless when the Trent affair threatened to embroil the United States in a war with Great Britain, he recommended the surrender of Mason and Slidell, albeit he maintained the right of the Federal Government to retain the captured envoys. He was a warm advocate of the metric system and recommended the throwing out by the Neutrality Laws Abolition Bill, passed unanimously by the House of Representatives out of hostility to England. He was for several years Chairman of the Congressional Committee of Foreign Affairs, and his name has frequently been associated of late with important measures.

THE REV. JOHN IRWIN.

It is with feelings of regret that we record to day the death of the Rev. John Irwin, which took place at Nanticoke, Ontario, on the 19th instant. In these feelings we will, doubtless, be joined by many of our readers in this city and elsewhere, who were acquainted with the deceased—more especially by the members of that congregation (St. Luke's) to whom for many years he ministered. To his family and more intimate friends the news of Mr. Irwin's death will have been a sad surprise, as he was but a short time ailing, having caught cold during the delivery of a series of lectures or addresses, which resulted in an attack on the lungs. The deceased clergyman was born in the County Tyrone, Ireland, and received his collegiate and theological education at Trinity College, Dublin. Subsequently he held the position of Principal of the College in Ballinasloe. On his first arrival in this country in 1847 he was appointed assistant minister in Christ Church Cathedral, and served subsequently as incumbent of St Thomas's. After the great fire of 1852 he went to Boston, where he did duty, not only as a clergyman, but also as assistant editor of the *Christian Witness*. He was for a considerable time Rector of St. John's, P. Q., after resigning the charge of which place he became incumbent of St. Luke's and chaplain to the gaol. He also held an appointment for some time in Port Dover, Ont. During his residence in Montreal he held the appointment of Commissioner on the Protestant Board of School Commissioners. For some years past Mr. Irwin was engaged in writing for the religious press of this city and elsewhere. He had always the reputation of

being an excellent scholar, a ready penman and skilful controversialist. He was the editor of the Rev Dr. Falloon's History of Ireland, to which he wrote an ample and learned introduction. But his chief power was in the pulpit and on the platform. Indeed, in his best days, as a preacher and writer, he had few superiors—(*Montreal Gazette* of March 23.)

MR. WILLIAM STEWART,

For many years a school teacher in Aylmer, but of late years of Ottawa, died in that city on the 12th inst. On the 14th inst., a special meeting of the Board of School Trustees, and also a special meeting of the Teachers' Association of that city were convened to make arrangements for attending the funeral of this worthy teacher, and to express sympathy with the bereaved family of the deceased. The following resolution was passed by the Association, and one couched in almost the same words by the Board of School Trustees:

"This Association learns with profound regret of the death of Mr. William Stewart, one of the staff of teachers for 1874. For twenty-three years Mr. Stewart has acted as a teacher in Ottawa, and has been intimately associated with Public School matters. In this capacity he gained for himself, and leaves behind him, a record worthy of our emulation. Long will his name be remembered by his pupils, grateful for his many acts of kindness to them. His sincerity, zeal, and upright walk gained for his memory both respect and esteem. As a valued member of this association, taking a prominent part in its working, he will be remembered for his hearty support of all that tended to our welfare. In Mr Stewart's decease, we have lost an upright teacher, distinguished for zeal and perseverance; we earnestly sympathize with his family in their bereavement, and sincerely trust that our merciful Father will give strength to sustain them in this hour of trial and sorrow."

Meteorology.

—OBSERVATIONS taken at Halifax, Nova Scotia, for the month of February, 1874; Lat: 44° 39' North; Long. 63° 36' West; height above the Sea, 175 feet, by Serg't John Thurling, A. H. Corps.

Barometer, highest reading on the 2nd.....	30.449 inches.
"    lowest    "    "    11th.....	28.883    "
"    range of pressure.....	1.616
"    mean for month (reduced to 32°).....	29.791
Thermometer, highest in shade on the 14th.....	47.2 degrees.
"    lowest    "    "    2nd.....	12.3
"    range in month.....	59.5
"    mean of all highest.....	29.8
"    mean of all lowest.....	10.0
"    mean daily range.....	19.8
"    mean for month.....	19.9
"    highest reading in sun's rays.....	104.2
"    lowest reading on the grass.....	-15.0
Hygrometer, mean of dry bulb.....	22.2
"    mean of wet bulb.....	20.9
"    mean dew point.....	12.4
"    elastic force of vapour.....	.075
"    vapour in a cubic foot of air.....	0.9 grains.
"    weight required to saturate do.....	0.5
"    the figure of humidity (Sat. 100).....	63
"    average weight of a cubic foot of air.....	574.0
Wind, mean direction of, North.....	6.00 days.
"    "    East.....	3.00
"    "    South.....	5.25
"    "    West.....	12.25
"    "    Calm.....	1.50
"    daily force.....	3.8
"    daily horizontal movement.....	333.9 miles.
Cloud, mean amount of (0-10).....	6.1
Ozone, mean amount of (0-10).....	2.8
Rain, number of days it fell.....	5
Snow, number of days it fell.....	11
Amount collected on ground.....	8.40 inches.
Fog, number of days.....	4

Wanted

The School Commissioners of Cape Despoir, Gaspé, want, for 1st July next, three Teachers holding First Class Elementary School Diplomas and capable of teaching English and French—to whom liberal salaries will be paid. Apply to

REV. FRANCIS McDONNELL, Pres.,  
or  
PHILIP AHERN, Sec.-Treas.