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RECENT EDUCATIONAL SPEECHES IN ENGLAND.

(Third Series, continued from page 19.)

V.—THE RIGHT HON. W. E. GLADSTONE, CHANCELLOR OF THE EXCHEQUER.

We take the following remarks from Mr. Gladstone's recent speech on laying the corner stone (designed to embrace a school of art, a museum and free library) of a Memorial Institute at Burslem, in Staffordshire, to be erected by the inhabitants of the Potteries in honour of their fellow-townsmen, the late JOSIAH WEDGWOOD, whose name and genius are so intimately associated with the enterprise and art manufacture of the district.

UTILITY AND BEAUTY OF THE PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY—DIVINE TEACHINGS AND CHRISTIAN EXAMPLES.

We may consider the products of industry with reference to their utility, or to their cheapness, or to their influence upon the condition of those who produce them, or, lastly, to their beauty; to the degree in which they associate the presentation of forms and colours agreeable to the cultivated eye with the attainment of the highest aptitude for those purposes of common life for which they are properly designed. . . . We come, now, to the last of the heads which I have named—the association of beauty with utility, each of them taken according to their largest sense, in the business of industrial production; and it is in this department, I conceive, that we are to look for the peculiar pre-eminence, I will not scruple to say the peculiar greatness, of Wedgwood. Now, do not let us suppose that when we speak of this association of beauty with convenience, we speak either of a matter which is light and fanciful, or of one which may, like some of those I have named, be left to take care of itself. Beauty is not an accident of things, it pertains to their essence; it pervades the wide range

of creation, and wherever it is impaired or banished we have in this fact the proof of the moral disorder which disturbs the world. Reject, therefore, the false philosophy of those who will ask, "What does it matter, provided a thing be useful, whether it be beautiful or not," and say in reply that we will take our lesson from Almighty God, who in His works hath shown us, and in His Word also hath told us, that "He hath made everything," not one thing or another thing, but everything "beautiful in his time." Among all the devices of creation there is not one more wonderful, whether it be the movement of the heavenly bodies, or the succession of the seasons and the years, or the adaptation of the world and its phenomena to the conditions of human life, or the structure of the eye or hand or any other part of the frame of man—not one of these is more wonderful than the profuseness with which the Mighty Maker has shed over the works of His hands an endless and boundless beauty. And to this constitution of things outward, the constitution and mind of man, deranged though they be, still answer from within. Down to the humblest condition of life, down to the lowest and most backward grade of civilization, the nature of man craves and seems as it were even to cry aloud for something, some sign or token, at the least, of what is beautiful in some of the many spheres of mind or sense. We trace the operation of this principle yet more conspicuously in a loftier region—in that instinct of natural and Christian piety which taught the early masters of the fine arts to clothe the noblest objects of our faith, and especially the idea of the sacred Person of our Lord, in the noblest forms of beauty that their minds could conceive or their hands could execute.

After referring to the efforts of the State "for nearly a quarter of a century" "to strike off the fetters of industry," and at the same time to "interpose with boldness for the protection of labour" Mr. Gladstone proceeded to regard industry in its higher relations to art and æsthetic culture as follows:

CONTROLLING INFLUENCE OF A REFINED TASTE ON INDUSTRIAL ART.

It is difficult for human beings to harden themselves at all points against the impressions and the charm of beauty. Every form of life that can be called in any sense natural will admit them, where it has full dominion, excludes every other; it shuts out even what might be called redeeming infirmities; it blinds men to the sense of beauty as much as to the perception of justice and right. On the other hand, I do not believe it is extravagant to say that the pursuit of the element of beauty in the business of production will be found to act with a genial, chastening, and refining influence on

the commercial spirit ; that up to a-certain point it is in the nature of a preservative against some of the moral dangers that beset trading and manufacturing enterprise, and that we are justified in regarding it not merely as an economical benefit, not merely as contributing to our works an element of value, not merely as supplying a particular faculty of human nature with its proper food, but as a liberalizing and civilizing power, and an instrument in its own sphere of moral and social improvement.

STRIIVING AFTER EXCELLENCE—ITS INFLUENCE ON MEN'S CHARACTERS.

We may not be able to reproduce the time of Pericles or the *cinque cento*, but yet it depends upon our own choice whether we shall or shall not have a title to claim kindred, however remotely, with them. What we are bound to is this, to take care that everything we make shall in its kind and class be as good as we can make it. When Dr. Johnson, whom Staffordshire must ever place among her most distinguished ornaments, was asked by Mr. Boswell how he had attained to his extraordinary excellence in conversation, he replied he had no other rule or system than this, that whenever he had anything to say he tried to say it in the best manner he was able. It is this perpetual striving after excellence on the one hand, or the want of such effort on the other, which, more than the original difference of gifts, contributes to bring about the differences we see in the works and characters of men. Such efforts are more rare in proportion as the object in view is higher, the reward more distant. In the application of beauty to works of utility, the reward is generally distant.

NATIONAL ART CHARACTERISTICS—FRANCE, ENGLAND, GREECE, ITALY.

The beautiful object will be dearer than one perfectly bare and bald, not because utility is compromised for the sake of beauty, but because there may be more manual labour, and there must be more thought in the original design.

"Pater ipse colendi
"Hand facilem esse viam voluit."

It may be argued that, in the case, for example, of durability and solidity, that which appears cheapest at first is not cheapest in the long run. And this for two reasons. In the first place, because in the long run mankind are willing to pay a price for beauty. France is the second commercial country of the world ; and her command of foreign markets seems clearly referable in a great degree to the real elegance of her productions, and to establish in the most intelligible form the principle that taste has an exchangeable value. England has long taken a lead among the nations of Europe for the cheapness of her manufactures ; not so for their beauty. There are three regions given to man for the exercise of his faculties in the production of objects, or the performance of acts conducive to civilization and to the ordinary uses of life. Of these, one is the homely sphere of simple utility. Then there is, secondly, the lofty sphere of pure thought, and its ministering organs, the sphere of poetry and the highest arts. Here, again, the place of what we term utility is narrow ; and the production of the beautiful, in one or other of its innumerable forms, is the supreme, if not the only object. Now, I believe it to be undeniable that in both of these spheres, widely separated as they are, the faculties of Englishmen and the distinctions of England have been of the very first order. In the power of economical production she is at the head of all the nations of the earth. If in the fine arts, in painting, for example, she must be content with a second place, yet in poetry, which ranks even higher than painting, I hope I am not misled by national feeling when I say it, she may fairly challenge all the nations of Christendom, and no one of them but Italy can as yet enter into serious competition with the land of Shakespeare. But, for one, I should admit that while thus pre-eminent in the pursuit of pure beauty on the one side, and of unmixed utility on the other, she has been far less fortunate,—indeed, for the most part, she has been decidedly behindhand, in that intermediate region, where art is brought into contact with industry, and where the pair may wed together. This is a region alike vast and diversified. Upwards it embraces architecture,—an art which affords the noblest scope for grace and grandeur, downwards, it extends to a very large proportion of the products of human industry. Utility is not to be sacrificed for beauty, but they are generally compatible, often positively helpful to each other ; and it may be safely asserted, that the periods when the study of beauty has been neglected have usually been marked, not by a more successful pursuit of utility, but by a general decline in the energies of man. In Greece, the fountainhead of all instruction on these matters, the season of her highest historic splendour was also the summer of her classic poetry and art ; and, in contemplating her architecture, we scarcely know whether most to admire the acme of beauty or the perfect obedience to the laws of mechanical contrivance. The arts of Italy were the offspring of her freedom, and

with its death they languished and decayed. In the particular department of industrial art, France, perhaps, of all modern nations has achieved the greatest distinction ; and there is no country which has displayed, through a long course of ages, a more varied activity, or acquired a greater number of titles to renown.

THE INFLUENCE OF WEDGWOOD ON ENGLISH INDUSTRIAL ART.

Of imagination, fancy, taste, of the higher cultivation in all its forms, this great nation has abundance. Of industry, skill, perseverance, mechanical contrivance, it has a yet larger stock, which overflows our narrow bounds and floods the world. The one great want is to bring these two groups of qualities harmoniously together ; and this was the peculiar excellence of Wedgwood ; his excellence, peculiar in such a degree as to give his name a place above every other, so far as I know, in the history of British industry, and remarkable and entitled to fame even in the history of the industry of the world. We make our first introduction to Wedgwood about the year 1741, as the youngest of a family of 13 children, and was put to earn his bread at 11 years of age in the trade of his father, and in the branch of a thrower. Then comes the well-known small-pox, the settling of the dregs of the disease in the lower part of the leg, and the amputation of the limb rendering him lame for life. In the wonderful ways of Providence, that disease which came to him as a twofold scourge was probably the occasion of his subsequent excellence. It sent his mind inwards ; it drove him to meditate upon the laws and secrets of his art. The result was, that he arrived at a perception and a grasp of them which might perhaps have been envied, certainly have been owned by an Athenian potter. Relentless criticism has torn to pieces the old legend of King Numa receiving in a cavern from the nymph Egeria the laws that were to govern Rome. But no criticism can shake the record of that illness and mutilation of the boy Josiah Wedgwood, which made for him a cavern of his bedroom, and an oracle of his own inquiring, searching, meditative, and fruitful mind. From those early days of suffering, weary perhaps to him as they went by, but bright, surely, in the retrospect both to him and us, a mark seems at once to have been set upon his career.

SKETCH OF WADGWOOD'S CHARACTER—HIS WONDERFUL ACHIEVEMENTS.

Here is a man who, in the well-chosen words of his epitaph, "converted a rude and inconsiderable manufacture into an elegant art, and an important branch of national commerce." Here is a man who, beginning as it were, from zero, and unaided by the national or Royal gifts which were found necessary to uphold the glories of Sevres, of Chelsea, and of Dresden, produced works truer, perhaps, to the inexorable laws of art than the fine fabrics that proceeded from those establishments, and scarcely less attractive to the public taste. Here is a man who found his business cooped up within a narrow valley by the want of even tolerable communications, and who, while he devoted his mind to lifting that business from meanness, ugliness, and weakness to the highest excellence of material and form, had surplus energy enough to take a leading part in great engineering works like the Grand Trunk canal from the Mersey to the Trent, which made the raw material of his industry abundant and cheap, which supplied a vent for the manufactured article, and opened for it materially a way to the outer world. Lastly, here is a man who found his country dependent upon others for its supplies of all the finer earthenware ; but who, by his single strength, reversed the inclination of the scales, and scattered thickly the productions of his factory over all the breadth of the continent of Europe. In travelling from Paris to St. Petersburg, from Amsterdam to the furthest point of Sweden, from Dunkirk to the southern extremity of France, one is served at every inn from English earthenware. The same article adorns the tables of Spain, Portugal, and Italy ; it provides the cargoes of ships to the East Indies, the West Indies, and America.

VI.—NASSAU W. SENIOR, ESQ.

RELATIONS OF THE STATE TO EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

From the inaugural address of Mr. Senior, as President of the Social Science Congress Department of Education, we make the following extracts :—After a synoptic view of the different branches of education, its division into teaching and training, and these into various subdivisions, Mr. Senior proceeded to consider the classes of persons to whom education is given, with respect to their means of paying for it. These, he said, might be divided into three groups—those whose parents can afford to pay for the whole of their education ; those who can afford to pay only a portion of the expense ; and those who could not pay any part of it. In reference to these classes he said :—Freedom of teaching is peculiarly British. When I say that the interference of the State in the education of the higher and middle class is not absolutely necessary, I do not mean to treat it as useless. I mean merely to distinguish

the higher and middle classes from those who are unable to pay the whole or any part of the expense of a good education, and who must owe such an education wholly or partially to the care of the State, or the benevolence of individuals. The general result of the inquiries of the Royal Commissioners on popular education in England is that the whole expense of giving a good education to a child is about 30s. a year; and that little more than one third of that sum can be obtained from its parents and friends. The remainder must come from the liberality of individuals, or from the State. The manner and the extent to which the State ought to interfere in the education of the classes who are pecuniarily able to procure it wholly or partially themselves is a question, or rather a collection of questions, of great difficulty. But the question how it ought to deal with the education of paupers seems at first sight to be perfectly clear. A pauper is, by the definition of the word, a person who cannot provide for his children the necessaries of life. Those necessaries, therefore, must be supplied to them by the State. They are the children of the state. She stands to them *loco parentis*. Is education one of those necessaries? I firmly believe that you will agree with me that it is. I firmly believe that you will all agree that to starve a child's soul is as wicked as to starve its body. Far more wicked, indeed, because far more mischievous. Far more mischievous to the child, and far more mischievous to society. A child whose body has been starved to death is as if it had never existed. It is merely one human being the fewer. A child's soul cannot be starved to death, it can only be perverted. It must live a source of misery to itself and to every one else in this world. In a little work called *Suggestions on Popular Education* I had complained that under the existing law the protection of a child from ill-treatment by its parent is confined to its body; that he is allowed not merely to neglect its education, but even though a pauper—though by that supposition unable to educate it himself—to refuse to allow it to be educated by others.

STATE OF MIDDLE-CLASS EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

Referring to middle-class education, Mr. Senior said that while Royal Commissions had sat on the Universities and public schools, and similar Commissions and Parliamentary committees had spent years in examining into the state of the schools of the lower orders, those of the middle classes had been completely neglected. He referred to the alleged incompetence of the teaching in these schools, and said that the first step towards a remedy for the lamentable state of things of which they had already got some evidence was to know accurately the amount and the causes of the evil. For that purpose he ventured to propose that the association petition the Crown to issue a Commission to inquire into the present state of the education of the middle classes in the British Islands, and to consider and report what measures, if any, are required for the extension of sound education to those classes. The middle classes bore the greater part of the taxation of the empire, and paid, therefore, the greater part of the public money expended on education. Would they long consent to an expenditure from which they alone received no benefit? Would the English farmer contentedly see his landlord's son educated at a richly endowed school and university, and his labourer's son educated, perhaps, still better, in a national school, while the farmer himself must put up with a far inferior school, and pay to it twenty times as much?

RECENT EDUCATIONAL SPEECHES IN CANADA.

Third Series, continued from page 22.

VI. REV. J. J. BOGERT, M.A., LOCAL SUPERINTENDENT.

WHAT ARE NOT, AND WHAT ARE THE OBJECTS OF OUR SCHOOL SYSTEM.

I would ask you to take a look with me at our system of public education as provided by the existing laws, and enquire if we are not by this system of education placed under obligations for the fulfilment of certain duties, and rendered responsible to a greater or less degree for any failure in attaining the ends which it might seem to promise. If the people of this country fancy that the framers of the present system of education have relieved them of the entire trouble of educating their youth—have invented and set in motion a sort of machine which will seize upon every child within its reach, and within a given time transform a brainless dunce into a finished scholar, or convert the veriest boor into the polished gentleman, and that all they have to do is to pay the taxes, which they may consider as the fuel necessary to keep the machine in motion, and watch the very wonderful and interesting transformation—if this be their idea of education, they are certainly laboring under a gross misapprehension of its true nature, and the sooner it is dispelled the sooner shall we have an improvement in the working of the system. And here let us ask, what are the advantages which our school system seems to promise to the people

at large, who keep it in operation? To the community at large, one of such advantages is the elevation in the scale of intelligence of all those, who, without such a system, would be debarred from obtaining an education even of the most elementary character. This in itself is the sole advantage looked for from the school system by a large class of the community—by those who pay school taxes and yet send no children to be educated at the common school. These may well feel satisfied if they find that their money has been an instrument in raising the mental calibre of the mass of those amongst whom they dwell—in facilitating the interchange of opinions on subjects of which the uneducated can have but very limited or very imperfect ideas—in banishing from their midst that prejudice and narrow-mindedness which are the almost inseparable companions of ignorance, and the curse of many a society—and in fine in raising their fellow-citizens to such a position that in an honest pride they may challenge the attention of all around them, and declare what their own position has verified, that

"He is a freeman whom the truth makes free,
And all are slaves beside."

But there is a large class of the community who look for other and more direct advantages. I allude to those parents, guardians, and others who have children to educate. The additional advantages which they look for are the means of obtaining for their children a good, sound, plain education—a thorough instruction in the ordinary branches of learning, and, in a word, such a store of learning as will fit them for entering any of the common avocations of life; or, should their inclination and their circumstances permit, for ascending another flight of steps in the Temple of learning. Such I conceive to be the advantages looked for in this system of education now under our consideration.

[Mr. Bogert proceeds to criticise the manners and conduct of the pupils of the common schools, as well as the nature and value of the elementary knowledge imparted to the pupils in the schools. He then refers to those whom the community hold responsible for the defects in our school system as follows:]

DIFFICULTIES OF LOCAL SUPERINTENDENTS AND TRUSTEES.

Now who is to blame for the defects already alluded to? I fancy I hear some one replying to my question, 'The fault lies with the local superintendent—it is his duty to see that all is going on well—that their teachers are competent for their duties, and that they perform them.' I am ready to admit the statement in part—nay, I am ready to admit that if the local superintendent neglect his duties, much evil may arise; but I cannot allow that all or the chief blame is to be attributed to him. If the defects we have spoken of arose solely from incompetency or neglect of the teacher—if the superintendent were always in the position to give a correct judgment concerning such incompetency or neglect, then of course he would be the one most deserving of blame; but I cannot admit either supposition. We turn to those who state that they consider the fault lies in the trustees. I suppose the trustees will all readily admit, as I did on behalf of the local superintendents, that if they neglect their duty, much of the blame would rest upon them. But even in those places where the trustees evidently take an interest in the management of the schools, giving an evidence thereof by their regular attendance at the meetings of the Board and by their frequent visits to the schools, you may still hear great complaints against them and often on totally different counts. In one place you may hear Mr. A. complaining that although the schools are called common, still, the trustees, by the high fees which they have imposed, have made the schools far too select, to the exclusion of the poorer classes. In another place Mr. B. complains, that since the trustees have made the school free (or the fees so low, as the case may be) the rooms have become packed with the riff raff of the place, and that it is utterly impossible for the teacher to pay proper attention to all the children. In another place Mr. C. finds fault with the trustees for giving such a high salary to one teacher, instead of dividing it amongst two or more. In another, Mr. D. declares it is disgraceful for the trustees to retain those two or three inferior teachers, when one good one would do so much better. Then Mr. E. cries out for better buildings, and Mr. F. cries out extravagance. Mr. G. says the trustees know nothing and I daresay we might find the Mr. H. whose complaint would be that they knew too much. I cannot undertake to look into all these charges, and enquire how far the respective trustees are blameworthy—I would rather reply to them in a general way. The great object of our school system is, to bring a liberal education within the reach of all, so that even the poorest can derive benefit from it, should he think fit. This, too, should be the great object of the trustees—avoiding extravagance on the one hand, lest the maintenance of schools be looked upon as a grievous burden; and a too strict parsimony on the other, lest you thereby entirely defeat the object in view. If these things were borne in mind by the

trustees, and acted upon, they would have little for which to blame themselves; for did they err at all, it would be only in matters of detail; they could only be guilty of errors of judgment.

THE NECESSITY AND IMPORTANCE OF GOOD SCHOOL-HOUSES.

After commending the school trustees of Napanee for erecting good school-houses and for making their schools free to all classes of the community Mr. Bogert says:—Some people seem to think that all that is necessary for the education of children is a good master, books, maps, and other material, and sitting room. A nice, airy, cheerful room, they will tell you, is all very well, if it can be easily obtained, but certainly not one of the requisites. Let me ask such persons to look back to the time of their own school days, and if it was their lot to be penned up in a close, dingy room, perhaps they will remember being overcome at times with a drowsiness, which in spite of their just remonstrances cost them a verbal, if not a more touching correction from their teacher. Perhaps they will remember those stupefying headaches, which unfitted them for the time for the acquisition of knowledge. But perhaps they have forgotten these things; then I would only ask them to spend a few hours with the children in the school-room of this village, and I shall be surprised if at the end of that time they do not wonder that the children get on as well as they do. Medical men will tell you that the soundness of the mind depends, to a great extent, upon the health of the body, and that for the latter good ventilation and plenty of light are requisite. And remember, it is not the children alone that suffer in such cases as we have been speaking of, but the teachers as well: and if no higher motive, surely the improvement of your children, which must depend to a certain extent upon the condition of the teacher's mind, should make that a matter of importance to you. The steps then which the Trustees have taken towards providing suitable buildings for our schools are worthy of the commendation of all—an object which will be a boon not only to teachers and children, but also to the people at large: nay, more, for if in the proposed buildings some little consideration be paid to appearances, the village itself will be adorned; the architectural taste of the people at large, and especially of the children, will be improved, and these latter will have an additional evidence of the interest which is taken in them by their elders, and an additional inducement to profit by the benefits which are conferred upon them.

DIFFICULTIES AGAINST WHICH SCHOOL TEACHERS HAVE TO CONTEND.

Listen to that very numerous class who tell us that the reason why the children do not make more progress is, simply because their teachers are incompetent, or negligent, or both. I believe that they who take this view form a very numerous class. I believe that a great many persons, when they find that their children do not progress as rapidly as they had hoped or expected, at once satisfy themselves that the fault lies in the teacher. And it is to a great extent because the class is so large that my sympathies for the teacher are so great. Of course I readily admit that if a teacher is incompetent or negligent, i. e., if he cannot or will not teach, the children's education must be impeded; at the same time I deny that if the children do not progress, therefore the fault lies entirely with the teacher. If the children all possessed good capacities for learning, and if they received all the out-of-school assistance (if I may so call it) which they ought, and none of the out-of-school hindrances, and still they did not progress, then I might agree with you in blaming the teacher. But how seldom is the child so circumstanced! There is still another condition over which the teacher has no control, and which may materially affect the progress of the children: and that is the excessive number of scholars. This people are apt to forget; they do not consider that all minds are not similarly constituted, and that the form in which instruction is conveyed must be adapted to these several minds. They do not consider the great difference which exists in the temperaments of different children, and that different methods must be made use of in governing them. If people did consider these things they could not fail to perceive that the greater the number of children under a master's care, the more difficult must be the task of training their minds, both intellectually and morally. Surely then we should not be too hasty in blaming the teacher as the sole or even chief cause of backwardness in the children under him. We should be more inclined to bear in mind the course of preparation which he must undergo before he can be declared competent for the discharge of his duties—the time and money which he must spend in acquiring the necessary qualifications—the nature of his work—the great trial of patience which it necessitates—and all the difficulties which daily beset him, and to which I have already alluded; all these things we should bear in mind, and then I think the cases will not be many in which the teacher will be found more worthy of our blame than of our sympathy.

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS ON WHAT THEY TEACH.

I would now add a few remarks directed to school teachers and to those who propose becoming such, in the shape of warnings against some mistakes into which they are liable to fall. And first, with reference to *what they teach*. There is a great danger of teacher's paying particular attention to the higher and more ornamental branches of education, to the neglect of the more ordinary and necessary branches. And indeed, when we look into the matter, we can scarcely blame those that fall into this error. When we consider the great competition which exists in this profession—when we consider, as we do with regret, that the question whether a person is to be a teacher in a certain school or not, often depends upon the amount of outward display he can make, and the greatness of his pretensions—when we consider that this desire to teach the higher branches on the part of the teacher, is very frequently seconded by the desire of the parents that these subjects should have the especial attention of their children—and when we consider that such parents generally measure the progress of their children by the number of ologies and onomies which they pretend to be learning—when we consider all these things, we feel inclined to make some allowances for those teachers who commit so great a fault. I call it a fault, and I do so, because I think that it defeats the object, or one of the great objects of education. Were we to put the question—what are the chief objects of an ordinary education?—a very large proportion of the community would be satisfied with giving some such answer as this: the chief object of education is the granting information on the various branches of learning which it comprises.—In other words they look upon the minds of those to be educated as so many store-houses to be filled, or *crammed* if possible, with facts already ascertained. But this is a great mistake, this is not the chief object of education. The mind must not be considered solely or chiefly as a store-house, but rather as a factory. Its owner must be taught the uses of the machinery, if I may so express myself, with which it has been furnished by our Great Creator; the mind must be taught not only to store away the facts which are the works of the minds of others, but also, and more especially, to create facts for itself. In other words, it must be taught not only to remember, but also to think: and this latter should be the great object of education.

FURTHER SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS ON THEIR MANNER OF TEACHING.

And now with reference to the *manner of teaching* I shall not attempt to go into this subject to any extent, merely warning teachers against an error into which some seem to fall, the error of neglecting the senses as means by which to reach the mind, and, on the contrary, endeavouring to cram what they would teach directly into the memory, and perhaps to force it home by the blows of a cow-hide, neglecting the warning of Dr. Temple, 'not to forget wisdom in teaching knowledge.' But I dare say I can best convey my meaning by the following story, slightly altered from the original:—"Some years ago," says Dr. Brown, of Edinburgh, "I was in one of the wildest recesses of the Perthshire highlands. It was in autumn, and the little school supported mainly by the chief, who dwelt all the year round in the midst of his own people, was to be examined by a sort of School Superintendent whose native tongue was Gaelic, and who was as awkward and ineffectual, and sometimes as unconsciously indecorous, in the English, as a Cockney is in his kilt. It was a great occasion: the keen eyed, firm-limbed, brown cheeked little fellows were all in a buzz of excitement as we came in, and before the examination began every eye was looking at us strangers, as a dog looks at his game or when seeking it. They knew everything we had on, every thing that could be known *through their senses*. Well then the work of the day began, the mill was set a going, and what a change! In an instant their eyes were like the windows of a house with the blinds down; no one was looking out: everything blank; their very features changed; their jaws fell; their cheeks flattened; they drooped and looked ill at ease, stupid, drowsy, sulky—and getting them to speak, or think, or in any way to energize, was like getting any one to come to the window at three of a summer's morning, when if they do come, they are half awake, rubbing their eyes and growling. So with my little Celts. They were like an idle and half asleep collie by the fireside, as contrasted with the collie on the hill and in the joy of work. I noticed that any thing they really knew roused them somewhat; what they had merely to transmit or pass along as if they were a tube through which the master blew the pea of knowledge into our faces, was performed as stolidly as if they were nothing but a tube. At last the teacher asked where Sheffield was, and was answered. It was then pointed to by the dux, as a dot on a skeleton map. And now came a flourish. What is Sheffield famous for?—Blank stupor, hopeless vacuity, till he came to a sort of sprouting Dougal Cratur—almost as wee, and as glegg, and as towsy about the head as my own kintail terrier—who was trembling with keenness; he shouted out something which was

more like 'cutlery' than anything else, and was received as such amid our rapturous applause. I then ventured to ask the master to ask small and red Dougal what cutlery was; but from his blushes I twigged at once that he didn't know himself what it was. So I put the question myself, and was not surprised to find that not one of them, from Dougal up, knew what it was. I told them that Sheffield was famous for making knives and scissors and razors, and that cutlery meant the manufacture of anything that cuts. Presto! and the hands were all up, and eagerness, and nous and brains at the window. I happened to have a Wharnccliffe with 'Rogers & Sons, Sheffield,' on the blade. I sent it round and finally presented it to the enraptured Dougal. Wouldn't each of those boys, the veriest booby there, know that knife again when he saw it, and be able to pass a good examination on it? And wouldn't they remember cutlery—for a day or two? Well, the examination over, the superintendent performed an oration of much ambition and difficulty to himself and to us; and concluded with thanking the Chief, as well he might, for his generous support of 'this ancient cemetery of education.' Cemetery indeed! the blind leading the blind with the usual result."

A GRAVE RESPONSIBILITY RESTS UPON PARENTS IN THIS MATTER.

Who then is to blame if the children of this country do not improve under our school system as we might expect? Let me endeavour to answer. I say that the blame need not be laid upon local superintendents, trustees or teachers; and for this reason, that there is another class of the community, intimately connected with the children, who have it in their power to exercise a very great influence over them. I allude to parents and guardians; and I have no hesitation in saying that they themselves must be prepared to bear a large proportion of the blame in question, unless they can give favourable replies to the following questions. Do you endeavour, so far as you can, to second the efforts of those more directly connected with the school to educate your children? Do you look after your children as closely as you ought, at such times as they are without the immediate supervision of the school teacher? Are you careful to make them perform such duties as are imposed upon them by the teacher, when they are at home—such as a preparation of their lessons for their next attendance at school? Do you invariably uphold the authority of the master, when exercised lawfully? Do you never nullify his teachings by the example which you set? Do you make a point of encouraging the children by giving evidences of the interest which you take in their education? These are questions which every parent or guardian ought to be able to answer satisfactorily, before he lays the blame upon the shoulders of others. I might go one step farther and show that any member of the community—although he be not a parent or guardian—may retard the progress of the children living about him. To do this, I should only have to prove the existence of connecting links between all the members of a community (which, indeed, no thoughtful person would ever deny) and consequently of the powerful influence which each can exercise therein, either for good or for evil. Time, however, prevents our giving any lengthened proof of this, did it require it. The object of this lecture has been to show that all of us are more or less to blame for whatever defects we may find in the efficiency of our schools. But we must not rest satisfied with this; our work has but begun when we have discovered where lies the fault. To find out the seat of the disease, is an all-important point for him who would work a cure; but if the cure be not effected to this discovery is worthless. Let us then, one and all, endeavour to do our respective parts in the great work of educating our children. It is a work worthy of the consideration of the highest intellect—worthy of no small proportion of the time and talents of us all. To the moral improvement of mankind, as an object for our attainment, we must undoubtedly give the highest place; but after it, what object can the philanthropist or patriot prefer to the culture of their minds? When we consider that the children of to-day are by and by to be the men of Canada, and to occupy the positions which we do now, we must look upon their education as the pen in God's hand which is writing our country's future history. Let then their education, moral and intellectual, be such as it ought to be, and we can listen with unconcern to the speculations or forebodings, in which some indulge, with reference to our future. To us it cannot be else than bright; for it will be the future of a people highly blessed, and using its blessings under the direction of reason and of God.

THE FRUIT OF SIN.—What is the fruit of sin? Sometimes it brings honour and fame, as it did to the prophet Balaam; sometimes it bears a wedge of gold, as it did for Achan; at other times it produces purple and fine linen, as it did to Dives. Do you say, then, "I will sin?" Stop! It bears another fruit besides. DEATH. Do not forget! if you WILL sin, you MUST die the second death.

II. Papers on Reformatories and Crime.

1. REFORMATORY PRISON SCHOOLS OF CANADA.

1. THE REFORMATORY AT ST. VINCENT DE PAUL, LOWER CANADA.

(Extract from the Report of the Inspectors for 1862.)

As a proof of the moral condition of the institution, and of the reformatory influence which it exercises on juvenile offenders in general, the Inspectors have ascertained with much pleasure that many young persons who entered the Institution with very unhappy antecedents, left it completely changed, and became useful members of society. The Warden, in his report, hereto annexed, cites a touching illustration of this, well known to the Inspectors as well as to the public in the neighbourhood.*

A fact trifling in itself, but at the same time highly significant, occurred during the last year. In the centre of the boys' play ground is an apple tree, which in the season became covered with fruit. The Warden forbade the boys to touch the fruit, and even to gather any which might be blown down by the wind; wishing to make proof of the effect of his discipline, he allowed them to be under the impression that he wished to reserve the fruit for his own family. During the whole time of this prolonged trial, not one of the boys succumbed to temptation; the apples grew, ripened, and were gathered without the slightest infraction of the orders of the Warden having come to his knowledge. It is needless to add that the apples were afterwards given to the young prisoners, in different shapes, accompanied by the praises which such exemplary conduct merited.

A circumstance like the above proves at one and the same time the intelligence of the mind which could take advantage of such trivial matters, and the importance of the results to be obtained by means of a strict discipline paternally administered.

The judicial authorities have also shewn their marked confidence in this institution by the large and increasing number of young delinquents they have sentenced to the Reformatory of St. Vincent de Paul during the last year.

2. THE REFORMATORY AT PENETANGUISHENE, UPPER CANADA.

The state of discipline, the religious education and secular instruction, and the sanitary condition continue to present the most cheering aspect. The Warden relates with feelings of pleasure, honorable to a man entrusted with the direction of an institution of this kind, the story of a young man who had been an inmate of the Reformatory, and who, on being enlarged, had entered the army, and in a few months, by his good conduct, had earned his corporal's stripes. This young man had so far gained the confidence of his superiors as to have obtained leave of absence. He spent his leave at Penetanguishene, revisiting the institution which had been the means of snatching him from a life of shame and misfortune.

The Board here takes the opportunity of calling to mind the recommendation made by them last year to introduce into the Reformatory prisons a system of military drill. The young man just mentioned doubtless owed his rapid promotion in the army, to a certain extent, to the military instruction he had acquired at Penetanguishene.

The works of the new prison which is being built at Penetanguishene, on a splendid site, have been vigorously pushed forward with considerable care, as far as the grant of last year would permit. There is great need to bring these works to a speedy conclusion, for space is wanting for many important purposes. The buildings are being conducted with all the economy compatible with solidity and durability. The young prisoners themselves do a great portion of the work which is ordinarily done by machinery; they do, besides, all the excavation and quarrying, and a portion of the transport required. They manufacture all the bricks for the buildings, under the direction of a competent workman.

It will be seen, on reference to the third column of the tables relating to Common Gaols, that in the course of the year 1862, no less than 438 young persons, under the age of 16 years, were inmates of the common gaols, otherwise schools of vice, while the two Reformatory Schools had only 194 young offenders within their walls during the same period.

* A youthful convict, who had undergone his sentence of seven years' detention, three years and some months in the Provincial Penitentiary, and the remainder of his term in the house, was entirely changed, and so remarkable for his good conduct after his release, that he obtained in marriage, very recently, the hand of a young person of virtuous character and most respectable family, and as before, so after marriage, his excellent conduct and his assiduity and exactness in the fulfilment of his duties as a christian and a citizen, have gained him the esteem and respect of the inhabitants of the parish in which he has resided since his liberation.

If private benevolence would come to the rescue, and found Houses of Refuge for a sufficiently large number of poor children, who are brought up in the street, and in miserable hovels, and if the Government would furnish accommodation in our Reformatories for all the young persons that the law takes cognizance of, we shall have cut off in a great measure the most prolific source of crime in the midst of our population. But it is impossible to do all the good which we should desire, and all things considered we have no reason to be dissatisfied with the amount of good which our two Provincial Reformatories have already effected, or to imagine that the money expended on them has been unprofitably employed.

There is a question which the Inspectors have already discussed, but which they think it right again to revert to; a question which the Wardens of both Reformatories have also mooted: that is, as to the length of imprisonment for young offenders. Imprisonments of too short a duration are of no use, because if requires time to effect a change of the heart and habits, and thoroughly to learn any trade. All writers appear now agreed in recommending that no prisoner should be sent to a Reformatory for less than three years, and the Inspectors are decidedly of opinion that this should be the minimum sentence. If the sentence is longer, so much the better for the boy.

2. CRIME IN TORONTO DURING 1863.

Number of Arrests.—The number of arrests made by the police during the year 1863 was 4,124 against 4,544 made during 1862, thus showing a decrease of 420. Of these, 2,787 were males; and 1,337 were females, showing a remarkable decrease in crime, there having been 420 fewer arrests made in 1863 than in 1862.

Ages of Offenders.—The following are the ages of the offenders from ten years upwards:—From 10 to 15 years, 88 males and 5 females; from 15 to 20, 47 males and 2 females; from 20 to 30, 994 males and 536 females; from 30 to 40, 800 males and 408 females; from 40 to 50, 540 males and 230 females; from 50 to 60, 234 males and 97 females; from 60 to 70, 70 males and 21 females; from 70 to 80, 9 males and 1 female; from 80 to 90, 4 males; from 90 to 100, 1 male. Total, 4,124.

Native Countries.—Ireland, 1,424 males and 998 females; Canada, 469 males and 113 females; England, 422 males and 126 females; Scotland, 172 males and 46 females; America, 73 males and 24 females; Germany, 32 males; Negroes, 69 males and 29 females; other countries, 8 males.

TORONTO GAOL ANNUAL STATISTICS.

The following statements shew the number of prisoners committed to the Gaol of the United Counties of York and Peel during the year 1863, from both the counties and the city:—

Counties—felons, males, 54; females, 8; misdemeanants, males, 55; females, 56; total males, 110; do. females, 63. *City*—felons, males, 184; do. females, 58; misdemeanants, males, 672; do. females 874; total males, 856; do. females, 932. The total number of prisoners of both sexes from the county and city in 1863 was 1,961, showing a decrease of 120 prisoners compared with 1862.

Native Countries.—The native countries of the prisoners were:—England, males 175, females 74—total 249; Ireland, males 465, females, 703—total 1,168; Scotland, males 62, females 35—total 97; Canada West, males 155, females 93—total 248; Canada East, males 33, females 38—total 71; United States, males 66, females 40—total 106; Germany, males 7; other countries, males 9, females 12—total 21.

Trades and Occupations.—Almost all trades were represented, and even the higher professions and that of teaching did not escape:—Architects, 1; agents, 2; blacksmiths, 13; boiler-makers, 1; butchers, 7; brickmakers, 5; basket makers, 1; bookkeepers, 1; bakers, 4; clerks, 21; cabiners, 5; carpenters, 37; cabinet makers, 1; chair makers, 2; coach makers, 2; cigar makers, 1; carriage trimmers, 2; contractors, 2; coopers, 1; carters, 4; confectioners, 1; chandlers, 4; dyers, 3; drill-masters, 2; engineers, 2; engine drivers, 2; farmers, 13; fullers and carvers, 1; fishermen, 1; gas-fitters, 1; gardeners, 2; law students, 2; masons, 7; merchants, 5; machinists, 3; musicians, 2; marble polishers, 1; moulders, 9; millers, 1; medical students, 1; ostlers, 1; pedlars, 8; paper stainers, 1; plumbers, 1; plasterers, 7; printers, 19; rope makers, 1; painters, 12; sawyers, 2; slaters, 1; surgeons, 1; storekeepers, 4; shoemakers, 38; stonecutters, 3; sailors, 23; soldiers, 38; lawyers, 1; tin-smiths, 10; tailors, 31; teachers, 7; toll-gate keepers, 1; umbrella makers, 1; waggon makers, 1; wood carvers, 1; weavers, 4; watchmakers, 3.

Ages of Prisoners.—Number of males 16 years and under, 82; females do., 47; from 16 to 20, males, 109; females do., 105; from 20 to 30, males, 324; females do., 432; from 30 to 40, males, 224; females do., 249; above 40, males, 227; females, 162.

State of Education.—272 males and 426 females could neither read nor write; 119 males and 273 females could read only; 518

males and 295 females could read and write imperfectly; 57 males and 1 female could read and write well.

Intemperance.—As usual, the vast majority of the offenders were of intemperate habits; the females, however, in this instance, far outnumbered the males. Out of the whole number committed, there were 533 males and 829 females of intemperate habits.

3. REFORMATORY AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.

Mr. Sydney Turner, Her Majesty's Inspector, reports that the number of young offenders in the 65 reformatory schools of Great Britain was 4,536 at the end of 1862. 3,582 were boys, and 954 girls; 3,533 Protestants, and 1,003 Roman Catholics. The average cost per head in England for maintenance, management, and industrial training (not including building expenses or rent), was £19 19s. 3d. for boys, and £18 16s. 5d. for girls. The total expenditure of the reformatories exceeded the Treasury allowance of 6s. a week, or £15 12s. a year, by upwards of £20,000; one-third of this was contributed from the rates, and £12,000 from voluntary subscriptions. The parents' payments amounted to £2,564; magistrates, from a mistaken feeling of compassion for the parents, or a fear of ultimately bringing them on the parish rates, excuse many who certainly ought to pay. It is satisfactory to find a marked decrease, in last year's criminal returns, in the number of offenders under 16 years of age, and it may fairly be regarded as showing that these schools have had remarkable success. This conclusion is confirmed by the returns of prisoners recognized or traced as having been in a reformatory school. They amounted in England last year to about 5 per cent. for the Protestant schools, and 10 per cent. for the Roman Catholic; but considering that many have escaped recognition, or relapsed into vice or crime, but have not been committed within the year, this percentage of relapses may fairly be trebled. These figures are substantially confirmed by the returns made by reformatories of the character and circumstances of their discharged inmates, and justify the conclusion drawn in former reports, that the average of reformations effected by reformatories is about 75 per cent. Encouraging as this is, Mr. Turner feels assured that with long sentences, efficient training, and a conditional release under a ticket of leave, the conditions of which are carefully enforced, the number of relapses may be greatly lessened. The discharges for the year amounted to 1,160, of whom 131 emigrated. The deaths were 11 in the English Protestant schools and 10 in the Scotch, on average populations of 2,676 and 690; and 12 in English Catholic schools and 5 in Scotch, on average populations of 664 and 247. The superior healthfulness of the English Protestant schools is ascribed to the cheerful, active tone of the schools. At the Mount St. Bernard's Catholic Reformatory, the arrangements which it was thought had secured a better and more independent management, were reversed, and it has been put under suspension until placed on a better footing. The school would have been closed but for the interposition of Cardinal Wiseman, who informed Mr. Turner that he had obtained powers from Rome to settle the reformatory on a more satisfactory footing, and that he wished, if possible, to keep it in action; but this solution of the question has proved more difficult than was anticipated. In the meantime the admission of fresh cases was prohibited, and the number of inmates reduced as far as practicable. It is thought the proportion of relapses after discharge must have been at least 50 per cent. Mr. Turner attributes this lamentable result partly to defective discipline and inefficient training, and partly to carelessness in discharging; it is in the disposal of the inmates that all reformatories are most tried. With respect to industrial schools certified under the Act of 1861, the Inspector has little to report. There were in them at the close of 1862, 641 boys and 308 girls. Of the children admitted in the course of the year, 194 had lost father or mother, 29 both, 57 were deserted, and the parents of 25 others were in gaol. These figures show the importance of the Act of Parliament which authorizes the magistrates to interfere for the rescue of such children. The application of the Act, however, advances very gradually. All the commitments of Protestant girls to school in and about London amounted to only seven in the course of the year. To the Middlesex county industrial school at Feltham are committed lads convicted of housebreaking, and who have been repeatedly in prison—an association full of peril to the merely vagrant and disorderly class, the industrial school cases proper.—*English Journal of Education.*

4. CERTIFIED REFORMATORY AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS OF GREAT BRITAIN (1863).

1. REFORMATORY SCHOOLS.—The number of reformatory schools in Great Britain on 31st December 1862 was 65, viz. :—England, boys 36, girls 16; Scotland, boys 6, girls 5; and for both boys and girls, 2; the buildings being arranged in these for the separate ac-

commodation and instruction of each sex. The number of young offenders under detention in these institutions on the 31st December 1862 was 4536, of whom 242 were on license and 17 in prison, leaving 4266 actually in the schools.

The numbers under detention and newly admitted during the last five years are as follow :—

Years.	Under Detention.	New Admissions.
1858	2797	988
1859	3261	1285
1860	3843	1466
1861	4337	1545
1862	4536	1338

It is a matter of great satisfaction that the returns for the year 1862 (made up as usual for the twelve months ending September 30), show a marked decrease in the number of offenders under sixteen years of age, as compared with the year previous,—the total for both sexes being less by 451. The following are the numbers returned for the five years ending September 30, 1862, for England and Wales, of both juvenile and adult commitments :—

Years.	Under Sixteen Years of Age.	Above Sixteen Years of Age.
1858	10,829	107,833
1859	8,913	98,159
1860	8,029	92,585
1861	8,801	103,343
1862	8,349	117,126

In Scotland the returns (made up to the end of June in each year and for offenders of both sexes) show similar results :—

Years.	Offenders under Sixteen.	Offenders above Sixteen.
1858	1,228	16,782
1859	1,230	18,383
1860	1,062	18,218
1861	1,212	17,366
1862	1,120	18,581

The contrast shown by these figures between an increase of above 15,000 in the adult, and a decrease of above 500 in the juvenile classes of criminals is very remarkable, and may fairly be referred to by the promoters of reformatory schools, as showing that the preventive agency which they have brought to bear upon the younger descriptions of offenders has been followed by a remarkable success.

The same favourable conclusion as to the soundness and success of the reformatory system may be drawn from the returns as to the number of prisoners during the year who were recognized or traced as having been in a reformatory school.

The figures show that the re-convictions for English reformatories amounted to nearly 5 per cent. on the number discharged from Protestant schools, to 11 per cent. for those from Catholic girls, and to 18 per cent. for those from Catholic boys' schools. The percentage of re-convictions for the Scotch reformatories appears to be—for Protestant boys nearly 6 per cent., for Protestant girls 5 per cent.; for Catholic boys 15 per cent., and for Catholic girls 54 per cent.

A long sentence, an efficient and religious master, industrial training, and a conditional release under a ticket-of-leave, whose conditions are carefully enforced, lie at the foundation of the success which our best reformatory schools have attained; and in proportion as all these four conditions are observed, this success may be expected to be more decided, and the benefits conferred by the reformatory system more general and lasting.

The whole number of admissions for Great Britain was 1338; of these, 275 were children under 12, and 781, or about 5-9ths of the whole, were sent on a first commitment.

The total receipts and expenditure on account of reformatory schools for the year 1862 were as follows :—

The total expenditure for the year was £92,396 12 8

The receipts were—

Treasury payments for maintenance,	£68,140 14 1
Parents' payments through Inspector,	2,564 9 1
Subscriptions, legacies, etc.,	11,250 13 9
Contributions from rates,	7,055 17 6
Voluntary Association contributions, and payments for voluntary inmates	798 5 7
Sundries,	2083 17 6
Total,	£91,893 17 6

The average cost per head in English reformatories was, for boys, £19, 19s. 3d.; for girls, £18, 16s. 5d. It must be remarked that the "cost per head" includes only the expenses of maintenance and management and industrial training. Rent of school premises and expenses for outfit, passage to colonies, etc., on disposal are taken separately. The total expenditure of the reformatories exceeded the amount of the Treasury allowance, which is now fixed at 6s. per week, or £15, 12s. per annum, by upwards of £20,000. Of this, one-third, or about £7000, was contributed from the rates, and £12,000 from voluntary subscriptions.

The "parents' payments" have been necessarily affected by the diminished employment, and consequent distress, of a large proportion of our manufacturing population. They amounted for 1862 to £2564, 9s. 1d., (the amount for 1861 being £2428 12s. 8d.)

2. CERTIFIED INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.—The total number of schools of this class certified in Great Britain is 45, viz., England 25, and in Scotland 20. The number of children under magistrates' order increased during the year from 297 boys and 183 girls on December 31, 1861, to 641 boys and 308 girls on December 31, 1862. Of the 420 boys and 171 girls admitted during the year, 18 were under 7, and 69 between 7 and 9 years of age. The particulars of the circumstances of the children admitted as to parentage and family, very strongly illustrate the value of the Act which authorizes the magistrate to interfere for their rescue. Twelve were illegitimate; 57 deserted; 29 were wholly orphans; 194 had lost either father or mother; the parents of 25 others were in gaol, under sentence of imprisonment. To protect and train to industry such children must be at once a duty and an advantage.

The amount contributed by parents and parochial authorities towards the maintenance of the children under detention was £1061, 16s. 8d.—*The Museum.*

5. VICIOUS CHILDREN.

A recent report of the State Reform School of Wisconsin, (like all reports from kindred institutions), reveals the intimate connection between vice in the children, and sin or sinful neglect in the parents; and yet, it is strange how much more freely labour and money is expended to correct the child than to better his home. Of seventy-two inmates, whose age average twelve years, nearly one-fourth have an intemperate father or mother or both. One-half have been confirmed truants. More than half have been addicted to lying and stealing, and nearly half to profane speech. More than one-fourth have been without regular employment—have been previously arrested for crime, and are in the habitual use of tobacco and strong drink!

No person who is at all familiar with the dwelling places from which most of our reformatory inmates come, can fail to be impressed with the unfavourableness of the soil to the production of any other fruit. Here and there we find an instance of great poverty coupled with cleanliness of person and abode. Mean as the furniture is, it is whole and tidy. Comfortless as the room is, there is a place for everything, and everything is in its place. Poor as the fare is, it is prepared with neatness, and order and propriety are observed in partaking of it. The influence of all this is wonderfully efficient in moulding even the moral character of the children.

In most of these dwellings, confusion, disorder, and dirt, are the reigning powers. Continual brawls, mutual upbraidings, with intermingled oaths and curses, are the prevailing sights and sounds. And it seems all but a miracle that any of the tenants, old or young, keep what wits they have, to say nothing of the loss of all natural sense of modesty and propriety, and the exclusion of every religious and moral influence.

It is here, in the very focus of corrupting and debasing influences, that the true work of reformers lies. Whatever can be done to make this human habitation cleaner, tidier, healthier, will aid marvellously in its moral and spiritual improvement.

But how shall we find our way, with acceptance, into these abodes of foul air and squalid misery? Let a little child lead us there. He has come out shoeless and bareheaded into the cheerful sunlight. Speak kindly to him. If you have opportunity teach him something about that

God who makes the sun to know
His proper hour to rise,
And to give light to all below,
Doth send him round the skies.

And when he goes back go with him. You cannot have a better introduction. Perhaps they may think you are a police officer, and that you have arrested the little vagrant. It will please them to find that you are his and their friend, and that you would fain make them better, that they may be happier. You may succeed in persuading them to send one or more of their little group to a Sunday school, if a good one is near, and if you bring such a family into connection with a faithful teacher, who understands and is willing to do the appropriate work of a teacher, you have opened a channel through which untold blessings may flow to that dreary and desolate home.—*Sunday School World.*

6. GENERAL CONDITIONS ESSENTIAL TO THE REPRESSION AND PUNISHMENT OF CRIME.

In his inaugural address before the recent Social Science Congress in Edinburgh Lord Neaves laid down the following as the general conditions to be observed as to the repression of crime in

connexion with its punishment:—1. To make it less easy of commission; 2. To make its detection more sure and rapid; 3. To carry off as early as possible those who are becoming professional or habitual thieves, and deal with them before they are confirmed in their habits; 4. To have long periods of penal servitude, with the arrangements for conditional remission to be earned by industrious habits; 5. To make confinement while it lasts a state of privation and hardship, so far as sanitary considerations will allow; 6. To establish an intermediate prison, with a state of transition from confinement to freedom; 7. To keep up the superintendence of the police upon those obtaining remissions, and to have an eye upon all old offenders; 8. To provide ultimately some classified means of confinement and employment for those upon whom all the measures of a reformatory kind have been tried in vain. With regard to the repression of crime, apart from its punishment, Lord Neaves said,—"While it is the right and duty of society both to punish crime and to prevent the violation of public decency and good order, the attempt to carry compulsion into the private lives of men is not a legitimate or useful exercise of power. There can be no virtue without freedom. To repress merely certain forms or outward manifestations of vice is of little avail if the characters of men are not intrinsically purified and exalted. It does no good to dam up the stream if the fountain is still flowing. The waters will only bear down the interposed barrier, or spread their mischievous influence in other directions, perhaps more fatal than the existing channel.

7. LAUGHTER AS A SOCIAL AGENT.

Lord Neaves, in a recent address in England, on "Punishment and Reformation," thus referred to the great value of laughter as a social agent: he said, "The best way of weaning men from intemperance is by counter-agents, by education, by good food and ventilation, by the establishment of well regulated clubs and institutions to be conducted by the working men themselves, by free access to parks and public places, by exhibitions and museums, by good available libraries, and by entertainments and rational diversions in the widest as well as the best sense of the word. Useful knowledge is often a very good relaxation from physical labour. Entertaining knowledge may be still more freely resorted to. But what I want now and then is entertainment without any knowledge at all—at least, without any scientific knowledge, any knowledge but that of human nature—entertainment, in short, by itself, in its simplest and broadest form. A sense of the ludicrous, the faculty of laughter, are essential, and, as I think, most useful parts of our nature. Laughter is essentially a social, a sympathetic, and a contagious power. Some nations, particularly the Orientals, are said never to laugh, but all European nations have been great laughers, and the ludicrous has played an important part even in their very history. By means of laughter absolute monarchs have been controlled upon their throne, demagogues have been checked in their career, and even Demos himself has been made to laugh at his own follies till he was almost shamed into good sense. Quackeries, hypocrisies, and affectations of all kinds have been exposed and suppressed, and the reformation was promoted by the united efforts of reason and ridicule. The Scottish nation have never been behind their neighbours in their appreciation of this element, or in the power either of making or of enjoying mirth. Our old songs and ballads, and the best of our native writers—Dunbar, Lyndsay, Burns, and Scott—all prove the irrepressible tendency of our countrymen in this direction, and I consider it as an important counterpoise to some of those opposite qualities of sternness and severity for which we are equally remarkable. Indeed it is probable that the grave and mirthful faculties are best developed when they co-exist in the same character, and were intended by the Creator to be brought into companionship. Spain, the gravest country in Europe, has produced the great masterpiece of ludicrous writing, a never-failing treasure of genial and innocent merriment, and in our own Shakspeare it is difficult to say which of the two powers preponderate—the comic or the tragic. I am humbly of opinion that this resource is not sufficiently used in promoting the recreation of the humbler classes; and I think the omission is much to be lamented, as tending to leave unemployed a powerful engine for promoting social and kindly feelings. There are men among us on both sides of the Tweed who have the highest and justest reputation as orators, preachers, and divines, who, if they put forth their mirth-making powers, could make their audiences as weak with laughter as Samson was when shorn of his locks. I do not ask these men to exhibit much in this way personally, for that might give offence to the weaker brethren; but I ask them to join in vindicating the usefulness and nobleness of this province of the mind—to concur in bearing testimony that the sense of the ludicrous and the sense of the pathetic have their sources not far from each other, in the very highest parts of our nature, and on this

ground to endeavour to procure for the poor and wearied, for the thoughtless, and even for the erring, an occasional enjoyment of this special kind. If the theatre cannot be made to coincide with their views of morality there are substitutes for it that may be easily found. Henderson the actor went up and down England setting large rooms of people in a roar at that wonderful production of the most melancholy of men, the diverting history of "John Gilpin," then just published anonymously, and among his audiences was to be seen the great Mrs. Siddons herself, who shook her sides and clapped her hands in ecstasy at the exhibition. I venture to think that an hour so employed was as well spent in its turn, and might be allowed to alternate with more serious subjects. Plenty of materials for such amusement may be found, if they are carefully sought and judiciously selected, and we should not leave the selection merely to the unaided taste of uneducated men. In popular productions of a comic kind there will often be something of the freedom or even the coarseness of the popular spirit. But such flaws are merely incidental to the ludicrous, not essential to it, and the guidance of a more refined spirit may keep it all right. A good laugh thus periodically administered would save a great quantity of alcohol, while it would excite those very sympathetic feelings and genial dispositions which are most wanted for regenerating our moral system and knitting together the different classes of society. The men whom we could thus send laughing to their beds would have experienced an hour's happiness without sensuality—an evening's pleasure without fear or misgiving at the time, and without any remorse or reaction afterwards.

III. Papers on Practical Education.

1. THE FIRST DAY OF SCHOOL.

There are few periods of a teacher's life of more real practical importance, and which concern his future success in his vocation more than the first of the school term. Not only the success for the day or the term, but his success or failure for a life time is to be measured by the impression made on his school during the first day. How important, then, that the impression made be a good one! The great mass of mankind form some kinds of opinions in regard to those with whom they come in contact, at their first meeting; and in most cases their opinions are not far from being correct. We all judge of character to some extent at first sight, and this applies as well to children as to the adult portion of the human family. They of course are not sufficiently skilled in human nature to read character with that degree of precision which we naturally look for from those of more mature minds, but they will nevertheless form some conception of a man's general character from his manner and actions, and they will not fail to be prepared to give their opinions of the new teacher. Every eye is attentively scanning his movements, and it will require a very short time for the circulation of the individual impressions created.

It is important that the teacher have some plan mapped out for the first day's operations in his school-room. A good start is half the race. If pupils find that their time is profitably employed during the first day, they will soon come to the conclusion that their teacher is a worker, and they will imitate his example. On the contrary, if there is a waste of material, friction, or the machine stops for want of work to keep it going, the pupils will soon find something with which to employ their time to their own amusement and to the teacher's annoyance. The start in mischief once made, ten times the work will be required for its suppression that would have been required for prevention. Boys and girls will be busy at something, and if that something be not of a proper nature, they will supply its place with all manner of mischief and amusement. But aside from this, it is important that a plan be mapped out in order that pupils may form a just estimate of the teacher's character and intentions. If their is not sufficient work prepared for them, they will come to the conclusion that they are to have an easy time under the present teacher, and they will lay their plans and conduct themselves accordingly.

The true teacher has his work already, to some extent, clearly defined in his own mind before term time approaches. So it should be. Too many give no thought whatever to the work to be accomplished during the term, previous to the crossing of the threshold of the school-room the first morning of school. As a consequence, everything rushes upon the teacher at once; a dozen things crowd upon his attention, each claiming immediate action upon his part. Everything is presented in a topsy-turvy manner, and he retires from the work thoroughly tired, if not thoroughly disgusted, with the first operations. The pupils, instead of becoming his helpers, as under judicious management they would, are tempted to engage in anything that will divert their minds, they become careless in the discharge of their duties, if they even ever give a thought to them. It is ab-

solutely necessary that the teacher give the subject some fore-thought, in order that he may not enter upon the discharge of his onerous duties without a plan, and that he may perform the greatest possible amount of work, and create a proper impreision on the minds of those under his charge. Pupils come full of interest in the proceedings of the school, and if the teacher manage matters judiciously they will at once without exception enter with alacrity on everything he proposes to do; but if he has nothing special to engage their attention, they either become dull and inattentive, or they invent something for their own divertisement, and employ their time in a manner wholly at variance with the end and aim of education.

Much of the teacher's reputation as a competent and efficient instructor depends upon the impression he makes on his pupils directly, and on the community indirectly, by the *modus operandi* of his school-room, the first day. We once knew a teacher who permitted his pupils to do and act as they pleased on the first day of the term, but after that subjected them to rigid discipline. What the object was in doing so we are unable to conjecture, but the method was evidently a faulty one. By such a system the teacher not only makes himself unpopular with the pupils or parents, but ever after labors under the difficulty of erasing the first impression. It is recommended by Page that in order to be sure of a successful beginning, the teacher should go into the district a few days before the school opens. Much good can undoubtedly be accomplished by this method. The teacher will gain an acquaintance with the directors and parents of the district and through them learn the various difficulties to be overcome. The modes of government and the organization of the school under the care of his predecessors will be communicated. In some cases it would not perhaps be politic to follow his plan, but as a general practice it is certainly of much practical benefit, if adhered to. It costs nothing to make a trial.—*Pottsville Dem. Standard.*

A. M. RAUB.

2. PUNCTUALITY IN SCHOOL.

There is no principal of action that is more commendable in a scholar, than punctuality. Every thing in its time and just at the time, should be the motto of every teacher and scholar, and is as important as "a place for everything, and everything in its place." After the routine of duties performed at their proper time becomes a habit, it is actually a pleasure. The school-boy who prides himself on being regular at school and prompt on the recitation bench, relishes his task much better and is happier than he who indulges in his idleness and is always behind. The necessity of sending scholars punctually to school is often too lightly regarded by parents. They do not consider that an hour's absence in the morning deprives them of their most important recitation, or their best hour for study. How much time might be saved by using all those little *moments* thus thrown away, and if they were applied in a right manner how much would be accomplished. Much more depends upon this habit than is generally supposed. Its relation to ultimate success in life is that which cultivation sustains to the farmer's crops. It was one of the most carefully cultivated habits of Sir Walter Scott; otherwise he would have been unable to perform such an enormous amount of literary labor. So rigorous was Washington in his habit, that he would not waste the space of five minutes even in waiting for his guests at dinner, and in all things he made it a rule to be punctual. The most efficient warriors, the most eminent statesmen and the most noble specimens of humanity, have become great by economising time and performing their work at its proper period. If punctuality then has such a bearing on the character, it should be the motto of every scholar, and enter largely into both the theory and practice of teaching.—*Bradford Argus.*

3. APPLICATION TO STUDY.

Among the greatest mistakes made by the teacher, is neglecting to insist on proper application in study. In short there is no one thing connected with the duties of the teacher which would add so much to the utility of our schools, as an undeviating course on his part in requiring from each pupil the performance, each day, of some specific duty. These lessons should be definitely assigned, the time for their recitation specifically fixed, and then nothing but a *bona fide* excuse should be received for their non-performance. No such excuse as "I haven't got it," or, "I didn't get here in time;" or, "I lost my pencil, or my slate, or my book, or a thousand other pretenses of a kindred nature, should be received, unless it is clearly evident that there is a good reason for not having it, for being late, for losing books and pencils, or for being careless and forgetting the limits of the lesson. It is absolutely necessary for the future prosperity and happiness of our country, for the establishment of justice and knowledge throughout the world, and for the maintenance and progress of civilization and refinement, that the rising generation should be thoroughly and systematically educated. This can only

be attained by diligent, untiring study. Consequently it is the duty of the teacher, to impress upon the mind of the child, the great importance of application and perseverance, and to keep him so engaged as to rivet upon his nature a habit a *burning desire*, for a steady, industrious career in life, while at the same time he imprints upon his mind the principles of science. The teacher, then, should fully understand and duly appreciate the great responsibilities connected with his profession; "*he is to rule over, and mould immortal minds.*"

But we are asked how can the teacher effect this? How can he in every case, accomplish so difficult, yes, almost impossible a task? Of course every teacher has his own way of doing it; some have their way of doing it.

Is it done altogether by suasion or entirely by punishment? Most certainly by neither alone.—They, and all other means of controlling and directing youthful minds, will, according to the circumstances and dispositions of the child, be found indispensably necessary to accomplish, in every case, the desired end.

We are not all created with like dispositions and natures; neither can all be acted upon by like agencies with the same effect. Minds are different and must be differently dealt with, in order to bring about the same results. Teachers, then, should always insist on the greatest amount of study compatible with the physical well being of the child—ever remember that "Satan still some mischief finds for idle hands to do." To accomplish this he can be the servile slave of any particular system, for he never can be the *slave and master too*. "Moral suasion" is good in its place, but it never can always be efficacious by altogether supplanting the rod; for, said Solomon "He that spareth the rod, spoileth his son, but he that loveth him, chasteneth him betimes." The duties of the parent and teacher in governing the child are virtually the same.—*Bradford Argus.*

4. SCHOLARS DIARIES.

The great point in the teaching of the present day is that it is *intelligent teaching*; and teachers and educationists rack their brain in search of each and everything which will make school-keeping any thing like that "delightful task" which the poet so fancifully describes. I know no better aid thereto than by all schoolmasters encouraging their elder children to keep diaries; not superbly ruled and bound ones, but merely plain paper sewed into a strong cover. The good they will do will be incalculable. The plan will foster habits of thought and observation, and will be a great aid towards attaining three very important things,—good spelling, composition, and neatness.—J. SAGAN, in *English Monthly Paper.*

5. DIFFICULTIES OF THE ADVANCED TEACHER.

The teacher who has to deal with more advanced scholars, and whom we may suppose to have had some experience in the work, finds difficulties perhaps as serious and discouraging as the young teacher, though of a different character. He must not be surprised if he be not *conscious* of much progressive increase of power and skill. The truth is, that each advance in experience unfolds to us new proofs of our weakness and ignorance. The more we know, the more we are conscious of the vastness of the unknown. The more skillful we grow in some respects, the more we feel our want of skill in other ways. Dr. Chalmers beautifully illustrated this truth by drawing a circle upon a board, and showing that the larger the circumference of light, the larger also was the enclosing of darkness. And if this be true of human knowledge, how much more so in regard to that Divine truth, which it is the teacher's high calling to impart to others. I think it has been recorded of some eminent physician, that after extensive experience in his profession he made an observation of this kind:—"When I began practice, I could name twenty remedies for every disease; but now I can tell you of twenty diseases for which I know no remedy." But the measuring of our own ignorance is a real advance in knowledge; "for if any man thinketh that he knoweth anything, he knoweth nothing yet as he ought."

Let us come however more closely to the practical part of our subject. The care of an advanced class requires, in some respects, more skill on the part of the teacher than that of a younger class. There is a greater risk attending any want of fair qualification for his duties. It is therefore necessary to select such teachers with some care. The retention of senior scholars will mainly depend upon the estimation in which the classes destined for them are held. Some knowledge of human nature is needed, and some skill in dealing with the weaknesses of young people, so as to maintain order and discipline in the class without undue strictness. The teacher must not deal too roughly even with the self-conceit, or affection, or unreasonable expectations, which may often annoy him. Young people are very sensitive to anything which affects their standing with their companions. A fault may sometimes be wisely passed

over at the time, and a private interview afterwards sought, in which the impropriety may be plainly and yet kindly pointed out. Correction must be administered with a very gentle and loving hand. But it will be found, generally, when the teacher possesses the respect and confidence of such a class as I am describing, that the maintenance of discipline will not occasion him much anxiety. Perhaps the advanced teacher's greatest difficulty consists in sustaining the interest in a continuous course of sound instruction. This is a considerable demand upon his diligence, his faith, and his skill. It is necessary to remember that real *teaching* is something different from mere exhortation or advice. A teacher may be very fluent in addressing his class, and yet he may to a large extent fail as a teacher. His duty is not only to impart knowledge, but to satisfy himself that it has found a secure resting-place in the minds of his pupils. Here is the difficulty, and here also the glory of the teacher's work.—*J. S. Fry, in English S. S. Teacher's Magazine.*

6. THE SCHOOL ROOM OPENING INTO HEAVEN.

In the teacher's profession, as in every other, we are not to judge of the possibilities or the limitations of the calling by its common aspects or its every-day repetition of task-work. I protest against the superficial and insulting opinion, that, in the education of children, there is no room for the loftiest intellectual enterprise, and no contact with divine and inexpressible wonders. Any teacher that so judges his vocation by its details belittles it. The school room, no less than the philosopher's laboratory, the studio, or the church itself, opens upwards into God's boundless heaven. Each of these very sciences I have named has moral relations, and terminates in spiritual mystery. And when you awaken a feeling of that great truth in your pupil by the veneration, the earnestness, and the magnetic devotion of your own mind, you have done him a service no less essential to the completeness of his education, than when you have informed his understanding of certain scientific facts. Arithmetic, for instance, ascends into astronomy, and there you are introduced to laws of quantity, which make the universe their diagram—to the intellectual magnitudes of La Place and Newton—to the unsearchable empire of that religion which feels after the God of Arcturus and Pleiades. The rules of grammar are only intelligible formularies that lie in the utmost boundary of an inexhaustible study. And the government of your pupils—what is it but the faint and erring endeavour to transfer, into the little kingdom you administer, the justice and the love which are the everlasting attributes of the Almighty himself, applying them even there to immortal souls? Let us not wrong the dignity of such an employment by denying its connection with things unspeakable.—*Prof. F. D. Huntington.*

7. TOPICS FOR TEACHERS' MEETINGS.

We gave a list of Topics for Teachers' Meetings some time since, and promised more. The compilation of our correspondent enables us to fulfil the promise, and will be suggestive to those who have occasion to write. We would be glad if it incited a few teachers to write for the *Journal*.—*EDR.*

SUBJECTS FOR ESSAYS AND LECTURES.

1. Teaching as a Profession.
2. Learning and Teaching.
3. Professional Courtesy.
4. Christianity in Teachers.
5. Utility of Classical Studies.
6. The true aim of Education.
7. Influence of Teaching on Teachers.
8. Teaching, a Science; the Teacher an Artist.
9. School-boy Life and Character.
10. School Amusements.
11. Moral Qualifications of Teachers.
12. Education a Progressive Work.
13. The Teacher's Daily Preparation.
14. Unconscious Teaching.
15. What School Discipline is, and what it is not.
16. The Teacher's Position.
17. Advantages of Reading, and how to Read with Profit.
18. Physical and Mental Development.
19. Moral Instruction in Schools.
20. Success and Failure in modern Educational Enterprises.
21. Habits of Teachers.
22. Responsibility of Teachers.
23. Education of Farmers.
24. Parental Responsibility.
25. Duties of Educated Men.
26. Home Training.
27. Education of Mechanics and Laborers.

28. Right Motives in Teaching.
29. How Teachers may Help each other.
30. Examinations and Exhibitions.
31. How to Teach Spelling, Reading, Grammar, Geography.
32. Importance of correct Orthography, and good Reading, knowledge of Mathematics, Physiology, History, &c.
33. School Supervision.
34. Compulsory and Voluntary Study.
35. Popular Errors in Education.
36. Development of Intellect by Labor.
37. The Newspaper as an Educator.
38. Demand of Educated Talent.
39. Genuine Scholarship.
40. Utility of Lyceums.
41. Demands of the Age upon Teachers.
42. The proper training of Youth.
43. School Management.
44. Importance of Parental Co-operation in Schools.
45. Incitement of Curiosity as a Means of Education.
46. Teacher and Methods of Teaching.
47. Literary Attractions of the Bible.
48. Office of the Teacher.
49. Study of Nature.
50. Learning, its own Reward.
51. Regular and Punctual Attendance at School.
52. The Will as an Educational Power.
53. Sincerity and Earnestness in Teachers.
54. The relation between Parents and Teachers.
55. The Teachers and Men for the Times.
56. The Bible in Schools.
57. Errors of Learned Men.
58. The true position of Women.

—*Dillwyn, in Wisconsin Journal of Education.*

8. SUGGESTIONS ON THE DISTRIBUTION OF PRIZES IN SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of the Journal of Education.

DEAR SIR,—In looking over the reports of the Local Superintendents regarding the state of education in their respective localities, contained in the Annual Report of the Chief Superintendent for 1862, I have been struck by the great diversity of opinion among them in relation to the distribution of prizes in schools. Believing as I do, that the judicious awarding of prizes is a most valuable means of promoting the interests of education, I cannot avoid concluding that in most instances where injury to those interests is reported, that injury has been due not to the fact that prizes have been distributed but to the manner in which their distribution has been effected.

The object to be aimed at in giving prizes in schools, is to foster a healthy spirit of emulation among the scholars both in their studies and general department, the latter should not by any means, as is too often the case, be neglected. The errors to be avoided are, the granting of prizes by mistake either to the idle or the vicious, rather than the orderly and industrious, the entire and hopeless discouragement of the unsuccessful (too often a large majority), and the undue elation of the sometimes really *unfortunate* winners of the prizes.

The following is an outline of my plan for the accomplishment of these ends; and as I have had practical proof of its efficacy I can without hesitation, recommend it to my fellow-teachers throughout the province. It is chiefly an adaptation of the system used in the Model Schools, Toronto, to the wants of an ordinary country school.

In the common daily registers, at roll-call, I enter in the little square of print each pupil's name, instead of the ordinary mark indicating "present," the following: 1st. On the right hand side a small figure showing the number of perfect recitations by the pupil that day, 2nd. On the left the number of marks for misconduct, including whispering, disobedience, &c., obtained during the day. A small L denotes lateness. A mark for good conduct is allowed each pupil who receives no discredit mark during the day, but this is not marked in the register. Monthly reports similar to those of the Model School are sent to the parents. The pupils answer their marks readily and correctly at roll-call; indeed, if necessary, they keep a very effectual check on each other lest cheating might be attempted.

Our prizes are always ordered from the Department, and an outlay of \$10 or \$12 is sufficient to obtain a very serviceable set of prizes, including about 60 books, and a number of picture cards, &c.

On the arrival of the prizes, they are divided into lots corresponding with the number of classes, that for the highest class being a little better than the lot for the next lower, and so on. The prizes are then given to the separate individuals of the class, as follows:—

Suppose a scholar during the winter six months has attended 110 days, that he recites lessons 5 times a day then he can obtain 5×110 or 550 credit marks, besides those for department. But suppose his actual number of credit marks per register is 480, and that he has received 15 misconduct marks, and 10 marks for lateness or irregularity, we make each misconduct mark cancel 3 good ones, so that his standing in the class would be stated thus,

$480 - (15 \times 3) \times (110 - 25) = 520$, and this pupil would obtain the first prize in his class if the number 520 was the highest reached by any one in the class, counted similarly.

To those whose bad marks cancel their good ones or nearly so, I give no prize, to all others prizes are awarded in the above way.

Little ones in the first classes are encouraged by a weekly distribution of cards, &c., according to their standing in the class, and with most cheering effect. I am aware that many features in the above may be deemed objectionable by teachers of ability and experience, but rather than trespass further on your valuable space, let me say to such, "Give the plan a fair trial for at least two distributions of prizes, and if you cannot make it work publish the fact for the benefit of others, but do not condemn until you have had experimental evidence on which to base your judgment."

C. S. T., Waterloo Township, C. W.

IV. Papers on Physical Science.

1. THE ACTION OF THE SUN.

Every mechanical action on the earth's surface, every manifestation of power, organic or inorganic, vital and physical, is produced by the sun. His warmth keeps the sea liquid and the atmosphere a gas, and all the storms which agitate both are blown by the mechanical force of the sun. He lifts the rivers and the glaciers up the mountains, and thus the cataract and the avalanche shoo' with an energy derived immediately from him. Thunder and lightning are also his transmuted strength. Every fire that burns and every flame that glows dispenses light and heat which originally belonged to the sun. In these days, unhappily, the news of battle is familiar to us; but every shock and every charge is an application, or mis-application, of the mechanical force of the sun. He blows the trumpet, he urges the projectile, he bursts the bomb. And, remember, this is not poetry, but rigid, mechanical truth. He rears, as I have said, the whole vegetable world, and through it the animal; the lives of the field are his workmanship, the verdure of the meadows, and the cattle upon a thousand hills. He forms the muscle, he urges the blood, he builds the brain. His fleetness is in the lion's foot: he springs in the panther, he soars in the eagle, he slides in the snake. He builds the forest and hews it down, the power which raised the tree and which wields the axe, being one and the same. The clover sprouts and blossoms, and the scythe of the mower swings by the same force. The sun digs the ore from our mines; he roll the iron, he rivets the plates, he boils the water, he draws the train. He not only grows the cotton, but he spins the fibre and weaves the web. There is not a hammer raised, a wheel turned, or a shuttle thrown, that is not raised and turned and thrown by the sun. His energy is poured forth into space, but our world is a halting-place where his energy is conditioned. Here the Proteus works his spells.—"*Heat considered as a Mode of Motion*," by Professor Tyndall.

2. REVELATIONS OF THE MICROSCOPE.

Brush a little of the fuzz from the wing of a butterfly, and let it fall upon a piece of glass. It will be seen on the glass as a fine golden dust. Slide on the glass under a microscope, and each particle of the dust will reveal itself as a perfect symmetrical feather.

Give your arm a slight prick, so as to draw a small drop of blood, mix the blood with a drop of vinegar and water, and place it upon the glass slide under the microscope. You will discover that the red matter of the blood is formed of innumerable globules or disks; which, though so small as to be separately invisible to the naked eye, appear under the microscope each larger than the letter of this print.

Take a drop of water from a stagnant pool or ditch, or sluggish brook, dipping it from among the green vegetable matter on the surface. On holding the water to the light it will look a little milky; but on placing the smallest drop under the microscope, you will find it swimming with hundreds of strange animals that are swimming in it with the greatest vivacity. These animalcules exist in such multitudes that any effort to conceive of their numbers bewilders the imagination.

The most invisible universe of created beings is the most wonderful of all the revelations of the microscope. During the whole of a man's existence on the earth, while he has been fighting, taming and

studying the lower animals which were visible to his sight, he has been surrounded by these other multitudes of the earth's inhabitants without any suspicion of their existence! In endless variety of form and structure they are bustling through their active lives—pursuing their prey—defending their persons—waging their wars—prosecuting their amours—multiplying their species—and ending their careers; countless hosts at each tick of the clock passing out of existence, and making way for new hosts that are following in endless succession. What other field of creation may yet, by some inconceivable methods, be revealed to our knowledge?

3. WHAT COAL WAS.

Some incline to the opinion of a marine origin for the plants of which coal is formed, thus bringing them into natural contact with the fishes, and probably marine shells often found in the shales. Others insist on a terrestrial vegetation, and a third party on that of lagoons, or sea swamps, and bogs. The last few years have given important arguments to those who believe in a forest, perhaps very near to the level of the lake or sea. We know that among these giant stems of *sigillaria* the busy hum of flying insects and the merry chirp of the cricket were heard, that scorpions curled their ominous tails, that land shells crept slimily along, and that many kinds of reptiles either pursued their prey along the ground or climbed the trees whose hollow trunks have formed the caskets to preserve their remains. Here, then, is a goodly population to vivify the scene which only a few years ago was held to be almost wanting in all but vegetable life; and when we consider the accidents which have, amid the great decomposition of organic matter, preserved to us these remains, generally enclosed in ironstone nodules, we must feel confident that coming years will have many an additional fact to disclose.—*Prof. Warrington Smyth's Address at the British Association.*

4. THE DEPTH OF SPACE.

In 1837, Professor Bessel, of Germany, commenced a series of astronomical measures for getting the exact distance of the fixed stars, a thing that had never been done. The instrument which he used in connection with a powerful telescope, in his experiments, was a heliometer (sun-measurer). After three years' hard labour he was so fortunate as to obtain a parallax, but so minute that he could hardly trust his reputation upon it. But after repeated trials and working out of the result, he was fully satisfied that he could give the true distance to 61 Cygni. But who can comprehend this immense distance? We can only convey an idea to the mind of this distance, by the fact that light, which travels 12,000,000 of miles a minute requires not less than ten years to reach us! Just let any one try to take in the idea. One hour would give 720,000,000 miles; one year then—8760 hours—this gives 6,307,200,000,000, and this multiplied by ten, gives 63,072,000,000,000.

This, according to Bessel, is the distance of the nearest fixed star to the sun! All astronomers confirm the correctness of Professor Bessel's calculations. But this distance, great as it is, is nothing to be compared to the distance of the Milky Way. Sir Wm. Herschell says that the stars or suns that compose the Milky Way are so very remote that it requires light, going at the rate of 12,000,000 of miles in a minute, 120,000 years to reach the earth. And he says there are stars, or rather nebulae, five hundred times more remote! Now make your calculations: 120,000 years reduced to minutes, and then multiply that sum by 12,000,000, and the product by 500. What an overwhelming idea! The mind sinks under such a thought; we can't realize it; it is too vast even for comprehension. David says, Psalm ciii. 19: "The Lord hath prepared his throne in the heavens, and his kingdom (or government) ruleth over all."—*Eze.*

V. Papers on Canadian Scientific Subjects.

1. MCGILL COLLEGE OBSERVATORY.

The writer the other day went to visit the Observatory of Dr. Smallwood, at McGill College. Most of the citizens are aware of the exterior shape of the little stone edifice with a revolving dome, capable of being opened to survey the heavens, situated on a rising slope, to the west of the College. Partial observations have been taken for some time. The regular observations have not yet begun; but Dr. Smallwood, whose zeal in the interest of this branch of science is so well known, is fast getting all things ready for that purpose.

The principal room is on the first floor, and contains a small library of books used for the different calculations, also Barometers, Thermometers, Anemometer, Globes, a Telegraph Apparatus in

connection with the Fire Alarm Telegraph—for the purpose of furnishing correct time to the city.

A single touch of the key causing all the Church bells to strike at the hour of noon, also a Quadrant and artificial horizon.

Transit Room.—Which is in an unfinished state, contains a Transit Instrument, Chronometer, Star Maps all used, Nautical Almanac for correcting the Chronometer to mean solar time.

Basement.—In this room more particularly, as also in the general construction of the building, Iron has been carefully excluded, and is destined for magnetic observations; it contains a dip circle, the one used during the magnetic survey of Great Britain, a declinator and instruments for vibration, and horizontal and total force; besides a small library of books for the calculations, also a barometer, hygrometer and standard thermometer.

Ascending the stairs to the leads—a flat roof—here are rain-gauges, dry and wet ball thermometers, solar and terrestrial radiators, drosometer, evaporator, and apparatus for experiments on ozone, also a telescope for observing the Sun's spots—possessing a large field. There is also a 3 in. Dolland's Achromatic Telescope on the first floor, the Transit Room is finished with a revolving dome for the purpose of receiving an equatorial, whenever any good citizen can be found to furnish one; near the entrance is a siesmometer for earthquake phenomena. There is also erected a pole for the purpose of ascertaining the amount of electricity in the atmosphere, and testing a new kind of conducting wire, and also a Whewell's Anemometer.

The Observatory is 180 feet above mean sea level.

It is destined only for meteorological and magnetic observations, the only astronomical will be the transit of stars, solar spots and eclipses.

The Observatory is so placed that a perfect north and south horizon is seen, the mountain not at all obstructing the view.

We believe that important practical results will flow from these observations, and we have no doubt that it is of provincial importance to have a magnetic survey along the whole line of the St. Lawrence below Quebec. It would render the navigation more certain, make the rates of insurance lower, and be the means of saving many lives, for magnetic variation is the fruitful parent of disaster. We believe that this variation is a determinable quantity, and it would be well for the Province to have it at all costs determined.

We believe that observations such as those which Dr. Smallwood purposes to take are now taken at Kew, Java, St. Petersburg, Washington, Lisbon, and Coimbra.—*Montreal Transcript.*

2. VALUABLE DONATIONS TO QUEEN'S COLLEGE.

It gives us great pleasure to announce that Queen's University has received a magnificent donation in the shape of a very valuable collection of plaster relief medallions of the finest works of ancient and modern Art. This collection has been presented by Donald Ross, Esq., of Montreal, through the Principal, to the Library of the University. The medallions are tastefully and systematically arranged in cases of the form of imperial octavo volumes, to the number of twenty-five, each volume being handsomely bound in parchment, and entitled according to the nature of its contents. Each case contains on an average forty of these little gems of art, so that the whole collection numbers about one thousand. We cannot enter upon any detailed description of the contents of this little museum; but a hurried inspection enables us to say that it contains many truthful and spirited imitations of the chefs d'œuvres of Greek sculpture and Italian paintings in the galleries and churches of Europe. We need only specify the beautiful reliefs of the Apollo Belvidere in the Vatican Museum, and the Venus de Medici at Florence—the great ideals of manly and womanly beauty;—the Dying Gladiator of the capitol so touchingly described in Childe Harold—the Venus of Milo—the Laocoon of the Vatican. The Italian masters are represented by reliefs of Leonardo da Vinci's Last Supper—the Madonna di San Sisto and the Madonna della Seggiola of Raffaello—the Beatrice Cenci of Guido—the picturesque Sybils of Guercino and Domenichino—and a whole host of other well-known paintings. There is a whole series of casts from antique gems and cameos of subjects from the mythology and history of Greece;—another illustrative of the History of Rome under the Republic and the Empire—another comprising portrait-medallions of the most illustrious men of ancient and modern times—and yet another very extensive one showing the historical development of plastic art from the earliest Egyptian and Etruscan period to the decadence of art which attended the decline of the Roman Empire. The modern schools of Sculpture are well represented by reliefs from the most beautiful productions of Canova, Thorwaldsen, and Gibson. Several of the volumes are filled with the views in basso-relievo of the edifices of Palladio and the other masters of the Italian Renaissance. These remarks may serve to indicate the nature of the collection, which is deserving of the most careful and critical study. The copies of the cameos and gems form in themselves a perfect copy for

art. We see in these exquisite works the liveliest play of exuberant fancy in the never-ending and ever-varied myths of classic antiquity, while the historian finds in the subjects which are taken from daily life, the most vivid and truthful delineations of the manners of the time. The value and importance of this collection cannot be too highly estimated. The student of history and of art will find in it an invaluable adjunct to his reading, while the artist can go to it for models of beauty, the scarcity of which is the greatest drawback to which native art in a new country is unavoidably subject. We believe it is the intention of the Curators to exhibit a few specimens of the collection in Mr. Creighton's Book Store, which seems now to be the recognized place of exhibition for all new objects of artistic and literary interest. The public will then have an opportunity of judging of its excellence and value themselves.

We are also happy to intimate that the Library of Queen's University has received another handsome donation of above sixty volumes from John Smith, Esq., of Montreal. They comprise for the most part works which are well known, but several of the most valuable editions. Among these we need only specify, for example, the works of Isaac Watts in six quartos, Sir Walter Raleigh's History of the World, in six library octavo volumes, and a fine copy in quarto of Howard's work on Prisons.

We hope that this public notice of these liberal donations may suggest to others, who have it in their power, the propriety of contributing to the stores of this University Library. It is of very great importance that the members of the learned professions and other gentlemen in this part of the Province, who are interested in literary pursuits, should have within their reach a library in which they may be able to consult authorities that they cannot expect to find in private. It is in general to these Universities that men in all countries look for such assistance in the study of literature, and Queen's University is the only institution in this part of Canada, in connection with which such a library is likely to be collected. We believe that several of those who are interested in the welfare of the University are at present engaged in considering the best means for increasing its library, and we cannot but wish them, as we think they deserve, the co-operation of all who have at heart the elevation of our academical institutions and the advancement of profound learning.—*Kingston News.*

3. THE KINGSTON OBSERVATORY.

A meeting of the Board of Visitation of the Kingston Observatory took place at the City Hall on Monday, the 11th January instant, for the purpose of receiving a report from the Director, the Rev. Professor Williamson. The Report, which was read and adopted, is as follows;—

In my last report to the Board of Visitors, it was stated that a small transit had been ordered from Messrs. Troughton and Simms, but had not yet arrived. It appears from a letter since received from Mr. Simms, that it had been countermanded, and therefore had not been sent. As it was of the utmost importance that the instrument should be in the Observatory as soon as possible, fresh instructions were forwarded to him to transmit it with the least possible delay. It was accordingly received early in the last summer, and the purchase amounting to about £35, exclusive of freight and carriage, was in a short time subscribed by the friends of the Institution, among whom Mr. Watkins and Mr. Carruthers were conspicuous for their liberality, as they are on all occasions for the public benefit.

The Transit, which is now adjusted on a solid stone pedestal, resting on the base designed for the support of the piers of the large transit circle, has been found, though small, a perfect specimen of English workmanship, and has proved of the greatest service in regulating the rate of the clock. Since its arrival the time has been regularly given once a week to the City Clock-Keeper, and we ought not to be inferior to any city in Canada, so far as the correctness of our local time is concerned.

It will be remembered, however, that the Transit was ordered with the view not only for regulating the local time, but of determining the error and rate of the clock for the purpose of rendering the Equatorial, available for scientific observations, and that it was stated, that in order that these might be made, the Equatorial, which is at present only a large and excellent telescope equatorially mounted, would require micrometers, illuminating apparatus, and clock-work to drive the right ascension circle. For the purpose of these additions, which will cost \$280, being made to the Equatorial, it is proposed to send the Tube early in the spring to Mr. Alvan Clarke, by whom the instrument was constructed.

A sidereal clock, of the best construction, is the next addition which it will be necessary to make to the Observatory.

The cover of the slit in the dome, for observations with the Equatorial, still allows, in the winter, the interior to be penetrated by

a portion of fine snow, which it is intended, as far as possible, to exclude by a small ledge of tin on each side of the shutter.

The Beaufoy Circle which the Astronomical Society, as stated in the last Report, have agreed to lend to the Observatory, has not yet been received. The Trustees of Queen's College agreed to defray the expense of the repairs which it was found to require before its transmission to Kingston, and Messrs. Troughton and Simms were instructed to put it into proper working order, which will, no doubt, be done in the best possible manner. In consequence of Mr. Simms' illness, the repairs have been delayed longer than was expected. A letter, however, was received a few days ago from the Rev. Mr. Romanes, formerly one of the Professors in the University, informing me that it is now nearly ready.

A standard Barometer and Registering Thermometer, by Cassella, will be placed in the Observatory in the course of this month, and daily Meteorological observations made and recorded.

I have now the pleasure of stating that the debt of the Observatory for buildings, &c., has, by economical management of its limited funds, been paid off, and that the College has found itself in a position to make the appointment of an Assistant Observer, an appointment contemplated from the first to be made as soon as the funds would allow. Mr. Dupuis, a person of great mathematical attainments and mechanical skill, has been the successful candidate. He will attend at the Observatory every lawful day, for the purpose of assisting in making and recording the requisite observations, and will be ready once a week at certain hours to show the building and instruments to visitors who shall have notes of admission from any member of the Board of Visitors, or any of the subscribers in the Institution.

The observations since the receipt of the Transit, though numerous and occupying a very considerable portion of my time, have been chiefly confined to perfecting its various adjustments, as well as the more complete adjustment of the Equatorial, to the regulation of the clock and of the local time, and to preparations for establishing fixed meridian marks, one more near on the mainland, and the other more distant on Wolfe Island. Two public lectures in the City Hall, and illustrative lectures at the Observatory, have been given during the past year. Other two lectures at the Observatory will be given, one on Friday first, and the other on the following Friday. All which is respectfully submitted.

JAS. WILLIAMSON,
Directory of the Observatory.

4. CANADIAN MINING.

Local papers in various parts of the province have given, during the past year, descriptive accounts of the discovery of mineral veins, containing respectively copper, argentiferous galena, antimony and even gold. There can no longer be any doubt, that large and valuable deposits of one or all of these minerals, have recently been brought to light, either in the vein rock or in the drift. In another part of this number a description is given of gold mining in Lower Canada, and we now propose to make a few remarks on the lead ores and especially those which are supposed to contain silver. A general knowledge of the distribution of argentiferous lead ores, will be valuable at the present time, as many persons who have discovered lead veins, are under the impression that they are necessarily argentiferous, and consequently possess a high value.

Lead ores occur in both the chrySTALLINE or fossiliferous and in the unchrySTALLINE or metamorphic rocks, those which being once fossiliferous, have been altered or changed by heat or some other metamorphic action.

Lead is found in the largest quantities in those rocks which have not been altered or rendered chrySTALLINE by metamorphic action.—The great lead-mining districts of Spain and the United States are in lower silurian rocks. The celebrated galena limestone of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Indiana, is of the same age as the Trenton limestones of Canada, a formation which occupies a large portion of the western province, extending from Kingston to Matchedash Bay on Lake Huron, and bounded on the south by Lake Ontario east of Port Hope. The Trenton limestone is also found on the Ottawa, and it is near its junction with the Laurentian Gneiss, at its northern boundary, that lead veins have been found in various localities. The great lead bearing rocks of the north of England, are found in the mountain limestone; a formation not represented in western Canada. Spain, the United States, and England, furnish nearly 70 per cent. of the whole amount of this metal raised in the world.

Lead is also found in metamorphic rocks, and it is well worthy of note, that in these older chrySTALLINE rocks, the galena or lead ore, is generally argentiferous, and sometimes contains very considerable quantities of that metal. The fossiliferous or unaltered strata, are not so argentiferous, and do not generally contain enough of silver to render the search for that metal commercially profitable, although where the best metallurgic arts are employed, as in England and

Germany, as small a quantity as seven or eight ounces to the ton, are profitably obtained. This is about .003 per cent. As a general rule, the older and more chrySTALLINE the formation, the larger the amount of silver will be found in the ore. So that following this rule, we may expect to find the lead ores from the highly chrySTALLINE rocks of Lake Superior, more argentiferous than those from the unchrySTALLIZED Trenton limestone. In New Hampshire, mines of argentiferous galena, have been long worked with indifferent success. The ore contains from 60 to 70 ounces of silver to the ton of 2,000 lbs. of lead.

It is well worthy of note that the lead ores of the vast deposits of Wisconsin, are almost destitute of silver. From numerous analysis that have been made, they are found to yield from $\frac{1}{2}$ of an ounce to $\frac{9}{16}$ ounces of silver to the ton of 2,000 lbs. of ore. The highest of these values would not render them profitable as a source of silver in this country, where machinery is expensive and labour dear.

The lead ores of Cornwall, average about 23 ounces to the ton, they are contained in chrySTALLINE rocks—those of Derbyshire yield only one or two ounces to the ton; these ores are from the unchrySTALLINE rocks.

The lead ores of Missouri yield only .001 or .002 per cent. of silver, or less than one ounce to the ton, even in the most argentiferous specimens.

In 1858, the total value of the silver obtained from the lead ores of the United Kingdom, amounted to £142,336 sterling; the value of the silver bullion imported, amounted in 1857, to £397,441.

The following localities where lead ore is found in Canada, are enumerated in the Descriptive Catalogue of Canadian Minerals: (Sir W. E. Logan.)

1. Gaspé—Indian Cove—found in the Lower Heidelberg Group, Upper Silurian.
2. Upton—Quebec Group, Lower Silurian.
3. Ramsay Mines—Calceiferous Formation, Lower Silurian.
4. Landsdowne—Laurentian.
5. Bedford—Calceiferous Formation, Lower Silurian.

From the foregoing statements it will be seen that argentiferous galena, susceptible of being profitably worked, is of comparatively rare occurrence in those fossiliferous rocks which have not been metamorphosed or rendered chrySTALLINE, and persons cannot be too cautious in accepting statements relative to the richness of lead ore or silver, until a proper analysis has been made from specimens which represent the general characters of the vein or metalliferous deposit.—*Journal of the Board of Arts and Manufactures for U. C.*

VI. Biographical Sketches.

No. 12.—SIR LOUIS H. LAFONTAINE, BART.

One of the most remarkable men which Canada has produced has died in middle age: Chief Justice LAFONTAINE, at the age of 58, has suddenly been called from the duties of active life to that bourne whence there is no return. Unlike the much-enduring and long-lived public men of England, and in this respect too much like the majority of those of America, he took but little exercise, and did not preserve the due balance between brain and muscular exercise. He was a heavy rather than a fat man, of large frame and massive head; bearing, in his countenance, an appearance suggestive of NAPOLEON the Great; while in size he was as great as possible a contrast to the great warrior who set the world in flame. His face was an unerring index to that strength of will for which, in so remarkable a degree he was noted.

M. Louis Hypolite Lafontaine was born at Boucherville, Lower Canada, in October, 1807 being the third son of A. M. Lafontaine. None of the other members of the family appear to have attained any celebrity: and perhaps the talent of the family chiefly centred in him. Applying himself to the profession of the law, he worked with assiduity and success: nor did he permit anything to distract his attention from his profession till he had acquired a competence. While he accumulated what was considered a handsome fortune, for a professional gentleman in Canada, he enhanced his social position by a marriage with a daughter of M. Amable Berthelot, who long held a seat in the Legislative Assembly of Lower Canada.

Coming on the stage when Papineau was in the zenith of his fame M. Lafontaine was counted among that gentleman's followers. The different characters and talents of the two men were ultimately to assign them to very different positions. A period of rivalry between them was to come; and after a short and sharp struggle the mastery was to remain undisputedly with M. Lafontaine. Till the period of the rebellion, M. Papineau was the leader, M. Lafontaine the follower. Few prominent men of the popular party, in Lower Canada, escaped imprisonment, at the time of the revolt. On the 4th of November, 1838, under a warrant issued by M. H. Edmond Barron, J. P., M. Lafontaine, *suspecté d'être suspect*, was ordered to be sent

to jail. The same warrant included Charles (since Mr. Justice) Mondelet, Dennis Benjamin Viger and a number of others more or less celebrated. This warrant was issued at the time when it was known that M. Lafontaine was on the point of starting for England as the agent, of the Constitutional Association of Montreal. On arriving on the other side of the Atlantic, he did not deem it advisable to remain long in England; and accordingly passed over to France. He found, when in England, a powerful protector in the Hon. Edward Ellice; and as no evidence had been adduced against him, he returned to Canada at pleasure. After the return of M. Lafontaine, the old and once popular chief of the French Canadians, M. L. J. Papineau long remained under ban. This gave M. Lafontaine an opportunity to lay the foundation of that leadership which his old chief had not the remotest chance of rivalling. In 1841, becoming a candidate for the representation of Terrebonne, he withdrew from the contest before its close, for reasons which he stated at great length at the time. In this withdrawal, M. Lafontaine says: "I was influenced by a strong desire to avoid the shedding of blood;" an armed band having appeared in the country "collected from the remote parts of the Province—numbers even from Glengarry, in Upper Canada—at an expense far surpassing the entire fortune of my opponent, were it double, treble, or even quadruple what I presume it to be." A few weeks before—the election was in the spring and the interview had been made in the winter—Lord Sydenham had, during a two hours' conversation which he had sought with M. Lafontaine, tried to obtain that gentleman's support of his Administration. But in vain; since there was but one of its acts—the appointment of Mr. Baldwin to the Solicitor-Generalship—of which he approved. Lord Sydenham had offered him the Solicitor-Generalship for Lower Canada—he had offered a judgeship—and both on the condition that the recipient should support the Administration. But he refused, "I will," the Governor protested, "have a majority." It was, we believe, after his defeat in Terrebonne that M. Lafontaine found a constituency in Upper Canada—North York electing an eminent stranger of another race and speaking a different language, in preference to a resident nonentity. Rimouski afterwards returned the compliment paid to M. Lafontaine by electing Mr. Baldwin. Under Sir Charles Bagot, M. Lafontaine first attained the influence as a member of the Administration, in 1843. This was the inauguration of responsible government, in Canada. The successor of Sir Charles Bagot, Lord Metcalfe conceived a prejudice against the Ministry of which M. Lafontaine was a member, also succeeded in compelling them to resign, on the ground that he had made appointments and offers of appointments without their knowledge or advice. A party contest of no ordinary vehemence followed, in which the name of the Governor General was mixed up in a way that has fortunately since become impossible. The election went in favor of the Governor and against his late advisers. The majority, one or two at first finally increased to about seven; and in this way Mr. Draper held the office of first Minister till early in 1848, a new election having in the interim changed the majority largely the other way, when on a motion of non-confidence moved by Mr. Baldwin, and if we remember rightly seconded by M. Lafontaine, the Ministry of Lord Metcalfe's preference fell. He had himself, in the meantime, left the Province, in the last stages of a terrible disease, and died. Now came the period of M. Lafontaine's greatest power. The majority was enormous: but it was overweighted and inclined to fall to pieces. But this tendency was not observable in the Lower Canada section. M. Lafontaine, at an important and in some respects critical period rendered good service to the country. He reconciled Lower Canada to a union it had detested, and did much to knit together two people in indissoluble bonds. But he was a finality statesman, and when he retired he had reached the farthest goal of progress, against the feudal tenure he would consent to no movement. Against the Clergy Reserves he would second no crusade. At this moment, full of success and honour, not yet having lost the confidence of his friends, he retired. Becoming Chief Justice of Lower Canada, he was created a Baronet, and discharged the duties of that exalted position with credit and advantage. His premature death will be generally regretted by the people among whom his judicial functions were performed.—*Leader*.

No. 13.—CHAS. JOSEPH CHAUSSEGROS DE LERY, ESQ.,

One of the Seigneurs of Rigaud Vaudrieul and other places, eldest son of the Honorable Charles Etienne Chaussegros de Lery, member of the Executive Council, and of the late Marie Josephine Fraser, and nephew of the late Viscount de Lery, Lieutenant-General in the service of France, was born at Quebec on the 2nd Sept. 1800. Descended from one of the oldest families of the Province, whose members, both under the French rule and the present Government, filled, with general approbation, the most important offices of trust in the colony; allied to the best Canadian families, and by

the mother's side, to the most illustrious houses of Scotland, Mr. de Lery nobly bore his honourable name. After having with honor and success, devoted the first and greatest portion of his life to the service of his country, in the career followed by his father before him, he abandoned—now some fifteen years since—public life to devote himself exclusively to the advancement and colonization of his seigniory. Under his management, and that of an able and worthy friend, the respected curé of the parish, St. Francois, now noted for its gold mines, progressed rapidly and soon became the most important parish in the county. Mr. de Lery was frequently solicited to re-enter the arena of politics, but always persistently refused; he preferred to devote his leisure hours to the interests of his *constituents*, who all respected him as a father, and often submitted their mutual petty disagreements to his arbitration. His wealth, social rank, knowledge, and above all, his urbanity, rendered the task to him an easy and an agreeable one and all who came to consult him and lay before him their little differences, invariably returned home satisfied with his decisions. He could not, however, always resist the wish, respectfully urged, of his fellow-parishioners, who twice elected him Mayor of St. Francois de la Beauce, and *Préfet* of the county, which office he filled until the hour of his death.—*Journal*.

No. 14.—DANIEL LEWIS, ESQ.

Another landmark has been removed, another pioneer of this Peninsula taken from amongst us, but full of years. Col. Daniel Lewis, of Stoney Creek, died at his residence, on Wednesday, after an illness borne with great patience and fortitude. The son of a U. E. L., he was born in 1790, in the Township of Grimsby, where his father settled after repudiating the new republic formed out of the original thirteen Provinces, and was the second white child born in the Township. He early inculcated the principles of loyalty, and evinced devotion to his sovereign and country. At the breaking out of the war of 1812 he entered the field with a Lieutenant's Commission, and served two years on the frontier with his company. In 1837, being a captain in the militia, he was over eight months engaged in assisting to suppress the rebellion. In 1850 he was gazetted Lieut.-Colonel of the 7th Battalion Wentworth Militia, which commission is now vacant by his death. He held several prominent positions, and was frequently urged to come forward for Parliamentary honors, but always declined. He was placed on the Commission of the Peace in 1828, and remained upon it till 1862. Col. Lewis was a man in every sense of the term, and no one ever had a larger share of public esteem. As a Canadian he had no superior as a patriot; he served his country faithfully when danger threatened, and was ever true to its interests. He lived on the farm where the battle of Stoney Creek was fought, and could tell many interesting incidents of that eventful period.—*Hamilton Spectator*.

VII. Miscellaneous.

"NOW I LAY ME DOWN TO SLEEP."

In the quiet nursery chambers,
Snowy pillows yet unpressed,
See the forms of little children,
Kneeling white-robed for their rest,
All in quiet nursery chambers,
While the dusky shadows creep,
Hear the voices of the children—
"Now I lay me down to sleep."

In the meadow and the mountain,
Calmly shine the winter stars,
But across the glistening low lands
Slant the moonlight's silver stars,
In the silence and the darkness,
Darkness growing still more deep,
Listen to the little children,
Praying God their souls to keep.

"If we die,"—so pray the children,
And the mother's head drops low;
(One, from out her fold, is sleeping
Deep beneath this winter's snow)
"Take our souls;"—and past the casement
Flits a gleam of crystal light,
Like the trailing of his garments
Walking ever more in white.

Little souls that stand expectant
Listening at the gates of life,
Hearing, far away, the murmur
Of the tumult and the strife;

We who fight beneath those banners,
Meeting ranks of foemen there,
Find a deeper, broader meaning
In your simple vesper prayer.

When your hands shall grasp this standard,
Which, to-day, you watch from far,
When your deeds shall shape the conflict
In the universal war,
Pray to Him, the God of battles,
Whose strong eye can never sleep,
In the warring of temptation,
Firm and true your souls to keep.

When the combat ends, and slowly
Clears the smoke from out the skies,
When, far down the purple distance,
All the noise of battle dies,
When the last night's solemn shadows
Settle down on you and me,
May the love that never faileth,
Take our souls eternally.

2. UNAVAILING REGRETS OF THE MOURNER.

I saw a pale mourner bending over a tomb, and his tears fell fast and often. As he raised his weeping eyes to heaven, he cried, "My brother, oh! my brother!"

A sage passed that way and said, "For whom dost thou mourn?" "For one," replied he, "whom I did not sufficiently love whilst living, but whose inestimable worth I feel now that I have lost him."

"What wouldst thou do, if he were restored to thee?"

The mourner replied that he would not offend him by one unkind word, but would take every occasion to show his friendship, if he could come back to his fond embrace.

"Then waste no time in useless grief," cried the sage, "but, if thou hast friends, go and cherish the living, lest thou shouldst have to mourn for thy neglect of them when they are called away from this world."

3. THE VALUE OF CANADA TO ENGLAND.

We take the following from a letter written by Mr. George Augustus Sala, to the *London Telegraph*, from Montreal:—

"When I say that the Bank of Montreal is one of the finest examples of Corinthian architecture to be found in the American continent; that the Rue Notre Dame is full of gay and handsome shops, very like those of the Rue St. Honore at Paris; that the Bonsecours market is an imposing edifice in the Doric style, which cost two hundred and eighty thousand dollars; that the Court House, or Palais de Justice, and the Post-office, are both vast and noble structures, and that the city is full of cottages, and schools, and hospitals, the *blase* and the indifferent among my readers may perhaps begin to yawn, and to say that they have heard all this sort of thing before. I respectfully submit that, to all its intents and purport, men have about as definite an idea of Montreal, of Toronto, and of Quebec, as they have of Owyhee or of Antanarivo. Is it impertinent in me to assume that my friends at home are as ignorant as I was the day before yesterday? It seems to me that, abating a few merchants, a few engineers, and a few military men, it has hitherto been nobody's business in England to know what the Canadas are like. It is not the 'thing' to go Canada. One can 'do' Niagara without penetrating into the British Provinces. English artists don't make sketching excursions thither. The Alpine Club ignore it. Why does not some one start a Cataract Club? We let these magnificent Provinces, with their inexhaustible productiveness—for asperity of climate is no sterility—their noble cities, their hardy and loyal population, go by. We pass them in silence and neglect. We listen approvingly while some college pedant, as bigoted as a Dominican, but without his shrewdness, as conceited as a Benedictine, but without his learning, prates of the expediency of abandoning our Colonies.* If we meanly and tamely surrendered these, the brightest jewels in the Queen's crown, can we tell into whose hands they would fall—what hatred and ill-will might spring up among those now steady and affectionate in their attachment to our rule, but from whom we had withdrawn our countenance and protection? But Canada has been voted a 'bore,' and to be 'only a colonial' would apply, it would seem, to a province as well as to a bishop. I have not the slightest desire to talk guide-book, or even to institute odious comparisons, by dwelling on the strength and solidity, the cleanliness and comeliness, the regard for authority, the cheery but self-respecting and respect-exacting tone which prevails in society; the hearty, pleasant, obliging manners of the people one sees at every moment in this far-off city of a hundred thousand

souls, with its cathedrals, its palaces, its schools, its convents, its hospitals, its wharves, its warehouses, its marvellous tubular bridge, its constantly-growing commerce, its hourly increasing prosperity, its population of vivacious and chivalrous Frenchmen, who, somehow, do not hate their English and Scottish fellow-subjects, but live in peace and amity with them and who are assuredly not in love with the Yankees. But it really does make a travelling Englishman 'kinder mad,' as they would say south of the forty-fifth parallel, when he has just quitted a city which, in industry, in energy, and in public spirit, is certainly second to none on the European continent; and which, in the cleanliness of its streets, the beauty of its public buildings, and the tone of its society, surpasses many of them—to know that a majority of his country are under the impression that the Canadian towns are mere assemblages of log-huts, inhabited by half-savage backwoodsmen in blanket-coats and moccasins, and that a few mischievous or demented persons are advocating the policy of giving up the Canadas altogether. Happily there is a gentleman in Pall-mall who has been to Canada—who has seen Quebec, Toronto, and Montreal. The name of that gentleman—the first in our realm—is Albert Edward, Prince of Wales; and he knows what Canada is like, and of what great things it is capable."

VIII. Short Critical Notices of Books.

—THE BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN ALMANAC AND ANNUAL RECORD FOR THE YEAR 1864.—Montreal: John Lovell.—We are proud to see this national work of Mr. Lovell's. It is a volume that will fittingly represent the British North American Provinces abroad, and will do much towards enabling the people of Britain and other countries to form a juster estimate of the importance and capabilities of these Provinces; and the publisher, no doubt, has had this commendable object partly in view in devoting so much space to the articles on the "Natural Advantages of the Country," the "Intercolonial Railway," the "Gold Mines," "Emigration," &c. To the people of these Provinces, this Year Book is replete with matters of interest in its varied subjects of information. The statistical tables place a vast amount of carefully compiled facts in the hands of the public; so, its list of members of the Council, Legislative Assembly, Judiciary, Clergy, the Military and Volunteer Forces, &c. Indicates its wealth of well-digested information, the volume cannot fail to be indispensable to the merchant and the professional man, and of great utility to all classes. There are many features, also, in this Almanac, which will be readily noticed, that give it its representative character. The Historical and Topographical chapters, the account of the Hudson Bay Territory, the Sketch of the State and Progress of Education the Geographical Outlines, the Patents granted, and the Chronicle of Events, all furnish, in this admirable compend, the desired information relating to the condition of the country that elevates the work into a Provincial Encyclopedia. There is much else in this Year Book of value and interest to the people of these Provinces, but we have only space to add that we esteem this Almanac a necessity to them, and we trust that they will accord the work the support that it deserves, and enable the patriotic publisher to make it even more useful in future years.—*British American Magazine*

—FIRST LESSONS IN SCIENTIFIC AGRICULTURE.—By J. W. Dawson, F.R.S., LL.D.—Montreal: John Lovell.—The public owe many thanks to Principal Dawson and Mr. Lovell, for this last addition to "Lovell's Series of School Books." Any thing that helps to improve our farmers and farming is a public benefit, and we hope the time will soon be, if it be not already past, when it shall be considered necessary for a farmer to be possessed of only a very slight education. When Agriculture shall be regularly a branch of study—something to be learned as well as Law, or Medicine, or any other study, we shall hope to see many more intelligent, cultivated farmers, the real strength of a country like ours, and fewer very indifferent doctors and lawyers, traders and clerks. Thanks then to Principal Dawson for an effort to help in the right direction, to show that the tillage of the soil may be improved by a little tillage of the brain also. We hope his little book may not only cause in many places two blades of wheat to grow where only one grew before, but also two sowers of wheat to grow up in many a family instead of one. The book is strictly an "elementary" one, intended to be used in schools or by individuals for their own private instruction, and the Principal advises it to be followed by some of the larger works on agriculture, when students shall have so mastered this as to be able to use them to advantage. Mr. Lovell could have made no more useful addition to his excellent series of Canadian school Books.—*Montreal Gazette*.

* Quære. Professor Goldwin Smith, in his fallacious "Empire"?

— **AIR BREATHERS OF THE COAL PERIOD.** By J. W. DAWSON, LL.D., F.R.S., MONTREAL: DAWSON, BROS.—This highly interesting essay by the accomplished Principal of McGill University gives the result of his discoveries from fossil remains of animals belonging to the coal period in Nova Scotia. Most of the matter contained in the essay has already appeared in the pages of the Canadian Naturalist and Geologist, but we are sure there are none of the readers of that magazine but will be pleased to see these valuable papers collected into a separate publication. Photographs of a creditable kind, taken by Mr. G. R. Prowse, add to the value of the work.

IX. Educational Intelligence.

CANADA.

— **QUEEN'S UNIVERSITY, KINGSTON.**—At a meeting of the trustees of Queen's University on Tuesday evening, Mr. Robert Bell, who has temporarily filled the chair vacated by Dr. Lawson, was unanimously elected to the Professorship of Chemistry and Natural History.—*Kingston News.*

— **THEOLOGICAL FELLOWSHIP IN QUEEN'S COLLEGE.**—A gentleman in Montreal has, with considerable liberality, put at the disposal of the Principal of Queen's College the sum of £50 for the benefit of the student who last year gained the Theological Fellowship. Four Fellowships were instituted—one in each of the four Faculties of Arts, Medicine, Theology, and Law. They were intended to be mere honorary at first, but it was hoped that they would be ultimately endowed, so that the holders after completing their studies in this country, might have the means of travelling or studying in Europe. The Rev. Donald Ross, M. A., B. D. is entitled to the munificent gift of the above enlightened patron of higher education.—*Kingston News.*

— **BELLEVILLE SEMINARY.**—Honor classes for the quarter ending Feb. 3rd, 1864.

Advanced Department.—First Class.

E. A. Angell, Forestville, N. Y. 5 51

Second Class.

S. S. Avery, Forestville, N. Y. 5 46 | G. R. Shepard, Belleville 5 12

M. Danby, Concord 5 39 | Nellie Cowan, Belleville 5 08

C. P. Kellog, Kent bridge 5 29 | Freeman Lane, Augusta 5 05

Primary Department.

Miss E. Farnham, Canifton . . . 5 14 | Albert Mallery, Cobourg 5 07

There are some twelve students of the school prosecuting the University course in Arts: some are in the second year, some in the first, and the remainder about matriculating. Of the young ladies, some six are pursuing the course of study prescribed by the Faculty for young ladies, and of these three have the course nearly completed. There are likewise several students undergoing special preparation for Law Examinations.—*Intelligencer.*

— **PRESBYTERIAN FEMALE COLLEGE.**—The Canada Observer is agitating for a female college in connection with the Canada Presbyterian Church. It says Presbyterians have only three choices at present: 1. To leave their daughters comparatively uneducated; 2. To send them at heavy expense to private boarding school; 3. To avail themselves of Wesleyan or Baptist female colleges.—*Kingston News.*

— **BARRIE GRAMMAR SCHOOL.**—We learn that the Rev. William F. Checkley has been appointed Head Master of the Barrie Grammar School. Mr. Francis Checkley, whose name has already been mentioned in connection with the School, having, we believe, found some difficulty in the way of a change. The present appointment must give general satisfaction, as it will be remembered that Mr. Checkley has been for many years Master of the School, and that during his incumbency its reputation extended over this and the sister provinces. His pupils hailed from all parts of Canada, and some of them even from New Brunswick, and as far off as the Red River settlement. In fact the Barrie Grammar School, when he held it, was the best in the Province, it was a well known fact that the young men who studied there almost invariably obtained College or University honors when sought for, or passed the examinations required before studying for a profession in a highly creditable manner. Mr. Checkley's reputation obtained for him the unsolicited appointment of Rector to the Model Grammar School in Toronto, and his leaving Barrie was a matter of very general regret, not only to parents who had children to be educated, but to all who were interested in the prosperity of the town. The Model

Grammar School was closed by the present Government, and Mr. Checkley having property in Barrie, returned here to reside and by the death of Mr. Johnson, again resumes his former duties.—*Northern Advance.*

— **PRESBOTT SCHOOL.**—The pupils of the senior division of the Prescott Common School presented their teacher, Mr. Byrne, on the occasion of his leaving the school, for a new sphere of labor, as editor and publisher of the Prescott *Telegraph*, with an Address, and a copy of the "Encyclopaedia Americana."

— **SCHOOL LANDS OF CANADA.**—From the last report of the Commissioner of Crown Lands we learn that the receipts from Grammar School Lands were, altogether, \$7,887; and from Common School Lands, \$128,390. In each of these cases the receipts were below those of the previous year.

— **MORRIN COLLEGE, Quebec,** has become affiliated with McGill University of Montreal.

GREAT BRITAIN.

— **HONOURS AT CAMBRIDGE.**—It appears that 104 gentlemen took honours at Cambridge this year, of whom 43 were wranglers. In 1863 the number was 100, and there were 33 wranglers; in 1862 the number was 85, and there were 32 wranglers; in 1861 the number was 93, and there were 34 wranglers; and in 1860 the number was 121, and there were 33 wranglers. On the restrictions as to the classical tripos being removed, in 1861, the mathematical honour-list perceptibly diminished in honours. Trinity College, this year, in addition to the senior, second, and fourth wranglers, claims 13 other wranglers; seven representatives of this great college are among the first twelve wranglers.

— **A LADY ON EDUCATION.**—Lady Pigot made a speech on education at a public meeting in Cowlinge, England, a short time since. Her ladyship spoke at considerable length with much zeal and energy, and was loudly applauded.

— **SPURGEON'S COLLEGE.**—This is one of the remarkable institutions of the day. In 1856, feeling that none of the colleges were adapted to men utterly without education, and that most of them gave more prominence to scholarship than to fitness for the pulpit, Mr. Spurgeon engaged the services of Rev. George Rogers, of Camberwell, as a tutor by whom a few pious students might be prepared for the ministry, in a way consistent with his view of the needs of the churches. The college began in the house of the tutor, with one pupil. In 1861, there were sixteen students to remove to the new class-rooms of the Metropolitan Tabernacle, and now there are there sixty-six young men, receiving not only education, but board, books, and in some cases clothing, free of expense. There are also one hundred, and eighty-two young men receiving, from properly qualified tutors, a business and classical education on week-day evenings. And all this work has been done for seven years with no expense whatever for collecting agencies, the high spiritual tone of the institution being sustained through prayer and faith in God. At first the money expended was mostly from Mr. Spurgeon's private purse, but as the work enlarged, this became insufficient.—He then with prayers and tears communicated to his people the needy condition of the institution, and the Lord sent help. Contributions came in, not only from his own people, but from strangers and the good work was not suffered to fail or falter. Now the annual expenditure is £3000, and still larger accommodations are needed. Many pious students are begging admission, churches are importuning for pastors from thence, and a wide field of labor is opening before them. The number of pastors sent out from the institution already is thirty-eight, and marked success has attended their labors in England, Ireland, Scotland, Newfoundland, and Australia. One within one year had baptized seventy-six persons; and received in all one hundred and twenty-seven to the membership of his church. Another in three years had baptized one hundred and seventy-seven; another in two years and a half one hundred and ten, eighty of whom had found Christ under his preaching. And these are but a few of the results of this blessed work.—*London Morning Star.*

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