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JOURNAL OF

Upper



EDUCATION,

Canada.

VOL. XIX.

TORONTO: FEBRUARY, 1866.

No. 2.

CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER:

	PAGE
I. PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN UPPER CANADA.....	17
II. AMENDMENTS TO UPPER CANADA SCHOOL LAW.—(1) The Chief Superintendent's Convention. (2) School Conventions in Upper Canada. (3) Compulsory Education in Upper Canada. (4) Local Superintendent's an Important Office. (5) McNab's Magistrate's Manual for Upper Canada: Arson of School Houses, &c.; Embezzlement by Trustees; Offences by Assessors; Offences relating to Schools.....	18
III. EDUCATION OF FARMERS.—(1) Necessity for Educated Farmers in Canada. (2) Agricultural Chemistry in our Public Schools.....	22
IV. CORRESPONDENCE ON SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.—(1) Remarks on Grammar. (2) How to Teach Spelling. (3) Writing for those who can Write.....	22
V. PAPERS ON PRACTICAL EDUCATION.—(1) Admirable Suggestions for Teachers.....	24
VI. PRIZE SKETCH OF THE HISTORY OF CANADA.....	25
VII. BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.—No. 9. Admiral Baldwin, R.N. 10. George Boomer, Esq. 11. Mr. David Wilson. 12. Rev. Father Tellier. 13. Chief Justice Parker. 14. The King of Belgium. 15. Rev. Dr. Wayland.....	27
VIII. PAPERS ON COLONIAL SUBJECTS.—(1) Sir Morton Peto on Canada. (2) Statistics of the British Colonies, 1861-1863. (3) Canadian Statistics. (4) Art in the Back-woods. (5) The French Acadians.....	28
IX. PAPERS ON PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.—(1) Across the Red River and Rocky Mountains. (2) The Source of the Nile.....	29
X. MISCELLANEOUS.—(1) Winter. (2) The Coronation of Winter. (3) Liberty of the Press in Russia. (4) British Periodical Literature. Sunday Magazine.....	31
XI. DEPARTMENTAL NOTICES.—Common School Manual for Upper Canada. No Pensions to Common School Teachers unless they Subscribe to the Fund. Postage Regulation in regard to Grammar and Common School Returns. School Registers supplied through Local Superintendents.....	32

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN UPPER CANADA.

In connection with the County School Conventions, now being so successfully held by the Chief Superintendent throughout Upper Canada, it may not be uninteresting to take a brief glance at the progress which the school system has made since its first establishment in the Province.

The great interest which has been displayed at these Educational Conventions is a gratifying proof of the vitality of the school system, and shows how fully alive the people are to the practical importance of the questions affecting the schools which have been brought before them. The discussions thus far have more than realized the expectations of the Department; while the ability and good feeling which has been generally displayed in the discussions afford a good guarantee that any change in the working of our school system will be considered on its own merits, apart from political or personal feeling.

The twenty-five years during which a system of public school education has been in operation in Upper Canada, have been marked by great and important changes—many of which have received the sanction of School Conventions in former years. These changes we propose briefly to review, so as to see what actual progress we have been making during the last quarter of a century.

In 1816—now fifty years ago, and nine years after District (Grammar) Schools were established—provision was first made by the legislature for the support and maintenance of Common Schools in Upper Canada: \$24,000 per annum were voted for this purpose. Even this grant was, in 1820, reduced to the pittance of \$10,000 per annum; and this small sum continued to be the entire parliamentary grant in aid of Common Schools until 1833, when it was raised to treble that amount. From 1833 until 1840, the grant fluctuated between \$30,000 and \$35,000. No life, however, animated the system, and the people themselves evinced little interest in it, and contributed as small a sum as possible for its support. In 1836, an effort was made to revivify the old system, and to endow it with an annual grant of \$60,000; but the eventful crisis of 1837-8 so dwarfed every other question into insignificance except that of our very political existence as a British province, that nothing was done.

In 1840-1, the turning point was, however, reached; and the first United Legislature of Canada passed an Act in 1841, establishing a definite system of Common School education for the whole province, and endowing it with the then munificent sum of \$200,000 per annum—the proportion of which, coming to Upper Canada, was only \$80,000. In 1845, the proportion of the Upper Canada share was increased to \$84,000. It remained at this sum until 1851, when it was again divided—giving Upper Canada \$100,000. In 1853, and subsequently, it has been divided according to the ratio of population in Upper and Lower Canada.

The School Act of 1841 first embodied the important principle of self-imposed taxation by the municipalities in aid of Common Schools, as a condition of receiving a share of the Legislative School Grant. In 1843, the School Law underwent some amendment in its details; and in the following year the Rev. Dr. Ryerson—present head of the Educational Department—was appointed by His Excellency the Governor General. Changes and various amendments were made in the law as it then stood, in 1843, 1846, 1847, and 1849. In 1850, however, a comprehensive School Act, was drafted by the Chief Superintendent. That Act (amended in 1853 and 1860) is still the law of the land, and is the basis of our present school system.

As an evidence of our educational growth during the last twenty-one years, it may be interesting to see from the following summary table the progress which the school system has made during that time:—

STATISTICS of Common Schools in Upper Canada, for a period of twenty-one years, showing the Total Amounts under the following sub-headings, for the years 1844, 1850, 1855, 1860, 1864, and 1865.

To 31st DECEMBER.	1844.	1850.	1855.	1860.	1864.	1865.
Population of Upper Canada between 5 and 16	183,539	259,258	297,823	373,539	421,565	†440,600
Total Common Schools in operation.....	2,610	3,059	3,325	3,909	4,224	†4,350
Total Common School pupils.....	96,750	151,391	227,834	315,812	371,695	†385,300
Total Salaries of Common School teachers.....	\$ 206,856	\$ 353,716	\$ 680,108	\$ 895,591	\$ 996,956	\$†1,008,068
Total amount expended for C. S. purposes.....	\$†205,897	\$ 410,472	\$ 899,272	\$1,159,774	\$1,285,318	\$†1,330,608
Total amount expended for Educa'l purposes.....	\$†382,518	\$†501,705	\$1,155,992	\$1,448,448	\$1,636,979	\$†1,680,609
Total Common School Teachers in U. C.	†2,390	3,476	3,505	4,231	4,825	†4,813
Gross number of Library Books sent out up to.....	117,292	186,761	208,483	212,423
Gross number of Prize Books sent out up to.....	42,885	165,847	211,055
*Total amount expended for Libraries, Prizes, Maps and Apparatus, including 100 per cent.	\$ 65,973	\$ 177,052	\$ 251,352	\$ †285,716

II. Amendments to Upper Canada School Law.

1. THE CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT'S CONVENTION.

The Rev. Dr. Ryerson's speech at Brantford on Friday evening, the 19th ult., whilst it does honor to his own head and heart, has inspired all those who heard him with an enthusiasm in the cause of education which will not be soon forgotten. Judging from this, his tour through Canada West must, it is obvious, be attended by many advantages in an educational, as well as a moral point of view. It will have the effect of rousing the dormant energies of an otherwise very active and very clever people, and of directing them into a channel vitally important to their best interests, and consequently to their lasting happiness. Among the other advantages arising from Dr. Ryerson's tour through Canada West, besides eliciting the opinions of the people, respecting the working of the school law, there will arise earnest and anxious discussions as to the best mode of dealing with questions intimately connected with the usefulness and efficacy of said law when applied to the growing emergencies that spring from a state of society rapidly tending to opulence and artificiality. These discussions will at length concentrate into two or three leading theories, which will be usefully applied either in framing a new school law, or in materially pruning from the present its deforming excrescences, or in adding to it prominent features which have been eminently successful when tried elsewhere.

The Chief Superintendent, both in his circular and in his several Convention speeches, directs the attention of the country to two or three leading points of great importance, and worthy of deep and serious consideration, before they should, even greatly modified, be ingrafted upon our present system of education. The fact is, would it not be better to centralize, and therefore greatly extend our present school sections, by constituting the township Council the Board of School Trustees for the whole township, with power to appoint visitors for each school in the township? The second is, "Whether each municipal Council should not be invested with power to bring to account or punish by fine or requiring to work on the roads, parents who do not send their children, between seven and fifteen years of age, to some school, at least four months in the year." The third is, that in consequence of the irregularity which the Chief Superintendent states are to be found in connection with the County board of public instruction in their examination of candidates for certificates, he proposes to have a central board appointed for framing a uniform set of questions for all the County Boards of Public Instruction, and that these questions would be all sent to them against a certain day, upon which there would be a general examination throughout the Province of candidates seeking for County Board certificates to empower them to teach, not within each County respectively, but generally throughout the Province.

With regard to the first important point, as briefly stated above, the Chief Superintendent would, it seems, favor the idea there inculcated, namely: that the present school sections should be abolished, and the present township Council invested with the powers of a school board over all the schools in the township. The plan is adopted in several states in the Union. It is uniform in its working,

causing the tax for educational purposes to be upon the whole more equitable, less direct, and therefore less oppressive. "Commissioners," as they are called, are deputed from the board to visit each school. They make regular reports, and upon their recommendation changes, &c. are made. It would seem, however, that notwithstanding the beauty and regularity of the system, the permanency of teachers situations is not thereby secured, particularly in country districts. But this arises principally from the fact, that persons without any aptitude or regular training for the profession, engage in teaching for a season or two, without any intention to follow it as a means of livelihood. This is not, however the case in the towns. There, teachers are as permanently situated as they are anywhere in the world. We believe, however, that if the system proposed by the Chief Superintendent were introduced into this Province, a great deal of positive good would ensue. There is no doubt but that it would render the position of the teacher more settled than it is at present, inasmuch as his salary, which now comes directly from the pockets of the farmers by so direct a taxation, that it may be called a species of partition, would in the event of the above mentioned system being introduced, be paid by a township treasurer, through an order of the "Commissioner" upon him, somewhat like the order given by the Local Superintendent to teachers upon the functionary here. The farmers not directly feeling the tax, would be more content to keep the teacher, or at least could not get rid of him as easily as they do at present, should he by any means displease them through the irksome exercise of some of his unpleasant duties. The nomadic character of the great bulk of Canadian teachers would thus be somewhat checked by the introduction of this system and a corresponding boon to education would naturally follow by the schools being better conducted, by the impartment of sounder and more extensive instruction, the teacher being allowed time through the comparative permanency of his engagement, to study the temper, the talents and the bias of his pupils. No fouler blot could exist in any system than that which mars the face of our much lauded school law; and it savors somewhat of fatuity to be eternally shouting loud paeans in its favor as long as the law permits the teachers of Canada, like Bedouins of the desert, or like the Tartars of the central plateau of Asia to migrate from one locality to another at certain seasons of the year. This disgrace to the law, as well as to the country at large, may be easily prevented by means within the reach of even the present existing statute. Would it not be easy for the legislature to insist that none of the money granted for school purposes should reach that section in which the same teacher was not engaged for at least one year. Something like this is adopted in England, in practice at least. No teacher there would be granted the salary arising from his certificate of merit, unless he spent at least a year in the same school; but on the contrary, no aid would be granted to the school itself unless it was in a satisfactory state, and that the efficiency of the pupils were up to the standard marked out by the law, as the result of a year's instruction. This plan mutually renders it the interest of the teacher to remain in the same school for at least a year, while it places a pressure upon the local committee to have as little change as possible, or they would be otherwise very probably deprived of the Government aid from the Committee of Council on Education. The result is that changes occur very seldom in the English schools. True, the certificated master holds a very respectable position. Virulence, spite and revenge can never reach him, provided he performs his duty honestly and honorably. What a contrast between the English school law, with its almost complete machinery of inspectors, teachers, pupils, certificated teachers, &c., of which you scarcely ever hear one word of praise, and our school law in Canada, belauded as it is to the clouds. We are confident that Dr. Ryerson's plan would bring about one good result at least; and this result would more than counterbalance any evils of less importance that may follow in its train. We have again reference to the comparatively permanent location of the teachers—and for this object alone it is worth an honest trial. The township board not being connected with any school section in particular, might render its influence over the schools under its jurisdiction as complete and as perfect as possible, not through the instrumentality of "visitors," as Dr. Ryerson suggests, but through a still more powerful influence, namely: the appointment of an executive officer, somewhat similar in character to a sub-inspector, whose duty it would be to report to the township board all matters affecting the schools under its jurisdiction, to assist with advice, &c., the teachers engaged in said schools; to organize new schools; to be constantly engaged in examining, teaching, or introducing new systems of education into each and all of the schools within said jurisdiction. It is obvious that the person so appointed should be a practical common school teacher, well known to be skilful, successful, and perfectly au-fait in his profession. His whole time should be employed in the work, and where it would come too expensive (we deny that it would) for one township board to employ such a person, two could unite, and not more.

* This does not include maps, apparatus or books purchased elsewhere than at the Educational Depository.

† An approximate estimate.

The County Council, to render the County inspectorial system perfect, would be called upon, as it has even the power by law now to do, to appoint a County inspector with duties in connection with the County Council similar to those of the sub-inspector in connection with the township boards, but with more extensive powers, supervising over one superintending the whole. He should also be a common school teacher, of high celebrity in the County as one, and of at least fifteen years' experience in his profession.

The Department of Education in Toronto should be empowered to create four head inspectors at least to represent the legislative school fund, with duties in connection with the department similar to those of the County inspectors, but of course with powers more extensive. They alone should be empowered to grant Provincial certificates, holding examinations for this purpose in central situations twice every year. The County inspector and sub-inspectors of each County would of course form a county Board of public instruction, with power to grant County Board certificates. Or a plan might at once be adopted for granting Provincial certificates to all competent teachers, and obliterate for evermore the distinction between Provincial and County Board certificates. It is this: let the Province for this and inspectorial purposes be divided into as many districts as there are head-inspectors; let each head-inspector, accompanied by the County inspector of said district, meet at some central place within the district, and there hold an examination for the purpose of granting certificates good for the whole Province. Those who would be unable to obtain certificates in this way should attend the Norman School; and in every case the latter would be the most preferable method, if it would suit the convenience of all. Should this or some similar inspectorial system be adduced, there is no doubt but that the educational interests of the country would receive an impetus that would soon place the country, in point of intelligence and virtue, in a position that would compare favourably with any other at present in existence.—*Brantford Courier*.

2. SCHOOL CONVENTIONS IN UPPER CANADA.

At the School Conventions Rev. Dr. Ryerson proposes doing away with the school sections altogether, and leaving the management of matters with some Board having jurisdiction over a whole Township. As an argument in favor of this, he contends that it would do away with much of the petty quarreling and prejudice now prevalent. As far as this proposal is concerned, we must say that we most decidedly favor it, since it will be apt to secure one great boon, the permanency of a teacher's position. That unfortunate individual is now subject to the caprices and whims of every parent whose children are under his tuition. With the power centralized, these whims will have to have more than a shadowy foundation before they can be exercised in such a way as to injure the teacher. Another advantage that would arise from this is that the salaries would be equalized, and more system established in the manner of payment.—*Picton North American*.

3. COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN UPPER CANADA.

We promised to-day to notice the methods adopted in some of the States of the neighboring republic, to secure the attendance, for at least a portion of every year, of all the children of the State. Mayhew, in his interesting work on popular education, gives a resume of these, and to it we are indebted for the facts which we to-day present to our readers. In some of the States of Europe the laws in this respect are exceedingly stringent. In Prussia, for instance, when a parent refuses without satisfactory excuse, to send his child to school, for the time required by law, he is called before the Court, tried, and if he refuses compliance, the child is taken from him and sent to school, and the parent to prison. This is probably the extreme limit to which the power of the State could go, and it is very doubtful if the spirit of the people of this country would submit to a law of this kind. It is similar to the laws which prevailed a couple of centuries ago in the New England colonies. The following curious passage occurs in the Massachusetts Colony Laws of 1642:—"Forasmuch as the good education of children is of singular behoof and benefit to any commonwealth, and whereas many parents and masters are indolent and negligent in their duty in that kind, it is ordered that the selectmen of every town in the several precincts and quarters, where they dwell, shall have a vigilant eye over their brethren and neighbors, to see, first, that none of them shall suffer so much barbarism in any of their families as not to teach by themselves or others, their children and apprentices so much learning as may enable them perfectly to read the English tongue, and knowledge of the capital laws, upon penalty of twenty shillings for each neglect therein."

According to the statutes of Massachusetts of 1850, each of the several cities and towns in that State is "authorised and empowered

to make all needful provisions and arrangements concerning habitual tenants, and children not attending school without any regular or lawful occupation, growing up in ignorance, between the ages of six and fifteen years: and also, all such ordinances and by-laws respecting such children as shall be deemed most conducive to their welfare and the good order of such city or town; and there shall be annexed to such ordinances suitable penalties, not exceeding for any one breach a fine of twenty dollars." And in order to carry out this provision, it is made the duty of the authorities to appoint annually three or more persons, who alone are authorized to make complaints for any violation of the law, and carry out the decisions of Justices of the Peace in cases of the imposition of penalties. And the Justices before whom an offender is brought are vested with authority, instead of imposing a fine upon the parent, "to order children proved before them to be growing up in truancy, and without the benefit of education provided for them by law, to be placed for such period of time as they may judge expedient, in such institution of instruction, or house of reformation, or other suitable situation, as may be assigned or provided for the purpose in each city or town" availing itself of the provisions of the Act. And this power has been taken advantage of by many of the municipalities, and incorporated into their municipal codes. In Boston, for instance, children whose parents are dead, or if living, neglect to send them to school, may be sent by the Court to the House of Reformation. In addition to this House of Reformation, there has been established under a recent Act, a State Reform School where children whose parents ignore their duty towards them are "instructed in piety and morality, and in such branches of useful knowledge as shall be adapted to their age and capacity," and from which they may be borne out to some trade.

Analogous to these institutions are the House of Reformation for juvenile delinquents in New York, and the House of Refuge in Philadelphia. In both of these are excellent schools, where those who would otherwise grow up in crime, are instructed in such knowledge as should tend to make them useful citizens. But all these institutions imply that in cities at least some similar machinery is necessary before a system of compulsory education can be enforced. We believe that, as a matter of economy, it would be much cheaper to erect them than to permit the children of the vicious and depraved to grow up in ignorance and in association with crime. As we have said, the subject is one of immense importance in our school system; and we have no doubt that in the convention which is to be held to-day it will secure that consideration to which it is so fully entitled.—*Hamilton Spectator*.

4. LOCAL SUPERINTENDENT'S AN IMPORTANT OFFICE.

The letter of the Hon. Billa Flint in a recent issue of the *Review*, and doubtless also the recurrence of the period of the year when county and township appointments to office are made, have prepared the public mind for a re-opening of the question as to the propriety or otherwise of appointing a Local Superintendent of Schools for the county, or one for each section of the county, instead of for the municipalities singly, as has heretofore been the rule. The idea is rapidly gaining ground that such a change would be highly beneficial, and the experience of neighboring counties who have adopted the plan of County Superintendents would seem to be in its favor.—There are two leading causes to the growing dissatisfaction with the present system. The first is the difficulty, in many municipalities, of finding a suitable man, although aspirants for the office may be numerous; and the second is owing to the fact that the supervision of the schools of a single township is not enough to occupy more than a passing share of attention, and being only a secondary duty, to be attended to in the intervals of some leading and more engrossing pursuit, it can hardly be expected to be entered into with the zeal and pursued with the devotion which its importance requires.

Two visits in the year to each school is the number which the law requires; and as usually only two schools, and in many cases but one, can be visited, and the pupils examined, in a single day, involving probably many miles of travel, the sum of four dollars for each school per year—the highest paid in this county—can by no means be regarded as munificent remuneration, especially when it is remembered that many additional days are spent in receiving and examining reports, apportioning moneys, and annually preparing from very inaccurate data a full report to the Educational Department; to say nothing of a lecture anticipated at least once a year in every school section, for all of which the aforementioned sum is presumed to be an adequate equivalent. Can it be wondered at that public duties thus brought into competition, and sometimes into collision, with private interests and a man's main pursuit in life, should under these circumstances be pushed into the shade, and in time come to be treated as secondary instead as of paramount importance?

The appointment of a superintendent for half the county, or for the whole county, with adequate remuneration, would no doubt remedy much of the drawbacks here mentioned, and secure greater efficiency in the performance of the duties of the office. But this also is not without its difficulties, the greatest of which would probably be in the selection of the proper man. A combination of qualifications somewhat rare is here required. He should be not only a man of liberal education, but of recent education, or at least thoroughly conversant with the modern improvements in the art of teaching, and capable of practically exemplifying the best methods of securing the attention, winning the confidence, and drawing out the minds of his little auditory. How few in any community are there who possess the undefinable manner and the inimitable tact, the readiness, and the experience for such a task. And yet it is here that the real power of the office centres. It is only by becoming thus *en rapport* with the minds of both teachers and pupils that an inspiring and beneficent influence can be exerted over both, and real results accomplished.

Public lectures on education, however good in their way, can effect but little. It is a subject difficult to render popular and attractive. Its dry platitudes are generally addressed to adults, whose habits are fixed and who can only be reached in numbers too few and at intervals too remote to arouse their interest or excite their enthusiasm. It is with the children that the great work has to be accomplished, and in practically exemplifying the duties of the school room, in stimulating, admonishing, and cheering the little palpitating hearts, and kindling the upturned faces, that the real work of education can be best promoted.

Apart from these special qualifications, is the almost equally difficult task of selecting a man in whom the different sections of the community would have confidence, and who, either from his own peculiar views or prejudices or theirs, might be regarded as objectionable. But if it be decided that the educational interests of the county require the selection of such an officer, then should a wise discrimination on the part of the Council be followed by a generous liberality and an united effort on the part of the people to render his efforts successful.

It would be desirable, if possible, that such a selection be made as would render annual changes at least improbable, since the occupant of the office would doubtless be called upon to give up some other calling when entering upon it, and a reasonable tenure of office would be most advantageous to the interests of the public as well as to his own.—*Peterboro' Review*.

5. McNAB'S MAGISTRATES' MANUAL FOR U. C.

We have been gratified with an examination of this excellent compilation. It seems very full and complete in all its details, and contains, so far as we are able to judge, extracts from the various statutes of the Province, relating to the jurisdiction and duties of Magistrates. The work has been prepared by John McNab, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, Crown Attorney for the Counties of York and Peel, and is published by Messrs. W. C. Chewett & Co., of Toronto. The jurisdiction of magistrates as we learn from this manual is quite extensive; and it appears to have been very much increased of late years. It is, therefore, of the greatest importance to these gentlemen (many of whom only hold the office *ex-officio* and for a short time) to have some reliable guide to direct them in the performance of their highly responsible duties. From the following titles of some of the chapters, the character and value of the manual, it will be readily seen: "The office of a Justice of the Peace;" "Procedure of a Magistrates Court;" "Statutes relating to the office and duties of Magistrates;" "Summary of the Criminal Law of Upper Canada." This last chapter embraces almost the whole of the remaining part of the Manual and includes a descriptive alphabetical order of all the various indictable offences of which a magistrate can take cognizance. As a specimen of the work we extract the following sections of Acts which relate to schools, &c. We cordially recommend the Manual as a valuable book of reference for our public school libraries, and we shall be happy to supply it from the Department for this purpose.

ARSON OF SCHOOL HOUSES, &c.

"If any person unlawfully and maliciously sets fire to any school house, lecture room, seminary of learning, college, or building used for the purpose of education, or to any village, town, or city hall, or to any steam or fire engine house, or toll-booth, or to any building used or employed as a mechanics' institute, or as a public library, or to any hall or building used by any body or society of persons, by whatever name or designation they may be known, and whether they are associated together for educational, philanthropic, or benevolent purposes, or for any other lawful purpose, or to any museum or repository of curiosities, such offender shall be guilty

of felony, and shall be imprisoned in the penitentiary for the term of his natural life, or for any term not less than two years, or be imprisoned in any other prison or place of confinement for any term less than two years, and it shall not be necessary to allege or set out in the indictment the name of the owner of any such building." (Con. Stat. C., c. 93, s. 6).

EMBEZZLEMENT BY TRUSTEES.

"If any person, being a trustee of any property for the benefit, either wholly or partially, of some other person, or for any public or charitable purpose, does, with intent to defraud, convert or appropriate the same, or any part thereof, with intent as aforesaid, otherwise dispose of or destroy such property, or any part thereof, he shall be guilty of a misdemeanor." (Con. Stat. C., c. 92, s. 51).

"If any person, being a trustee of any money or other property for the benefit, either wholly or partially, of some other person, or for any public or charitable purpose, converts or appropriates the same, or any part thereof, to or for his own use or purposes, or otherwise wilfully disposes of the same, contrary to his duty, so that such money or other property is not forthcoming and paid or delivered when such person is ordered or decreed by the Court of Chancery, or other court having jurisdiction in the matter, to pay the same, he shall be deemed to have converted or disposed of the same with intent to defraud, within the meaning of the last preceding section of this act; but this present section is to apply to Upper Canada only." (Con. Stat. C., c. 92, s. 52).

OFFENCES BY ASSESSORS.

"If any assessor or clerk refuses or neglects to perform any duty required of him by this act, he shall, for every such offence, upon conviction thereof before the Recorder's Court of the city, or before the Court of General Quarter Sessions of the county in which he is assessor or clerk, forfeit the sum of one hundred dollars to Her Majesty." (Con. Stat. U. C., c. 55, s. 171).

"If any clerk, assessor, or collector, acting under this act, makes any unjust or fraudulent assessment or collection, or copy of any assessor's or collector's roll, or wilfully and fraudulently inserts therein the name of any person who should not be entered, or omits the name of any person who should be entered, or wilfully omits any duty required of him by this act, he shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and, upon conviction thereof before a court of competent jurisdiction, shall be liable to a fine not exceeding two hundred dollars, and to imprisonment until the fine be paid, or to imprisonment in the common gaol of the county or city for a period not exceeding six months, or to both such fine and imprisonment, in the discretion of the court." (Con. Stat. U. C., c. 55, s. 174).

OFFENCES RELATING TO SCHOOLS.

CHALLENGING VOTERS.—"If any person offering to vote at an annual or other section meeting, is challenged as unqualified by any legal voter in such section, the chairman presiding at such meeting shall require the person so offering to make the following declaration:—

"I do declare and affirm that I am a freeholder (or householder) in this school section, and that I am legally qualified to vote at this meeting."

"And every person making such declaration shall be permitted to vote on all questions proposed at such meeting; but if any person refuse to make such declaration, his vote shall be rejected." (Con. Stat. U. C., c. 64, s. 17).

PENALTY FOR FALSE DECLARATION.—"If any person wilfully makes a false declaration of his right to vote, he shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and be punished by fine or imprisonment, at the discretion of the Court of Quarter Sessions, or by a penalty of not less than five dollars or more than ten dollars, to be sued for and recovered, with costs, before a Justice of the Peace, by the trustees of the school section for its use." (Con. Stat. U. C., c. 64, s. 18).

REFUSING TO SERVE AS TRUSTEE.—"If any person chosen as trustee refuses to serve, he shall forfeit the sum of five dollars, and every person so chosen who has not refused to accept the office, and who at any time refuses or neglects to perform its duties, shall forfeit and pay the sums of twenty dollars, to be sued for and recovered before a Justice of the Peace by the trustees of the school section, for its use." (Con. Stat. U. C., c. 64, s. 23.)

PENALTY ON SECRETARY-TREASURER.—"If any secretary-treasurer appointed by the school trustees of any school section, or any person having been such secretary-treasurer, has in his possession any books, papers, chattels or moneys, which came into his possession as such secretary-treasurer, and wrongfully withholds, or refuses to deliver up, or to account

for and pay over the same, or any part thereof, to the person, and in the manner directed by a majority of the school trustees for the school section then in office, such withholding or refusing shall be a misdemeanor." (Con. Stat. U.C., c. 64, s. 130.)

SUMMARY JURISDICTION.—"Upon application to the Judge of the County Court, by a majority of such trustees, supported by their affidavit, made before some Justice of the Peace, of such wrongful withholding or refusal, such judge shall make an order that such secretary-treasurer, or person having been such, do appear before him at a time and place to be appointed in the order." (Con. Stat. U.C., c. 64, s. 131.)

ORDER: HOW TO BE SERVED.—"Any bailiff of a Division Court, upon being required by such judge, shall serve such order, personally, on the party complained against, or leave the same with a grown-up person at his residence." (Con. Stat. U.C., c. 64, s. 132.)

JUDGE TO HEAR CASE.—"At the time and place so appointed, the judge being satisfied that such service has been made, shall, in a summary manner, and whether the party complained of does or does not appear, hear the complaint; and, if he is of opinion that the complaint is well founded, such judge shall order the party complained of to deliver up, account for and pay over the books, papers, chattels, or moneys, as aforesaid, by a certain day to be named by the judge in the order, together with such reasonable costs, incurred in making the application, as the judge may tax." (Con. Stat. U.C., c. 64, s. 133.)

NON-COMPLIANCE WITH ORDER.—"In the event of a non-compliance with the terms specified in such order, or any or either of them, the judge shall order the said party to be forthwith arrested by the sheriff of any county in which he may be found, and to be committed to the common gaol of his county, there to remain without bail, until such judge be satisfied that such party has delivered up, accounted for, or paid over the books, papers, chattels, or moneys in question, in the manner directed by the majority of the trustees, as aforesaid." (Con. Stat. U.C., c. 64, s. 134.)

DISCHARGES.—"Upon proof of his having so done, such judge shall make an order for his discharge, and he shall be discharged accordingly." (Con. Stat. U.C., c. 64, s. 134.)

OTHER REMEDY NOT AFFECTED.—"No such proceeding shall impair or affect any other remedy which the said trustees may have against such secretary-treasurer, or person having been such, or his sureties." (Con. Stat. U.C., c. 64, s. 136.)

PERSONAL RESPONSIBILITY.—"If any part of the common school fund be embezzled or lost through the dishonesty or faithlessness of any party to whom it has been entrusted, and proper security against such loss has not been taken, the person whose duty it was to have exacted such security shall be personally responsible for the sums so embezzled or lost, and the same may be recovered from him by the party entitled to receive the same, by action at law, in any court having jurisdiction to the amount, or by information at the suit of the crown." (Con. Stat. U.C., c. 64, s. 137.)

PENALTY FOR FALSE REPORTS AND REGISTERS.—"If any trustees of a common school knowingly sign a false report, or if any teacher of a common school keeps a false school register, or makes a false return, with the view of obtaining a larger sum than the just proportion of school moneys coming to such common school, such trustee or teacher shall, for each offence, forfeit to the common school fund of the township, the sum of twenty dollars, for which any person whatever may prosecute him before a Justice of the Peace, and for which he may be convicted, on the oath of one creditable witness other than the prosecutor; and if, upon conviction, the penalty is not forthwith paid, the same shall, under the warrant of such justice, be levied, with costs, by distress and sale of the goods and chattels of the offender; and such penalty, when so paid or collected, shall by such justice, be paid over to the said common school fund; or, the said offender may be prosecuted for a misdemeanor." (Con. Stat. U.C., c. 64, s. 138.)

DISTURBERS OF SCHOOLS: HOW PUNISHED.—"Any person who wilfully disturbs, interrupts, or disquiets the proceedings of any school-meeting authorized to be held by this act, or any school established and conducted under its authority, or wilfully interrupts or disquiets any grammar, common, or public school, by rude or indecent behaviour, or by making a noise either within the place where such school is kept or held, or so near thereto as to disturb the order or exercises of such school, shall, for each offence, on conviction thereof, before a Justice of the Peace, on the oath of one credible witness, forfeit and pay, for common school purposes, to the school section, city, town, or village, within which the offence was committed, such sum, not exceeding twenty dollars, together with the costs of the conviction, as the said justice may think fit; or, the offender may be indicted

and punished for any of the offences hereinbefore mentioned, as a misdemeanor." (Con. Stat. U.C., c. 64, s. 139.)

HOW PENALTIES SHALL BE RECOVERABLE.—"Unless it is in this act otherwise provided, all fines, penalties, and forfeitures recoverable by summary proceeding, may be sued for, recovered, and enforced, with costs, by and before any Justice of the Peace having jurisdiction within the school section, city, town, or village in which such fine or penalty has been incurred; and if such fine or penalty and costs be not forthwith paid, the same shall, by and under the warrant of the convicting justice, be enforced, levied, and collected, with costs, by distress and sale of the goods and chattels of the offender; and shall be, by such justice, paid over to the school treasurer of the school section, city, town, or village, or other party entitled thereto; and, in default of such distress, such justice shall, by his warrant, cause the offender to be imprisoned for any time not exceeding thirty days, unless the fine and costs, and the reasonable expenses of endeavouring to collect the same, be sooner paid." (Con. Stat. U.C., c. 64, s. 140.)

PENALTY ON TEACHER REFUSING TO DELIVER UP SCHOOL REGISTER.—"Any teacher wilfully refusing, on demand of the majority of the trustees of the school corporation employing him, to deliver up any school register or school-house key, or other school property in his possession, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall not be deemed a qualified teacher until restitution be made, and shall also forfeit any claim which he may have against the said trustees." (23 Vic., c. 49, s. 1.)

SECTION 17, CON. STAT. U.C., CAP. 64, AMENDED: WHO MAY VOTE. DECLARATION MAY BE REQUIRED. FORM, 23 VIC.—"The 17th section of the Upper Canada Common School Act, chapter 64, of the Con. Stat. for Upper Canada, shall be amended so as to read as follows: 'No person shall be entitled to vote in any school section, for the election of trustee, or on any school question whatsoever, unless he shall have been assessed, and shall have paid school rates, as a freeholder or householder, in such section; and, in case an objection be made to the right of any person to vote in a school section, the chairman, or presiding officer at the meeting, shall, at the request of any ratepayer, require the person whose right of voting is objected to, to make the following declaration:—

"I do declare and affirm that I have been rated on the assessment roll of this school section, as a freeholder (or householder, as the case may be), and that I have paid a public school tax, due by me in this school section, imposed within the last twelve months, and that I am legally qualified to vote at this meeting."

"Whereupon, the person making such declaration shall be permitted to vote on all questions proposed at such meeting; but, if any person refuses to make such declaration, his vote shall be rejected; and, if any person wilfully make a false declaration of his right to vote, he shall be guilty of a misdemeanor; and, upon conviction, upon the complaint of any person, shall be punishable by fine or imprisonment, in the manner provided for in the said Upper Canada Common School Act." (23 Vic., c. 49, s. 3.)

PENALTY ON TRUSTEES REFUSING INFORMATION.—23 Vic., c. 49, s. 8, provides for the appointment of auditors of school accounts, by the annual school-meeting and trustees.

It declares the duties of school trustees, and powers and duties of auditors; and that "If the trustees or their secretary, in their behalf, refuse to furnish the auditors, or either of them, with the papers or information in their power, and which may be required of them, relative to their school accounts, the party refusing shall be guilty of a misdemeanor; and, upon prosecution, by either of the auditors or any ratepayer, be punished by fine or imprisonment, as provided by the one-hundred-and-fortieth section of the said Upper Canada Common School Act."

NON-COMPLIANCE WITH AWARD.—"If the trustees wilfully refuse or neglect, for one month after publication of award, to comply with or give effect to an award of arbitrators appointed as provided by the eighty-fourth section of the said Upper Canada Common School Act, the trustees so refusing or neglecting shall be held to be personally responsible for the amount of such award, which may be enforced against them individually by warrant of such arbitrators, within one month after publication of their award; and no want of form shall invalidate the award, or proceedings of arbitrators, under the School Act." (23 Vic., c. 49, s. 9.)

DECLARATION AND FINE FOR NOT TAKING.—"Every person elected a trustee, and who is eligible and liable to serve as such, shall make the following declaration of office, before the chairman of the school-meeting: 'I will truly and faithfully, to the best of my judgment and ability, dis-

charge the duties of the office of school trustee, to which I have been elected.' And, if any person elected as school trustee shall not make such a declaration within two weeks after notice of his election, his neglect to do so shall be sufficient evidence of his refusing to serve, and of his liability to pay the fine, as provided for in the twenty-third section of the said Upper Canada School Act." (23 Vic., c. 49, s. 18.)

PENALTY ON CHAIRMAN FOR NEGLIGENCE.—"Any chairman who neglects to transmit to the local superintendent a copy of the proceedings of an annual or other school section meeting, over which he may preside, within ten days after the holding of such meeting, shall be liable, on the complaint of any ratepayer, to a fine of not more than five dollars, to be recovered as provided in the one-hundred-and-fortieth section of the Upper Canada Common School Act, aforesaid." (23 Vic., c. 49, s. 19.)

III. Education of Farmers.

1. NECESSITY FOR EDUCATED FARMERS IN CANADA.

From the last Address of the President of the Provincial Agricultural Association of Upper Canada, we select the following admirable passages, relating to the importance of a superior education for the farming community in our country:—

Agriculture, the foundation stone upon which rests a nation's prosperity, is the most useful of all the arts and sciences; the existence of society and civilization depend entirely upon it. Of all human pursuits, agriculture is first in order, in necessity, and importance. We learn from history that the most ancient nations, though they had not the great advantages, nor the light of science, which we possess, regarded the cultivation of the soil as one of the most noble of pursuits. It is evident that there is no profession or pursuit which more needs the aid of a thorough education than that of farming; and it is equally true that there is no class in the community by whom it is more neglected. It needs reading and thinking minds as well as working hands, and it is a combination of these which has done so much to advance the interests and develop the resources of the mother country. It is unfortunate that the feeling should generally exist among the farming community that the boy who intends to be a farmer requires only the mere rudiments of an education. Experience has taught us that whether a person farms for the production of cereals alone, or gives his attention to the improvement of his stock, he is constantly brought in contact with the great laws of nature; and, though he may learn much that is valuable, or of temporary advantage, how much more might he learn and communicate, for the general benefit, if that experience were utilized by a general intelligence and a knowledge of the laws and principles which govern all productions. It is our duty to encourage, by every means in our power, the young farmer to a more intimate knowledge of the sciences as adapted to agriculture; and I feel persuaded that there is no person in the community who will say that, while other departments of life in this country advance, that which represents interests the most vital to our success, should not share in the progress, and should not rise in intelligence, and show itself worthy of a high place among the most successful workers of our future greatness! The advance which has already been made in popular education, the efforts made by our government to foster educational interests, and the inducements held out by associations like this, give us every reason to hope that many years will not pass before we shall find the agricultural among the most popular of our institutions. It is, to a certain extent, true, as regards the early history of this country, that our ancestors brought up their sons to feel that the farmer belonged to an inferior caste; and many of our fathers and fastidious mothers taught their children that manual labor was dishonorable and degrading, and that, in order to be respected in the world, they must have a situation behind the counter, or study theology or jurisprudence. But how marked now is the change; we, at the present time, teach those under our care that there is no more honorable nor respectable livelihood than that of cultivating the soil, and its kindred arts and sciences. And we point them, with pride and satisfaction, to men occupying the highest positions in the country, as being engaged in the noble pursuit of agriculture. In order to be a thorough-going, energetic, and successful farmer, a man must be educated; he must have a good practical knowledge of agricultural chemistry, natural philosophy, botany, geology, &c., and he cannot reasonably expect to succeed in the thorough cultivation of the soil, and raise good crops on his farm from year to year, as long as he lives, unless he is a man of thought, accustomed to devise the best and most practicable arrangements and systems of management, not only for producing, but also for consuming the productions of the soil. The most successful cultivators of the soil, whose opinions on

agricultural subjects and whose practices are widely disseminated and adopted, are generally men who are not ashamed nor mortified to be seen holding the plough, swinging the cradle, or digging the soil. Reason and experience teach us that manual labor is not incompatible with the growth and vigor of our intellects. Long experience has furnished us with the most undoubted proof that active and energetic physical employment imparts vigor to the system, and that vigor of body also invigorates the brain.

It is also essentially necessary that a farmer should understand mechanics, not only theoretically but practically—there being such a variety of labor-saving machines annually invented and adapted to the pursuit of agriculture, that, without that knowledge, it would be almost impossible for him to reap the benefit which they are intended to confer upon him.

We cannot shut our eyes to the fact that, while our common school system has conferred inestimable benefits upon this country, and has done much to advance its material welfare, there has not been that attention given to the study of agriculture which our position demands. Our schools derive the greatest support from the rural districts, yet, in how few instances do we find the youth receiving an elementary training in the theory of agriculture, and, as a natural consequence, a growing reluctance among them to continue the pursuit of agriculture as a means of existence. Many persons, occupying high positions in the country, have pointed out this defect in our common schools, and although those who are the public guardians of our youth may have, in a measure, endeavored to supply this desideratum, by the introduction into our school libraries* of approved works upon agriculture, yet we have undoubted evidences of the fact that, in but few instances, is that knowledge which they are intended to convey imparted to the children in attendance at the schools. It is probable that these remarks may not be quite palatable to those to whose care is intrusted the education of our children; yet I would ask them to bear in mind the fact that a knowledge of the theory of agriculture is no test in the granting of certificates of qualification, and must continue to be so, so long as that prerogative is in the hands of boards of examiners who have not the remotest idea of either the theory or practice of agriculture. In discussing this subject, I cannot offer better proof of its importance than by quoting the language of the Chief Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada, who is reported to have said:—

"It is admitted by all, that the change in the commercial policy of the mother country should induce us to put forth extraordinary exertion; that all must put forth their efforts to demonstrate that two ears of corn could be grown where we now raise one. And what so important a means to this end as education. Finding their sons return knowing nothing of what belongs to their future career, engenders dissatisfaction with farmers. When educated properly, with the same view to their future engagements as the student at law, medicine, and theology, for their respective offices; when regard should be had to their feelings, self-respect, and virtuous habits, then agricultural pursuits would rank as high as legal studies. Looking at these points, who could be unaware how important it was they should be carried out? It is not only with practical knowledge the farmer has to do, the seasons, &c., but it is also necessary he should know something of the constituents of the soil; some may be defective, some prolific. With plants, he should know how each is the best suited to the ground; and this knowledge should extend to every kind and every soil. A proper knowledge of manures will require that he should inform himself of the first principles of chemistry, and their application."

2. AGRICULTURAL CHEMISTRY IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

At the annual meeting of the members of the Oxford North Riding Agricultural Society on the 17th ult. a proposition was made to introduce into our educational system, and render it a part of the study of the youth of the country, irrespective of age or sex, the very abstruse subject, "Agricultural Chemistry."—*Woodstock Times*.

IV. Correspondence on subjects of Instruction.

1. REMARKS ON GRAMMAR.

(To the Editor of the Journal of Education.)

In relation to the articles on Grammar in the January and pre-

* The list of books relating to Agriculture and kindred subjects, in the official school library catalogue, is very large. The Educational Department does all in its power to promote the circulation of these books.—[Ed. J. of E.]

vious November numbers of the *Journal of Education*, it is evident that, from the avidity with which they were commenced, our professional brethren in various parts of the province, are praiseworthy on the alert, and ready to adopt any amendment, that, on examination, has aught to mention in it. One or two items which I then advanced, not having been made sufficiently clear, and as they may fairly be deemed legitimate matter for the *Journal*, I propose, with your leave, to show why I argued so, in the hope that, should I succeed in the argument, it may lead to a greater uniformity of, so treating them in our classes, a feature, especially in Grammar, much to be desired.

First, in relation to the rule, "one verb governs another in the infinitive mood," as, "Forget not to do good." In this proposition we have all the requisites for the elucidation of the rule. It is an imperative proposition, with its subject "ye" understood—while the attribute to do evil satisfies the question—forget what? thereby giving us the verbal noun to do, the object of the active transitive verb *forget*; this reads very satisfactorily. But let us take an active intransitive, neuter, or passive verb, as "He was known to be rich," and the former rule and analysis become a failure. Besides, we are reminded appropriately enough that neuter and passive verbs do not admit of objects after them, so that the only rule applicable in its entirety—logical, as well as grammatical, is the use of the nearly absolute *for*, which meets the requirements in every case for the government of these infinitives—as nouns. The first rule holds good only where an active transitive verb is employed; by testing it with other verbs as above, and bearing in mind the rule just contrary to "Active verbs govern, &c." its fallacy will at once be apparent. I trust this is obvious enough.

Then as to some words called *adverbs*, which can not under any circumstances modify verbs, let us take—very—rather—pretty. We could not say "He spoke very (well), He ran pretty (fast); but add the adverbs in brackets and they then show their true value (only) as adverbial complements—not adverbs themselves. It would be as reasonable to call an *adjective a noun* because it is a complement of the noun; or a noun, a verb, because they are inseparably connected.

I would also remark the abuse to which the *past tense* is submitted in place of the *past participle* as "His health was drank," &c., and also the using of a *plural verb* with a *singular nominative*, as "A number of them were killed." This species of grammar has obtained largely in the states of late, and it certainly loses nothing in its passage through our Canadian press, who ought to know better. How elegantly it would sound to say, "His work was *did* expeditiously, He was *saw* doing it," yet they are equally correct with, "His health was drank," &c. While as to the rule applicable to the other (when a noun of multitude, &c.) it may justly be said to cause more blundering than would be, had it never existed, because when a noun has a distinct singular and plural as fleet, council, army, number, &c., the simple rule "A verb must agree with its nominative," is sufficient. When the noun has no such distinctive number, the verbal relation is arbitrary, and should be used so as to impart the greatest euphony and elegance as well as sense to the sentence of which it is subject, as "The news *are*,"—not "The news *is*."

But the words guilty of the greatest number of grammatical somersets, seem to be the *participles*, while for the most part they are the easiest of solution, if we only keep in mind the simple but important fact, that participles are, for the most part, only *abbreviate forms of speech*, and are easily resolvable into their *equivalent moods and tenses*; and when they do not admit of their construction, they are either participle *adjectives* or *nouns*. In our Latin exercises of school boy antiquity, we have the example in point. "Sole oriente, fugiunt tenebrae," "The sun rising (called the nominative absolute), or, when the sun rises, darkness flies away." This noniabs is a very convenient way of disposing of it, but the fallacy of this is satisfactorily shown in the secondary translation. The fact is, we have here, simply, a compound sentence, consisting of two propositions. The 1st and principal being, "Darkness flies away," 2nd and dependent, "When the sun rises," the latter being the exact equivalent of "The sun rising." Again, "Having been there before, he knew the road well," is just, "He knew the road well," is the 1st and principal, "because he had been there before" (the equivalent of "having been there before") being the 2nd and dependent; and when the participles are not so convertible, as noticed above, they are either participle *adjectives* or *nouns*. "One verb governs another in the infinitive," is also a rule in Latin, as in "Cupio dicere,"—"I desire to learn," In dismissing this rule after what has been said already, I may only add that in many cases the inseparable preposition, *in order*, is not only understood but often expressed, as "He went *in order* to judge for himself," and when this prepositional form is not admissible, *for* always supplies the governing word. To the teacher who values critical relation—

the essence of syntax, I think that the above will commend itself. It is the exact meaning while it is also the grammar.

Such is the method I have used in dealing with these items in my class, and I would be much gratified did I see in your next issue the experience of some of my other brethren on this useful topic. In such a numerous connection there should be no lack of experience on this and cognate subjects which should not be withheld. The "States" teachers' contributions to their educational papers, show us a meritorious example in this respect, and I should be glad to see such a praiseworthy custom obtain more largely among Canadian teachers.

ROBERT BLACKWOOD.

Preston, April 18th.

2. HOW TO TEACH SPELLING.

To the Editor of the *Journal of Education*.

SIR,—Bad spelling is one of the most apparent defects in the attainments of most of our boys and girls attending school, even amongst those exhibiting great proficiency in many other branches. This defect is very often not so apparent till you set the pupil to writing. How many scholars have we noticed acquitting themselves admirably in a *visu voce* examination, who could scarcely write three lines and spell all the words correctly! Under the system usually pursued the scholar cannot write a letter free from orthographical errors, till, perhaps, the age of sixteen or eighteen. The question arises, can this defect be remedied? We believe it can, by carefully following the subjoined method: As soon as the pupils can write, abandon the practice of hearing them *say* their spellings; and instead thereof, make them close their books, take their slates, and write down the spellings at the teachers' dictation. Six or eight words for scholars in the second book of lessons may be selected by the teacher to test the pupils' knowledge of the lesson. Require the scholars to *divide the words into syllables* as they find them in their books. Then let the teacher take the slate of the highest scholar in the class, and let the second pass his slate to the first and so on, the teacher giving the slate of the first to the last. Then let them open their books and mark all the mistakes, and afterwards again re-change slates. They can then pass up, according to the accuracy of their spelling. Let not a lesson be passed over till thoroughly mastered. The method suggested is the fairest way of testing a pupils' attainments in spelling, as all get the same words.

Some may say that this method may work very well when the words are spelled pretty nearly as pronounced, but it will hardly do when the spelling and pronunciation differ much. This is a mistaken idea, as in the method I adopt the pupil is taught and trained to use his eye without consulting the sound much. This soon becomes a habit with him, and the most difficult words are easily learned.

So convinced am I of the superiority of this system above any I have met with, that I should like to see it generally adopted. Especially let those who have scholars of whom they have despaired begin this plan, and pursue it carefully, and they will soon find the effects to be magical. To facilitate the plan here suggested, it would be well, were a uniform system of dividing the words into syllables made use of in our national series of school books.

I am, yours, &c.,

FRANCIS WHALLEY.

Lindsay, Dec. 30th, 1865.

3. WRITING FOR THOSE WHO CAN WRITE.

SIR,—Permit me to say a few words on the above subject.

I find from experience the best sentences to take in setting copies are Scripture texts. The texts of Scripture children thus write get fixed in their memories, and they never forget them. Those texts have more influence on their minds and conduct than, perhaps, all the rest of the Bible put together. They think over the meaning of the texts more than many grown up persons give them credit for. Children can write texts of Scripture with quite as much pleasure as they can the proverbs and maxims of man's making, which are often expressed in language unintelligible to them, and as though universally true when they are only partially so; many of which will be found hollow, and sometimes unchristian, if examined into.

I know children can write Scripture sentences ten or twenty times over without getting half as tired as they would after writing mercantile, geographical, or other sentences two or three times. There is more in Scripture texts for them to think about.

By putting worldly maxims before children, they are apt to forget the inferior value of those when compared with Scripture truths, which will always be found to be of universal application, whether considered in their highest sense or merely from a wordly point of view.

Such texts can be got at the Christian Knowledge and National

Societies' Depositories. I remember copying them at School, and I have never forgotten them. The letters in these copies have one great advantage in being void of useless tails and twists.

I find it a good plan to allow those who can write very fairly to write the Psalms, "The Moral Songs," or other pieces of poetry, in their books. Boys take great pleasure in doing this, and it is an encouragement to the more backward writers to make progress, that they may be allowed to do the same.—Yours truly, J. H.

V. Papers on Practical Education.

1. ADMIRABLE SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHERS.

From a Speech delivered by Mr. Pardee, of New York, at a recent Sunday School Convention at Hamilton, we select the following interesting suggestions for Sunday school teachers. They are also applicable to Common school teachers:

I have learned more on that question from the publications of the London Sabbath School Union than from any other source. The art of questioning and of securing attention can be obtained here to a considerable extent; but while we obtain the principles here, we must adapt them to our circumstances. Mr. J. G. Fitch, of London, England, is perhaps the best Sabbath School teacher in the world. He had twelve training classes in London at one time. They are now bringing those into use in Australia and other colonies. The art of teaching is the most important of all the arts, and is therefore worthy of all the effort we can make to obtain it. I inquired of Mr. Fitch, what the simple principles of good teaching consisted in; his answer was, that he could not put down on a letter-sheet what they are, but the following maxims should be grasped;

1. Never teach what you don't quite understand.
2. Never tell a child what you could make him tell you; let the child be drawn out by questioning.
3. Never give a piece of information without asking for it again; or, as Mr. Stowe says, never leave a verse till the child has told it to you in his own words.
4. Never use a hard word if an easy one will convey your meaning; and never use any word at all unless it has a meaning to convey.
5. Never begin an address or lesson without having a clear view of its end.—As teachers, we should be sharp-shooters.
6. Never give an unnecessary command, nor one which you do not mean to see obeyed. For if the child be not ruled by it, the child rules you, and you have lost your command.
7. Never permit a child to remain in the class, even for a minute without something to do, and a motive for doing it.

There is sufficient instruction embodied in these few maxims to lay the foundation of successful teaching. But we require also to make our mode of communicating our ideas as attractive as possible. Dr. Sprague, when preaching Dr. Pott's funeral sermon, said that the best style of preaching was that which presented great truths in the most attractive and effective form. Teachers often have in their classes young men and women who have studied in our literary institutions, and who will laugh at us when we show no aptitude in communicating instruction. No particular system can be recommended for all; different persons will excel in different methods. One will be adapted to the narrative style; another to the Gall system. There is a book that describes fourteen ways of developing lessons (Forbes' system). Let us first go to an infant class. Now what does the teacher want to do? It is to study these little ones, and find out their characteristics. *Activity* may be said to be the first; a healthy child abhors quietude; give it something to do. *Curiosity* is another; this is the parent of attention. Another is *inquisitiveness*; it is a great fault in many old persons to be restless of children's questions; this continual asking is but the pleading of the untutored mind for information. Therefore regard children's peculiarities, even those of older scholars, and adapt your instruction to the peculiarities of mind. If one has more imagination, or sense of beauty, or any other quality than ordinary, try to reach his heart through this. * * * * *

Children learn mostly through their eyes. A distinguished LL.D. once said he doubted whether there was any good teaching where this method was not adopted more or less.—Thus, the whole of the Bible teaching was of this character, as under the Levitical ceremonies, the altars, with their offerings, were but symbols of other things. When the Jews asked our Saviour whether they should pay tribute to Cæsar or not, he did not answer directly, but asked for a penny, and showing them the superscription, his answer came with much more weight than if he had used the other method. In the same manner He took a little child and set him in the midst of his disciples, when He wished to teach them the lesson of humility. On another occasion he points them to the lilies of the field, and to the fowls of the air, when He would instruct them to depend upon

Divine Providence. On this principle the Magi were led by a star; the merchantman is represented as seeking pearls; the woman of Samaria coming to the well for water, has salvation presented to her under that symbol, and the farmers have the wheat and chaff brought to their minds as emblems.—There is again the black-board system, which may be used extensively with great profit. This system far supersedes ordinary book instruction.—Father Seaton, who was superintendent of a Baptist school, though a member of the Episcopal Church, went one afternoon into a school when it was so hot that the children could hardly be got to do anything; he figured something like smoke on the board, then the chimney from which the smoke issued, and finally the whole house, asking them the names of each part as he proceeded, the spelling also, and mixing in useful instruction.—Thus in a few minutes he had the children more freshened up than they would have been by a race in the playground, besides having given them so many new ideas. In a similar manner he would pick up a thread from the carpet, and ask what it was made of; 'wool,' they would all answer; 'and where did the wool come from,' 'from the sheep's back,' would be the ready response; 'and what do we call all the wool together on a sheep's back?' after some study, a little girl answers 'a fleece,' and is delighted that she was able to give a correct answer. He would then take a leaf, and ask what all the leaves together on a tree were called; some of them answer 'foliage,' and they would spell it. 'And what are all the green leaves of the field called?' 'herbage,' is the reply. Months after this, these children would remember the lesson, and spell these words correctly. Thus object and blackboard teaching might be used to a great extent, and with great advantage. We should use natural and simple objects with which all would be familiar, as flowers, fruits, &c.

We might even take a pin and say that we could buy fourteen for one cent, and therefore it would not be of much importance if we should lose one; but if in a storm our shawl should become unpinned, we should feel the benefit of so little an article. The pains expended in making it show also its value. Thus we could teach the worth of little things; we could then crook it, and then show how easily a useful article can be spoiled, the bad effects of a crooked or sour disposition, &c. Another valuable method of teaching is by texts printed in large characters on cards. In Chicago, in one of the Churches, all the panels are filled with texts, the letters being gorgeously illuminated. It is more beautiful than any fresco work. There are also beautiful paintings, as of Christ receiving little children.

'Now,' said Mr. Pardee, 'for a model lesson, that a young lady in London, Miss Lavoilet, who was only twenty-two years of age, gave before five hundred professional teachers connected with the London S. S. Union, people of the highest respectability and intelligence. The class that was given her was picked up from the streets; they had never before been taught in a school, and had never seen her till now. She first walked round among the children, and then asked them the simple question, as if in conversation with them, 'what kind of weather, children, have you had in London lately?' the immediate answer was, 'rainy.' In questioning children, we should never ask questions that we know they cannot answer; this would give them no satisfaction, but rather discourage them. Some were speaking about the use of question books; if used properly, they may be an advantage; but teachers may easily frame their own questions. As soon as Miss L. received the children's reply to her first question—'rainy,' 'I thought so,' said she; 'and what is rain good for?' 'To wash the streets,' sings out one little fellow, at which the rest laugh; but she protected her little scholar, and said he was right,—that the streets would be covered with filth, and thousands of children would have gone to their graves in consequence, but for the washing of the rain. One reason why so many children are so slow to answer, is the fear of being incorrect, and of being laughed at; the teacher should always thus protect them. 'But what else is rain good for?' she asks. 'Good to make the flowers grow,' says another; 'good to make the trees grow,' said a third. All were astonished to see how much such children knew about the rain. 'How very useful the rain is! What could the streets, and the gardens, and the flowers do without it!' and thus a valuable lesson was inculcated. They were then asked if sunshine was not also good for the trees and flowers; and were made to feel that the world would be miserable without it. Their minds were now prepared for the lesson of the day, which was the maxim of the Tyrolese mother,—'God has a plan for every man, and he gives every man something to do,' which they recited after her. 'And what is your name,' she asks one of the little girls. 'Maggie Ryan.' 'And where do your father and mother live?' Maggie gives the residence as well as she can. 'Then, Maggie, God has a plan for every man; what has he got for your father to do?' 'Nothing,' is the reply; 'What! has he got no business?' 'only a workman;' 'what kind of work does he do?' 'He is a plumber.' She then describes the work of a plumber, and shows what an advantage it is

to have the water conveyed through the leaden pipes up through the many stories of the houses, and then asks—'Is it so all over London?' 'Yes.' Do the plumbers do all this work? How much hard labor of carrying water it must save,' and raising her hands, as if in astonishment, exclaims, 'What a useful man your father must be.' Maggie's little bosom now swells with pride for the first time with the thought that her father was somebody, and that God had something for him to do. The other children are treated in a similar manner. The father of one is a tailor, of the next a baker, of the next a carman; and thus she goes on showing that God has a very important work for them all, and we could not do without them. They had never heard so much of God before as in this lesson. She now brings the subject still nearer home to them by simplifying and repeating. 'Simplify and repeat' is the greatest maxim of one of the greatest teachers in the world. 'Now, Maggie Ryan, what has God for you to do?' 'Nothing.' 'What? when your mother rolls up her sleeves and goes to washing, what do you do?' 'Nothing but mind the baby.' 'But is not that a great help to your mother? How could she do without you?' After repeating the lesson, she concludes by telling them the story of the Tyrolean mother, and her poor crippled son, Hans, who was ever complaining that he was of no use in the world, and was wishing that he might be taken away. The mother's reply was 'God has a plan for every man, and he gives every man something to do.' But poor Hans could not see that there was anything for him to do. One day he had gone out a short distance, and sitting down to rest, he fell asleep and did not wake till after dark. The peaceful inhabitants of the valley were daily expecting an invasion from the French, and had built piles of combustible material on various mountains, stationing a watchman at each pile to give the alarm to the inhabitants by setting it on fire, and thus allow them time to escape. Hans discovered a French soldier on an opposite cliff, and then another, and another. The watchman had left the pile that was nearest to where Hans lay; could he climb it and give the alarm? He made the effort and succeeded. The flame rose; the other beacons were instantly lighted, and the intelligence was conveyed through the whole valley, by which the inhabitants were saved. Poor Hans was discovered by a French soldier as he was trying to make good his escape, and was shot in the back, but he lived long enough to know that God had made him the saviour of his country, and that through his patriotic efforts a pension was settled on his mother for life.

VI. Prize Sketch of the History of Canada.

BY MISS NELLIE ROSS, OF THE BARRIE COMMON SCHOOLS.

The following sketch of the History of Canada received the first prize at the recent examinations of the Barrie Common Schools. It was adjudged by the Rev. Mr. Checkley, Master of the Barrie Grammar School, and late Rector of the Model Grammar School, Toronto. We publish it as a praiseworthy effort to promote the study of the history of our own country in our public schools. The competitors were all girls. The second-best essay was written by Miss Jane Saunders.

The number of expeditions undertaken by Spain aroused the ambition of the French admiral, who represented to Francis I., of France, the propriety of sending out a French expedition, to establish a colony in the New World that had been discovered in 1492. He recommended to the king, Jacques Cartier, to take the command of the enterprise. The sending out of a French expedition was objected to by the Kings of Portugal and Spain, as they had been first in the field; but, Francis, on hearing of their objections, replied: "I should like to see the clause in father Adam's will which bequeathed to my royal brothers alone so vast a heritage."

Cartier discovered Canada on his second voyage, in 1535. In 1540, Roberval was appointed Viceroy of Canada, and came out in 1542. On his second voyage, in 1549, he and his brother, together with the crew, were lost. This put an end to all endeavours, by the French, for more than fifty years.

The merchants of Rouen, Dieppe, St. Malo, and Rochelle formed a company, and sent out Champlain as their agent, in 1603, to prosecute the traffic with the Indians, for furs. In 1608, Quebec, the capital of Canada, was founded by Champlain. It was the first French settlement in Canada. It was taken by the English under Keret, in 1629, but restored in 1632. He also founded Montreal, in 1611; it was first settled in 1642, and finally ceded to a religious order, in Paris, in 1644. Champlain was highly respected by the French authorities, and was appointed first Governor of Canada in 1633. He died in 1635, deeply regretted by the colonists, and was buried in Quebec. He was a man of unusual energy and decision, and did much to further the interests of the colony.

The company of One Hundred Associates was formed in 1627. To it was entrusted the Viceroyalty of Canada. Afterwards, the fur trade was transferred to the West India Company, in 1664. Their charter was revoked, ten years after, because it did not perform its engagements. In 1659, a royal government was established at Quebec. DeMesy was the first royal governor; he came out in 1663. The establishment of a royal government induced those in power to make many reforms. A sovereign council was invested with the administrative and judicatory powers. The right of taxation was alone withheld; that was reserved for the King of France.

The Marquis de Tracy came out as resident Viceroy, in 1685, accompanied by DeCourcelles, as Governor; and Talon, as Intendant. DeTracy concluded a treaty with the Indians, which lasted for 18 years. The fur trade was the cause of continual quarrelling between the English and French, as they both wished to have the exclusive right of traffic with the Indians.

Frontenac was sent out as governor, in 1673; but he was not invested with royal powers until 1674, when the charter of the West India Company was revoked. Frontenac was sent home in 1682, on account of quarrels with the members of his council. He was succeeded by De la Barre, a man totally unfit to govern. He was followed by DeDenonville, in 1685. The new governor arrived at a critical juncture, as the Iroquois and their allies, the English were encroaching more and more on the French territory, he took steps to protect the trading monopoly of the people. In order to overawe the Iroquois he determined to strengthen his forts and make active reprisals both on the English and Iroquois. At one time they made war upon the Indians, desolated their villages, made treaties with them, but everything was powerless. The English, with the Iroquois, kept steadily advancing northward and westward towards the great lakes until they at length threw up a fort at Oswego. The hatred of the Iroquois to the French colony was increased by the treacherous seizure of some of their chiefs, who were sent to man the French galleys; although they were afterwards sent back it was never forgotten, and eventually led to the massacre of Lachine. Negotiations for a peace was at length opened with the Iroquois, but through their dislike to the French, the dispute was prolonged; and through the treachery of the Hurons hostilities were again renewed. Louis 14th, in order to aid James 2nd in recovering the throne from William 3rd, the Prince of Orange, declared war against Great Britain and her colonies, and thus increased the peril of the French colony very much. At this time the Iroquois appeared suddenly near Montreal, and in August 1680, massacred the entire population at Lachine.

DeDenonville and the inhabitants were so panic-stricken that the Indians, for ten weeks, passed through the country, leaving death and ruin behind them. It was at this critical period that Frontenac was again sent out. He resolved, at once, to carry war into the English colonies. The Hudson Bay and New England settlements were successfully attacked. The French and Hurons penetrated to Schenactady in 1690, burned the town and massacred the inhabitants. He worked with such vigour that little harm was done by the Iroquois to the French settlements. The English fitted out two expeditions against the French colonies, but neither accomplished anything. In 1693, Frontenac compelled the Iroquois to desist and comparative peace was restored to the settlements. In 1694 he determined to humble them by invading their territory—he was partly successful. In 1697, the treaty of Kyswick brought this war to a close. France agreed to give up all the places taken by her during the war, and commissioners were appointed to set the boundaries. The following year Frontenac died at Quebec, much regretted by the people. Frontenac was succeeded by DeCallieres in 1698; he imitated Frontenac in his zeal to protect the best interests of the colony. During his administration Detroit and Louisiana were settled; he died in 1703, and was succeeded by Vaudreuil, when the contests between the colonies were renewed. A large force was collected by the English to take Quebec; the scheme was abandoned, but on receiving reinforcements from England, they took Acadia. In 1710, the following year, they again attacked Quebec unsuccessfully, when the forces were distributed along the frontier. This war was brought to a close by the Peace of Utrecht in 1713; by it Acadia, Newfoundland, and Hudson's Bay Territory were ceded to the English crown. DeVaudreuil was succeeded by Beauharnois, who, in 1728, dispatched an expedition to Chicago to punish the Western Indians. In 1744 King George's war broke out and lasted till 1748. In 1745 Cape Breton was taken by the British, but it was restored to the French, which gave offence to the New Englanders, and disputes arose as to the exact boundaries.

The British claimed that the Acadian frontier extended to the St. Lawrence, while the French maintained that it only reached to the Bay of Fundy. These disputes were ended by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle in 1748. In 1799 Bigot was appointed Intendant of all the French settlements in North America. As he had the distribution of public money for military service he managed to accumulate from delinquent wealth to the amount of £400,000 sterling. He was punished by being imprisoned on his return to France. DeCallieres was followed by Vaudreuil, who was succeeded by Beauharnois; during his administration the Rocky Mountains were discovered. Jonquiere was appointed his successor; but he was taken prisoner on his outward passage by the English, under General Anson. When his capture became known in France, Galissoniere was appointed to fill the vacancy thus made. Jonquiere was released in 1749; on his arrival, Galissoniere resigned his trust and returned to France. The Governor monopolized the sale of brandy to the Indians, and thus realised enormous profits, his avarice called forth the complaints of the colonists, and fearing an investigation he requested his recall, but before a new Governor could be appointed, he died at Quebec, and was buried beside his predecessors, Frontenac and Vaudreuil.

Jonquiere was followed by Duquesne, who seemed to have annoyed the English more than any of the former Governors. Vaudreuil succeeded Duquesne in 1755, he was the last French Governor of Canada. In 1756 the seven years war commenced, when Loudon was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the English forces and Montcalm was appointed leader of the French forces; as Loudon was found to be inefficient, he was replaced by Abercrombie, who, in his turn, was replaced by Amherst. In 1759 the final campaign opened, and Wolfe, who had assisted in the taking of Cape Breton in 1758, was entrusted with the command. He attacked Montcalm's position at Beauport, but was defeated. At length he called a council of war when it was decided that they should try and ascend the heights; but upon landing Wolfe said that he did not think they would be able to accomplish what they had undertaken. The Highlanders, who, being accustomed to a mountainous country first ascended, and then drew up the rest with ropes. They dislodged a small troop that defended the path and before morning Wolfe had his entire army arranged in battle array on the Heights of Abraham. Montcalm immediately resolved to meet Wolfe in the field, and proceeded to attack him without waiting for Bourgainville's arrival. During the battle Wolfe was wounded in the wrist, but he wrapped a handkerchief around his arm and still headed his men, but he received a wound in the breast and sank, it is supposed he was shot by one of his own men. Hearing that the French were defeated, he said, "I die happy" and immediately breathed his last. When the news of his victory reached England joy was felt, but also sorrow for Wolfe's death. His body was taken to England and buried beside his father's. He was 35 years of age when he died; and is described as being a very handsome man. Montcalm was also wounded, and on being told that his wounds were mortal, said he was glad that he would die before Quebec surrendered; and that as it was his misfortune to be defeated he was glad it was by so brave an enemy. His last act was to write a letter recommending the French prisoners to the generosity of their conquerors. Montcalm died at five o'clock in the morning on the 18th September, and was buried within the precincts of the Ursuline Convent. Quebec capitulated 18th Sept. 1759. In 1760 Vaudreuil proposed to capitulate, which was agreed to by Amherst; and on the 8th Sept. the document was signed by which Canada was transformed from French to British rule. After the surrender of Quebec several attempts were made by the French and their allies to recover it. Pontiac, an Indian Chief, who had ever adhered to the French, formed a very comprehensive scheme for the recovery of Canada in 1768. He attacked ten of the principal strongholds between the Niagara and Lake Michigan, was successful in taking seven, but Niagara, Pittsburgh, and Detroit successfully resisted him. When he found he could not re-conquer Canada he fled to the States and was afterwards assassinated. In 1763 the treaty of Paris was signed, by which the whole of the French possessions in North America were ceded to the English except Louisiana and two islands off Newfoundland. General Murray was appointed first Governor General for the new British province of Quebec. General Murray governed the Quebec district; General Gage the Montreal, and Colonel Burton the Three Rivers. Justice was administered by the military chief. This system was not popular, and only continued in operation a short time until a Court of King's Bench and a court of Common Pleas were instituted, and English criminal laws were introduced by Royal Proclamation. In 1765 a great fire broke out in Montreal, and in three years another occurred. In 1766

General Carlton was appointed Governor. Many of the inhabitants left the Province because the administration of justice and civil affairs was only given to military men. Complaints were sent to England, but nothing was done but to direct the Governor General to issue a commission to inquire into the truth of these complaints. The evidence taken before this commission was referred to three crown lawyers,—who did not report till 1773. The Quebec Act of 1774 put an end to these complaints, and gave great satisfaction to the Canadians who were wavering in their allegiance to the British crown. The first American Congress met at Philadelphia, Sept. 1774 to memorialize British Government; and among other addresses one was directed to the people of Canada, inviting their assistance. The proposal was unsuccessful, and the American insurgents resolved to invade Canada by way of Champlain and the Kenebec River. Quebec was attacked for the fifth time by the Americans, December, 1775. But the British were prepared; the Americans were defeated, and one hundred of their men killed and wounded, while the British only lost twenty. This war was brought to a close by the peace of Versailles, Jan. 20th, 1783, by which the independence of the United States was acknowledged, when not less than 25,000 loyalists were compelled to seek the protection of the British flag. In 1784 Lord Dorchester returned as Governor General, when political discussions with a view to introduce representative government were now revived, and various schemes for the settlement of the question were submitted to the British ministry; and in 1789 the draft of a new constitution was sent to Dorchester. This Bill was, after much opposition, passed in 1791, and was called the Constitutional Act of 1791. It divided the province into Upper and Lower Canada, introduced the representative system of government, and set apart the Clergy Reserve land; and the English criminal law, and trial by jury were introduced 1792. In 1792 the first elections were held. The first parliament for Lower Canada was held at Quebec, and for Upper Canada at Newark. The order of the Jesuits had been abolished in 1762, and in 1788 their goods were declared to be at the King's disposal. When Canada was divided into provinces, the population of L. Canada was 130,000, that of U. Canada 50,000. Dorchester's names of the four Upper Canadian districts were changed to Eastern, Midland, Home and Western; and a gaol and court house were to be erected in each of these districts. The introduction of slaves was prohibited in Upper Canada in 1793, and in Lower Canada in 1803. In 1796 the seat of government was removed from Newark to York in order to be as far as possible from the frontier. In 1807 Craig came out as Governor, and continued in office until 1816, when Sir George Prevost arrived. On the 16th of May, 1812 an American frigate captured a British sloop; and an Act was passed empowering the Governor to embody the whole militia force. War was proclaimed by the Americans against England on the 18th of June, 1812. An Episcopal Cathedral was erected on the ruins of the Recollet Church in 1804. The first Canadian steamboat was built by John Molson and named the *Accommodation*; the second was also built by him and called the *Swiftsure*; she made her first passage from Montreal to Quebec during the war. The commander-in-chief, General Brock, fell at the commencement of the war. Peace was declared by the Treaty of Ghent, December 1814, by which the contending parties were placed in the same position that they occupied before the commencement of the war; the news of the termination of war did not reach Quebec until March, 1815, when Governor Prevost officially proclaimed peace. Common Schools were first established in 1816, and £6000 set apart for their use by Parliament. In 1817 the Bank of Montreal was established; it was the first in Canada. The Welland Canal, between Lake Erie and Ontario, was commenced in 1824; the Rideau Canal, between Kingston and the River Ottawa, in 1827. McGill College, at Montreal, was founded and endowed by the Hon. James McGill in 1826; the judges were made independent of the crown in 1834. In June, 1839, Lord John Russell brought forward a bill in the House of Commons relating to the union of the Canadas. Chief Justice Robinson, of Quebec, then in England, protested against the union, but it was popular in Upper Canada. By appealing to the loyalty of the Family Compact, Russell succeeded in getting the Union Bill passed as a government measure; before the end of January, 1840, it passed both houses. There was to be an equal representation of both provinces in the legislature—it received the sanction of the Queen in July, 1840, but owing to some suspending clauses it did not come into force until Feby. 10th, 1841. The first principal feature in the Union Bill was the institution of Responsible Government; the second that the control of all public affairs was given to the Executive. The first Parliament met at Kingston, June 1841. Lord Sydenham was succeeded by Sir Charles

Bagot; he did not remain long, as ill health induced him to request his recall, and was succeeded by Lord Metcalfe. Earl of Elgin was appointed Governor in 1847; the seat of government was removed to Montreal in 1844. The famine and fever in Ireland and Scotland induced many to emigrate to Canada where a Relief Fund was opened for them. In 1841 the Post Office Department was transferred to the Canadian Government. The Great Western, Grand Trunk, and Northern lines were now erected; and numerous light houses were erected in the Gulf and Bay of St. Lawrence. An act was passed, in 1858, providing for the better regulation of the fisheries. Sir Edmund Head was appointed Governor in 1854; during his administration the Clergy Reserves question was settled, and the Victoria Bridge across the St. Lawrence at Montreal was also finished.

About this time decimal currency came into use. Canada contributed \$80,000 towards the Crimean fund. The Prince of Wales visited Canada in 1860, and laid the corner-stone of the Parliament House at Ottawa, as it was chosen by the Queen as the Seat of Government. Sir Edmund Head was followed by Lord Monck in 1861.

Barrie, Dec., 20th, 1865.

NELLIE ROSS.

VII. Biographical Sketches.

No. 9.—ADMIRAL BALDWIN, R. N.

This gallant old naval officer breathed his last, on the 5th ulto., in his residence, Russell Hill, on the Davenport road, near Toronto. Augustus Warren Baldwin, Rear Admiral of the White, was born in the County of Cork, on the 1st of October, 1776. He entered the mercantile navy as a boy, and the change in his pursuits, from commerce to arms, was accidental and involuntary. He and one of his brothers had received cruel treatment in a merchant ship, and while making their escape from that vessel in Dunkin Harbor, were met by a party of sailors, who pressed them into the service of His Majesty George III., on board the sloop of war *Trompeuse*. The captain of this vessel, J. Erskine Douglass, soon discovered who his young sailor was, and at once obtained a commission for him. He for several years sailed under this commander in different parts of the world, and in the frigate *Garland*, 28, and *Boston*, 32. He was then appointed a lieutenant of the latter ship, 28th June, 1800; and it was his good fortune, three years afterwards, to accompany Tom Moore, the poet, home from his American tour in the same vessel. Indeed the *Boston* has become classical from Moore's lines, "To the *Boston* frigate, on leaving Halifax for England, October, 1804."

In December, 1804, Mr. Baldwin joined the *Prince of Wales*, the flag ship, in succession of Sir Robert Calder, Sir James Saumarez, Sir Edward Thornborough, and Lord Gambier. While in this ship he was engaged in the action off Copenhagen, Sept. 1807. In the following year he became first lieutenant of the *Implacable* 74, and saw severe fighting, and did good and brave service in the Baltic under Admiral Byam Martin. For his gallant conduct in capturing the Russian frigate *Scwolod*, on the 26th August, 1808, when in command of his own ship, he received a gold medal. He was appointed to command the brig *Tyrian*, in 1812, and was made post captain January 1st, 1817.

Robert Baldwin, father of the admiral, emigrated to Canada in 1749. The subject of this sketch did not come here until about the year 1820. He was a brother to Dr. Wm. Warren Baldwin, the father of the late Hon. Robert Baldwin.

Upon his arrival in Canada, Admiral Baldwin took no very active part in public affairs, and, unlike his distinguished nephew, was conservative in politics. He held, however, a position in the Executive Council during the latter part of Sir F. B. Head's Administration, and the early part of his successors, but does not seem to have taken any very active or leading part in the Government, although he was one of its members during the stormy times of the rebellion. For many of his latter years he was a Director in the Bank of Upper Canada.

In social qualities he excelled, keeping his frank, sailor bearing to the last, with a smile and a pleasant word for every one. To the day he died his faculties were almost unimpaired, for although deaf he never knew the use of spectacles, and occupied himself in the active superintendence of his house and grounds.—*Globe*.

No. 10.—GEORGE BOOMER, ESQ.

On the — ulto., Mr. George Boomer, Police Magistrate of this city, expired at his residence, Windsor Place, after a long illness. Mr. Boomer was an Irishman by birth, but emigrated with his

parents to this country at a tender age. He studied law with the late Judge Campbell, of Niagara. After practising in the latter town for some years, he returned to this city, and entered into partnership with the late Judge Connor, the firm enjoyed a liberal practice. On the death of Mr. Gurnett, he succeeded to his office, having previously performed the duties during Mr. Gurnett's last illness. He was repeatedly elected to the position of Alderman in our City Council. He was also bencher of the Law Society, and enjoyed the confidence of his brother lawyers. He was born in 1818, and was, consequently, forty-seven years of age.

No. 11.—MR. DAVID WILSON.

David Wilson, leader of the religious sect known as the "Children of Peace," died at Sharon, in East Gwillimbury, on the 19th ult., at the advanced age of 89 years and 7 months. He was born of Irish parents in Duchess county, N.Y., in 1778 and marrying early emigrated to Canada in 1801. He was almost the first settler in the township, suffered all the privations incident to the life of a pioneer, but surviving all his early companions lived to see the country developed to great fruitfulness. The "Children of Peace" which sect he formed, differ from the Quakers in several peculiarities. They are fond of music, and musical instruments are made use of in their devotional exercises, are not obliged to conform to any particular form of dress, and no religious tests are required, as a standard of faith or godliness. The buildings in which the body worshipers at Sharon were built by Mr. Wilson, to whom, tradition says, the place of construction was revealed in a dream or vision. The deceased was a man of great energy and perseverance.

No. 12.—REV. FATHER TELLIER.

Yesterday morning, the Rev. Father Tellier, Superior-General of the American mission of the Jesuits, died here in St. Mary's College at the age of 70. He was well-known both in Canada and the United States, and his death will be deeply regretted by his co-religionists. He was a native of France, came to Montreal in 1842, being one of the first band of Jesuits that was invited to Canada by the present Bishop. He resided for a time at Laprairie; he ministered at the emigrant sheds during the ship fever of 1847. In 1849 he was ministering to the Irish of Montreal in St. Patrick's Church. In 1850 he administered to the Catholic College of Kingston; for ten years afterwards he was assistant to Bishop Charbonnel in Toronto, at which time he was appointed rector of the celebrated Jesuit College of St. Francois Xavier, in New York and Fordham. In 1859 he was appointed Superior General of the American Mission. He is the principal originator of the new Jesuit church here, the Gesu. He had recently come here on a visit to restore his shattered health.—*Montreal Witness*.

No. 13. CHIEF JUSTICE PARKER OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

The departed Judge was born in June, 1796, and was at the time of his death in his seventieth year. He matriculated at King's College in 1811, and took his degrees in 1814. During his College career he was both school and room mate with the lately deceased and now celebrated Judge Haliburton, better known by the cognomen of his inimitable Clockmaker, "Sam Slick," from which period their friendly relations continued without a jar till cut by the sudden death of the Clockmaker a few months ago. Their ages, like the congeniality of their friendship, were nearly parallel, as the Nova Scotia Judge was only six months the senior of him whose loss we now mourn. After taking his degree he studied in the office of Judge Chipman, and was admitted to the Bar in 1817. Upon Mr. Ward Chipman, Jr., vacating his seat in the Assembly and being appointed a Judge in place of his father, Mr. Parker, was, in 1824, elected without opposition for the County of St. John. He was also in the same year, and from the same cause,—the resignation of Mr. Chipman,—appointed Recorder for the City, which office he continued to fill till 1828, when he was appointed Solicitor General and Judge of the Court of Vice Admiralty, in the place of C. L. Peters, who was elevated to the Attorney Generalship. From March 27th till September 28th, in that year, Mr. Parker acted as Attorney General after the death of Attorney General Wetmore. He remained in the House of Assembly till the year 1834, when, upon the death of Judge John Murray Bliss, he was appointed to fill the vacancy on the Bench. In that year occurred the death of Chief Justice Saunders, when Judge Chipman was appointed Chief Justice, and James Carter, Esq., from the English Bar, was appointed to fill the vacancy occasioned by the promotion of Judge Chipman. On the resignation of Sir James Carter, a few months ago, the deceased was appointed to the high, honorable and enviable position of Chief Justice, so well merited by a long life of in-

tegrity which was spent in arduous and responsible public labors, which he passed through with a character as nearly immaculate as frail human nature can attain. His death has occasioned universal regret among all classes in this the city of his nativity.—*St. John News.*

No. 14.—THE KING OF BELGIUM.

The news of the death of the King of the Belgians has been for sometime anticipated, and will therefore not cause surprise. One of the foremost of European Sovereigns, for sagacity and comprehensive statesmanship has thus passed away. George Chretien Frederick Leopold was uncle to our gracious Sovereign, Queen Victoria—her mother, the Duchess of Kent, being his sister. He was born in Cobourg on the 16th Dec., 1780, and was consequently about 85 years of age at the time of his death. In early life he was in the military service, Russia. Compelled by the influence of Napoleon Bonaparte, in 1810, to relinquish his position of General in the army of the Czar, he three years later re-joined the Emperor Alexander and took an active part in the battles of Lutzen, Leipzig and Culm. In 1814 he accompanied the allied Sovereigns to England, where he made the acquaintance of the Princess Charlotte, whom he married a couple of years later. On the occasion of this marriage, Leopold was raised to the rank of British Field Marshal, became a member of the Privy Council, was created duke of Kendall, and a pension of £50,000 was conferred upon him. In 1830 he refused the offer of the Crown of Greece, and the following year he was elected King of the Belgians. His first wife died the year after marriage, and he, in 1832, married the Princess Louisa, daughter of Louis Philippe, by whom he had three children. King Leopold has displayed much ability as a constitutional sovereign, and his keen sagacity was often called into requisition outside of his own kingdom. On the outbreak of the revolution of 1848, he offered to retire, if such was the wish of his people—a declaration which greatly enhanced his popularity. He has shown much tact in his relations with the French Emperor, while his conciliatory disposition and his comprehensive statesmanship, as well as his family connections, have enabled him, on several occasions, to act as mediator in times of political complication. His death under all the circumstances is a real European event.

No. 15.—REV. DR. WAYLAND.

Rev. Dr. Francis Wayland, one of the best known of American philosophical writers, died recently, at Providence, Rhode Island. He was born in New York city, on the 11th of March, 1790, of English parents. He graduated at Union College, and at first studied medicine, but in 1816 entered the Andover theological seminary. In 1817 he was appointed a tutor in Union College, and in 1821 was called to the pastorate of the First Baptist Church in Boston. In December, 1836, when but 30 years of age, he was chosen president of Brown University, in Providence, Rhode Island; and this position he held till 1855, having, by his careful and energetic administration, brought the college from an embarrassed condition to a state of high prosperity. He insisted, among other things, that the study of the classics should be optional, thus giving a just, but unusual, prominence to such courses of instruction as fitted young men for commercial, mechanical, and agricultural pursuits. Dr. Wayland's list of published works is quite large, including "Elements of Moral Science," (1835); "Elements of Political Economy," (1837); "Salvation by Christ," a series of university sermons, (1858); "Limitations of Human Responsibility," (1840); "Life of Rev. Adoniram Judson," (1853); "Intellectual Philosophy," (1854); and several volumes of sermons.

VIII. Papers on Colonial Subjects.

1. SIR MORTON PETO ON CANADA.

Sir Morton Peto with a large party of English capitalists paid a visit to the Educational Department during his stay in Canada, recently returned to England. On the 13th ult. he was present at what is called "the Colston anniversary" in Bristol, the object of which is to perpetuate the fame of Edward Colston, the philanthropist, whose name is associated with many of the educational and other charities of the city.

Sir Morton Peto was among the speakers at the dinner which took place, and in a long address referred to his recent visit to America. After a short retrospect of affairs that had transpired in England during his absence, he asked, before he spoke of the United States, to say one word on Canada. He had gone through the whole of that Province, and he had had the most ample opportunity of witnessing

its loyalty to the mother country, and he assured them there was no part of that Island in which the feeling of loyalty towards the Queen or the affection for British institutions stronger than it was in Canada. (Cheers.) He might also add, that in his visit to that Province not only was he delighted with the great public hospitals, especially in Toronto, but with the general spread of education as manifested by the number of excellent schools in which education was offered indiscriminately to all classes of the community. That showed the advance which was making in the intelligence of that province, and the growth of education would but keep pace with the progress of industry.

2. STATISTICS OF THE BRITISH COLONIES, 1861-1863.

From recent parliamentary papers we select the following interesting statistics relating to the various Colonies of the British empire:

NAME.	AREA in sq'u'e miles.	POPULATION, 1861.	DEBT, 1863.	EXPORTS, 1863.	IMPORTS, 1863.	Tonnage of Vessels Entered and Cleared, 1863.
			£ Stg.	£ Stg.	£ Stg.	
<i>Asia.</i>						
India	1,004,616	187,694,323	10,440,235	47,593,562	42,568,395	3,471,333
Ceylon	24,700	1,862,540	350,000	3,587,234	4,433,807	1,068,314
Labuan	45	2,373	22,322	71,365	14,039
Hong Kong	29	119,321	1,806,881
<i>Australia.</i>						
New South Wales	323,437	358,278	5,802,980	6,936,839	8,310,576	991,200
Victoria	86,531	541,800	8,237,520	13,566,296	14,118,727	1,242,113
South Australia	126,830	383,328	866,850	2,358,917	2,028,280	255,433
Western Australia	978,000	15,691	1,750	143,106	157,137	94,277
Tasmania	678,000	34,835	888,331	1,715,263	203,265
New Zealand	103,259	98,977	1,289,750	3,435,405	7,024,674	814,600
<i>Africa.</i>						
Natal	14,397	152,704	100,000	158,565	473,333	46,409
Cape of Good Hope	104,331	267,096	715,050	2,224,416	2,275,833	501,858
St. Helena	47	6,860	24,107	110,537	121,115
Mauritius	708	310,050	600,000	2,720,093	2,540,605	611,270
Gold Coast	6,000	151,346
Sierra Leone (including Buhst Quiah but not Sherbro, Isles de Loss or Bulama	468	41,497	1,799	295,833	209,106	98,438
Gambia	20	6,746	4,817	137,240	175,965	83,349
<i>America.</i>						
Canada	331,280	2,507,657	12,325,557	8,595,520	9,444,759	2,133,204
New Brunswick	27,037	252,047	1,206,562	1,029,329	1,595,513	1,386,984
Nova Scotia	18,670	330,857	971,711	1,309,277	3,040,278	1,432,858
Prince Edward Island	2,173	60,857	50,119	209,472	293,431	184,534
Newfoundland	40,200	122,688	172,795	1,233,353	1,077,272	305,180
British Columbia	200,000	11,816
Vancouver Island	13,000	23,000	40,000	39,579	797,296	341,984
Falkland Islands	7,600	566	18,415	26,658	63,144
Bermuda	24	11,461	49,969	321,227	195,887
Honduras	13,500	25,635	6,625	390,644	265,752	58,915
Bahamas	2,921	35,487	34,917	4,295,316	3,363,567	362,583
Turks Island	4,372	900	45,183	34,096	105,332
Jamaica	6,400	441,255	786,552	1,087,529	1,007,925	249,583
Virgin Islands	57	6,051	4,129	8,876	11,677	8,657
St. Christopher	103	24,440	151,885	175,686	59,078
Nevis	50	9,822	1,000	36,022	49,992	18,760
Antigua	183	36,412	25,320	173,912	239,631	54,594
Montserrat	47	7,645	5,059	20,090	15,136	12,109
Dominica	291	25,065	6,416	47,755	72,726	14,470
St. Lucia	250	26,705	18,000	69,584	83,712	21,351
St. Vincent	131	31,755	4,400	108,489	142,337	32,913
Barbadoes	166	152,727	10,899	878,209	961,142	238,427
Grenada	133	31,900	9,000	90,073	112,478	30,470
Tobago	97	15,410	4,900	46,869	48,961	10,428
Trinidad	1,754	84,438	264,673	710,972	796,498	253,947
British Guiana	76,000	148,026	591,454	1,121,979	1,679,386	284,931
<i>Europe.</i>						
Gibraltar	1 1/2	15,462	2,622,495	2,232,596	2,047,960
Malta	115	136,339	175,335	3,087,593	2,420,131

IMPORTS		EXPORTS	
From the United States to Canada.		From Canada to the United States.	
1860	\$17,250,000	1860	\$18,500,000
1861	21,000,000	1861	14,500,000
1862	25,000,000	1862	17,000,000
1863	23,000,000	1863	22,500,000
1864	8,000,000	1864	7,000,000
1865	15,000,000	1865	24,000,000
Total	\$109,250,000	Total	\$103,500,000

3. CANADIAN STATISTICS.

The number of acres assessed in Upper Canada is 18,144,000, and in Lower Canada 13,663,000. The number of ratepayers assessed in Upper Canada is 585,000, and in Lower Canada 211,000. The assessed value of real estate in Upper Canada is \$240,000,000, and in Lower Canada \$169,000,000. The assessed value of personal property in Upper Canada, \$25,000,000, and in Lower Canada, \$1,400,000. This statement includes cities, towns, and counties.—*Canadian Churchman.*

* In 1856. † In 1850. ‡ In 1857.

4. ART IN THE BACK-WOODS.

Mr. Edmonds, school-teacher at the village of Burnstown, County of Renfrew, has just finished a large etching to be sent to England. It is said to be the most faithfully executed sketch of a lumber-shanty in the province. Mr. Edmonds used only in its production a pen and ink. His drawings are familiar to many in Ottawa.—*Ottawa Citizen.*

5. THE FRENCH ACADIANS.

The publication of Mr. Faillon's excellent work on the "French Colony in Canada" will, we trust, have the effect, among other things, of awakening public attention to another branch of the French race in America, who are, we fear fast dying out, we allude to the Acadians of the Lower Provinces. Of this primitive and virtuous people, very little is known beyond the limits of the Colonies in which they have lived for the last two hundred and fifty years, and, with the exception of Haliburton's "History of Nova Scotia," it may safely be said that Longfellow's "Evangeline" has contributed more to make this people known to the rest of the American Continent, than anything which has been done since they became subjects of the British Empire. And yet this should not be so. The Acadians of the Maritime Provinces would, if the truth were but known, compare favourably with many of those proud communities which boast of their abundant wealth and superior intelligence. Contented and happy, with only few desires and those few easily gratified, the simple-minded Acadians have been perfectly satisfied with their lot; and, notwithstanding the severe ordeal through which they had to pass while Great Britain and France contended for the possession of these Provinces,—an ordeal which through a very mistaken policy, was continued for some time even after the restoration of peace, they have remained true to their faith and firm in their allegiance to the British Crown. Before these bloody wars had devastated their possessions, "real misery" says Haliburton, "was wholly unknown, and benevolence anticipated the demands of poverty. Every misfortune was relieved as it were before it could be felt, without ostentation on the one hand, and without meanness on the other. It was, in short, a society of brethren; every individual of which was equally ready to give, and receive, what he thought the common right of mankind. So perfect a harmony naturally prevented all those connections of gallantry which are so often fatal to the peace of families. This evil was prevented by early marriages, for no one passed his youth in a state of celibacy. As soon as a young man arrived at the proper age, the community built him a house, broke up the lands about it, and supplied him with all the necessaries of life for a twelvemonth. There he received the partner whom he had chosen and who brought him her portion in flocks. This new family grew and prospered like the others. In 1755, all together, made a population of eighteen thousand souls. Such is the picture of these people, as drawn by the Abbé Raynal. By many it is thought to represent a state of social happiness, totally inconsistent with the frailties and passions of human nature; and that it is worthy the poet rather than the historian. In describing a scene of rural felicity like this, it is not improbable that his narrative has partaken of the warmth of feeling for which he was remarkable; but it comes much nearer the truth than is generally imagined. Tradition is fresh and positive in various parts of the United States, where they were located, respecting their guileless, peaceable, and scrupulous character; and the descendants of those whose long cherished and endearing local attachment induced them to return to the land of their nativity still deserve the name of a mild, frugal, and pious people."—*Montreal True Witness.*

IX. Papers on Physical Geography.

1. ACROSS THE RED RIVER AND ROCKY MOUNTAINS.

Mr. Markham recently read a paper before the British Association, by Viscount Milton and Dr. Cheadle, entitled, "An Expedition Across the Rocky Mountains into British Columbia, by the Yellow Head or Leather Pass." In the Spring of 1852, Viscount Milton resolved to investigate for himself the nature of the country between the Red River Settlement and the Rocky Mountains; and to penetrate, if possible, by the shortest route, direct to the gold-regions of Cariboo; an enterprise hitherto unattempted.* He was

* Excepting of course by the employés of the Hudson's Bay Company. Also by a party of young men from Upper Canada, headed by a Mr. Jessup of Orillia, U. C., who crossed the continent in 1859: they followed the canoe-track to Red River, thence to Tête Jaune Cache by the plains, descending Fraser River as best they could to British Columbia. A book, giving an account of the exploration, has been published.—Ed.

fortunate enough to secure as his companion in this attempt, his friend Dr. Cheadle, of Cain's College, Cambridge, to whose energy and enterprise, Viscount Milton says, "the success of the enterprise is mainly to be attributed." After recording the circumstances that preceded their arrival at Edmonton, the paper continues:—

Before proceeding further with the account of our journey, I must allude very briefly to the magnificent country which extends from Red River almost to the base of the Rocky Mountains. It has been well described by Captain Palliser and Dr. Hector, and I would add my testimony to the fertility of its soil, and to the extent of its resources. It is peculiarly well adapted for settlement; rich prairies, which are ready for the plough, being interspersed with woods which would furnish timber for building and fencing. The climate is the climate of Canada; the spring, however, according to Dr. Hector, setting in a month earlier than it does on the shores of Lake Superior. Grain of all kinds grows here with the greatest luxuriance, and the root-crops are certainly finer than any I have ever seen in England. The pasturage is almost endless in extent, and so nourishing that the horses turned out in the snow at the commencement of winter, and then thin and in wretched condition, when brought up in the following spring were exceedingly fat, and fit to set out at once on the journey before them. Coal-beds of large size exist on the Saskatchewan, Battle, and Pembina Rivers. Clay iron-stone in large quantities was discovered by Dr. Hector, and miners were engaged in washing gold in the river above Edmonton during our stay there. Yet this glorious country, estimated, I believe, by Dr. Hector at forty millions of acres of the richest soil, is, from its isolated position, and from the obstructions put in the way of settlement by the governing power, left utterly neglected and useless, except for the support of a few Indians, and the employés of the Hudson Bay Company. Could communication be established with Canada and British Columbia, this district would, I imagine, become one of the most valuable of the British possessions. After remaining three weeks at Fort Edmonton for rest and preparation, the travellers and their party set out on their journey across the mountains, following the trail between Lake St. Anns and Jasper House; a day's journey on the road generally consisting of continual floundering through bogs, varied by plunges and jumps over the timber lying strewn, crossed, and interlaced over the path, and on every side. Between Lake St. Anns and the foot of the mountains the forest is almost unbroken—a distance of nearly three hundred miles. After the lapse of twenty six days from leaving Fort Edmonton, the travellers found themselves fairly in the Rocky Mountains. They followed the course of the Athabasca for some time, but afterwards followed the valley of the Myette, and eventually reached the height of land so gradually that they would hardly believe they had gained the water-shed of the Pacific. A few days after, they struck the Fraser River, already a stream of considerable size. From this point up to the almost perpendicular sides of the narrow valley in which we were shut in, this portion of our journey was the most harassing we had yet experienced. The path lay almost entirely through water up to the horse's girths, the only change being to swamps, embarrassed with fallen timber of very large size. When we reached Moose Lake, an expansion of the Fraser, about fifteen miles long, and two or three wide, our difficulties increased. The trail along the beach was now under water, and we were frequently obliged to ascend the steep mountain side, when the accumulations of drift-wood barred the passage along the shore. Numerous mishaps occurred, the horses perversely going out into deep water, and floating about, to the great detriment of flour and pemmican. Two rolled down the mountain side, and had to be unpacked, and their loads carried up to enable them to re-ascend. We found no place to rest during the day; and when night came on we had not reached the end of the lake, and were obliged to camp in a bare sandpit, without any feeding-ground for our weary animals, who ranged restlessly to and fro until the morning. The road continued almost as difficult all along the valley of the Fraser, and at one point was a narrow ledge of a few inches along the face of a cliff of crumbling slate, rising perpendicularly a tremendous height above us, and a steep descent of above two hundred feet to the river below. On the fourteenth we crossed a great number of small streams, many probably mouths of the Moose River, an important tributary of the Fraser flowing from the north. This grand fork of the Fraser is at the foot of a very high mountain, which has received the name of Robson's Peak (and is the original Tête Jaune Cache), so named from being the spot chosen by us. After journeying thus, meeting greater difficulties still, the travellers left the Cache and kept the emigrants trail, which they followed into the dense forests until it came to an end at a place where there had been two large camps, and where, from all they saw about them, they concluded that the whole band of emigrants had given up in despair the idea of cutting through forests so dense and encumbered, and had built large rafts, in order to drop down the river to Kamloops. This plan our tra-

vellers had no means of following, and after difficulties and disasters which the paper describes, they at length managed again to come on a trail, and were soon after encouraged by hearing a crow, a sure sign of more open country, and eventually they reached Kamloops. The paper concludes as follows:—

In conclusion, I must venture a few general observations upon the nature of the country through which we passed, from Fort Edmonton, on the eastern side, to Kamloops on the west of the mountains, with regard to the practicability of a road or a railway being taken across by that point. Our party being, I believe, the only one which has passed through this region entirely by land, the testimony has some value, as being all that is known of a very considerable portion of the distance. In the first place, I may safely state, that, with the exception of one or two rocky and precipitous bluffs,—few and trifling obstructions, compared with those which have been already so successfully overcome in making the road along the Fraser River,—there are no engineering difficulties of any importance. On the other hand, however, for almost the whole distance, the road would require to be made, there being no open country until reaching the lower portion of the valley of the North Thompson. From Edmonton to Jasper House the surface is slightly undulating; and the lower ground universally swampy, even where covered with thick forest. From Jasper House to Tête Jaune Cache, the pass through the main ridge of the Rocky Mountains, the valley is, for the most part, wide and unobstructed, except by timber, which is generally of large size; and the rivers small and mostly fordable, even at their highest. The ascent to the height of land is very gradual, and, indeed, almost imperceptible; and the descent, although much more rapid, neither steep nor difficult. From the Cache to the first opening out of the valley of the Thompson, about eighty miles north of Kamloops, the only route lies along that river, running through a succession of narrow gorges shut in on each side by lofty and inaccessible mountains. The whole of this portion is obstructed by growing and fallen timber of the largest size; but the fact of our being able to bring horses through without any previous track being cut open, proves sufficiently that there are no serious obstacles in the way of an engineer. No great ascents or descents occur, the bottom of the ravine being generally level, except where the transverse ranges of hills come down close to the water's edge. Many of these are, indeed, rocky, but consist generally of broken fragments of no great size. No bluffs of solid rock appear until the last forty miles, where the country is generally open, and otherwise little obstructed. The flooding of the river by the melted snows of the mountains does not interfere with the passage along the valley, we having traversed it in the middle of the summer when the waters were at the highest. A road might possibly be made more direct to Cariboo than by continuing on to Kamloops, by following the north-west branch of the North River, which comes in about sixty miles south of Tête Jaune Cache, or the Canoe River, some fifteen miles below that place; but, from the rugged nature of the country to the west, such a road could only be made by great labour and outlay. The easiest line would, I apprehend, be from the junction of a small river which flows into the Thompson, about twenty miles north of the Clearwater, or about eighty north of Kamloops. This stream, the Indians informed us, came from the Cariboo Lake, and passes through a totally open region. The most serious difficulty to the adoption of a route by Jasper House would be the want of pasturage for cattle. The patches of open country are few on the eastern side, rather larger and more numerous within the mountains; but after leaving the Cache, on the western side, the forest is unbroken for above a hundred miles, and in no portion of the whole six hundred or seven hundred miles from Edmonton to the Clearwater, except at Jasper House, is there sufficient food for any large number of animals. The advantages of this route will be—1st. That it lies far removed from the boundary-line, well within British territory. 2nd. That it passes entirely through a country inhabited only by friendly and peaceable Indians. 3rd. That it offers the most direct communication from Canada to the gold-regions of British Columbia; and from it the Sewahwap and Okanagan districts, as well as the road on the Fraser, are easily accessible. These considerations are, I think, of sufficient importance to require that the question whether this more northern pass does not, from its directness and the security which it offers, possess more solid advantages than those lying further south, should be carefully and fairly weighed. The more southern passes lying within the British line are far more steep and difficult than the one by Jasper House, and are in unsafe proximity to the United States territories. The only advantages to be claimed for them appear to be that they communicate with more open country on either side, that pasturage is plentiful along the road, and that, from their more southerly latitude, they are likely to be blocked with snow for a shorter period. But whichever be the one selected, I would urge most strongly the necessity for immediate action in the matter, and hope, though not with confi-

dence, that the New Hudson Bay Company will cast off the prejudices and lay aside the obstructiveness which degraded the policy of the old one, and promote, to the utmost of their power, that scheme which is of such vital importance to the advancement of all the British possessions in North America.

The President spoke highly of the value and interest of the paper, and eulogised the conduct of Viscount Milton in leaving the ease and luxury of a home like his for the true advancement of science. He had more successfully than any other traveller, faced the dangers and difficulties of a most difficult and inaccessible country.

Dr. Cheadle, in the course of some supplementary remarks, said that throughout British Columbia, except a few isolated portions, no farming-land was to be found. Though it was possible by irrigation to produce certain crops in a few years, yet they must soon cease, for there was nothing but sand, the only vegetable mould being supplied by the decay of grass. In most parts the land was so light that it was impossible to irrigate it. But this country, so rich in minerals, was only separated by the Rocky Mountains from the rich and productive country on the other side, showing the necessity for opening up a communication between them.

Lord Milton, in the course of a few observations, expressed his great obligations to Dr. Cheadle, and said that the Red River Settlement was the best colony England had for farming purposes, but nowhere was farming less understood. One man there, after sowing eleven crops of wheat in succession on the same land, began to inquire the reason why his crops had failed. This showed at once the richness of the soil, and the ignorance of many who cultivated it.—*Canadian Naturalist.*

2. THE SOURCE OF THE NILE.

A letter recently received from the Nile explorer, Mr. Samuel Baker, by Sir Roderick J. Murchison, throws much light on the facts already known to the world from the late exploration of Capts. Speke and Grant. The important additional knowledge obtained by Mr. Baker, showing the existence of great cataracts on the Nile, between the point where Capt. Speke left the river and the place where he next met it, explains that which has been looked upon as a serious difficulty in the acceptance of the views of that eminent explorer. We extract the following from Mr. Baker's letter, dated Khartum, April 30, 1865:—

"I had the good fortune to meet Captains Speke and Grant at Gondokoro, in February, 1863. The object of my expedition being attained by meeting them, and by their discovery of the Victoria Nyanza Nile-head, I should have returned with them had not Captain Speke reported that he had heard of a lake called by the natives Luta Nziger. This, he imagined, might be a second source of the Nile, and I at once determined to attempt its exploration. My boats departed from Gondokoro for Khartum, with Captains Speke and Grant, but when I was about to start, the whole of my men mutinied, and refused to proceed, retaining possession of my arms and ammunition. The ivory traders of the place combined to prevent any European from penetrating the interior, fearing travellers' reports upon the slave trade. On passing the station of an Arab trader, six days from Gondokoro, my men, who had previously conspired to desert me at that spot, again mutinied, several absconded with arms and ammunition, and joined the traders' party. They, however, with the entire party, were massacred by the Latooka tribe, two days after their desertion. Owing to a succession of difficulties and delays, I did not arrive at Kamrasi's capital, M'rooli, N. lat. 1 deg. 37 min., until the 10th of February, 1864. The traders' party returned to Gondokoro, leaving me, with my escort of thirteen men, to proceed. After eighteen days' march I reached the long wished for lake, about 100 miles west of M'rooli, at Vacovia, in N. lat. 1 deg. 14 min. In respect for the memory of our lamented Prince, I named it (subject to her Majesty's permission) the 'Albert Nyanza,' as the second great source of the Nile—second, not in importance, but only in order of discovery, to the Victoria Nile-head. The Victoria and the Albert Lakes are the indubitable parents of the river. The capital of Unyoro (M'rooli) is situated at the junction of the Nile and Koor rivers, at an altitude of 3,202 feet above the sea level. The route throughout is wooded, interspersed with glades, thinly populated, with no game. My route lay over high ground, to the north of a swampy valley, running west; the greatest elevation was 3,686 feet. The Albert Lake is a vast basin, lying in an abrupt depression, the cliffs, which I descended by a difficult pass, being 1,470 feet above its level. The lake level is 2,070 feet, being 1,132 feet lower than the Nile at M'rooli; accordingly the drainage of the country tends from east to west. From the high ground, above the lake, no land is visible to the south and south-west; but north-west and west is a large range of mountains, rising to about 7,000 feet above the lake level, forming the western shore, and running south-west parallel to the course of the lake. I navigated the lake in a canoe,

formed of a hollow tree, for 13 days from Vacovia, arriving at Magungo, at the junction of the Nile with the lake, in N. lat. 2 deg. 16 min. The voyage was long, owing to the necessity of coasting, and to the heavy sea, which, with a westerly wind, generally rose at 1 p.m., daily. I went up the Nile, in a canoe, from the junction; the natives would proceed no further north, owing to the hostile tribes on the lake shores. The course from the junction up the river being east, at about 20 miles from Magungo, my voyage suddenly terminated; a stupendous waterfall, of about 120 feet, perpendicular height, stopped all further progress. Above the great fall, the river is suddenly confined between rocky hills, and it races through a gap, contracted from a grand stream of, perhaps, 200 yards width, to a channel not exceeding 50 yards. Through this gap it rushes with amazing rapidity, and plunges, at one leap, into the deep basin below. This magnificent cataract I have taken the liberty of naming 'the Murchison Falls.' On the eastern borders of the lake much salt is obtained from the soil; this forms the trade of the miserable villages which at long intervals are situated on the Unyoro shore. The natives are extremely inhospitable, in many cases refusing to sell provisions. Malledda, on the west coast of the lake, is a large and powerful country, governed by a king named Kajoro, who possesses boats sufficiently large to cross the lake. The Malledda trade with Kamraai was large, bringing ivory and beautifully prepared skins and mantles in exchange for salt, brass-coil bracelets, cowries, and beads, all of which articles, excepting salt, come from Zanzibar, via Karagwe, there being no communication with the west coast of Africa. The actual length of the Albert Nyanza, from south to north, is about 260 geographical miles, independent of its unknown course to the west, between 1 deg. and 2 deg. south latitude, and of its similar course in the north, in lat. about 3 deg."

X. Miscellaneous.

1. WINTER.

Outside the window pane,
Across the barren plain,
With dreary wail the wintry winds are calling;
And softly, sad, and slow
The gently-dropping snow
From out the sky in feathery flakes is falling.

The clambering casement vine
That marked the year's decline
With leaves in which the Autumn's fires were burning,
Now sere and stripped quite bare,
Hangs coldly shivering there,
A tender thing that waits the Spring's returning.

The fields are white below
Their covering of snow
That o'er the earth, a chilly shroud is lying;
And through the Elm's huge limbs
The wind is chanting hymns,
Like soft, sad dirges for some poor soul dying.

Mute are the frozen rills
That course adown the hills
With babbling voices in the Summer weather;
And mute the meadow brook,
Where oft with line and hook
I've angled from the bank for hours together.

Within the solemn woods,
Where ghostly silence broods,
No Summer bird her heart beguiles with singing;
But in the Winter night,
Beneath the pale moon's light,
Are heard the merry sleigh bells blithely ringing.

Or from the frozen stream
Where the grey willows gleam
On either side the cheerless shore abounding,
Armed with its blade of steel,
The shadowy skater's heel
Spurns the stout ice with shrilly echoes sounding.

At home beside the hearth
With jest and song of mirth,
And ringing chorus to the rafters pealing,
The long dark evening goes,
The cider, circling, flows,
And lights the eye with sparks of kindly feeling.

And so with song and cheer,
The winter cold and drear,
Flits lightly by on Time's swift pinions flying;
And in our hearts the flower
Of gladness blooms each hour,
Although outside the winds are sadly sighing.

—Harper's Magazine.

2. THE CORONATION OF WINTER.

The leafless branches and twigs of every tree, of every shrub, and even of every spire of grass that rose above the surface of the snow, were encased in a thick and beautiful hyaline coat, as transparent as the purest water.

Along the branches the ice swelled into tubercular masses, terminating in a knot, so as to resemble strings of gigantic glass beads. Lovely was the effect produced, as the sun broke through the clouds, on these countless natural gems, thus prepared to refract and reflect his light with more than his original brightness.

Each shrub had the aspect of a superb chandelier, and how still more magnificent, did a whole forest appear, with the rays of the sun darting through and lighting up ten thousand radiant points of a diamond hue and intense brilliancy! These gems might be at the distance of forty or fifty rods, and when beyond that distance, the forest had the aspect and the richness of embossed silver. The next day the sparkling brilliants were not, as before, of colourless light. Here and there appeared gems of the prismatic colours, now one of splendid sapphire blue, next one of amethystine purple; here one of intense topaz yellow, there a sea-green beryl, changing by the slightest alteration of position into a rich emerald gem, and then one of deep red. As the sun approached the meridian, the number and splendour of these coloured gems increased, so that on a single tree hundreds of them might be seen; and sometimes so large was their size and intense their colour, that at a distance of fifty rods they seemed equal to Sirius, nay, to the morning star; and of hues the most delicate and rich that can be conceived, exactly imitating, so far as I could judge, the natural gems, and not partaking at all of those less delicate and gaudy tints by which a practised eye can distinguish genuine from suppositious precious stones. And by moving the eye a few inches, we could see these different colours pass into one another, and thus witness the rich intermediate shades. Two days afterwards there was a storm of fine rain and snow, and the beautiful transparency of the icy coat was changed into the aspect of ground glass. This gave to the trees a new and more delicate appearance. They resembled enchased work, formed of pure unburnished silver, and had the sun shone on them they must have been intensely beautiful.

Another day the snow was scattered from the boughs, and as the sun approached the meridian, one had only to receive his rays at a certain angle, refracted through the crystal covering of a tree, in order to witness gems more splendid than art ever prepared. Four-fifths of them were diamonds, but sapphires were numerous, the topaz and the beryl not unfrequent; and occasionally the chrysolite and the hyacinth shone with intense brilliancy. There was wind also on that day; and as the branches waved to and fro, these various gems appeared and vanished, and re-appeared in endless variety, chaining the eye to the spot until the over-powered optic nerve shrunk from its office.

But the rich vision did not cease through all that cloudless night, nor did it terminate when the sun went down. For then the full-orbed moon arose and gave another most bewitching aspect to the scene. During the day the light had often been painfully intense, but the softness of moonlight permitted the eye to gaze and gaze untired, and yet the splendour seemed hardly less than during the day. Most of the bright points were of a mild topaz yellow, and when seen against the heavens they could hardly be distinguished from the stars; or when seen in the forest, especially as one passed rapidly along, it seemed as if countless fire-flies were moving among the branches. Yet occasionally I saw other colours of the spectrum, especially the bluish green of the beryl. Through that live-long night did these indescribable glories meet the eye of the observer."

From "the Phenomena of the four Seasons," by Professor Hitchcock.

3. LIBERTY OF THE PRESS IN RUSSIA.

The chief clauses of the new Russian press law are as follows:—The censorship is abolished upon all books containing more than ten sheets of printed matter; also upon all newspapers, magazines, and periodical publications, the editors of which are willing to submit to the system of warnings. A journal will be suppressed after three warnings. The first two will be given by the administration; but

the third must be sanctioned by the Senate. The Government reserves to itself, in addition, the right of prosecuting the delinquents before the ordinary tribunals, and they will in that case have to submit to the verdict of the jury.

4. BRITISH PERIODICAL LITERATURE.

The general characteristics of these Reviews are well known, and their literary standard is very high—far beyond any publication of the kind we have ever had in America. Many have been the attempts to rival them in this country, and as many the failures; hence the large circulation enjoyed by the American reprints of the Messrs. Leonard Scott & Co.

Of the Reviews, the *Edinburgh* is the oldest. It was established in the beginning of the present century, by the leaders of the Whig party. Brougham, Jeffrey, Sydney Smith, Lord Holland, and others of world-wide reputation, enriched its pages with their racy wit, pungent satire, and judicious critiques. History, Philosophy, Politics, Science, Art, Belles-Lettres—all were here discussed, *ex cathedra*, by master minds, and in the choicest English. A few years later, Macaulay commenced his long series of brilliant essays, shedding additional lustre on it by his unrivalled periods. Stephens published his masterly papers on the Philosophy of History, and the elegant Talfourd became a regular contributor. Still later, Sir William Hamilton, from his comprehensive mind and vast storehouse of learning, showered forth his able discussions on a great variety of topics. Many of the best known works of Whately, Arnold, Whewell, and a host of other luminaries, were first given to the world in the pages of the *Edinburgh*. Lord Brougham, now nearly ninety, if we mistake not, is the only survivor of the original founders of this Review.

The *London Quarterly* was set on foot, by the Conservative or Tory party, a few years after the establishment of the *Edinburgh*; it took up the gauntlet the latter had so defiantly thrown down. Gifford, Southey, and Sir Walter Scott were among its founders, and for years contributed to its success.

The *Westminster Review* was commenced some forty years since by the Liberals. In politics, judiciously liberal; but in religion, the advocate of the most ultra-Rationalism. A most enthusiastic admirer of anything German, it imports its science, a great deal of its literature, and all its philosophy and theology from that cloudy *Doubtland*. One feature particularly attractive to us, at present, is the Review of Contemporary Literature, where we find judicious notices of all the new books published in England, France, Germany, and America, during the previous quarter.

The *North British Review*, established some twenty years ago, as the organ of the Free Church of Scotland, has, from the first, occupied a very high position in British periodical literature. It is not a "religious" journal—as this term is generally understood—perhaps not more so than the *Edinburgh* or the *London*, though it is designed to fill the want so often felt and expressed by Dr. Arnold for books on general subjects, written from a Christian standpoint.—*Charleston Daily News*.

—SUNDAY MAGAZINE.—We have received the October and November numbers of this magazine. They are illustrated with excellent engravings—well chosen, and the articles are well written and suitable for Sunday reading. The editor says, "This Journal is intended to answer to its title. Its articles will be brief and varied, and will touch on subjects connected with Christian thought, work, and life. Laymen will teach it without offence, and clergymen will speak without ascending the pulpit. It will be cheerful and healthy in its tone, wise in its teaching, tender in its spirit, and catholic as befits the day. * * To make our magazine plain to common people without being vulgar, interesting to cultivated minds without being unintelligible to men of ordinary education, to make good our entry into cottages as well as drawing-rooms, to be read by people of all Christian denominations, to be of no class, of no sect, of no party, but belonging to all and profitable to all—such is our aim. Strahan & Co., 50 St. Peter's Street, Montreal, or W. C. Chewett & Co., Toronto. \$1.75 per annum.

XI. Departmental Notices.

COMMON SCHOOL MANUAL FOR UPPER CANADA.

A copy of the last edition of the Common School Manual for Upper Canada, is supplied gratuitously to all new School Sections in Upper Canada. To other Sections the price is thirty-five (35) cents, including postage, which is now payable in advance.

All Local Superintendents retiring from office, are required by law to hand over to their successors the copies of the School Manual furnished to them by the Department, and all other official school documents in their possession. Extra copies of the Local Superintendent's Manual can be furnished for fifty (50) cents, including postage.

NO PENSIONS TO COMMON SCHOOL TEACHERS UNLESS THEY SUBSCRIBE TO THE FUND.

Public notice is hereby given to all Teachers of Common Schools, or Teachers of the English branches in Grammar Schools, who are legally qualified Common School Teachers in Upper Canada, who may wish to avail themselves at any future time of the advantages of the Superannuated Common School Teachers' Fund, that it will be necessary for them to transmit to the Chief Superintendent, if they have not already done so, their subscriptions, at the rate of \$5 per annum for each preceding year, commencing with 1854, and at the rate of \$4 per annum for the current year's subscription. The law authorizing the establishment of this fund provides, "That no teacher shall be entitled to share in the said fund who shall not contribute to such fund at least at the rate of one pound per annum." No pension will be granted to any teacher who has not subscribed to the fund, in accordance to the preceding regulations of the Council of Public Instruction.

POSTAGE REGULATION IN REGARD TO GRAMMAR AND COMMON SCHOOL RETURNS.

All official returns which are required by law to be forwarded to the Chief Superintendent, or a Local Superintendent, and which are made upon the printed blank forms furnished by the Educational Department, *must be pre-paid*, at the rate of one cent, and be open to inspection, so as to entitle them to pass through the post as printed papers. No letters should be enclosed with such returns. A neglect to observe this regulation has repeatedly subjected this Department to an unnecessary charge of 14 cts. and 21 cts. on each package, including the Post-office fine of nearly *fifty per cent.* for non-payment.

SCHOOL REGISTERS SUPPLIED THROUGH LOCAL SUPERINTENDENTS.

School Registers are supplied gratuitously, from the Department, to Common and Separate School Trustees in Cities, Towns, Villages and Townships by the County Clerk—through the local Superintendents. Application should therefore be made direct to the local Superintendents for them, and not to the Department.

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All communications to be addressed to J. GEORGE HODGINS, L.L.B. Education Office, Toronto.