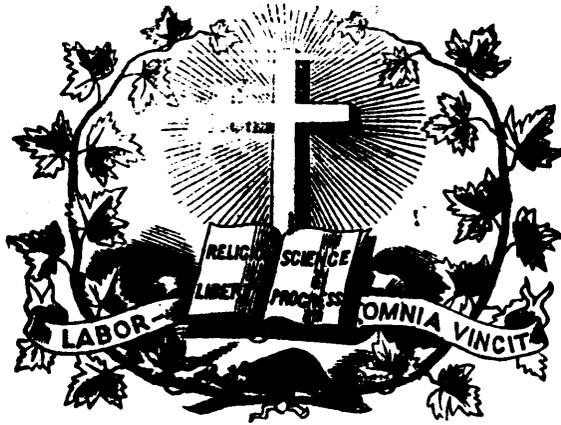


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Technical and Scientific Education.

A paper read before the Literary and Philosophical Society, Nottingham, by R. SYKES, Hyson Green.

Immediately facts and theories in science are fully known and established, efforts are made to render them of practical utility. Electricity, magnetism, mechanics, the sciences and arts generally, are sedulously put into requisition to minister to the comfort and wants of modern life. The greater the number of minds engaged in the wide field of scientific research, the greater will be the probability of benefit arising therefrom. The secrets and marvels of science are so interwoven with modern industries that neither employer nor labourer can hope to excel unless he familiarise himself with the truths that underlie his special craft. Machinery, since the invention of the steam engine, has assumed such delicate, intricate, and elaborate forms, that educated intelligence is fast becoming essentially necessary to

properly regulate it; and obtain from it its best and largest results. Not only is it necessary, therefore, that the employer should have a technical and scientific knowledge of his work, but also he who tends and guides the machinery should be acquainted with, at least, the scientific principles involved in its construction. Machinery, certainly, is made so true and perfect that little mental effort is required to control it. Still each machine has within it properties which may to an educated, active brain suggest the means by which other machines may be evolved, or improvements arise. Experience taught all the improvers and inventors of new machines that their ideas could not be properly utilised until they had devoted themselves to the acquisition of at least the rudiments of the scientific principles upon which their special work was based. Joseph Bramah, Henry Maudesley, Joseph Clement Brunel, and other inventors and improvers of machinery, were compelled to spend much of their valuable time in mastering these rudimentary principles of science before they could fully utilise the ideas teeming in their fertile brains. Their early life was spent in comparative poverty and obscurity. By dint of patient industry, self-denial and determination, they won for themselves fame and fortune. They overcame their difficulties by self-education. All men are not endowed with this courage, and patience,—which are rarely found except in men of genius. Obstacles, which baffle and discourage ordinary men, these triumph over. Toiling daily at difficult and laborious work to earn for themselves a maintenance; yet they toil not as simple machines, in a dull, monotonous routine. Their brains, as well as their hands, work. They think, plan, devise. Acquainted with the principles of mechanical science, the various processes and functions of machinery are intelligible to them. They perceive defects, and suggest remedies; they discard old machinery, and invent newer and better to supplant it. The life of such men, though engaged to mechanical labour, is satisfying. Their mental aspirations are quickened, their moral life is improved. Who, amongst the thousands hoping for an elevation of the masses, does not desire a general infusion of this spirit among our artisan population.

Our great hope, as a reward for the sacrifices we are making in behalf of education, is that our handicraftsmen may become something more than mere workers with the hand; that our gardeners, weavers, joiners may be thinkers among their various avocations; that the gardener may be a man in his garden, a weaver a thinker whilst tending his loom, the joiner a man of thought and intelligence at his bench. That our artisans should be not only good workmen but, if possible, full and complete men.

The establishment of industrial and science schools in all large centres of industry will assist much in the development of this high purpose in our future populations. If properly organised, experience has shown that there will be no lack of students to attend them. Many earnest young men are wearied of their daily round of mere mechanical effort. Owing to the minute sub-divisions the industries of the country are rapidly undergoing, the work of the artisan, unfortunately, increases in dullness and monotony. Ten men are engaged in the manufacture of one pin. Imagine the weary leaden life a man must lead who is employed for ten hours per day, throughout a life-time, simply making pins' heads, or pins' points. The intelligent workmen long to escape from this treadmill life. They wish for the chance of becoming, to use their own phrase, "all-round men," and so have a chance of change and variety or of attaining to the position of foreman. They long for the chance of improving their condition, and so feel satisfaction and pleasure at the new world opened out to them by the apprehension of the simple mechanical truths which underlie the machines with which they work. An explanation even of the simple mechanical properties as the lever, inclined plane, wheel and axle, screw, pulley, &c., and their adaptation to machine construction, affords them manifest pleasure. After having realised even these simple truths, the machine in their workshop has been transformed in their eyes into a new creature. It is now replete with interest. Its varied functions are intelligible, its complications and intricacies are no longer mysteries, but their necessity and use are patent and clear. The contemplation of their own machine may suggest ideas for the construction of other and newer machinery, and thus a way to distinction may be opened out to them, and monotony and discontent be succeeded by activity and pleasure.

The experience of educationalists agrees that the country will never fully perform its duty to our future populations, unless provision be made for education in the years intervening between school-age and manhood. How often do we see a youth who at school gave promise of a bright future, whose conduct was exemplary, and attention to studies commendable, leave school full of high hope and determination, but in the course of a few months gradually descend from his former height. He is a loungee at the street corner. He has imbibed the habit of using slang or ribald language, and the smoking of the inevitable short pipe; and probably, for lack of other resort, has become a frequenter at the dram-shop, and commenced the downward career of the drunkard. His stay at school was not sufficiently prolonged to engraft in him a love for reading and study; and consequently, without chart or compass to guide him through the most dangerous part of his life's voyage, can we wonder that he makes early shipwreck of a fair and promising career?

The excessive stimulus to the education of youth of the present day does not, unfortunately, engender a love of study and books. The rigour of the standard work as applied to all children indiscriminately, is

such as to beget a dislike for learning. Time was when school teachers considered it as one of their chief duties to enforce upon their children the necessity of acquiring studious habits. The pressure of the dull, and backward children, who require the constant attention of the teacher to fit them for the ordeal of the standard examination, is a perpetual menace against this. Lessons, which were frequent years ago, and were pleasing and useful to both teacher and taught, are rarely given now. The hard mechanical routine of the standards, succeeded by the still harder and more mechanical examination, crushes out of both teacher and scholar higher and nobler aims. The result of this intensity of education, this hot-house and abnormal system, which eminent physicians are already launching their edict against, will be to give everybody the keys wherewith to unlock the mysteries of knowledge, but few the desire to use them. A distaste for knowledge in early life naturally results in distaste in aftertime. If, however, by the establishment of trade and science classes, we could show our youths the deep and entrancing interest as well as practical benefits there is in knowledge, much might be done to counteract the effect of bad early training. Technical instruction, with its important and immediate bearing upon the ordinary occupations of life, would largely contribute to this end.

English masters do not discharge their duties to their apprentices so efficiently as foreign employers of labour. The mental, moral, and technical training of young men might greatly be promoted by the fostering care of a master. German and Austrian employers have long felt this duty, and have assisted in establishing in all large centres of industry technical schools which they give every encouragement to their young apprentices to attend. Many German masters specially stipulate in the indentures of their apprentices that they shall spend certain hours per week at these schools. The apprentice law of Austria makes it binding upon apprentices to attend the evening school for at least one year during their probationary period. These countries are rapidly reaping the reward of their foresight and care. This fact is well exemplified in the high position Germany has recently attained in the commercial world, and also in the fact that young Germans are often preferred in our warehouses to our own young men who may have spent an apprenticeship in the warehouse, but are devoid of the technical and scientific knowledge so productive of benefit to masters. Intellectual and technically trained workmen are always of the greatest value to employers of labour. *Prima facie* this would follow, and abundant proof exists to support and prove it. Mintern & Co., the great porcelain manufacturers, assert that the eminence of their firm is mainly due to the superior intelligence and technical knowledge of their workmen. They consequently zealously provide for the training of their young apprentices. Years ago they established a school of art for the encouragement of design and skill in painting on porcelain. Then apprentices were induced to attend, and every encouragement was given to lead them to excel. Early they perceived that the faculties developed, and the ideas generated in the school were reproduced in the workshop; and not only were taste and skill displayed, but even manual dexterity in painting a flower or a design was strikingly improved. Masters who pay the expenses of their apprentices to the Nottingham School of Art have already proved that as a mere investment it returns ample percentage.

If it be admitted that a cultivation of the imitative faculty by drawing has a tendency to improve those

trades depending upon skill in art, so other trades will be improved and developed by the cultivation of those mental faculties specially employed in their apprehension. Thus the engineer would be better able to obtain the maximum results from his machinery, if he be very familiar with the fundamental laws of mechanics. The dyer will turn out brighter dyes, and better workmanship, if he be acquainted with the principal laws and combinations of chemistry. The gardener, if he study the varied forms of plant-life, and be taught the science of botany. No trade or profession, be it ever so humble, but would be improved, and its functions more skillfully performed, if the workmen engaged in it possessed a knowledge of the scientific principles and theories upon which it depends. Nay, an ignorance of these truths has often been the cause of loss to the employer, and of dire calamity to the workmen. It was soon discovered by the coal-owners near Lille and Charleroi that the workmen who attended the neighbouring technical schools were of estimable value in comparison with the untutored workmen. Their boilers were better heated, and with less coal; accidents were reduced to a minimum; and repairs and stoppage of machinery were less frequent. The firemen, therefore, from the schools of Lille and Charleroi were much sought after. Enhanced wages were paid them; and the most responsible posts given them. How many thousands of our mining population have been hurried into premature graves through ignorance of the simplest scientific principles which a few lessons would teach. In consequence of this, our Government has established a law compelling all mining companies to employ some highly competent and well-informed manager to superintend the mine. He must earn, by examination, a certificate of competency; and must show that he is not only acquainted with the various methods of ventilation, and precautions for checking firedamp, &c., but must have a knowledge of magnetism, electricity, pressures of gases, and fluids. If but the rudiments of these sciences were understood by our mining populations, less fear might be entertained of the occurrence of those sad catastrophes that are constantly casting gloom and desolation over our mining districts. A knowledge of the causes of the calamities would impel men to take greater care not to violate them.

The necessity and urgency of this technical knowledge must be patent to all thinking men. Hitherto, however, legislation has dealt but slightly with it. Commissions have been appointed to investigate and report upon it. Scholarships have been offered for its promotion, notably by Mr. Withworth. An elaborate syllabus has been drawn up by the Society of Arts to encourage its systematic teachings and examinations. Yet no real effort has been made by Government to organise and establish schools where it might have a fair chance of flourishing. There seems, however, at the present time, to be a general uprising throughout the country to the immediate and vital importance of this work. Leeds, Bradford, Bristol, London, and other centres of industry are awaking with strength and earnestness to its necessity. The Artisan's Institute, London, conducted by that indefatigable and earnest friend of the working classes, Rev. Henry Lolly, has proved the necessity and practicability of technical classes. Bristol and Leeds have shown how powerful for good they are upon the staple manufactures of those towns. And Bradford only a few days ago auspiciously inaugurated schools for this teaching, and, with the assistance of their Chamber of Commerce, subscribed readily a £2,000 guarantee fund for their promotion and maintenance. The employed, as well

as employers, of these towns feel deeply that not a moment should be lost if they are to retain the prosperity of their staple industries. They are keenly feeling the powerful competition of continental countries in the production of the goods in which they have long prided themselves as having a supremacy. Germany, France, Switzerland, and even Belgium and Austria are fast treading upon our heels in those manufactures that we have specially plumed ourselves as being peculiarly our own. Nay, some of them are not only abreast of us but are fast outstripping us in the commercial race.

France is beating us in the manufacture of fancy goods and silks. The province of Alsace, owing to its splendid technical schools, is driving Manchester out of the market in its manufacture of prints and calicoes, which are unrivalled for their beauty, brilliancy of colour, and tastefulness of design. The woollen trade of Leeds and Halifax is rapidly departing to the enterprising towns of Saxony; and our iron trade is slowly but surely going to Belgium, France, and Germany. And if we are not quick to amend, we shall find ourselves not only shut out of Continental markets, but even that great emporium of our trade, America, will close its doors against us. Napoleon Bonaparte vented his spleen upon us by stigmatising us as a "nation of shopkeepers." We could afford to quietly smile at this sneer, whilst we manufactured and sold our ridiculous goods. Continental nations soon saw, however, that to be a nation of shopkeepers, of manufacturers, of producers, was to be the guarantee for wealth, power, independence, and comfort. They are, therefore, laudably striving to rival us in the world's markets. They know our exceptional advantages—our island fertile in mineral resources, our people endowed with minds to plan and invent, our attained position, as the first manufacturing country of the world. Our competitors saw that, considering ourselves secure in our position, we had become negligent and apathetic. We had taken to ourselves the motto, "Rest and be thankful." They saw that our weak place was the unskilfulness and inefficiency of our workmen. They, therefore, concluded that to beat us in the race their workmen must have more skilled intelligence than ours. So elaborate and systematic instruction in science and technology of various trades were given. Colossal establishments for the purpose were erected by the benevolence of philanthropists and the wise foresight of Governments. Chemnitz Technical School, with its seven hundred students; Stuttgart, with its thousand joiners, masons, and engineers; Vienna, with its twelve hundred workmen students; Malhausen, Lubec, Lyons, Lille, and other large centres of industry are turning out educated and skilled workmen both in the manipulatory and theoretical departments of their various trades. The buildings for the tuition of these men are being erected almost regardless of expense. The new "Gewerbe Schule" at Chemnitz will cost £80,000, and will be maintained by an annual grant of £7,000 from Government. At Elberfeld the school building cost £20,000; and the Barmen School £15,000. Other schools are in projection, to cost even more than these. These facts mainly account for the sudden advancement Germany and other countries have made in the commerce of the world.

Of course, there are factors in the argument to account for this rapid progress of the continent, and apparent decline of England, in commerce and trade. The elaborate system of trades' unions, of employers' unions, of strikes and lock-outs in this country, have tended to increase the price of our productions, and so

give advantage to the cheaper, and equally if not better manufactured goods of continental nations. English masters having trade in their hands, looked chiefly to realising large and probably exorbitant profits, in order to amass princely fortunes. So, what with increased wages to men, and abnormal profits to masters, the prices of our goods are high. We are undersold by cheaper and better goods. Our system of free trade, also, a noble and benignant principle, if adopted by all, heavily handicaps us in many markets. Tariffs to the amount of 50, 60, and 70 per cent, are imposed upon the importation of our goods to even the American markets.

Let us, however, only thoroughly realise the fact that we are earning for ourselves the unenviable reputation of a beaten people, and our pluck and people will be roused. They will incite us to adopt all possible means to retrieve our position. We shall have done with "scamped" work. Our artisans will add skill and knowledge to their native wit; and for this purpose technical schools will arise in all parts of the land.

Our science schools are most inefficient substitutes for continental "Real," "Gewerbe," or Polytechnic schools. The Science and Art Department encourage only the theory: the working classes require in connection with science classes constitute a formidable barrier against their present use by the great majority of working men. Something easier and with a more direct bearing upon the daily labour is the great desideratum of the present time.

The industrial schools established in Nottingham last year have supplied the want. They have been well attended, and their results have been satisfactory. From experience gained in them, as well as from a knowledge of their constitution on the continent, the following plan might be suggested as one sure to achieve good and useful results. The schools should be divided into three grades:—1. Preparatory school.—This should subserve the purposes of an ordinary night school where young lads should have an opportunity of continuing the education obtained in the day-school. This would almost be self-supporting. Government grants might be obtained on examination. This with a small fee would supply it with funds for its maintenance. 2. Intermediate or Science School.—Youths able to pass the 4th or 5th Standards, Government Code, might be encouraged to attend this department. Such subjects as the following might constitute the curriculum:—Industrial biography, history of trades and inventions, industrial geography, freehand drawing, solid and plane geometry, mechanics, chemistry, accountship and commercial arithmetic, fiscal and custom-house legislation, commercial correspondence, and French and German languages. Grants from the Science and Art Department might be obtained for certain of these subjects by properly qualified teachers. 3. The Industrial or Technical Department.—This would answer to the "Geweber Schule" of Germany. It would be subdivided into sections, each provided with the special machinery and apparatus for the various trades it professed to teach. The joiner, mechanic, lacemaker, weaver, &c., would each have all the intricacies and mysteries of their crafts unfolded to them by teachers skilled in the manipulatory as well as theory and science of the trade. Youths near the end of their apprenticeship, and men already engaged as journeymen, but who are anxious to further improve themselves and earn for themselves the title of skilled workmen, would flock to this school.

The science school would teach generalities applicable to all trades. The technical would deal only with specialities applicable to individual trades.

The difficulty would be felt in his department, of obtaining efficient and skilful teachers—teachers who could give attractive lessons, and possessed also a knowledge of the theory and practice of the trade they aspired to teach. No doubt such men would be found. London, Bradford, and Leeds have already discovered them. Government may be induced to establish examinations and grant certificates or diplomas specially for them. The Rev. H. Solly is already petitioning the Duke of Richmond to consider this question; and the probability is, should a general demand be made the request will be granted, and grants, as in the present science and art classes, may be earned.

The first and second schools might find a home in the elementary schools, as they are rarely used in the evening. The technical schools by the managing directorate, and certificates or diplomas would be granted to the successful students. These would be of inestimable value to their possessors, for they would guarantee to employers ability both intellectual and manual. A scheme like this would, of course, necessitate a considerable outlay of money, and an intelligent and active management. The directors would soon be found, and as the real value of the schools became known the money would soon be forthcoming. The Drapers' Company, with a magnanimity and foresight which does them infinite credit, have sent a donation of 100 guineas to the Nottingham School. Should the manufacturer rally round the movement with zeal, and contribute as liberally, the grant will, no doubt, become an annual one.

A graded system, similar to that described, is necessary in order to secure permanency and success. The Artisans' Institute, London, though deserving great praise for its efforts, cannot be considered a success. No youths or apprentices are found in its classes. Those working men only of ability or ambition, who are aspirants for eminence and distinction in their trades, avail themselves of the opportunities held out to them. When only six or seven students attend some of the classes, out of an immense population like that of the metropolis, we cannot help thinking that the school lacks some of the essential elements of success. Most probably, if schools for adults were established, similar to the "Preparatory and Intermediate Schools of Nottingham," a supply for the Technical School would be provided. In the preparatory and intermediate schools no restraint whatever should be placed upon youths who attend: but in the interests of the various trades restrictions will have to be enforced in the technical school. Trades-unionists would justly complain of amateurs and labourers acquiring the skill to work at the trade by listening to an explanation of its secrets at these schools. It is most essential that the hearty-sympathy and co-operation of the trades-unionists should be enlisted on behalf of technical schools. Their usefulness and permanency mainly depend upon the good will those organisations. Only, therefore, *bona fide* members of the various trades taught, should be allowed to enrol themselves as pupils in the classes. The skilled artisan desires earnestly that his brethren should be efficient and able workmen; and are prepared to enter ardently into any movement which would weed out from their ranks the incompetent. They object, however, to outsiders flooding their supply by claiming the privilege of skilled workmen, without going through the recognised routine of apprenticeship, or other acknowledged mode of initiation. Apprentices, of course, would be cheerfully encouraged to attend; and masters would receive commendation who expected, or insisted upon the attendance of their

apprentices at these schools. Complaints are rife that youths rarely receive that systematic tuition so essential to their efficiency. The master is generally too much engrossed with the general management of his works, and the journeyman seldom deems it his peculiar duty to teach the secrets of his craft, when by so doing he may raise up against himself a formidable competitor. The apprentice, therefore, merges into the journeyman with but vague and dim ideas of the manifold functions that may be demanded of him. His work is faulty, and performed slowly. The efficient workmen suffers in consequence, both in diminished pay and reputation; for one of the most unfortunate regulations of trades unionism is that all workmen in one branch of trade are placed on an equality, and receive similar remuneration. The good help to pay the bad. Render them all able and efficient, and employers would be able to pay higher wages, because of the increased and improved work done.

PART III.

It may be objected by some that the curriculum of the intermediate school is too extensive and ambitious; that a youth whose future was to be spent in a lace machine, would be wasting time listening to lessons adapted to the joiner or mechanic, and that the better plan would be to devote his whole time to the acquisition of knowledge directly bearing upon his special industry.

Professor Huxley, however, in a recent address, specially advised the artisans to cultivate a general knowledge, and stated that technical instruction ought to be based on a sound elementary knowledge of the leading principles of science. On this principle our intermediate school is founded. On the same principle are based the "Gewerbe" and Polytechnic schools of France and Germany. Youths are not always connected with the industry they are specially fitted for. A course of instruction, liberal and wide, would probably discover and develop the latent talent, and would turn it into in a course of usefulness and profit. Inventions of machinery have not always been produced by men engaged in machine construction. Improvements in the manufacture of lace or woollen have not always been made by those whose time has been spent among these fabrics. Neither Ratcliffe, Compton, Hargreave, nor Stephenson were skilled in the trade in which they effected such vast improvements. Lee and Cartwright, to whom we are indebted for improvements in the manufacture of lace and stocking webbing, were clergymen. Paxton was not an architect, but a gardener; while Pettitt Smith was a farmer; and Sir William Armstrong a lawyer. The science school would be of inestimable value to such men; would awaken or quicken their special talents, and be productive of wealth both to themselves and the country at large.

Science and industrial schools cannot fulfil their important purpose unless those attending them be well equipped with a sound elementary education. The rudimentary scientific instruction imparted in the Nottingham Science and Technical School was too difficult for the intelligence of the majority of youths who presented themselves. The essential requisites—celerity in making notes and ability to comprehend simple mathematical formula—were only the possessions of a favoured few. Our compulsory laws, however, are making it imperative upon the present generation to attend our schools and receive instruction. But there are so many opportunities for evading constant and prolonged attendance at school, that although all may

acquire the ability to read and write, the majority will go out into the world lacking a real and abiding education. Children, as a rule, leave school at far earlier ages than aforesaid. Prior to the Education Act of Mr. Forster, it was not at all uncommon for youths to remain at school until they reached fourteen or fifteen years of age. Now they leave school at the earliest age the bye-laws of the local School Board allow. This is partly the fault of the School Board. Their enactments originate, and encourage, the notion that a sufficient and efficient education has been obtained when the IV, or V, Standard Government Code is passed. Owing to this, children are commencing work at considerably earlier ages than formerly. Honour's Certificates, upper schools, and other expedients, may counteract this to an extent; but, unless some stringent laws be established, such as raising the standard, or the age, at which children shall be allowed to leave the day-school, the great results we all hope for from our educational efforts will not be fully realised. If children could be persuaded to remain until they were fourteen or fifteen years of age, a firm and durable educational foundation might be laid; and youths might come to our Evening Industrious Schools fully able to appreciate the lessons given, and afterwards turn them to practical account in their daily avocations.

The primary schools of the country might render important and valuable service in preparing youths for a future career through the industrial schools, and for an intelligent acquaintance with the several articles may have to deal with in their future business. No opportunity should be lost by a great manufacturing and industrial people like ours to encourage intelligence and skill in our artisans. Not only therefore should our Government carefully foster the movement for technical schools, but also should lend their powerful aid in promoting the teaching technology in the elementary day schools. Subjects are inserted in the Code on examination of which grants may be earned, which not be compared in utility to the knowledge derivable from a course of technical teaching. How valuable to the staple industries of the manufacturing towns of England if grants could be earned by the day-school children on an examination having chief reference to articles produced in the town,—whence and how the raw materials comes what manufacturing process they go through; their value, &c. That most pernicious principle—payment for results—has driven out of schools the old object lessons. A recurrence to these would not fail in producing benefit. Elaborate diagrams, models, and specimens of all kinds of productions both artificial and natural, are prepared by educational publishers, which would render such lessons both interesting and profitable.

Systematic tuition in the principles and practices of trade, beginning in early age at school, and continued through the preparatory, science and technical schools, concurrently with the dexterity acquired in the workshop, could not fail in producing skilled and intelligent workmen, inferior to none in the world. England's power and influence rests more on its industrial eminence than on its maritime or martial prowess. Our jealousy should be aroused at this stronghold being assailed. What millions we readily spend to defend our position as a military power. Shall we not be willing to spend to keep from falling what is far nobler, our industrial power: The fight for supremacy in industry is a bloodless one: is an honest and honourable one: is one that helps on the cause of humanity, and the progress of nations. Hitherto we have been victors in the fight. Shall we now lower our colours? Shall we

submit to take second rank? No. Whatever is necessary for the maintenance of our position and prestige we shall gladly find. Convince our countrymen that these schools are essential,—that our eminence and prosperity depend upon them,—and we shall cheerfully rally round them, and make them a pride and honour to the land.—(*The Schoolmaster.*)

Education in Russia

“THERE IS ALWAYS MONEY FOR TROOPS, BUT NEVER FOR SCHOOLS.”

A recent writer in the *Pall Mall Gazette* says: “Count Dimitri Tolstoi, who has been twelve years Minister of Public Instruction in Russia, is a man of large ideas, who would like to see every mujick proficient in the three R's. Prince Gortschakoff, who is of a different opinion, lets him talk but will not allow him to act, in so much that whenever Count Tolstoi wants a grant, M. de Reutern, the Finance Minister, tells him with a doleful face that the State coffers are empty. There is always money for troops and Imperial fetes, never for schools. Taking account of the increase of population and the greater facilities for spreading knowledge, Russia has retrograded rather than advanced in education since the time of Nicholas. The late Czar had no notion of popularizing knowledge, but he provided a good sort of official education for the higher classes among his subjects, and insisted that they should avail themselves of it. As to the commercial classes, he allowed them to take care of themselves, which they did by establishing private schools with German professors. Chancellor Gortschakoff saw the dangers of this system, and altered it. He encouraged rich noblemen to have their children educated at home and to send them to France or Germany for the finishing touch, but he has laid a sweeping interdict on all private schools for the middle class, because these used to afford a better education than was to be obtained in Official Academies. A highly cultivated aristocracy, an officially taught, or mistaught, middle class, and a totally illiterate populace—this would fulfil the Chancellor's ideal of a governable State. But he does not confess these views aloud, and balks education by the adroit device of seeming over-ready to aid it.

About a dozen years ago the city of Nijni-Novgorod wished to found a university, and applied for a charter, promising to raise the endowments by local subscriptions. The answer that came from St. Petersburg was most encouraging, and assured the applicants that the Czar had expressed a great interest in their scheme, and was graciously minded to help them with a grant. If they would wait a little, till the Imperial Council had discussed the matter, they would learn the amount of the grant and its conditions. They have been waiting ever since. It is of no use attempting to set up any educational establishment by private initiative. The project is always favourably entertained by the authorities, but it is invariably shelved. If the promoters grow importunate, they receive a dispatch full of high flown language, pointing out to them how inexpédient it is to do things by halves. Their original scheme was either too small and needed enlarging for the public good; or too extravagant, and required cutting down. In any case the Czar has it under his august consideration, etc. Count Tolstoi is not responsible for these circumlocutory proceedings, but he has no power against the clerks in his department. He himself feels a scholar's enthusiasm for new plans, and has drawn up an admirable

comprehensive project of national education, which has been “approved in principle” by the Emperor, and is only waiting the good pleasure of the Tschinn. Meanwhile the plan of approving great schemes in principle has the advantage of leading foreigners to think that the Russian Government is always going to begin a good many noble things next New Year's Day.

The Empire is divided for academical purposes into ten scholastic circuits: St. Petersburg, Moscow, Dorpat, Kiew, Warsaw, Kasan, Kharkov, Wilna, Odessa, and the Caucasus. Each of these is presided over by a curator, who is chosen less for his learning than for his urbanity as a courtier. In theory he is omnipotent; in practice he does nothing without the advice of his Academical Council—a body of six members, two of whom are retired professors, three (generally) military officers, and one a police official. These people settle what books are to be used in the schools, grant professorial diplomas, and act as a court of appeal in questions of academical discipline.

All the educational funds whatsoever must pass through their hands; and a good share of them remains there. If a foreigner desires leave to teach in a Russian school, he must apply to this council, who after tapping a few fees from him, cause him to be examined as to his knowledge of history. Now, Russian history sets forth that Napoleon I. was defeated entirely by the Czar's Generals (no mention is made of the winter of 1812 which froze the Grand Army, and that Waterloo was a Russian victory, Wellington being a servant of the European coalition of which Alexander I. was chief. If a foreigner be ignorant of all this, he is requested to learn it before he can get his diploma; as to natives, having been instructed in these legends from their youth, they can gabble them fluently and do.

There are nine grades in the professorate. The first, which confers the title of College Councillor, ranks with Colonel, and belongs to the sixth degree in the Tschinn; the lowest, that of College Registrar, belongs to the fourteenth; below these are school ushers, or apparitors, who do not count as tchinoviks. Each grade of the professorate has allotted to it a curriculum of studies, and the lecturer must not trench on subjects which appertain to a higher grade. Not very long ago, a master at the Lycee Richelieu of Odessa, got into disgrace because in his lessons on Roman history he had expatiated upon the political results bequeathed to modern societies by the domination of Rome. He was told these results were no business of his. How could scholastic order be maintained if a lower-form master imbued the minds of his pupils with view at variance with those which would be taught them by superior masters in the upper forms? The Russian professor must be humble. If he be set to teach the first book of Euclid, he must be wary of showing that he knows anything about conic sections. Lest he should forget this, he is made to wear a uniform, and has only to glance at the breadth of the silver palm-leaf on the sleeve of his black tunic to remember what things he must teach and what avoid. Not till he can sport the gold lace of Councillorship may he speak out all he knows, and by that time he will probably have learned that the politics of ancient Rome are hot ground to tread upon.

Every city in the empire has its lyceum, and every town its grammar school. In the lyceums French and German are taught; in the grammar schools German sometimes, but not always. English can only be learned at St. Petersburg, Moscow, and Odessa, except by private tuition. The charges for maintaining a boy as a boarder vary from £40 to £150, and at the aristocratic military school of St. Petersburg extras generally bring

the sum up to £250. These rates are not higher than those at Eton, but the style of living cannot compare with that of English public schools. Russian boys sleep in dormitories; and it is only within the last fifteen years that they have been allowed bedding. Formerly they curled themselves up in rugs and lay down on wooden cots. Possibly this practice still prevails in some of the inland schools. Their fare is the eternal cabbage soup, with beef; and tea, with bread but no butter. They wear a uniform—a tunic in summer, and in winter a caftan, like an ulster coat, with the number of their class embroidered on the collar. Their heads are cropped close, and they walk upright as ramrods; for the most thorough part of their education consists in drill. They are usually quiet boys, very soft spoken, and not much addicted to romping, having no national game beyond that of leap-frog, which they play in a large empty room warmed like a hot-house. They spend their pocket money in cigarettes and in sweetened rum to put into their tea. These delicacies are forbidden, but can always be had of the school porter for a little overcharge. There is no corporal punishment nominally since the present Czar abolished the birch by a special ukase; but discipline could scarcely be maintained among Russians without cuffing, so the professor cuffs his scholars, and they, in their turn, cuff one another with national heartiness.

When a member of the Tschinn dies without leaving sufficient to educate his children, they are often sent to a public school and afterwards to the university for nothing: but this grace depends much on the deceased father's good conduct.

Foundation scholarships are also conferred upon the sons of living tschinoviks as a reward for their father's zeal in the public service. The objects of these charities are required to enter the Crown service, and mostly furnish subalterns for the army, or else they go into the church. The professors push them on more than the other boys, for the attainments have to be specially reported to the district governors, and are particularly inquired into by the curator's delegates, who visit the schools once a year to hold examinations. If a foundation boy distinguish himself conspicuously, he sometimes receives a commission in one of the regiments of Guards, and along with it a yearly allowance from the Czar. Most of the Adjutants and Quartermasters in the Guards are former charity boys, and it may be as well to state that they soon enrich themselves in these functions.

There are few village schools in Russia, and such as there are have sprung from the benevolence of good-natured land-owners, and are little approved by the authorities. However, if a land-owner chooses to start a school, the Government does not prevent him, and contents with providing a teacher thoroughly orthodox and ignorant. In the Mires it is very rare to find a mujick who can read, and even the Mayor has to depend on the pope for the keeping of his accounts. A movement was started a year or two ago for instituting a staff of perambulating schoolmasters on the Swedish system who should go about and disseminate at least the rudiments of knowledge among villages which were too poor to support permanent schools. Government, as usual, lent a ready ear to the scheme, but, having usurped the management of it, has done nothing hitherto but give promises. Now and then it will happen that a village pope, taking a fancy to a young mujick, instructs him, and the lad in his turn imparts his knowledge to his fellow-villagers. But if this gets known to the police, he may come to trouble for teaching without a diploma. Even the A B C in Russia must be taught in the official way.

Industrial Schools in Europe

No feature of the educational systems of Germany, Switzerland, Austria, Belgium, France, and other European countries, is more striking to an American observer than the large number of Industrial Schools specially designed to train apprentices and make skilled workmen and competent foremen. These schools are very numerous, and as various as the kinds of industry pursued in each country or province. There are been the greatest progress in manufactures in those countries where these schools have been maintained longest and most liberality. Geneva has for many years maintained a horological school, and the Swiss watches have long been celebrated throughout the world. Last summer I visited the new Horological Institute, then building in Geneva—a magnificent edifice to cost over 200,000 dollars—and also witnessed the work of the old school then in its old quarters. The course of study and practice covers three years. There were seven instructors, who are experts both in the theory and practice. No one can graduate till he has proved his skill again and again, by making an entire watch of standard excellence.

The same attention to minute details is seen in the industrial school at Lyons, France, to which the pre-eminence of that city in the manufacture of silk is largely due. It has twelve professors, and the course of study occupies three years. Here, as in all industrial schools, a prominent study is *drawing*—drawing ornaments, tinted drawings, and sketching plans of machines from memory. Thorough instruction is given in every detail relating to the manufacture of textile fabrics, especially of silks; the natural history of silk; treatment of the silk worm and cocoon; spinning, throwing, weaving and testing of silks; sorting and cleaning; winding, warping, and beaming; changing of looms for weaving different styles; defects in operations and their remedies; decomposition of tissues; chemistry, especially as applied to dyeing and printing; physics with its applications to heating steam boilers, to drying and ventilation; mechanics embracing prime motors, material, and construction; hygiene, including physiology, noxious and useful animals, dangerous and unhealthy occupations; contagious diseases and how to avoid taking them; rural economy and "industrial plants." Manual Exercises are conducted in the workshops in making, mending, putting up, and shipping looms, in turning, filing, forging, fitting and various joiner's and machinist's work. Frequent visits are made to the various factories in Lyons under the lead of an instructor, where every part and process is fully explained. The students afterwards draw from memory plans of patterns and of machines.

About one hundred pupils, on an average, are in attendance. The regular charge for tuition, use of laboratories, and workshops, is 140 dollars a year. Indigent students are aided by the Chamber of Commerce and Municipal Council of Lyons, so that a portion only pay the full tuition. That this school conducted without aid from the Government of France, should be so liberally supported by the citizens of Lyons, and continue to flourish for so long a period, is ample evidence of its great usefulness in the opinion of the most competent judges.

More than sixty years ago France started special schools in the arts of designing, engraving, and dyeing; in silk and ribbon weaving, and lace-making; in carving, stone-cutting, and diamond-cutting (hence the diamond-cutting for the world is still carried on mainly in Paris); in porcelain and various ceramic productions;

and the pre-eminence thus gained is still retained. The artistic manufacturers of France command the markets of the world. The industrial schools more recently organized in Germany, Switzerland, Belgium, Austria, Italy and England, which in the aggregate are numbered by thousands, make these nations formidable competitors in artistic work.

When invited by the minister of public instruction of France to visit the National Porcelain Factory at Sevres, I expressed to him surprise that such an establishment should come under the supervision of the educational department, to which he replied, "It is because it is the duty of this department to supervise and control the preparatory school for Sevres, which you shall first visit." On inspecting this school of design in Paris, I found in the lower rooms the methods and work of a first-class drawing-school. But in the upper rooms the classes were painting on elegant goblets, cups, plates, vases, and other choicer ware, just brought from Sevres, and to return there for baking. After witnessing this truly artistic work, I no longer wondered that in the Sevres factory itself the artisan had indeed become the artist, and that only men of princely wealth could procure the products of this unrivalled establishment.

In Belgium the girls have shared the advantages of industrial schools as well as the boys. The schools for training in lace-making and embroidering in Brussels have long been celebrated, and kindred schools have more recently been opened in Rowles, Ghent, Ash, Deerlyk, and in many other places in this little kingdom. To those familiar with this fact, it was no surprise that Belgium lace shown at the Philadelphia Exposition was unrivalled. Some industrials are maintained wholly by the central government. Others partially, and still others are supported by endowments, and many are private institutions, dependent mostly on tuition for support. A large number called Apprentice Schools are maintained by benevolent associations. These are designed to train boys and girls both in skilled manipulations in various trades, and in the practical studies and theories most helpful in such pursuits.

Belgium with about fifty industrial schools, and fifteen thousand apprentices graduated from them; Germany with over fifty-two thousand apprentices in fourteen hundred and fifty industrial schools; and France with twelve thousand industrial schools; and France with twelve thousand industrial scholars, show the practical appreciation of these institutions in those countries which distanced the competition of surrounding nations in the great markets of the world. Steam and the telegraph are bringing all nations into such near neighbourhood, that industrial ascendancy will belong to that country that provides the best industrial education.—*Hon. B. G. Northrop, State Supt. Public Instruction, Connecticut.*

Light and Air.

Some six years ago, a remarkable lecture on the influence of school life on sight and figure was delivered before the College of Preceptors by Mr. R. Liebreich, Consulting Ophthalmic Surgeon to St. Thomas's Hospital. The London School Board took up the subject, and to a large extent carried out in practice the principles laid down by the lecturer. Mr. Liebreich has more recently given another lecture on the same subject, and has now published the two together. Under ordinary circumstances we should have briefly noticed these

lectures in our review columns; but there seem to be reasons at the present moment why special prominence should be given to the subject. First, it is always a matter of the greatest importance to all, whether parents or teachers, that education should be so managed as to produce no injurious physical effects; secondly, there are indications that public attention is about to be strongly turned in the direction of educational appliances. Unduly prolonged school hours, too intense application, neglect or ignorance of Nature's rules as to posture, direction of light, ventilation, clothing, or exercise, tend, it is found, to produce not only short sight, but also curvature of the spine, and general functional weakness. A correspondent writes to the *Times*, stating that in his boyhood the walls of the school rooms were usually whitewashed, with nothing but a few maps to relieve the eye. The consequence was ophthalmia, prevalent in a more or less severe form throughout the school. In one of the so-called "Society" journals, a paterfamilias writes complaining bitterly of the mean and unintelligent arrangements as to seats, whitewash, and light in one of our largest public schools. In another paper the question is asked why school-room walls should not be made pleasant to the eye. Why should the school-rooms present a surface of strong white belted or edged with strong black? Outside, Nature has provided gentle greens, cool greys, and browns; in the better class of houses the same refreshing neutrality of tint prevails; why should we not consider the eyes of our boys and girls, and paint the walls so that the sight may be refreshed and not oppressed? In the same way, why should black-boards be black, and not green, blue, or drab, which would just as well show the chalk, without the violent and, to some, painful contrast?

What, however, are the conditions and arrangements incontestably unfavourable to the eyesight and to general health? Let Mr. Liebreich tell us. In the first place, insufficient or ill-arranged light. The windows should be so placed, or the desks so arranged with regard to the windows, that the light may fall, in sufficient strength, from the left-hand side, not from the front; and from above, not from a level with the eye. For writing the desk should be raised twenty degrees, and for reading forty. The class-room should be oblong, the windows should be in one of the long sides, and the desks arranged parallel to the short walls. These rules having long been known, it will hardly be believed that the Education Department, a few years ago, issued a rule that all school windows should be so placed as to allow of a full light falling upon the faces both of the teachers and the children. Light from behind is bad; light from the right is bad; light from the front is the very worst that could possibly be contrived. Again, as regards evening work, the light should not be from naked gas jets, which give a flickering and unsteady light, but from glass cylinders with reflectors. Ground glass should not be used. Again, as regards the benches, they must have low backs, not slanting back-wards, fixed at a height close above the hips; the seat ought to be broad enough to support almost the whole length of the thigh, and the height of the seat such as to allow the sole of the foot in its natural position to rest upon a foot board. The edge of the desk should be perpendicularly above that of the seat, and just high enough to allow the elbow to rest upon it without displacing the shoulder. The desk itself, as said above, should have an inclination for reading of about forty degrees, and for writing of twenty. This inclination is not a whim or a hobby of the lecturer, but arises from a physiological law not

generally known, and is intended to prevent a certain form of weakness of sight. But weakness of sight is not the only danger to be guarded against; there is, especially with girls, curvature of the spine. The proportion of girls who suffer from weak spine is much larger than is generally known. It is on this account that the old-fashioned seats without support for the back, and with no attention to proper posture, are so dangerous to all but the strongest. And it is the fault of the seats alone that so many girls have to spend a part of every day lying supine when they ought to be running about and playing.

The old methods of bench and desk were admirably calculated to encourage obedience to Nature's grand law—the survival of the fittest. The boys who passed through the rough-and-ready treatment of a public school, where the light was contrived to fall "full upon the face," where the air was carefully excluded from school-room and dormitory alike, where the rooms were badly warmed, where the benches were without backs, where there were no appliances for bathing and very few for washing, came out of it strong, owing to their good constitution. But how about those who were weakly at the beginning? And who can tell what seeds of consumption, decline, and disease were sown in those school-days? We are far from being advocates of Government inspection in our schools; but we should receive without any regret the intelligence that a medical board of inspection was appointed to see that in every school throughout the kingdom, whether public or private, the rooms were ventilated, lit, warmed, and furnished in accordance with the requirements of physiology. There are many other points, indeed, in which an intelligent medical man might bring his knowledge usefully to bear upon educational matters. In those schools where the bills amount to as much as an undergraduate's expenses at Oxford or Cambridge, would not a medical man insist, for instance, on having a swimming bath provided for the whole year round, cold in summer, tepid in winter? Would he not insist on a gymnasium, with a master in gymnastics? Would he not suggest that the charges left margin enough to provide riding lessons? Would he not ask for workshops, so that each boy, like a Jew of old, should learn a trade? To sit upon a backless bench against a flat desk is only one of the many abuses which linger where they first arose, among our public schools. It is an abuse which is typical of a stupid conservatism, a spirit which not only refuses change, but is unable to understand the necessity or utility of Change.—*Educational Times, London.*

School Discipline.

THOS. J. CHAPMAN.

Good government lies at the base of all true excellence in the school-room. Unless a proper discipline is enforced there, it will be impossible to succeed. Order is heaven's first law. The school where good order is not enforced, is a failure; it is the plain of Shinar at the confusion of tongues; there may be movement there, but not progress. The first care of the teacher should be given to securing good order.

Not many rules, but good ones, and these well adhered to, should be the maxim in organizing a school. There should be no looseness in framing rules for the government of a school, and above all things there should be no looseness in the enforcement of these rules when

they are once enacted. So long as a regulation remains as one of the rules of the school, it must be carefully observed; if it is an improper rule it should be repealed promptly, and the pupils should be informed that it has been so repealed, that they may not imagine that the teacher is winking at a violation of the school regulations, when he no longer corrects them for disregarding it.

Children are very quick to notice any dereliction or neglect of duty on the part of the teacher. That individual should have well-settled principles to govern his own conduct both in the school-room and out of it. A vacillating spirit that shifts about like the sands of the desert before every breath of wind, is contemptible even in the eyes of children. Besides, if the teacher is thus vigorous in the treatment of self, he may consistently be firm in his demands upon others. Many teachers overlook this. They require certain things of their pupils which they themselves are not willing to perform. They forbid certain privileges to their pupils, which they themselves indulge in. It certainly looks a little unseemly in a teacher to pronounce his *ukase* against the use of tobacco in school in a breath that is itself tainted with the narcotic; or to dwell upon the bad effects of reading works of fiction, when at the same time may be found under the lid of his own desk some of the most silly and pernicious specimens of this kind of literature. So, too, on the streets and in society, teachers sometimes forget the propriety that should mark their deportment, and perhaps in one unlucky hour more than undo all the work of days.

The teacher should not allow the slightest infraction of law to pass unnoticed. These small offences, if allowed to pass without remark, will only open the way to greater. They are the little breaks in the dyke, which a man might at first close with his hand, but through which will ultimately rush a flood of waters that may drown a city. Many a school has been ruined by not guarding against these least appearances of evil. Not that a teacher should be tyrannical in the administration of his duties. But to be unyielding in the enforcement of reasonable and just laws is not tyranny. The laws of nature are inflexible. There can be no infraction of them, not even the least, that is not followed by the due penalty; yet he is a foolish man who will charge God with tyranny and injustice.

The penalty for violating a law should be in proportion to the heinousness of the offence. There should be degrees of punishment in the school room as there are in nature and in civil governments. All violations of the natural or of the statute law are not followed by the same degree of punishment as what they may, these distinctions should be observed. A degree of punishment disproportioned to the crime committed, exerts an evil instead of a salutary influence. A century ago the death penalty was inflicted for comparatively slight infractions of the law. The forging of a man's name, or the stealing of a few shilling's worth was visited with capital punishment. In those days gibbets stood at nearly every cross-road in England, and bodies swinging in chains were every day sights; yet the severity of punishment, instead of making crime less frequent, seemed only to foster it, and the more people were hanged, the more those who remained seemed to deserve hanging.

School discipline, as every other discipline, should be enforced not by administering punishments alone, but by properly rewarding the meritorious. Whether or not the hope of reward is a proper incentive to study, it, as well as the fear of punishment, may be properly held out as a stimulus to good conduct. This

reward may be but a smile or a kindly word of approbation, or it may be such other more tangible and enduring mark of approval as the teacher may see fit to bestow. Indeed, it would be more pleasant to dwell upon the hopes and pleasures of reward, than upon the dread and horrors of punishment. The latter is a gorgon, against whom it would be pleasant if it were possible, to close the school-room doors entirely. It is by a system of rewards and punishments that the Almighty governs the world. Some are kept in bounds through fear of the latter and some through hopes of the former. A few lofty spirits profess to be influenced by neither of these considerations. They claim to do right because it is right. Those who mount to that elevated plane of thought and feeling are few indeed. It may be the proper standpoint; but it is not, and doubtless, never will be, the popular one. It would perhaps be out of the question to get children to act out of such a purely abstract principle; hence, we may well influence their minds to correct actions by holding out to them the hope of reward and the fear of punishment. But compliance with the school code is the rule, and violations of it the exception. To be continually stopping to award some recognition of merit in this case would seem to be impracticable. And so it would. But a pleasant word or a meaning smile may be repeated without trouble many times in a day. Besides this, a constantly cheerful and agreeable manner on the part of teacher would be to his pupils a perpetual source of pleasure, and a continual reward. In a school that has been properly instructed and cared for this endorsement by the teacher of their conduct and performances, will open up springs of delight and satisfaction in the bosoms of the pupils themselves. This is of itself no small reward. Our own consciousness of having done well and deserved well, is one of the sweetest returns for doing our duty.

"One self-approving hour whole years outweighs
Of stupid starers and of loud huzzas."

School punishments range in severity from the mere word of rebuke, or the denial of some wonted privilege, to the infliction of corporeal pains. As has been said, the degree of punishment must be carefully proportioned to the enormity of the crime. Crimes can perhaps differ in enormity only as to their consequences, and not as to their wrongfulness in the abstract. But some offences are not crimes; as, for instance, mere inattention, negligence, forgetfulness, etc. For such offences no sane teacher would inflict as severe punishment as for profanity, rebellion, abusing a schoolmate, falsehood, etc. The teacher should never inflict punishment unless he is fully satisfied of the guilt of party. He should never punish a child on suspicion. What he himself sees of course needs no corroboration; what he does not see, should be proved beyond all cavil. Better that ten guilty ones should escape than that one innocent person should be made to suffer. One child's word against another's should never be taken as conclusive evidence. This is simply just; while at the same time it exerts a good influence in the school to have it understood by the pupils that one has as much the confidence of the teacher as another. Where a pupil is known to deal in untruth, there is, of course, an exception.

As has been already said, everything almost in the way of success in the school-room depends on good government. To understand how to control a school properly is well worthy the attention of the teacher. Much may be learned from books and from the experience

of others; but, after all, the teacher must study the human nature of children, and then exercise his best judgment in every case that may arise. It is so easy to make a mistake; so easy to be misled by a momentary passion, through ignorance, or by some undue influence. Against these chances the teacher must be constantly on his guard. The system of school discipline as practiced by Wackford Squeers, has perhaps entirely disappeared from civilized society. Even the slightly more genial schoolmaster of Oliver Goldsmith has, we hope, but few counterparts among those who are now engaged in the instruction of the young. Instead of schools conducted on the principles of Dotheboys Hall and "sweet Auburn," they are now conducted on principles and maxims more in accordance with the spirit of the age, with humanity and enlightened reason. Mutual confidence and respect exist between teacher and pupil. The child is taught what is right, and to do the right; he is taught to regard himself as a rational, responsible creature, and not a mere machine that is to be wound up every morning like a twenty four hour clock, and left to run all day according to mechanical principles. Children thus trained and taught, grow up with proper views of individual responsibility, of just government. Their mutual relationship to all the world of mankind. Schools conducted on the principles are not difficult to govern. They are to a great extent self-governing. They are miniature republics, where each individual possesses an immediate interest in the conduct of all. Such schools make good pupils and eventually good citizens. In a form of government like ours, the responsibilities that await all, and the lofty positions of usefulness that await many, should not be lost sight of in the education of our youth. We must provide for the future safety and permanency of our free institutions by properly educating those who are soon to take the places of the present generation—by so training them that they may have a due regard for law, for order, for mutual rights, and individual responsibilities.

What can be done to elevate the standard of taste among students.

By H. L. BOLTWOOD.

If, by a higher taste in literature, is meant an increased fondness for committing to memory, for the purpose of recitation, lists of names of unknown authors and their respective works, I know nothing that can be done or ought to be done. There is no magic in the repetition even of a great name, unless that name calls up its becoming associations. To many an ear Virgil means no more than Bavius and Mævius, and Amos Cottle is as suggestive to such an one as S. T. Coleridge. Oliver Optic is to many a lad a greater man than Scott or Dickens, and Beadle's Dime Novels will be eagerly read by him while Shakespeare, Homer, Milton, Dante, and Macaulay are resting, unmolested and dusty, upon the library shelf. Our question demands that we seek the means of cultivating a higher state in the choice of books, and does not require us to ask what text-book contains most miscellaneous information packed in a given space.

There was a time when love of reading in a child might be regarded as a hopeful sign of intellectual capacity. When books were few and costly; when very few of them were in any way intended for children in particular; when there were no children's papers or magazines. A child that inclined to reading was

compelled, perforce, to grapple with something which was considered worthy of mature thought. In reading, the mind was, of necessity, lifted somewhat beyond a childish range of elevation; and so, while many were repelled from books, those who clung to them from pure affection became, as a matter of course, thinkers and reasoners. The books which have come down to us from any period more than a century remote generally illustrate the "survival of the fittest." Without artificial helps, they have withstood the buffetings of the waves of time which, happily for all, have engulfed most of the vile stuff which was then the means of intellectual debauchery to a wealthy few.

But at the present time, it is not safe to say that a love of reading is a hopeful sign, or a proof of a promising intellect. One must know what is read and how, before speaking with anything like approval of a craving appetite for printed matter. An inordinate appetite for green apples, or slate-pencils, or for clay, is not worse for the body than a craving for certain kinds of literature, unfortunately too common and too cheap, is for the mind. Not to speak of positively vicious, or openly immoral reading, which is so abundant and so persistently forced upon public attention; the lives of notorious criminals, the *Police Gazettes*, and other vile and pernicious things which are thrust in your face by train-boys, or kept in the windows or on the counters of booksellers who are called moral and upright men; not to speak of the terrible details of vice which often disgrace the columns of papers whose reputation is such that they could "afford the luxury of a conscience;" a young person foraging for himself, without some special pains taken to guide his taste and judgment, may do himself positive injury even in a Sunday-school library, in which every book shall have been written with the avowed intention of teaching valuable moral or distinctively religious truth. Even to a careful reader, moderately versed in books, the difficulty of choosing the best is constantly increasing. In general, as people read more, they profit less. There are scores and hundreds who take their daily novel almost as the toper does his drams, and almost as ruinously. There are others to whom the daily paper, even of the best kind, is a positive injury, because of excessive demand upon their time.

Our schools have done very much to create this appetite for reading. Are they doing what they ought to direct their pupils to healthful food for satisfying it? Are they in the position to do more without letting slip some of those things which the public seem now to demand? If they can do this work, how? Our limits of time admit but brief answers to these questions.

1. To the first, there is but one answer possible. They are not doing what ought to be done. The ability to select, to appreciate, to use, and to enjoy books is not in proportion to the acquired power to solve arithmetical problems, or to analyze sentences. I think this need not be discussed. I presume it will not be questioned.

2. Are the schools in position to do more in this direction without giving up what seems to be required of them?

I say what seems to be required of them, designedly, because I think that much which is now taught in them could hardly give a satisfactory reason for its existence there. Why geography should have been taught so long to the exclusion of natural history; why, under the old regime, so much time was given to arithmetic and none to physiology, is not easy to understand. Why school hours should extend from 9

till 4 in all seasons of the year we can not say. Nor can we see why primary arithmetic and geography should be forced upon little children that can not read well enough to get the sense of the questions which they are called upon to answer. We see no reason why bright children who, in their homes, will read through a story-book in a single evening, should spend from six to nine months on a smaller book while in the school-room, learning its almost meaningless, mechanical sentences, until they can repeat the whole book from beginning to end. More and better reading can be introduced in the school course by giving more time to it in the earlier part of the course. I have not time to develop this as I wish; but in speaking of methods to be used in cultivating literary taste, will touch upon this subject again.

3. And principally, How can the work be done? All agree that it is desirable to do. All admit that a school education ought to impart to its recipient something of taste to incline him to good reading, judgment in selecting books, ability to appreciate and enjoy them, and knowledge of the art of using them. All admit that books are a most important factor in that social and moral education that reaches beyond school life, and is more important than the ordinary lesson work. Some who know by happy experience the power, the comfort, the restfulness, of a good book, with a spirit of true benevolence, to transmit their own delight to their pupils. But objections are made to any effort; difficulties are suggested; it is said that we have neither the time, the books, nor the public sympathy which are necessary to successful work.

In the first book, as I have already said, reading must receive more attention in the lower grades. Pupils should read more in a month than they do now in a year. They should read more stories, and fewer detached sentences. Fortunately we have good juvenile magazines, published monthly, possessing the important requisites of good paper, clear type, choice engravings, and interesting matter, ranging from the charming little *Nursery* and *Little Folks* up to *St. Nicholas*. There are several schools which are using these magazines with excellent results and with trifling expense. It costs far less to supply a school with these than with readers containing anything like an equal amount of reading matter. In using these books, the aim of the teacher should be largely to make the pupils master the sense fully and to read in an easy, natural way. Even if the spelling is not at once perfect, let the children have something new to tempt them on, before they are disgusted with the tedious monotony of lessons too often repeated.

I wonder if it has ever occurred to my fellow-teachers that all the reading matter of a whole series of ordinary readers, as high up as the Fifth, is actually less than that of an ordinary eight-page first-class daily paper. I believe this to be the fact. Now as far as comprehension of the existing world is concerned, it would be far better, educationally, to read one newspaper than four or five readers. At some time in the latter part of any course, I frequently introduce the daily paper, as a regular lesson, and have spent a month upon a single copy, so much of study is required to appreciate it fully.

The proper place for a school reader seems to me to be after the pupils have learned to read common stories fluently and naturally, and to think about the sense of what they read; so as to be able to tell correctly in their own words, either orally or by writing, whatever they have read. At that time there can be taken up a reader which contains a treatise upon the principles of

good reading, something upon elementary phonics, and pieces selected partly for their literary and partly for their elecutinary value ; such as are suitable for drill pieces, both for thought and for expression. Then, for a time, a well-selected school library should be used in place of a reader. Each pupil should read one book, and prepare himself to report upon it to the class. Class reading should give place to class listening and criticism. The books will, of course, be exchanged, and read in time by most or all of the class. They will mutually correct statement of facts as to the narratives, and will unconsciously acquire much of value in regard to the important subject of successful presentation.

At this point the teacher will have enough to do. He must train the class to notice in the books read any inconsistencies, contradictions, or absurdities. He must test their judgement of probabilities. He must draw out their thoughts upon the characters presented, upon their fidelity to nature, whether they are the counterparts of those people whom they know or see. The language put into the mouth of a character must be tested, to decide whether it is natural or not. By talks upon books, by comparison and judicious questioning, a class of intelligent pupils can be led on to make judgements of value, and to acquire the habit of deliberate and careful study of what they read. Knowing that they are to be held accountable, they will read, not merely for the story, but to grasp and retain plot, characters, language, style and moral. If any one objects to the cost of this, it may be answered that books suitable for this use cost little, if any, more than school readers, and will serve for several generations of pupils. If the difficulty of selection be urged, let teachers and school authorities be stirred up to do this work earnestly and carefully, with the aid of the best talent of the community. I am fully persuaded that very few teachers and still fewer communities appreciate the educational value of a well-selected school library. If they did, I am sure we should have more of them and that they would be more used.

A year of library reading, with general criticism, may be followed by the reading of some standard author with critical study. In a paper which I once read before the Association, published in the *Illinois Teacher* for 1871, I gave the books which I have used and the order in which they are read. Briefly I would say, read with a class nothing that is not classic, and read exhaustively ; with the closest grammatical analysis ; with attention to the position of words and arrangement of sentences as affecting clearness and emphasis ; with development of all figures of speech ; with study of all geographical, historical, biographical and mythological allusions ; with special attention to derivation and composition of words ; with study of synonyms, inquiring closely as to the reason why the author chooses one word rather than another ; and above all, seeking to "read between the lines" as the phrase is ; to see what fine and subtle thought may lurk in a seeming riddle, or an apparent paradox. Such teaching is twice blessed—"it blesseth him that gives and that takes." It is because of such close and persistent study that some of the ancient classics have become such a power among men—influencing, perhaps unconsciously, so much of modern thought, and pervading so much of modern literature.

Permit me to recall a single fact in my own history. In my sophomore year in college, I attended a teachers' institute in Massachusetts, conducted by Dr. Barnes Sears, then secretary of the State Board of Education. One of his exercises has done much to shape my thinking, reading and teaching from that day onward. He

took the opening passage of Robertson's *Life of Charles V.*, and from it gave us a lesson in synonyms and choice of words. For example, in the sentence commencing "When the the spirit of conquest led the armies of Rome beyond the Alps," why the *spirit* of conquest rather than the *desire* of conquest ? Why *conquest* rather than *victory* ? Why *led* rather than *conducted* ? Why *beyond* rather than *across* the Alps ? At least one of that class carried new and lasting impressions of the value of a discriminating choice of words, and the interest to be found in the study language.

By such preliminary teaching, the pupil is trained to appreciate and to love good books ; to become impatient of careless, inaccurate, unnatural writing. He learns to question the meaning of the author, and to distrust and reject those books which have nothing to say.

After this work is done, a text-book in literature may be introduced to advantage, and the pupil may be made familiar with the great names in our own literature and that of the world. He is prepared to recognize that it is unpardonable in the fairly educated person not to know something of those great thinkers whose books have lighted up their respective centuries ; "those dead, but sceptered sovereigns, who still rule our spirits from their graves." As in learning geography well, he passes from the known to the unknown—from the little world of his daily thought in the great oceans and continents of the world beyond ; so in literature, he prepares himself by his own limited reading to send out his appreciative fancy, at least, toward the vast, and, by him, unexplored continents and oceans of the world of books. Great names in literature impress him now, because he has learned that there is a greatness of mind displayed in clear thought, and in successful marshaling of worlds, as well as in planning campaigns and marshaling armies. He has learned that a book may be more powerful than an army ; that a nobler immortality may be won by the pen than by the sword. Therefore he is willing to study authors as he studies other great men.

The most common fault in this study is the attempt to grasp too much—to fix in the memory names of unimportant books and of obscure authors. This should be most studiously avoided. Cut down unflinchingly the briefest text book, if it mentions a single author who is not really a man of mark and influence.

It seems to me a waste of time to attempt to teach historic English Literature without a previous study of English History. The significance and power of many books is to a degree lost, unless one knows the time which either called them forth, or gave them form or shape.

But how shall we find time for all this ? Exactly as you do for mathematics. Because mathematical studies are popular and easy to teach, they occupy one third of school work from the primary grades to the end, or nearly to the end, of the university course. I claim an equal space for language culture in all its departments. In the lower grades, it claims more than half the time. It is vastly more important for general education that the pupil should become an intelligent reader of literature, than that he become an accountant or even an enthusiastic student of natural history. Whatever else the teacher may teach, he ought to be, to all his pupils, a competent guide into the domain of books. Whatever studies he may neglect, he is not justified in neglecting the study of books. "For other studies are neither for all times nor for all ages, nor all places ; but these nourish youth, delight old age, grace our prosperity, furnish a refuge and a solace in our adversity, delight us at home, are no hindrance abroad,

pass the night with us, go with us on our journeyings, stay with us in our country solitude."—(*Chicago Educational Weekly*.)

A Few Words to Young Learners.

It is not in the school-room alone that we—you and I and everybody—get our education. A very inconsiderable portion of our lives, indeed, it is that we spend there; yet we never get too old or too wise to learn. It has even been held by some (and I do not know as there is anything very unreasonable in such a theory, either), that we shall go right on studying and learning in the next world. That, however, has nothing to do with this writing, which I shall endeavor to confine principally to the earlier parts of that portion of human existence which lies between the crib and the church-yard.

And what I was going to say is this. This matter of getting an education, or acquiring knowledge, depends to a greater extent, I sometimes think, than we fully realize, upon our own individual exertions. Prof. A. and author B. may assist us with their ideas, but this is not enough; we must have ideas of our own. Our knowledge of things may be classified under two heads: That which is gained as the result of our own observations and experiences, and that which we borrow from others. And do you know that the very best part is the part that we think out for ourselves, independent of a thought or suggestion from anybody? Of course, we may ride upon the backs—pardon! I mean, the thoughts of others, as far as they are able or willing to carry us; but then we must get off and go on by ourselves.

It is only by independent thought that new truths are discovered, and erroneous hypotheses corrected, and in our work of garnering wisdom, we should be actuated quite as much by the hope of new discoveries, as by the pleasure in acquiring known truths. So long as our learning consists merely in amassing thoughts of others in what respect are our heads superior to the shelves of our libraries?

Suppose Kepler had considered his education "finished" when he had acquired all that his great instructor in astronomy, (Tycho Brahe), was able to impart to him! Would he ever have been able to announce to the world, in the face of all the wise old heads of his time, who thought differently, that the orbits of the planets were not circular, but elliptical? Think of the thousands of golden opportunities which youngsters playing in orchards had of immortalizing themselves before Newton lived. Franklin "toyed with the winged lightnings," and Morse might have spent his life in doing the same thing—only he didn't. He just seized them and set them to work. And even yet there are Grays and Edisons who will not be quiet.

I would urge upon—well, everybody in general, but teachers and young inquirers after knowledge especially, a consideration of the vast importance of thinking for themselves. There never was a better or wiser precept uttered than Paul's "Prove all things." We should never accept anything as a part of our knowledge until we have made it rightfully our own by mingling it with our own thoughts.

Above all, we should avoid learning in a superficial or mechanical way. Remember, "It is not what we eat, but what we digest," etc., and it is only that part of our intellectual food which is properly assimilated in the mental maw that administers to the healthy growth of our intellectual faculties, and thus really becomes a part of ourselves.

Not only how we may acquire the greatest amount of useful knowledge, but also how we may best apply or utilize that which we possess, should be our constant study. The powers of attention, reflection, judgment, etc., should be strengthened and developed by daily exercise. "Nature develops all the human faculties by practice, and their growth depends upon their exercise." In a little work entitled "Mental and Social Culture," Prof. L. C. Loomis has given some rules and suggestions upon "how to obtain knowledge," which every young learner would do well to study. One of the best of these is this:

"Once a day, especially in the early years of life and study, call yourselves to an account, and inquire what new ideas, what new proposition or truth you have gained, what further confirmation of known truths, and what advances you have made in any part of knowledge! and let no day, if possible, pass away without some intellectual gain: such a course, well pursued, must certainly advance you in useful knowledge."

It is also a good plan for young learners to acquire the habit of writing out at least one sentence of original thought each day. Keep a book for this purpose—always taking pains to express your ideas in good language, and in a concise manner. Thus you will not only be disciplining the mind to independent thought, but you will at the same time be acquiring the ability to clothe your ideas in easy and graceful language. "*Nulla dies sine linea*" is an excellent motto. Try it, fellow-pilgrim on the ocean of science; and you will find it will pay you.

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On Teaching English.

By FRANCIS W. NEWMAN.

It is fifty years since the University of London was planned. Already the complaint was heard among the reformers of education, that the English language did not receive due attention; that it ought to be practiced and studied as a substantive object, and with this view a professor of English ought to be appointed. The actual result has been, a professor of both the English language and the English literature: but as regards the cultivation of the language there is little to boast of. When at length, some ten years later, the present university arose, and the earlier university took the surname of college, the London examination papers in English were far more learned than beneficial; inasmuch as to call forth the remark from an eminent scholar, that to answer the questions in English, a student ought to be familiar with *Mæso Gothic*. Practical power over the language was not cultivated, nor delicate appreciation of the distinctions of words and force of composition; but mere theory and historical erudition.

The older doctrine, upheld by such accomplished men as Dr. Coplestone, afterwards Bishop of Landaff, and Dr. Arnold, head of Rugby School, was, that English grammar is best understood by *contrast* with some other language whose grammar is mere complex; and that English composition has its best exercise in careful translation from such a language. For this very purpose, it was urged, the Latin, which is our ordinary school basis, is admirably suited; because, first, as used by its best writers, it is signally concise; next it is nobly free from that vice imported by the

Middle Age schoolmen into our modern tongues—the excessive use of abstract terms. Latin loves concrete expression, and works by the finite verb rather than by the infinitive and by verbal nouns: hence simplicity and energy. Further, its power of transposition enables it so to arrange words that the emphasis of a sentence shall fall just where it ought. This excellence we can but imperfectly attain in English; but by the practice of translation the student learns to aim at it so far as our language allows. On the contrary, the French naturally subsides into the true logical order. Whately, intimate friend and almost coadjutor of Coplestone, illustrates this well in his “Rhetoric,” by observing that our “Great is Diana of the Ephesians,” becomes in a French version, “Diana of the Ephesians is a great goddess.” To place the negative particle where it will have its full energy, is in our idiom thoroughly native, as “Never shall I believe,” which the half-educated would explode, and use only, “I shall never believe.” If it be true, as some say, that familiarity with French saps the energy of English, and that few writers attain our best style without some cultivation of Latin, a good case is made out for the old Oxford doctrine.

But the doctrine, true or false, has no place in our primary schools. No one now contends that Latin should be taught universally, that grammar schools out to mean Latin schools, or indeed that into the most elementary teaching, some foreign language ought to enter. Thus we are driven back into the necessity of either not teaching English at all, but taking for granted that it will be sufficiently picked up out of school, or else teaching it on a purely English basis. Must we thence infer that to teach theory of its grammar—simple and meagre as it is—or to teach the irregularities of spelling is our main business? We might answer this from the case of the old Athenians. Greeks learnt no language but their own in the ordinary course of high education. That before the time of Pericles the theory of their own grammar was unknown to the Athenians, may be safely inferred from the fact of which Aristotle informs us, that Protagoras was the first to teach them that Greek had three genders, masculine, feminine, and neuter. To recite poetry to the lyre, and pronounce every word distinctly and accurately, was the accomplishment first coveted. The noblest poetry was selected—especially that of Solon, Simonides, and Theognis—for moral culture, besides Homer and Hesiod. Pindar and Æschylus were probably rarer, by reason of their greater difficulty. Thus far it is evident at what they aimed; which surely ought to be our aim also: to impart a correct pronunciation and a practical knowledge of their high poetry; to cultivate the taste, the moral sentiment, and an ample knowledge of noble words; to extirpate plebeian utterance, coarse, obscure, or inaccurate, and awake the power of relishing and even criticizing high compositions. The common Athenian citizens are said to have attained the last-named power to a remarkable extent, though it is far from certain that they could read fluently, and almost certain that they were void of grammatical theory. Grammar was a practical art, not a philosophy. It aimed at correct speaking as its end, not in accounting for the forms of words through historical erudition. The first great prose writer, Thucydides (who with Protagoras was about co-eval with Pericles), is a very clumsy composer; but in the next generation Euripides and Xenophon show signally the improvement from the new grammatical training; and Aristotle's allusions hardly let us doubt, that it included a sedulous instruction in the precise meaning of words, in the distinction of poetical and ordinary phrase, also of high style and

low, so as to avoid alike bombast, affectation, and meanness. Surely nothing short of learning these things is to learn a language. To the vast mass of a nation,—even now, when print is so voluminous and letter-writing so common,—to understand the sense of words well, and the delicate shades of meaning, and to have them at hand for use in *speech*, is vastly more important than to be able to *write* them down with the received orthography. Of course a right knowledge of irregular verbs is essential; and the contrast of *I* and *me*, *thou* and *thee*, *he* and *him*, *she* and *her*, *we* and *us*, *they* and *them*, if due advantage be taken of these pronouns, easily leads the pupil to understand the contrast of nominative and accusative in nouns also. A wrong use of the pronouns being a prevalent error, it ought to receive primary attention for itself, as well as for its utility in giving aid beyond itself. To *speak* rightly is the first accomplishment at which we ought to aim.

May it not appear that in our paper-examinations (whether for the Civil Service or in our primary schools) we are proceeding as though the main effort were to train every one to become an essay writer or penny-a-line scribbler? Those who desire to revolutionize our spelling, and to write *nashun* for *nation*, appear totally to misunderstand and *why* bad spelling is thought disgraceful. They ridicule severity against it as absurd; and at the same time themselves make it out to be so great an evil, that we ought to consent to a total change of writing in order to enable our millions to avoid it. Manifestly (though they overlook this) it is held for certain by the public that one who spells common words ill *has read very little English*. This is why they are severe on the error. Next, it is urged on us that Sir Walter Scott perpetrated several false spellings in a few lines of MS. If this be ever so true, it is nothing to the point; for we have abundant proof that Sir Walter was peculiarly learned, not only in modern literature, but in numberless old ballads and legends. His very erudition may have so familiarized him (as other antiquaries) with spellings which we now reject, that his eye was (what one may call) vitiated. At the same time, until the words said to be misspelt are produced, we cannot tell but that he wrote deliberately, and held a different judgment from certain dictionaries which have been set up as a standard.* But this is to digress. The thing now urged is, that to know English aright is a far greater and nobler acquirement than these gentlemen (English or American) seem to be aware. They set up the miserably low standard of spelling aright, as though to attain it were to attain a high result; and next, think to win that high result by altering our spelling. But the children thus accommodated would not hereby learn the English language in any worthy sense: at best they would, from mere *hearing* of a word, write it down more easily. But (it is calculated) not one-third of our written language is familiarly spoken. The children would thus only learn (what in the East is called) the language of the bazaar; and in the endeavor to enlarge their vocabulary by reading our printed literature they would be more embarrassed than now.

I insist, that one who teaches English has primarily to teach—1, a pure pronunciation, according to the most correct standard; 2, an ample vocabulary; 3, an accurate knowledge of the distinction of words which

* The present writer frequently has much difficulty in getting printers to print *tiro*, *sibyl*, *indispensable*, *Nicolas*, which they wrongly change into *tyro*, *sybil*, *indespensible*, *Nicholas*. Other words might be added.

approach in sense ; 4, a delicate sense of the suitability of words for different styles ; 5, (what is most arduous of all because it implies a general cultivation of the mind, and therefore cannot be taught to children, nor indeed to any but to advanced pupils), a rapid choice of fitting words, and an arrangement of them in well-measured sentences, without complexity and without monotony.

The first topic, a pure and correct pronunciation, can be imparted up to a certain point ; and even so, while imperfect, it is of great value. It cannot be *perfect* until we come to some compromise and agreement between north, middle, and south England, Scotland, and Ireland. This is a very considerable and difficult work, which must be done *before* it can be worth while to adopt any wide reorganizing of our spelling. Nevertheless, it would be a very great gain to teach in every primary school the elements of *clear articulation*. In Derbyshire *water* may be heard sounded as *waiter*. Ludicrous as this seems, it is but an isolated oddity. To correct it, is less important than to tune the ear to distinguish, and the tongue to utter rightly, the pure English sounds of *au* and *ai* : to insist on a due opening of the lips and a smooth utterance of vowels, a full enunciation also of consonants opposed to all mumbling, and without any provincial coarseness or superfluity and peculiarity of sound suitable only to utterances of passion. This first aim of the teacher properly to elocution, cultivating the ear and the tongue ; those which have been recounted after it are purely mental ; but all strictly belong to a knowledge and power over our language, all are more valuable than the correct spelling, especially of words foreign in origin and little used by children and simple people. If inspectors of schools pick out words not current with young people and demand that they be spelt correctly, no one need wonder at their reporting very poor success. To require children to spell words which they do not familiarly hear, is an error akin to that of expecting them to reduce a puzzling complication of fractions—a problem which does not meet them in the market. Inspection and examinations are intended to guide judicious teaching, but if the questions proposed be injudicious, they may hurtfully misdirect teaching. Children ought to have access to pleasant story-books which they will read voluntarily : then those who read much will not go far wrong in the spelling of familiar words. An immense range is open for contrasting and discriminating words so as to fix distinctions in the mind. Simple, well-chosen poetry, not too philosophical or abstract, will refine the taste, while it extends knowledge of the language and imparts a sense of rhythm and emphasis. Failure marks the present schools, and will not be removed if the right spelling of unfamiliar words is made a substantive object ; because it is dry, repulsive, and cannot interest children. To kindle a love of learning is the only way to elicit from them active effort. They above all need popular teaching, as little scholastic as may be.

In the last fifty years a great change (which to the present writer seems lamentable) has been made in the teaching of Latin ; namely, *learning by heart*, which used to be most extensively imposed, is all but given up ; boys are taught less orally, more by book ; far more *writing* is exacted of them ; and the aim has less been to insure a wide and correct knowledge of the vocabulary and a practical mastery of the syntax, than to gain insight how it has been built up ; concerning which our scholars know much more than did Cicero and Virgil. Especially zeal for examinations, and the idea that all excellences and all mistakes can be valued

numerically (a bright idea which has come from Cambridge), has led to a supreme trust in paper-work, and has all but exploded oral examination. This system now spreads as a leprosy over the country, and is even said to impair the sight of young pupils. There is reason for much jealousy lest the primary schools be infected by it, so far as the different circumstances admit. One might be glad to know how much of popular and valuable English poetry the children learn by heart ; whether as much as Athenian boys learned of Solon's ; how much pains is taken to make them pronounce every word correctly, without a confused plebeian squeak or drawl : how far the teacher aims at leading them to choose simple words and use them rightly, and to avoid vulgar slang. On this whole subject it is easier to conjecture than to know ; but the very unsatisfactory reports of inspectors justify a suspicion that the teaching is conducted on unwise principles.—*Fraser's Magazine*.

Round about Italy.

By J. J. ROSSITER.

In the church of Santa Maria Gloriosa sleep the ashes of Canova, Titian, Pisano, Le Foscarii, Bellini, and an army of the illustrious dead of Venice. In San Sebastiano sleeps Paul Veronese, amid some of the choicest of his works ; and in San Salvatore are some of the rarest of Titians, and an altar-piece chiselled out in solid silver. The Arsenal at Venice, too, contain a vast museum. There is a simple sight in Venice, too, that few strangers miss—the feeding of the pigeons in the Square of St. Mark. Some body or other, in time past, left a large legacy to be expended in feeding these fowls and as duly as the great clock in the Gothic tower strikes two a quantity of corn is thrown out from a window on the piazza. The pigeons are punctual to a minute, they swarm from the four corners of heaven and swoop down into the square to get the grain. How they calculate the hour, heaven only knows, but one thing it seems to prove, that instinct in the lower animals is, it seems, a higher attribute than reason in some of the human species, at least so far as punctuality is concerned.

Leaving Venice, we return to Padua, past Vicenza, with the Tyrolese Alps on our right, sweeping across the field of Arcole at the foot of the wooded hills, that run out like spurs from the main ranges of the Alps. Crossing the Adige and leaving Verona behind, we pass Peschiera, sleeping quietly by the blue Mincio, at its confluence with Lake Garda surrounded by grim ramparts and grey walls. As we steam on the beauties of the lake, spread out like a sea and stretching away to the snow-clad summits of the Tyrol, reveal themselves. We are now out on the broad plain of Solferino which is mottled over with meadows and corn-fields, while chestnut trees, mulberries and laurels fringe the high-ways, and wines clothe the slopes, till reaching Brescia we push on to Bergamo, nestling on the sloping hill-side, in the most picturesque of positions, and then bridging the Adda, we beheld the blue expanse of Como, where rushing out from the Lake, the river flows on, a swift stream burnished by the setting sun. There are no rivers in creation like the Alpine streams. They fill their banks with such a wasteful prodigality of waters, and go on their way with such a conscious might, as if they felt that behind them there is an eternally exhausted store. They seem to know their sources are the

snows of a thousand winters, and their supplies come direct from the heavens. Village after village is now passed, till at last the spires and pinnacles of the Cathedral tell us we are in the capital of Lombardy—Milan.

Paris looks white and clean and bright and sunny, but it must bow its head to Milan. Here everything is white and snowy. White walls, with whiter battlements, white houses, white streets, and soaring above all, the snowy cathedral. Every traveller the moment he enters the city naturally bends his steps to the Duomo. We had read so much, and heard it lauded so many times, that we were prepared for a disappointment. But no such ill-luck awaited us. As we stood in the broad piazza fronting the pile we became mute with surprise at its beauty, or we might rather say its sublimity. It gives one more an idea of a snow-clad mountain, glittering with pointed peaks and fantastic pinnacles, than any work created by human hands. Yet it has been the slow creation of several centuries, and the united conception of many minds. Quarries of marble and millions of money have been spent on it. It was begun just seven hundred years since, and is not likely to be finished for seven hundred more. It is impossible to enumerate its beauties, its carved portals, its mosaic floors, its flying buttresses, its arabesque pilasters, its painted glass, its mullioned windows, its carved capitals, its bas-reliefs and beautiful tracery, its snow white pinnacles soaring in the amber sunlight, so still and calm, yet so airy and light that you fear the next breeze will scatter them to the winds. You no sooner rivet your gaze on one point, than some fresh beauty attracts it elsewhere, till at last, from sheer relief, you turn to the glorious view that meets your eye when you look around from its roof. Yonder are the whole range of the Alps, from the snowy summits of Ortelles in the Tyrol to Monte Viso in the far south western sky; to the south the blue summit of the Appenines wall in a vast and dazzling plain, where meadows, woods, rivers, cities, white walled villages, campaniles and towers are seen with a blue sky looking down on them, and the glorious sun of Italy shining over all. Looking to the purple rampart of glaciers and peaks in the north, Month Blane and the Great St. Bernard are seen, and towering up the most conspicuous of all are the Matterhorn and Monte Rosa, while sweeping the range of snowy summits our eyes catches the Simplon, the St. Gothard, and the Splügen ranges.

We wended our way to the church of St. Ambrose, one of the oldest basilicas in Christendom. Here are the famous gates that St. Ambrose shut in the face of the Emperor Theodosius after the cruel massacre of Thessalonica, and here are the arcades which were often trod by the feet of the Great Father of the Church. Close by, adjoining the Church of Santa Maria, we saw the famous fresco of the "Last Supper" by Leonardo da Vinci. It is now blackened, blistered, and blotted, in a wretched state of preservation—a mere wreck—but still retaining enough of its former glory to give one an idea of what it once was. We looked into the two great libraries and drove to the arch of the Simplon, and after dinner strolled down to the arcade and ate an ice at Biff's.—(*The Civilian*.)

Primary Spelling

We left the children in my first paper, learning the alphabet; which, I said, could be taught in a few lessons, if previous work in spelling by sound had been introduced almost from the very first. I avoided laying too much stress on this point, as few young teachers really know anything about the subject of phonic teaching,

and many are not even competent to give the letters their proper sounds. Unless thoroughly understood, it cannot be made the basis of future work; and if taught bunglingly, had better be omitted altogether, for the children can get along without it. If the teacher be familiar with this method, she can teach it very easily, as the children do not require a knowledge of the alphabet to understand it. Many teachers who have successfully introduced this phonic work, say that by the time they are ready to teach the letters, the children already know them. It aids greatly in forming a correct pronunciation, and soon banishes "baby talk" from the class. I have often been amused at the erroneous views which many otherwise intelligent parents seemed to take of the phonic method of teaching. I was principal of a primary school in Eastern New-York, a few years since, where, previous to my coming, this method had been introduced. Learning that I was a graduate of a training school, several of the most prominent parents came to me at the beginning of my term to say that they wished their children taught to *spell* as they *ought* to spell, and not have their time wasted imitating *cats* and *dogs*, adding—"We don't want any of that kind of teaching. When we ask our children to spell such a simple word as 'cat,' their little faces undergo a variety of contortions, and they produce only hideous sounds, which we do not call spelling."

On examining the pupils, it appeared the parents had some ground for their complaint, for spelling by *letter* had not been introduced *at all the first year*; but all the time had been consumed in spelling by sound.

I complied, therefore, with their suggestions, as far as I conscientiously could, teaching only the simplest sounds during the first two or three months (never, however terming them spelling lessons). In due time I took up the letters, and at the end of five months from the commencement of the term, had the children spelling intelligently, and to the entire satisfaction of the skeptical parents.

I have heard similar complaints in Ohio arising probably from the same cause; that of improper teaching. Therefore, I cannot too earnestly impress upon the minds of teachers the necessity of proceeding earnestly and intelligently in this work. When the children have finished the *alphabet*, they can immediately begin *spelling proper*. This work will be merely memorizing. The spelling exercises should be as frequent as the reading lessons, and receive equal attention. The teacher should make the selection of the words to be spelled, that all may have the same lesson. Every new word should be taught by the aid of the black board, with oral drill. After all the words have been thus taught, they should be written nicely several times for the purpose of fixing them in their minds, also as an exercise in writing. Let me say in this connection that the lessons should be very nearly copied, the slates carefully ruled (which the children will be now able to do,) and each word, no matter how many times repeated, be always neatly made. *Never* allow any writing to be presented to you but the *best* the child can execute. Guard against carelessness in writing from the very first. A test of the child's ability to write, is *not* some practiced copy; but his or her *every-day* work. The last spelling exercise of the day should be a reproduction lesson. The board and slates should be brushed, and the children required to write upon their slates (the teacher dictating) all words that have been used during the lesson. Now comes one of the most laborious tasks of the day,—the correction of the children's work. This can be *done* after they are dismissed. First mark all the misspelled

words and make a list of them to be used in the next lesson. There criticise each and take notes of their mistakes for to-morrow's correction. I cannot lay too much stress on these reproduction exercise. They are a test of the thoroughness of the day's work : again, the real benefit of spelling to children, is, that they be able to write correctly. One makes but little use of oral spelling through life (except in spelling matches) ; but *written spelling* is a constant necessity. From six to eight new words can be taught every day, the teacher keeping pace with the new words that occur in their reading lessons. From this point it should be a rule never to pass a word in reading that the child is not taught to spell. You will find great trouble in preventing children by *reading by rote*, but alas ! in spelling there is no such good fortune. I know you will often become disheartened over these spelling lessons, but let me again assure you that *drill, drill, drill*, will bring them out all right. It is easier to teach spelling than reading, because spelling is merely the exercise of memory, and besides, you have the advantage of the previous writing lessons. Frequent reviews, given in the form of examinations, greatly stimulate the children.—(*Ohio Educational Monthly*).

LUCY K.

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION,

Experiment on the cultivation of Sorghum and the extraction of Syrup therefrom.

Mr. School-Inspector Magrath, of Aylmer, who has the reputation of being an excellent gardener, has just communicated the results of an interesting experiment made by him. Slightly curtailed, the following is his own account of the facts :

" Last Spring, Colonel Dennis, the Surveyor General, gave me a few seeds of what he called the Minnesota Sugar Cane, but which, in reality, is *Sorghum*, which I planted in six hills in my garden. When full grown the stalks measured 9 feet in height. These I cut into small pieces, and, boiling them into water, procured a pint and a half of *Syrup*, a sample of which I forward with this communication.

Although *Sorghum* is largely grown in the United-States, I am not aware of its being cultivated in Canada, but from my trial of it in a rich loamy soil, I feel certain that we could grow it well.

The inference from my experiment on the subject, is that any person, who will take the trouble to cultivate this product in his garden, can raise it successfully, and can obtain enough of stalks, upon a very small patch of ground, to furnish several gallons of excellent Syrup."

Mr. Magrath deserves thanks for his useful suggestion, which, it is hoped some of our readers will adopt next season when we shall be happy to print further results.

Our new Governor-General

In the appointment of Lord Dufferin's successor, the Earl of Beaconsfield has shown how correctly he can gauge the sympathies of the English people. The feeling of effusive loyalty which he has of late been so assiduous in cultivating in the public mind of Great Britain found a hearty echo on this side the Atlantic when it became known that the Marquis of Lorne and his consort were to take up their abode among us. The appointment has been hailed with satisfaction in all parts of the Dominion, and the new Governor-General will enter upon his term of office with the hearts of the people strongly prepossessed in his favor. In Canada loyalty has by no means degenerated into a mere feeble sentiment of expediency. Throughout the length and breadth of our land the name of Queen Victoria is regarded with an affectionate love and veneration which is felt for no other human being, and this love will go out with fervour towards the fair young daughter who, during her residence among us, will be—and that in no merely conventional sense—the first lady in the land.

Our new Governor is descended from one of the most illustrious families known to Scottish history. Its early records are enveloped in the twilight of fable. During the comparatively modern period of the eleventh century Gillespie Campbell acquired by marriage the Lordship of Lochow, in Argyleshire, and from him descended Sir Colin Campbell of Lochow, who, distinguished as well by the great acquisitions he had made to his estate as by his valorous achievements in war, obtained the surname of "Mohr" or "Great." From him the chief of the house is to this day styled, in Gaelic, *MAC CALLUM MOHR*—a corruption of "the Great Colin." He was knighted by Alexander III., in 1280, and in 1291 was one of the prominent adherents of Robert Bruce in the contest for the Scottish Crown. This chieftain was slain in a contest with his powerful neighbour the Lord of Lorne, at a place called the String of Cowal. The event occasioned continued feuds for a series of years between the houses of Lochow and Lorne, which terminated at last, after the fashion in which such quarrels frequently terminated in those days, by the marriage of the first Earl of Argyll with the heiress of Lorne. The history of the family for several centuries after this event may almost be said to be the history of Scotland. Early to the seventeenth century the head of the house, called the Gillespie Grumach, or Archibald the Grim, became the first and last Marquis of Argyll, and during Cromwell's Protectorate was brought to the scaffold for his espousal of the Royalist cause. His son and heir escaped to the continent, but subsequently returned to Scotland to co-operate with the Duke of Monmouth's ill starred rising in the south. Upon the defeat of that enterprise he was captured and put to death. The estates were confiscated, and the family name seemed doomed to extinction. The Revolution of 1688, however, brought it once more to the front, and its representative was created Duke of Argyll and Marquis of Lorne. The next successor to the title, though a somewhat unstable politician, played a very conspicuous part in the history of his time, and has been immortalized in verse by Pope, and in prose by Sir Walter Scott. The chief representative of the family at the present time is the eighth Duke of Argyll, a statesman who has achieved some reputation as a scientist and a man of letters. The last official position held by him was that of Secretary of State for Lydia, which he held from the time of the formation of Mr. Gladstone's cabinet, in December, 1868, down to the deposition of Liberal Government in February, 1874. While still young he took an active part in the controversy respecting patronage in the Presbyterian Church of Scotland. He arrayed himself on the side of Dr. Chalmers, by which he was esteemed as a potent adherent, and both his voice and his pen were vigorously lifted up in exposition of his views on ecclesiastical matters. In 1844 he married Lady Elizabeth Georgiana Sutherland Leveson-Gower, eldest daughter of the Second Duke of Sutherland, and late Mistress of the Royal Robes. He has a numerous family, the eldest of whom, John George Edward Henry Douglas Sutherland Campbell, by courtesy known as the Marquis of Lorne, has just been appointed Governor-General of Canada.

On the corner of the Green Park and the avenue known as "The Mall," with its west front overlooking the former and its south front facing St. James's Park, stands Stafford House, the town residence of the Duke of Sutherland, the finest private residence in London, and, in its interior appointments, probably the most splendid private mansion in the world. It

is readily accessible to the public, and philanthropists and other persons interested in social reform are occasionally permitted to hold meetings in the magnificent drawingrooms, which are in their way as well worth seeing as anything that London has to show. Many of our readers will recall the novel exhibition of multiform wicker coffins held there three years ago, when the question of human sepulture was the subject of so much discussion. In one of the imperial chambers of this mansion, on the 6th of August, 1845, was born the subject of the present sketch. The only information respecting his childish days which has come under our notice is contained in Her Majesty's "Journal of Our Life in the Highlands," under date of August, 1847, at which time Her Majesty and the late Prince Consort paid a visit to Inverary, the ancestral seat of the Argylls. Speaking of the reception at the Castle, the Royal journalist writes:—"It was in the true Highland fashion. The pipers walked before the carriage, and the Highlanders on either side, as we approached the house. Outside stood the Marquis of Lorne, just two years old, a dear, white, fat, fair little fellow, with reddish hair, but very delicate features, like both his father and mother; he is such a merry, independent little child. He had a black velvet dress and jacket, with a sporrán, scarf, and Highland bonnet." The Royal visitor took the little fellow in her arms and kissed him. About nine months subsequent to this even Her Majesty gave birth to a daughter, who was destined to become the bride of the "white, fat, fair little fellow" eulogized in the foregoing passage.

His early education was received at Eton, whence, later on he passed successively to the University of St. Andrew's and Trinity College, Cambridge. In 1866 he was appointed Captain of the London Scottish Rifle Volunteers, and is Lieutenant-Colonel of the 105th Rifle Volunteers. During the same year he made a tour through the West Indies and the eastern part of the North American continent. The result of his observations during this trip were subsequently published under the title of "A Tour in the Tropics," a work said to display a keenness of observation and a soundness of judgment not often found in the productions of titled or untitled travellers. His tour included brief visits to the principal cities of the Dominion and the work contains short notices of Niagara, Toronto, Kingston, and Ottawa. In 1868 he entered the House of Commons as member for Argyleshire, and has ever since represented that constituency. During part of his father's tenure of office as Secretary of State for India the Marquis acted as his private secretary. On the 21st of March, 1871, occurred what up to the present time as been the most important event of his life—his marriage with Her Royal Highness the Princess Louise. The wedding took place in St. George's Chapel, Windsor, and was solemnized with imposing ceremonies. There is as yet no issue of the marriage. Soon after this event his name was spoken of in connection with the Governor-Generalship of Canada, and it was then for a short time believed that he would succeed Sir John Young; but after some delay it was considered expedient to appoint Lord Dufferin to the office. His life since that time has not been a very active one, and he has devoted himself chiefly to literary and artistic pursuits, for which he has a highly cultivated taste and considerable ability. Several years ago he published "Guido and Lita, a Tale of the Riviera," a poem of much sweetness and beauty, which would have attracted even if it had proceeded from an obscure and unknown hand. Precisely a year ago this present month he put forth another poetical venture, "The Book of Psalms Literally Rendered in Verse." The rendering is smooth and harmonious, and has been highly praised for the taste, industry, and general literary ability displayed in its composition.

Her Royal Highness Princess Louise Caroline Alberta, Duchess of Saxony, was born March 18th, 1848, and at the time of her marriage had just completed her twenty-third year. She is the sixth child and fourth daughter of Her Majesty. Since her marriage brought her prominently before the public she has been regarded with affectionate interest by the people of Great Britain, and her personal qualities, independently of her high rank, are such as to have earned for her the love and respect of her associates. She is very proficient in art and music, and it is said that some of the brightest fashion and art notes in one of the leading fashionable journals are written or inspired by her. Her work on lace is pronounced by competent critics to be of exceptionally high merit, and she has also shown much ability in design. The bridal veil of Honiton lace worn by her at her marriage was designed by her, and her etchings and sculpture repeatedly exhibited at the Royal Academy are

said to show a high degree of excellence. She will doubtless prove an efficient aid to her accomplished husband in dispensing vice-regal hospitalities at Rideau Hall. So far as his duties are concerned, there is good ground for believing that he will prove no unworthy successor to Lord Dufferin. He has more than average ability, and is actuated by a praiseworthy ambition which in this country will not be hampered by the annoyances which of late years have beset him at home.—*Toronto Globe.*

Princess Louise

Princess Louise will be missed in England. She is patroness, not only in name but in act and work, of so many charitable movements in England, and of so many societies whose intention it is to help forward the education of women, that her absence will be a real loss. She was always been so graciously ready to give time and attention when she has been asked to do so, to preside at opening meetings, to give away prizes, to exercise for good the influence that her position gives her, that her absence will be felt; and when the time comes for her to return to England, she will be gladly welcomed back again. But, in the mean time, much work lies before her, for the doing of which the education which life has been given her has been helping to prepare her. She will carry with her to Canada many earnest and sincere wishes for her personal well being, and much hope that she may show among our own people there, as well as her sisters have done on the continent, the good results of that excellent training which our beloved and respected queen has so carefully bestowed upon her daughters. The influence of women, always great, is never so much so as when exercised by women in high rank, and when that rank is the highest, the good which they do bears fruit in every lower grade of people.—*London Queen.*

Laval University

HONOURS TO LORD DUFFERIN.

A large and brilliant assemblage of clergyman, ladies and gentleman, including the Lieutenant-Governor and many of our leading citizens gathered in the large hall of the Laval University this afternoon to witness the conferring of the degrees of Doctor of Laws and Letters on our departing Governor-General, the Earl of Dufferin. As His Excellency entered the audience rose and the band played the National Anthem. The Rector, the Very Reverend Dr. Hamel, in an eloquent and lengthy address then requested His Excellency to do the University the honour of accepting the above degrees.

In accepting the proffered compliment from the chief seat of learning in the Province of Quebec, the Governor General in his reply spoke as follows:—

Rector, Your Grace, Ladies and Gentleman,

In the eloquent and graceful address to which I have just listened, the Rector has condescended to imply that in entering your learned confraternity the representative of the Queen confers more honour than he receives, but both in my own name, and in the name of Our Gracious Sovereign, I must demur to any such suggestion. It is true the actual birth of this University is of recent date, but the antecedents which ushered in, the conditions which surrounded that auspicious event, were of a nature to stamp the University of Laval with a prestige and dignity such as are possessed by few seminaries of learning upon this continent, and when I look around upon this august assembly—when I remember what influences are at work to stimulate your exertions—how promising is the intellectual field it is your mission to cultivate, how rich you are in working power, I rejoice in being entitled to acknowledge that there is no name, however illustrious, which would not acquire fresh dignity by

its enrolment upon your books. (Applause.) Such being my sincere conviction it is scarcely necessary I should assure you that I am deeply grateful for the honour you have done me, and I shall always cherish with grateful satisfaction the remembrance of this day's ceremonial. (Cheers.) But great as is my personal gratification, I cannot help confessing that to me, as to you all, the pleasure of the occasion is more than marred by the sad reflection that the illustrious Prelate, hand in hand with whom I had hoped to have entered your gates has been prematurely and unexpectedly taken from amongst us. It would be out of place for me to expatiate upon the many qualities of the late Apostolic Delegate. My relations with him were, of course, only those of personal friendship, but apart from my appreciation of his delightful qualities as a companion, I am entitled both as a fellow countryman and as the head of this Government, to bear testimony to his claims upon our reverence and admiration as a Christian Bishop, and a Dignitary of the Catholic Church. And now, Rector, your Grace, ladies and gentleman it only remains for me again to express to you my deep and constant sympathy with you in the labours in which you are engaged. When one reflects upon what human learning and scientific research have achieved for the benefit of mankind, for the advancement of civilization, for the mitigation of suffering, one has difficulty in finding sufficiently sober language in which to convey one's anticipations of the good such an institution as this can effectuate. (Cheers.) A university founded in the midst of an intelligent community, is like an instrument of irresistible power, and all-embracing energy in the hands of a giant. There is nothing scarcely which it cannot accomplish. In its natal hour it becomes seized—it enters at once into possession—of everything that the intellect of past generations has created or acquired,—its jurisdiction immediately attaches to the whole domain of human thought; and—spread abroad through the vast unknown—stretch endless territories of unattained knowledge over which it is as well entitled to stretch forth its sceptre as is any rival institution. (Great applause.) Alexander sighed for fresh worlds to conquer, but to the philosopher no such cause of sorrow need arrive, for the confines of Space and Time can alone arrest his potential achievements. Let but the lamp of genius be lit within your precincts, and it will disclose to you undreamt of realms and kingdoms lying about your feet. (Applause.) Such are the possibilities within your reach, and remember, in working out our own auspicious destiny, you are expending the moral power, the mental activity, the intellectual grasp of the community amongst whom you labour. At this moment the French Canadian race to which you belong is engaged in a generous struggle with their English fellow subjects to see which shall contribute most to the advancement of the moral, material, and political welfare of their country. (Applause.) There is not a student, a man of business or of a science, a politician or an author or either origin, who does not feel the inspiration of this noble rivalry. (Cheers.) Upon the success of your exertions, upon the efficacy of your discipline and training, upon the character of the mental and moral atmosphere you create within your walls, will in great measure depend the issues of the conflict. (Applause.) In that conflict I can heartily wish you success without compromising my impartiality, for it is a struggle wherein the defeated reap laurels as untarnished—benefits as universal—as those which crown the winners, since it is round the brows of Canada the wreath of Victory will be twined, and into the lap of Canada the prizes of the contest poured. Loud applause.—(From the Quebec Mercury, Sept 11.)

OFFICIAL NOTICES.

Department of Public Instruction.

APPOINTMENTS.

SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.

His Excellency the Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased by order in Council, dated the 2nd of October instant (1878), and in virtue of the powers conferred on him, to make the following appointments of school commissionerst :

Gaspé, Glanville-Arbour.—Messrs. Louis Bernier, François Rioux, Octave Pelletier, Narcisse Rioux and Jean Drapeau.
 Gaspé, Rivière-à-Martre.—Messrs. Napoléon Gaze, Joseph Gaze, William Melony, Jean Gauthier and Noël Lefrançois.
 Gaspé, Anse-à-Valeau.—Messrs. Louis Cloutier and Eugène Francœur, *vice* Messrs. George Gauthier and Zéphirin Bond.
 Huntingdon, Saint Anicet, No. 2.—Mr. Edward C. Walsh, *vice* Mr. Edward Moore.
 Montmagny, Saint-François, Rivière du Sud.—M. Prudent Dumas, son of Jean Baptiste. *vice* Mr. Mathias Blais.
 Montmorency, Les Crans.—Mr. Cléomène Guérin dit Saint Hilaire, *vice* Paul Paré, deceased, and Messrs. Olivier Gravel and Onésime Giguère, continued in office.

By order in Council, dated the 30th September last, 1878.
 Argenteuil, Mille Isle, No. 3.—Mr. Philip Good.
 Argenteuil, Greenville, No. 2.—Mr. Donald McDonald, *vice* Mr. John Wade.
 Arthabaska, Tingwick.—Messrs. Victor Roux and John Sheridan, *vice* Messrs. Moses Roux and Philip Murphy.
 Arthabaska, Warwick.—Messrs. Joseph Bergeron and Alfred Blais, *vice* Messrs. Noe Pothier and Alfred Blais.
 Compton, Ascot.—Mr. William Hunting, *vice* Mr. James Colton.
 Pontiac, Allumettes Island.—Messrs. Donald McGillis, Daniel Conghlin, Thomas Duffy, Fletcher Warren and Nicolas Kennedy. The last elections having been irregular.
 Lotbinière, Saint Sylvestre South.—Messrs. William Wilson and Antoine Lemieux continued in office.
 Ottawa, Wright and Northfield.—Louis Duhamel, esq., P. P., and John O'Connor, esq., *vice* Octave Labelle and Joseph Marois.
 Huntingdon, Franklin Centre.—Mr. Benjamin Rowe, *vice* William Edwards.

SCHOOL TRUSTEES.

Compton, Marston (Piopolis).—Mr. Edouard Grenier, whose term of office expired in July last, and who has not been replaced by any election.
 Compton, Winslow South.—Mr. Joseph Cormier, *vice* Mr. Prosper Legendre.
 Quebec, Saint Roch North.—Mr. John Brown, *vice* Mr. James Dinning, and Mr. Thomas May, *vice* Mr. Richard McNamara, who should have gone out of office last year, there not having been any election.

BOARDS OF EXAMINERS.

By order in council, dated the 2nd October instant.
 Messrs. William Wakeham and James M. Remon, members of the Boards of Examiners for the county of Gaspé, *vice* Mr. Philip Vibert, resigned, and the Revd. Richard Mathews, who has left the limits of the county.
 Dr. J. A. Pidgeon, member of the Board appointed to examine candidates for primary school certificates in the district of Gaspé, *vice* Dr. Cormick.
 The Revd. George Vaillancourt, to the catholic board of Richmond *vice* the Revd. M. O. C. Hamelin.

ERECTION, BOUNDS, &c., OF SCHOOL MUNICIPALITIES.

By order in council, dated the 30th September instant 1878.
 1. To erect into a distinct school municipality under the name of Roche Plate, parish of Saind Edmond de Stoneham and of Charlebourg, in the county of Quebec, all the territory bounded as follows, to wit : on the east by Jean Bedard's property, on the south by Louis Légaré's, on the west by Joseph Gabriel Rhéaume's, on the north by Boyan Connors.
 2. To erect into a distinct school municipality, under the name of Notre Dame de Lourdes, a part of the townships of Somerset and Stanfold, and of the seigniory of Saint Jean des Chaillons, comprising an extent of territory of about six miles in front by about seven miles in depth ; bounded as follows, namely : on the north west by a straight line crossing the said seigniory at a distance of two miles north west of the line separating the said seigniory from the gore of the said township of Somerset, and parallel with the said line, from the township of Stanfold to the seigniory of Lotbinière ; to the north east partly by the said seigniory of Lotbinière and partly by the line separating the 12th and 13th lots, in the first three ranges of the said township of Somerset, to the south east by the line separating the third and fourth ranges of the said townships of Somerset and Stanfold ; to the south west partly by the line separating the 12th lot from the 13th, in the said township of Stanfold, and partly by the line separating the said seigniory of Saint Jean des Chaillons, from the said township of Stanfold.

3. To erect into a distinct school municipality, under the name of Saint Laurent de Matapediac, in the county of Bonaventure, all the territory bounded on the north by the limits of the township of Ristigouche, on the east by river Ristigouche from Hugh Fraser's mill, on the west by the boundary of the township of Ristigouche, on the south by the river Metapediac, including therein lots Nos 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10, on the range on the river Metapediac.

4. To annex to the municipality of Saint Georges d'Aubert Gallion, in the county of Beauce, all bounded as follows, to wit: on the north by the seigniory of Aubert Gallion, on the south east by the line separating lot No. 15 from lot No. 16 for the 1st range, and in rear by the line separating No. 24 from lot No. 25, for the second range.

5. To annex to the municipality of Jersey, in the county of Beauce, all the remainder of the lots of the first and second ranges which are not annexed to Saint George d'Aubert Gallion, and all the third range of the said township of Shenley.

6. To annex to the school municipality of Saint Joseph de Lévis, in the county of Lévis, that part of the territory of the village of Lauzon, in the same county; bounded as follows, to wit: on the north and west by the limits of the municipality of the said village of Lauzon, on the south by the second range of the parish of Saint Joseph de Lévis, and on the east by the limits of the school municipality of the said parish of Saint Joseph de Lévis.

7. To detach from the school municipality of the village of l'Assomption, and annex to that of the parish of l'Assomption, all that extent of territory which is found between the property of Joseph Forest exclusively, adjoining that of Urgel Cormier, running as far as and including the property of Joseph Debussat dit St. Germain, adjoining that of Louis Adolphe Chalifoux.

8. To detach from the township of Nelson, in the county of Megantic, all the parish of Sainte Anastasie, such as civilly erected by proclamation of the 25th September, 1877.

9. To detach from the school municipality of Shipton, in the county of Richmond, and annex to the school municipality of Tingwick, in the county d'Arthabaska, part of lots Nos. 9 and 10, in the first range, and lot No. 10, in the second range, on the north side of the river Nicolet, and the north east half of lot No. 11, in the first range of Shipton.

10. To join and annex to the school municipality of Mill-Hill, No. 3, the lands and properties of George Richardson, Henry McAlone, Jean Baptiste Bedard and Thomas Jack, situate to and adjoining the south limit of the said municipality.

11. To detach lots Nos. 19 to 27 inclusively, of the 10th range, and lots Nos. 19 to 27 inclusively, of the 11th range of Greenville, from the school municipality of Greenville No. 1, county of Argenteuil, and to annex them to the school municipality of Harrington No. 1, in the said county.

POETRY.

Make Childhood Sweet.

Wait not till the little hands are at rest
Ere you fill them full of flowers;
Wait not for the crowning tuberose
To make sweet the last sad hours;
But while, in the busy household band,
Your darlings still need your guiding hand,
Oh, fill their lives with sweetness.

Wait not till the little hearts are still,
For the loving look and phrase;
But when you gently chide a fault,
The good deed kindly praise.
The word you would speak beside the bier
Falls sweeter for on the living ear;
Oh, fill young lives with a sweetness!

Ah! what are kisses on clay cold lips
To the rosy mouth we press,
When our wee one flies to her mother's arms
For love's tenderest caress!
Let never a wordly bauble keep
Your heart from the joy each day should reap,
Circling your lives with sweetness.

Give thanks each morn for the sturdy boys,
Give thanks for the fairy girls;
With a dower of wealth like this at home,
Would you rifle the earth for pearls?
Wait not for death to gem love's crown,
But daily shower life's blessings down,
And fill young hearts with sweetness.

Remember the homes where the light has fled,
Where the rose has faded away;
And the love that glows in youthful hearts,
Oh, cherish it while you may!
And make your home a garden of flowers,
Where joy shall bloom through childhood's hours,
And fill young lives with sweetness.

LOUISE S. UPHAM.

Provincial Association of Protestant Teachers of the Province of Quebec.

FIFTEENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION.

BEDFORD, E. T., October 24th, 1878.

The above convention held its first meeting in the Bedford Academy this morning at ten o'clock, Mr. Hobart Butler, M. A., President of the Bedford Association, being elected to the chair.

The meeting was attended by a large number of Montreal teachers and residents of Bedford. Amongst those present were Professor McGregor, Mr. Scott, Misses Carmichael and Clarke, and Mr. Frank W. Hicks, Secretary to the Association.

Mr. Hobart Butler, M. A., after a few prefatory remarks, called upon the Rev. E. I. Rexford, B. A., to open the proceedings with prayer. This having been done, the Chairman stated that it was usual to move that the minutes and the report of the last annual meeting be adopted without their being previously read, as this would take up too much time. The report was printed, and was in the hands of all those present.

Moved by Inspector McLoughlin, seconded by Mr. D. Weir, that the reading of the report be dispensed with Carried.

Inspector McLoughlin then read a paper on "Additions to Subjects taught in Common Schools," the Secretary having previously read letters from Dr. Miles, Secretary of the Department of Public Instruction, Principal Dawson, of McGill College, and Principal Lobley, of Lennoxville, excusing themselves from attending the Convention, owing to their duties not permitting them to absent themselves at the present time.

Inspector McLoughlin opened his discourse with remarking that nearly every meeting of the Association, claims of some study to a place in the schools of the Province were advanced. Educational journals were also pressing these claims upon the public. Men who had conceived a liking for some particular art or branch of knowledge were firm in the belief that this special branch was of permanent importance and should be introduced into all the schools. This necessitated watchfulness on the part of the teachers in order that important studies might not be made to give place to subjects of the lesser importance. The excellence of a school did not depend so much upon the extent of its curriculum as in the character of its teaching. The curriculum of Common Schools could not be expected to be of so high a grade as High and Model Schools. In considering the branches to be taught in the Common Schools, two things had to be regarded chiefly. First, the studies that were of primary importance. Secondly, the number of studies that one teacher could attend to.

All would admit that the three R's were essential subjects of study. In these days of general reading and travel, some knowledge of geography and grammar was useful. Within a few years, several other branches had been added, viz. Sacred History, History of England and Canada Elements of Agriculture, Book-keeping and Linear Drawing. This the lecturer considered an extensive course of study for an elementary course. Taking these subjects as obligatory, one had to consider how the teacher was to divide his time. There should be time enough allowed to study each subject in a comfortable manner. The speaker enlarged upon this point. In the common schools the day consisted of six hours, and it was necessary to apportion these hours so as to give most time to the most important subjects. Reading demanded the largest share of attention. He advocated two hours a day being devoted to spelling and reading. Writing was next in importance; half an hour a day ought to be given to it. An hour and a half should be set aside for arithmetic and mental arithmetic. With regard to geography and grammar, there ought to be two classes in each school, and the subjects would occupy an hour and a half. Half an hour should be devoted to book-keeping, history drawing and agriculture, on alternate days. This exhausted the six hours of school time. If more subjects were introduced, one of two things must happen: either they would have to work faster than they did now and accomplish more in a given time, or they must give less attention to some of the subjects of the course. As to the latter alternative, few would maintain that these subjects were receiving more attention than their importance demanded. There remained, therefore, the simple question: Could they do more than were now doing in the same time? He thought upon the whole that the time allotted to each study could not be much abridged, and was against hurrying the pupils. The teacher who worked rapidly could hardly be choice in his use of language or clear in his illustrations. In conclusion, the lecturer advocated some certain knowledge in a few subjects better than a superficial acquaintance of many. It, therefore, behoved the friends of education to exercise a judicious watchfulness in regard to the admission of fresh subjects of study in the already well filled course of the common school.

Professor McGregor having invited some remarks on the foregoing paper, a conversation ensued.

Rev. E. I. Rexford, B. A., asked whether a child would not be better off, instead of learning geography for twenty minutes a day, it were taught history? History was of far greater importance. He thought geography received undue attention, and was wrongly taught. The pupil had to commit to memory a large text book, and after six years' study of geography, knew nothing about it. The time employed in teaching geography was wasted. Were they to have more history, children would become more intelligent and be better educated. He was of opinion that children should be brought on faster and that no subjects should be eliminated from the present course of studies. He went on to remark that children in the city, nine years of age, were advanced as children of twelve in the country. He expected better results in the country, as the teacher had better material to work upon. As a matter of fact, country children were far behind town children, who, in social position and intellectual qualifications, were their inferiors. In conclusion, he stated that it was contrary to experience that all the subjects of the course should be brought in every day. He advocated the teaching of geography and grammar three days in the week only.

Mr. Weir was of opinion that too much geography was being taught. He did not see the use of learning the geography of outlandish places, especially the geography of India, as no one could pronounce the names. (Laughter.)

Professor McGregor observed that they were dealing with common schools as they now existed, not as they were going to be in the millennium which was to be brought about by Sir John A. Macdonald. (Laughter.) On the authority of Mr. Butler, he referred to the bad state of the roads in the District of Bedford, the mud being from 9 to 15 inches deep; this prevented many a child from attending school at an early age.

Mr. F. W. Hicks pointed out that the scholastic year was but of eight months in the country, whereas it was of ten in the city; also, that in the country a teacher changed every three months almost, whereas in town the pupil had the same teacher for two years.

Rev. E. I. Rexford wished to remark that with regard to writing, a child should have a pen put into its hands at once and be taught to trace. The child would thus become familiarized with the use of the pen; two months later would be quite time enough to teach it writing.

Dr. Kelly objected to children being taught the names of the capes of Asia or the heights of mountains. He did not believe in landing a child in Africa or teaching it the geography of France, which it could not remember. It was waste of time.

At this stage of the proceedings, Dr. Miles arrived with a large number of teachers from Quebec and vicinity. Altogether about one hundred were assembled in the Academy.

Rev. E. I. Rexford then proceeded to read a paper called, "A few thoughts on our District Schools," in which he purported to bring clearly before those of influence who were present, some of the great unnecessary evils that existed in the common school system. Were a Rip Van Winkle to awake to-day, he would find the common schools pretty much in the same state as fifteen years ago. Farmers spent time and money in the improvement of agricultural implements and the promotion of railway interests, but they had yet to learn that a thorough and efficient system of common schools would promote the material prosperity of the country. Children ought to be thoroughly grounded in the elements of an English education. Much might be said in this connection about the careless manner in which teachers are engaged, and about the little trouble that was taken to ascertain the qualifications of a teacher. The first evil he animadverted against was the great variety of text-books in use in our district schools. This was a difficulty which met a teacher on the first day of her school work, and this difficulty arose from the fact that the parents were allowed to choose text-books. Another difficulty the school teacher had to contend with was the variety of attainments that exist among her pupils; in a school of twenty five she had primary, intermediate and senior classes; thus, in every subject she taught, she was obliged to divide her twenty-five pupils into four or five classes, thus making the teaching individual, and destroying the emulation which springs up when children are taught collectively in one class. It happened often that a child came to school, bearing in his hand a text-book which was entirely unsuited to his years and attainments, and yet the teacher is expected to to keep up the interest of her children and to bring them on under all these difficulties. It would be easy to remedy this by securing a uniform series of text-books, if only the proper machinery were set in order to direct the parents' choice. It

was impossible to look to the parents for reform in this matter. Could we look to teachers to decide the question? If they taught in one place for any length of time they might exert a powerful influence over the parents, but they changed the scene of their labors too frequently. The inspectors were those to take the lead in this reform, and within a couple of years they could secure a uniform series of text-books for our schools. The lecturer objected strongly to the frequent changes of teachers. In view of the small inducements that were held out to teachers, one must expect few young people to adopt this as their life's work. The present custom of changing the teachers every term was simply outrageous; it was detrimental to the pupils to place them every three or four months under different teachers. He advocated written examinations at the end of each term in order to show the state of proficiency of each pupil. He recommended that the Board of School Commissioners should pass a resolution not to engage a teacher for less than a year, and use their influence to keep the same teacher for as long a period as possible in the same school. He should also every term increase the salary of teachers remaining in the same school, by way of encouragement. He referred to the fact that some teachers were ill-paid; he knew of as small a salary as \$6 per month being paid. In conclusion he advocated a more satisfactory system of inspection, for he felt bound to say that after looking over the past ten years of the history of our District Schools, he could see no practical results of the present system of inspection.

The Chairman, on the conclusion of the reading of this paper, said that it was, in the main, radically wrong. Teachers were getting \$15 per month; the lowest salary paid being \$8, with board and lodging.

Inspector McLoughlin stated he could and would reply to the paper, which could not apply to the District of Bedford.

Rev. E. I. Rexford said his remarks about inspection applied to a system, and not to a person. What he had stated was particularly applicable to Bedford. He would abide by his statements, which he could prove.

The meeting adjourned at 12.30 p. m. to 2.30 p. m.

AFTERNOON SITTING.

A number of people were present in the afternoon, amongst whom were Messrs. W. W. Lynch, M. P. P., F. Cloyes, John L. Walton, Principal of St. Johns High School; Revd. Grenfell, of Bedford; Rev. Samuel Jackson, of Stanbridge; Rev. Mr. Watson, ex-President of Provincial Association, and many others. The Academy was crowded, great interest being manifested in the proceedings.

The minutes of the morning's doings were read and adopted.

Mr. Geo. Murray then read a paper "The Advantages of a Classical Education," the greater part of which has lately appeared under that heading in the columns of the *Star*. He supplemented the lecture with a few general remarks.

Dr. Kelly then read a paper on the "Advantages derived from the Study of German," by Mr. H. A. C. Fuchs, who was absent, owing to ill-health. The writer advocated the advantages of a living language over dead languages like Latin and Greek. The German language had its syntax, its entire construction, its very beauty identical with the Greek, while at the same time it was now spoken by millions of people, and was therefore of practical use, and was of immense benefit to the student in practical life. In conclusion the writer hoped that German would supersede Greek

in our schools and thus in union with Latin, lead on the future generation to wisdom, knowledge, practical usefulness and success. He was followed by Mr. J. T. Donald, who in a "Plea for Natural Science in Schools," advocated the inculcating into children the knowledge of Nature's laws as they are exemplified in the events of every-day-life, and that they relate to his own health and life, and the reason for the occurrence of every day's natural phenomena.

Dr. Howe made a few remarks, approving the teaching of Latin and Greek.

Professor McGregor alluded in a humorous speech to the variety of subjects which it was proposed should be taught in schools. Etiquette should be taught, especially Court etiquette now that the Princess Louise was coming; mining, so that scholars might become great men like Mr. Huntington; meteorology, in order that the country might produce some more Vennors; drilling, especially in the District of Bedford as they lived in the neighbourhood of Fenians; cooking in the best way for a girl to get a man's heart was *via* his stomach. The Professor enumerated some forty-five accomplishments to be acquired, giving humorous reasons for their being acquired and sat down amidst great laughter.

Rev. Samuel Jackson wished to take a practical view of the question of modifying the course of studies and was in favour of introducing new subjects without destroying old land-marks. No one objected to classics being taught, but many objected to too much time being taken up with the study of them, to the exclusion of modern and practical subjects.

After a few remarks by other speakers, the meeting adjourned until this evening at 7.30 p. m.

The programme for the evening is as follows:—

1. Anthem
2. President's Address
3. Dr. Miles's Address
4. Reading, "Lady Clare" Mr. Canfield
5. Address by W. W. Lynch, Esq., M. P. P.
6. Reading Miss McGarry
7. Glee "Good Night."

NIGHT SITTING.

The members of the School Convention and their friends, besides a large number of residents, met tonight in the Methodist Church at 5 p. m. Over 300 were present. Dr. Baker Edwards, Prof. P. J. Darey, and Mr. E. R. Smith, of the *St. Johns News*, arrived during the course of the evening.

The chairman of the Convention having taken his seat, the proceedings commenced with the singing of the Anthem "The Lord in my Shepherd" after which Mr. Hobert Butler, M. A., read a paper wherein he referred to the morning's proceedings and proposed to review the school system of the Province. The question was their school system improving or not? To enquire into this was the motive for which they had assembled. Rather exaggerated statements had been made at the morning sitting and a few isolated cases had been dwelt with as being the general rule. These points would be discussed to-morrow. The speaker referred with pleasure to the fact that there was no class education now-a-days; rich and poor, children of various nationalities sat side by side; in fact, "what were we but a democracy?" In fact, the world was becoming democratic; the Royal Family was coming down to a more elevated plane; the children of royalty were being educated with the soldier and the sailor. Education was making all men noble; hence it was

unnecessary to import titles into this country. Referring to the Common Schools, they were the nurseries of thought and their teachers had of late made great progress. He advocated more training schools for teachers; at the Philadelphia Exhibition, the exhibits of the schools were a failure, but great strides had been made at the Paris Exhibition, where prizes had been taken. He complained of the inadequate support given to the High Schools, the funds voted for them having been misappropriated. He regretted that so many were opposed to the study of classics; in doing so they only displayed their ignorance. In former days teachers studied classics and were superior to those who neglected this study. He was opposed to the cultivation of so-called accomplishments, which took up too much time and could only be looked upon as temporary amusements. In conclusion he urged teachers to perseverance and patience, which would bring with them their own reward.

The Chairman then introduced.

Dr Miles, of Quebec, who was received with applause and who stated that he felt great gratification at meeting once more the teachers of the Province of Quebec. He was much struck by the number and excellency of papers presented to-day. Generally speaking, one or two papers stood out in strong relief; in this instance, the Convention owed a debt of gratitude to the gentleman who had lectured on the advantages of classical education as well as to Mr. Fuchs for his clever paper on the advantages of studying the German language. Mr. Donald's paper on Natural Schools had also some merit in it and the arguments were very clearly put. In the morning they would discuss a paper that had been read on the present school system and he anticipated that unanimity would, when the discussion came on, not be the order of the day. He complimented the meeting upon having so old and experienced a chairman as Mr. Butler, who had devoted more than a quarter of a century to the advancement of education. Dr. Miles went on to say that the Superintendent of Public Instruction had commissioned him to state that he regretted that he was unable to be present at the Convention. Dr. Dale and Mr. Hossack, of Quebec, had also entrusted him with the same message. He would now say a few words on the subject of

“BOARDING ROUND.”

(Laughter and much clapping of hands.) He considered it an evil and an injustice to teachers; it was hurtful to themselves and to the cause of education. He was not in favor of modifying this system by degrees, but wished to see it swept away. (Hear, hear.) The teacher under that system got paid, not in money, but in kind. (A voice—“Such a kind, too.”) For many rate payers it was an easy way of settling their school taxes. He did not know of any school teacher who approved of the system. They were perpetually being shifted from residence to residence. It was argued that a lady teacher moving from house to house did a great deal of good to its inmates, refining uncultivated girls who thus had a model to imitate. This might be good for the uncultivated girls, but not always very pleasant for the teachers. (Laughter and applause.) He could state that the system had prevailed in such old and rich-established places as Stanstead, Brome and Missisquoi. It ought not to be allowed to exist; he had seen the evil of it as much as many men in the country. He was sorry to say that many of the Boards were oppressive, and teachers making complaints to them, often rendered their position harder. He hoped the meeting would, as

a convention, express a decided opinion on the subject before they parted. He wished the teacher to be paid all in money. Dr. Miles sat down amidst hearty applause.

The Chairman then introduced Professor Dary, representing McGill College, who stated that McGill College had instituted the degree of Associate of Arts, in order to assist the Government in ascertaining the progress made by teachers in the Province. To obtain this diploma or certificate, it was necessary to go up to Montreal. Candidates could send their papers up to town, and pursue their studies in the localities in which they resided. He hoped, to see centres of examination established over the country, in order to advance the higher education of women. In the States, they had far greater opportunities of attending lectures and getting a good education than here in Canada, but McGill College was doing a great deal for their benefit. (Applause.)

Mr. Canfield next read Tennyson's “Lady Clara Vere de Vere,” in a very effective manner.

W. W. Lynch, Esq., M. P. P., having been called upon to speak, thought that as it was getting to be rather late he would postpone any remarks he might have to make, but on the audience calling again upon him, he made the following remarks:—He had come not so much to give his views on the subject of education as to listen to the expression of opinion of the members of the convention. Referring to the chairman's paper, he would say that in this country people must begin to act themselves; they were in a position to assume more than they had done hitherto; they must not as of old depend exclusively upon the Government, but must put their hands into their pockets and do something for themselves. The County of Missisquoi had hitherto been most favorably treated by the Government, and had perhaps received at its hands more money for superior educational purposes than any other county in the Province of Quebec. It was time the county should do something for itself, and thus enable Government to assist other counties that had not been equally favored. He then quoted the following figures, showing that the County of Missisquoi was receiving as much as four counties, each of which was a province in itself. In 1878 the following amounts had been paid:—Missisquoi, \$850; Brome, \$525; Shefford, \$550; Stanstead, \$1,200; Huntingdon, \$700; Compton, \$725; Argenteuil, \$550; St. Johns, \$500; Richmond, \$1,100; Megantic, \$350; Pontiac, \$150; Ottawa, \$116; Gaspé and Bonaventure, 0. He wished to see the common schools established on such a basis that every child could receive a good elementary education, and if it showed any superior abilities, receive a higher education. To do that, the people should tax themselves as willingly as they have taxed themselves and their children to build railways for the Province. Referring to Dr. Miles's speech, Mr. Lynch stated that at the last meeting of the Quebec Legislature, he had spoken in favor of a statute being passed abolishing “boarding round.” In his own township of Brome, he regretted to say a resolution had been passed by which the Board resolved that they would hire no teacher unless he or she would board out. He had done what he could to have this resolution rescinded and would continue to do so. He hoped the day would come when teachers would receive not a miserable pittance, but their due. He recommended that the teachers at the Convention should address a memorandum to the authorities at Quebec, stating they would not teach another hour unless the “boarding round” system was swept away. (Loud applause.) They must tell the Government what they wanted and what they

must have, and the authorities would not dare refuse. (Enthusiastic applause.)

Dr. Kelly excused himself from giving a recitation, owing to the lateness of the hour.

Miss McGarry, teaching of reading in Ann street School, then read "The Lady of Wentworth." This lady was listened to with great attention, and was loudly applauded and congratulated at the termination of her reading; the modulations of a flexible and melodious voice and her appropriate gestures were perfect. The lady reaped the applause of the evening, and in response to an *encore*, favored the audience with a second reading. A glee was then sung, and the meeting concluded with prayer by the Rev. Mr. Grenfell.

Bedford, October 25.

At the meeting this morning, the President read letters of apology for non-attendance from Mr. Heneker, late President of Association, and Hon. C. Dunkin.

Dr. Miles announced that in the future the Department of Public Instruction would grant some aid to the Association for defraying printing and advertising expenses; the \$50 promised last year would be granted as soon as possible.

Mr. Lynch, M. P. P., hoped to be able to secure a small annual grant towards the funds of the Association.

The President made a few remarks about the Rev. Mr. Rexford's paper.

Rev. E. I. Rexford replied, stating that he had not seen much improvement in the school system for the past ten years. He had worked quietly to bring about reform, but that the Boards and the parents had done very little towards it. He referred to the evils which bore on the efficiency of the school system, such as "boarding round," and the fact that teachers, after waiting a long time, received "store pay" only. He proved that some were receiving \$6 per month only. Fourteen teachers of the district signed a *testamur*, endorsing what he had said. At the conclusion of his address, he paid a high tribute to the teachers trained in the Normal School.

Mr. Rexford was greatly applauded, and his speech is considered the speech of the session. A vote of thanks was passed to him, as also to Mr. Lynch, M. P. P., who left for Knowlton. During the afternoon sitting, the Rev. Mr. Buckham, Principal of Vermont University, arrived.

Next year the Convention will be held at Quebec.

Dr. Miles was elected President; Professor McGregor Treasurer, and Frank W. Hicks Secretary to the Association.

Papers were read on "The Teaching of the French," by Dr. Howe; by Mr. Parsons, "How to teach Grammar, and on "Unitary Arithmetic," by Professor McGregor.

At the night sitting of the Convention papers were read on "Copper mining in the Province of Quebec," by Mr. C. B. Koyl, and on "Domestic Economy in Schools," by Mrs. L. H. Scott. An address was delivered by Rev. Mr. Buckham, Principal of Vermont University.

CLOSING DAY.

BEDFORD, Que., October 25, 1878.

The School Convention reassembled this morning at 10 o'clock in the Academy. The proceedings opened with prayer by the Rev. E. I. Rexford.

The minutes of yesterday's proceedings were read and approved of with some slight amendments.

The Secretary read letters from Mr. Heneker, a former

President of the Association, and the Hon. C. Dunkin, both of whom expressed their regrets at not being able to be present at the Convention.

The President announced that subscription lists would be handed round during the ensuing meeting to defray expenses of printing, advertising, &c.

Dr. Howe called attention to the fact that formerly aid was received from the department at Quebec, and wanted to know whether it could not still be obtained.

Dr. Miles replied that the matter had been considered by the Department of Public Instruction and that some aid would certainly be granted in the future. He added that the \$50 promised last year would be granted as soon as possible.

Mr. W. W. LYNCH, M. P. P., on the part of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction said he thought the Association entitled to aid from the Council. The means at the disposal of the Council were slender, but he hoped to be able to secure a small annual grant towards the funds of the Association.

The first order of the day was the discussing of the papers read yesterday.

Inspector McLoughlin, replying to the paper read by the Rev. E. I. Rexford, stated that he had in a great measure tried to bring about the reforms suggested by the lecturer. Of late, he had made great efforts to introduce a uniform series of text books throughout the district, and he hoped that in a couple of years they would be exclusively used. He also was in favor of written examinations; this was a matter for School Commissioners to decide. It would only be practicable for the larger classes; smaller classes would always have to be examined orally.

The President next spoke and remarked he had devoted 26 years to education in the three counties comprising the Educational District of Bedford. He had travelled all through it, and could, therefore, answer some of the Rev. Mr. Rexford's statements. In the district he had not seen any tumble-down school-houses; the majority were well built. With regard to the salaries of school-teachers, he knew that in St. Armand's West the teachers had received \$20 until the hard times had come, when their salary had been reduced to \$15. He was informed that school-teachers could board for \$1 for five school days (laughter); thus leaving them \$11 per month of twenty-four days. He had not seen any case like that mentioned by the Reverend gentleman, where as low a salary as \$6 per month was paid. He protested against an idea which was prevalent that in the Townships they were not fit to teach Latin, Greek, geometry, or even trigonometry, and quoted several instances of pupils who had receive in the townships a classical education, which had enabled them subsequently to take University honours.

Dr. Kelly would ask the President how many pupils he was teaching Greek to this year?

The President replied he had two studying Greek, seven Latin and five geometry.

Dr. Kelly also elicited the fact that for the last three years, no pupils from the District had matriculated either at McGill or any other University. He knew that there were those who could teach Greek in the Townships, but our young men did not care for it. The teaching of Greek was fast dying out in the schools of Ontario and Nova Scotia.

Rev. E. I. Rexford observed that the discussion was drifting away from the point. It had been decided that the discussion of his paper should be taken up this morning, and he claimed the floor. He would say a few words about the paper he had read, and substan-

liate the statements therein contained. Since he had read it, but one thought had occupied his mind, and that was that it was a serious thing for a young man like himself to read a paper such as he had read, for some might, perhaps, think that he was usurping the privileges of three men present who were older than himself. A feeling of fear had taken hold of him that he had seemed to take too much upon himself, and that he ought to have left the task to older heads and in older-hands. His plea was that he had left it in their hands for the past ten years, and he had not seen much change in that period. During that time he had worked in a quiet way for the advancement of education; he had often been tempted to discuss the matter in the public press, yet he had refrained from doing so. He had never written to the press, and thought it required a great deal of boldness to do so. He had been urged by the committee to prepare a paper for this Convention, and had hurriedly done so, and he therefore felt grateful to Dr. Miles for his remarks that it was well put together. He would, at the outset, state that he entertained no doubts as to the accuracy of the information he had received and upon which he had based his statements. It was asked whence he had got his information, and some seemed to conclude that he had no grounds for what he had advanced. He was himself a township boy, and was familiar with the working of the school system in the Townships. For the last five years he had been teaching in the city, but he had remained in constant communication with teachers in the Townships. He had spoken with boards and parents and so far, he had seen that it was not likely that they would do anything to bring about any change in the system. In his paper he had pointed out some evils which bore on the efficiency of schools. "Boarding round," a subject to which Dr. Miles had so effectually referred to last night, was another one; so was the extraordinary manner in which teachers received their diplomas and their pay. However there was no time to discuss these subjects which would furnish materials for two or three lengthy papers. He assured his hearers that he had made no *ex parte* statements but had merely mentioned facts which he would now prove. He had said to the Chairman that certain teachers were the recipients of \$6 per month in cash only and had been met by the answer that teachers on the average received \$15 or \$14 per month, but of this amount they had to board themselves and he doubted greatly if teachers could obtain board at the rate of \$1 to \$1.25 per five school days, that would suit them. Even then, how about the two other days of the week? Were they to fast? (laughter). Board would cost them at least \$8 per month and this would leave exactly what he had said, viz. \$6 in cash per month. In Bolton where he had the misfortune of being born, the salaries were even smaller. He had further revelations to make. In many instances the teachers had to wait 4, 6 and 12 months and even two years for their miserable pittance, which was often, as he knew had been the case in Stanbridge lately, been settled in

STORE-PAY!

He asked if his statements were highly colored or improbable? (Cries of "no! no!") He referred to the speech made on the previous evening by the member for Brome, who also had encountered difficulties in trying to abolish this iniquitous system. He was using the Chairman's own words when he said that the High Schools were retrograding; if so, were not the teachers also? He deeply regretted that at these conventions

there was no means of ascertaining by a vote the opinion of the lady teachers; he had seen no other method of getting an expression of opinion from them except by writing out the following *testimur*:

We the undersigned District School Teachers of the District of Bedford having heard the paper read entitled "Thoughts on our District School System," hereby testify to the general correctness of the statements contained therein.

(Fourteen signatures.)

The President--Name! name!

Dr. Kelly, with the greater part of the audience, thought this would be unadvisable, owing to the presence of those in authority over the teachers.

The Reverend gentleman went on to say that upon the whole, his paper had been endorsed even by Inspector McLoughlin, whose approval he had hardly expected to get. With regard to the text-books, he did not want new, or the latest books; all he contended for was a uniform series of books throughout the schools. He had no faith in the opinion expressed by the Inspector, that things would "right themselves in two years." Things were much the same as they stood two years ago. With regard to the number of days spent in inspection, he would remark that in the country, unlike in the city schools, all did not begin at one particular date, and end at another specified date. It would be difficult to find during ten months, in the District of Bedford, any place where there was not school every day, Sundays, of course, excepted. He did not deny that children coming from the Common schools in the Townships had risen to University and High School eminence. The Townships had carried off many honors, and he would be the last to deny the fact; but it arose from the fact that these children had grown up under difficulties, and had got on, not through the system, but in spite of it. In conclusion, he stated he would rather have a teacher holding a good certificate from the Normal Schools, than a very large number of graduates of McGill College. The speaker sat down amid prolonged applause, and was warmly congratulated by nearly all the teachers present, who expressed their thanks for the able and fearless manner in which he had advocated their cause. All present agreed that the speech was the most practical one of the session, and one of the best delivered at the Conventions during the past fifteen years.

Some discussion ensued, many present endorsing the last speaker with regard to his remarks, especially the closing ones. Many of teachers expressed their regret at not having known before that the *testimur* referred to had been circulated for signature, as they were prepared to sign it.

It was then moved by Rev. S. Jackson, School Commissioner, seconded by Rev. J. P. Watson, and resolved:

That the thanks of the Convention are due and are hereby given to the Rev. E. J. Rexford for his very able paper on District Schools, and that in our opinion it is highly important to teachers, pupils and parents that the grievances therein mentioned be removed as speedily as possible; and we rejoice in the fact brought out in the discussion that the Council of Public Instruction has already taken the initiative in the matters of text-books and salaries.

A vote of thanks was then passed, to Mr. W. W. Lynch, M. P., who was compelled to return to Knowlton.

It being one o'clock, the meeting adjourned till 2.30 p. m.

AFTERNOON SITTING.

Mr. John L. Walton made a few remarks, expressing the hope that the next meeting of the Convention would be in St. John's, and thanking Mr. Murray for his excellent paper on classical education; he endorsed Rev. Mr. Rexford's paper in the main, and explained what was being done at the St. John's High School.

Shortly after the opening of the meeting, the Rev. Mr. Buckham, Principal of Vermont University, arrived in Bedford, and attended the meeting in the Academy.

Mr. E. R. Smith, of the *St. John's News*, also expressed the hope that the meeting of the Convention would take place at St. John's.

Dr. Miles proposed that it should meet at Quebec. Carried.

The officers for the ensuing year were then elected, viz:—Dr. Miles, President; Professor McGregor, Treasurer, and Frank W. Hicks, Secretary. All these elections were made *nem. con.*

It was moved by Dr. Kelly, seconded by Mr. John E. Walton,—That in the opinion of this Convention, the time has arrived when the attention of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction of this Province should be directed to several needed reforms in their existing educational system, notably amongst which are: an improved machinery for the management and support of elementary schools; increased salaries to the teachers, by which they would be enabled to support themselves without recourse to the obnoxious practice of boarding round; a readjustment of the system of taxation so that property of all kinds should be made to contribute, by a more equitable distribution of the Common School funds; that power should be given to the Boards of School Commissioners to aid in the support of Superior Schools, such as Academies and Model Schools and that the President of the Teachers' Convention should be, *ex-officio*, a member of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction.

Dr. Howe next read a paper on "Teaching of French." He commenced by remarking that the usefulness of French was now-a-days so manifest in the business of life, that its right to a place in education was all but universally recognized. French was by no means easy for an English boy to learn, and the insufficient progress so generally complained of, must assuredly be attributed in the first place, to the scant time allowed to it in our programme of school work. In High Schools it was impossible to cut down the time given to other subjects and take more for French. The only remedy in this direction was to add to our present meagre five hours a day, a half hour obligatory, if possible; if not, then voluntary for those who desire improvement in any study. This half hour should be employed in perfecting the pronounciation of the pulpit and increasing his knowledge of vocabulary of the language. It was not uncommon to find, in English schools' Frenchmen teaching French, who had no intellectual culture, and who were devoid of the experience in the art of teaching, and who had no other recommendation than that they spoke their mother-tongue with a decent accent. Not having sufficient force of character to maintain discipline, it had become very much their custom to employ in their stead English masters or mistresses who had acquired a knowledge of French. These were sometimes successful with junior classes, but they usually labored under the disadvantage of an incorrect pronounciation, and were seldom proficient enough in the language to instruct pupils advanced in it. He believed that pupils should be taught by a professor speaking English as

well as French; it was, in his opinion, an error that boys or girls would learn French better under a teacher who could not speak English. The effect was simply to render the maintenance of order more difficult. For teaching younger pupils, they should be made see on the blackboard the phrases and words that they were being taught. Occasionally the master should dictate the matter of the lesson to the whole class for them to write it on their slates. For advanced classes should be added reading and translating with occasional recitations of portions of classic French authors committed to memory. Questions and answers should be given in French, the business of the hour being as good a subject of dialogue and conversation as any other. It was not for want of good methods and good text-books that we did not succeed better. The sum of the matter might be stated in a few words. We shall not obtain more satisfactory results until we secure more time for the subject and procure teachers of greater power.

Professor P. J. Darey, of McGill College, was thankful to Dr. Howe for his paper. Certainly a French master was beset with difficulties. However, in the High-School, his experience had been very pleasant. In the Normal School he had ceased to hear "I don't like French." Every year great progress was made in the teaching. In the Normal School, one great difficulty to be encountered was the large classes. With regard to translation, he was in the habit of reading French to his pupils, accustoming their ears to the sounds. They repeated it after him and then they wrote it in English, thus they mastered "a little well." In three years' course at the Normal School he got many pupils who could converse with him and who were fit to teach others.

The Boards were frequently very unfortunate in their choice of masters, which accounted for many failures.

Mrs. Scott had found in her experience that French teachers succeeded, even though they spoke little English. She insisted upon her French teacher speaking French in the class. Some difficulty might arise at first but children were very soon able to communicate with the teacher.

Miss Fluhmann stated that she had no more difficulty at first when she could not speak English than since she had acquired that language.

Mr. S. H. Parsons then read a paper on the method of teaching grammar, and the meeting adjourned to 8 p. m.

EVENING SITTING.

The Convention re-assembled last night in the Methodist Church, the proceedings being opened with prayer.

Professor McGregor then delivered a lecture on the Unitary Method of Arithmetic, during the course of which he reviewed Hamlan Smith's method. The subject was well treated and interestingly developed, although rather abstruse.

Mr. Canfield next sang a "Tyrolese Song," which was well received and *encored*, but, owing to the lateness of the hour, the singer merely acknowledged the compliment with a bow to the audience.

The Chairman then introduced the Revd Mr. Buckham, President of the Vermont University, who said that if there could not be a commercial reciprocal treaty with the United States, they might have reciprocity in educational matters. He would go home and tell them he would like Americans to treat the subject with the same vigor as Canadians. He would however point out that in the States the Association would not be called "Protestant," for there in matters of public education, question of religion or denomination were

never involved. He knew that in Canada matters were in such a state that this distinctive appellation was necessary and he knew the struggle that was going on in Canada now. There were those who said that the same issue was not behind them in the States, and that they would soon have to face it. He hoped such would not be the case. The speaker then referred to the great teachers of the world. England had only produced one, viz. Arnold; the United States had produced Horace Mann and Lewis Taylor, and the State of Vermont Marsh and Colby. It was easier to find six good physicians or lawyers than one first-class teacher. Teaching was resorted to as a last expedient. Vendors of patent medicines and lightning-rod agents who had failed, either turned tramps or teachers. (Laughter). And yet, nothing was harder to produce than a good teacher. A teacher required what might be called tact or magnetism; it was difficult to say what traits constituted a good teacher, or whether the faculty of teaching was a gift or could be acquired. When a teacher said that he or she had "a wonderful lot of children," he considered the teacher a good one; but if a teacher complained to him of the material he had to work upon, he thought that teacher had better try some other business. A teacher should have an admiring love for her pupils; she should see in them the germ of future Presidents, Judges, and true men and women. A teacher should also have a fine sense of justice and be the friend, not the task master of his pupils. Formerly the rod ruled the school; now it is governed by the moral power of the law. More pupils were set against the teacher through some real or imaginary sense of wrong, than by any other combination of causes. A teacher who shows his pupils that he is as jealous of their rights as of his own, will soon win their confidence, especially if he shows that although he may deal severely with them, yet he will deal justly and fairly. A teacher should avoid having favorites, yet no two pupils should be treated alike; their disposition should be studied in each individual case. The lecturer then laid down certain rules for the guidance of teachers, such as: never to blame a child without positive proof of its guilt; never to punish a whole class for the failing of an individual which the teacher had been unable to detect; never to administer reproof in public unless shame was to be made part of the punishment. This was however to be done in extreme cases only. To summarize, a teacher should be a practical philosopher. In his opinion, to be a good primary teacher, more qualifications were required than for teachers in the higher paths of education. Personally he knew few people who were good primary teachers; children should have the most refined teachers. The person who was taught, not the subject, had to be considered. It was far harder to teach a child than to teach a man. In conclusion, he argued that to procure good teachers a premium should be put on the respect and consideration shown them, and that their remuneration should be increased. He advised teachers to improve themselves, and try and be first-class teachers, not third rate; this they could only be by being first-class men and women. (Loud applause.)

Moved by Mr. Koyl, seconded by Mr. Weir, that a vote of thanks be tendered the lecturer. Unanimously carried.

Dr. Howe also seconded the motion, and passed some highly eulogistic remarks on the lecture just delivered.

Mrs. Scott, Principal of the High School for Ladies, was then called upon to read her paper on "Domestic Economy," wherein she advocated teaching girls household duties in these days of higher education for

women. Girls had a different position to hold in life than boys, and they should, therefore, be prepared for it. They should be taught everything in connection with the management of a house.

The Lecture was attentively listened to, and proved most interesting, the subject being skilfully treated. Mrs. Scott sat down amidst much applause.

Dr. Baker Edwards then exhibited some anatomical raised models, made for the purpose of illustrating lectures on physiology, which could be better done than with the plates generally in use in the schools. These models could be obtained in Quebec at the Educational Depository, or in Montreal from S. C. Stevenson, Esq., Secretary to the Board of Arts and Manufactures.

Mr. Koyl, Professor of Natural Science at the Wesleyan College, Stantead, followed with a lecture on "Copper Mining."

Miss McGarry read "Young Lochinvar," and was as well received as on the previous evening.

Owing to the lateness of the hour, Mr. Weir's paper on the "Outlook of the Educational Outlook," was taken as read, and ordered to be printed in the report.

Votes of thanks were then passed to the people of Bedford for their kind hospitality to the members of the Convention, to the Church authorities for the loan of the Church, to the Choir, to the President for his able services in the Chair, to the railway and steamboat companies for reducing their rates in favor of the school-teachers and their friends, and to your representative.

"God save the Queen," having been sung, the Rev. Mr. Grenfell pronounced the benediction, and the Convention was at an end.—(*Montreal Gazette*.)

Minutes of the Meetings of the Catholic Committee of the Council of Public Instruction held on the 9th, 10th and 11th October, 1878.

WEDNESDAY 9th OCTOBER.

Present: The Superintendent, in the Chair; His Grace the Archbishop of Quebec, Their Lordships the Bishops of Three Rivers, Rimouski, Montreal, Sherbrooke, St. Hyacinthe and Chicoutimi; the Hon. Messrs. P. J. O. Chauveau, Thos. Ryan, and Sir N. F. Belleau, Kt., and P. S. Murphy, Esquire.

The Minutes of last Meeting were read and adopted. A letter from Dr. Painchaud was read stating that it was impossible for him to attend the Meeting.

On motion of His Grace the Archbishop it was resolved:

"That a permanent sub-committee, composed of the Superintendent His Grace the Archbishop, His Lordship the Bishop of Sherbrooke, the Hon. Mr. Chauveau, and Sir N. F. Belleau be named to examine into all urgent matters and appeals from decisions of the Superintendent, and all other questions which the Superintendent or any member of the Committee or Sub-Committee may think fit to submit to them: said Sub-Committee to sit whenever so required by the Superintendent or any one of its members, and notices of meetings to be given by Secretary of this Committee who shall be also Secretary of said Sub-Committee: said Sub-Committee to report at the next meeting of the Committee and that three do form a quorum.

On motion of Mgr. Langevin, it was resolved:

That the consolidation of the Laws on Public Instruction be proceeded with under the direction of the Superintendent, subject to the approval of the permanent

Sub-Committee; and that, as soon as the Sub-Committee have given their approval, the work be submitted to the Committee by the Superintendent.

The report of the Sub-Committee named to examine books submitted for the approbation of the Catholic Committee of Public Instruction, was read and adopted.

On motion of His Grace the Archbishop it was resolved:

That a sum of \$150 be granted, provisionally, to the Indian School at Lorette, and that further representations be made to the authorities at Ottawa with reference to this school.

The Superintendent reported that the Council of Arts and Manufactures at its last meeting, did not seem to approve of the recommendations of the Committee with reference to the method of teaching drawing followed in the Christian Brothers' Schools; but that since that meeting the Council had been reconstructed, and he could not say what was the opinion of the new members of the Council.

His Lordship of Montreal was associated to the Abbé Verreau, to superintend the publication of Sadleir's *Excelsior Readers*.

Three projects for the division of time in schools were submitted by Mr. Inspector Vien, Mr. Inspector Premont, and Mr. Jos. E. Roy, Teacher, respectively, and Mgr. Langevin was requested to make a special study of said projects and to report to the Committee thereon.

The Petition presented to the Committee by Mr. Napoléon Legendre, complaining that the Superintendent refuses to carry out a verbal contract entered into by him with his predecessor in office was taken into consideration.

Mr. Legendre appeared, in person, and was heard by the Committee, when the matter was adjourned to Friday the 11th for the hearing of witnesses.

The following programme of studies was submitted by the Superintendent:

"Whereas it is advisable to revise the curriculum of elementary primary schools and of superior primary schools,

"And to distribute copies of this programme to the Commissioners and Trustees of Catholic schools, with a statement of principles and observations which will make them understand its drift and true character

"In consequence the Catholic Committee enunciate the following principles:

I. The school has for its object to develop the child in all its faculties; 1o. the body by gymnastic exercises and hygiene; 2o. the intelligence by supplying first ideas, by awakening a spirit of observation, and by exciting thoughtful reflection; 3o. the conscience by a strict and fatherly discipline, and by teaching religious and social duties.

II. Gymnastic comprise, in general, all bodily exercises; hygiene of schools relates specially to the salubrity of the locality, to the shape of the seats adopted to the size of the children, and to frequent rather than prolonged recreation.

III. The best method of inculcating first ideas is through object lessons, that is, cause the child to see so as to understand.—All inexact or badly understood ideas are hurtful.

IV. It is by exercises in class that a spirit of observation is developed and that reflection is induced. The master must carry on these exercises so as not to appeal to the memory alone of the student, nor solely to his judgment; consequently he should not accord too much importance to the book, neither should he reject it altogether.—Reviews of past lessons should be frequently made.

V. All subjects are taught less for the sake of know-

ledge than as a matter of discipline, less to fill the mind than to form it. Teaching proceeds from the simple to the compound, from the regular to the irregular, from the concrete to the abstract. In the beginning we present to the child simple and clearly defined objects; he learns to know them and call them by their names; we then analyse them making the pupil observe their nature and their distinctive attributes. From that we proceed to generalities. The practice of drawing is one of the best means of carrying out this system.

And in conformity with these principles, this Committee declare the following programme to be obligatory in all English and French Catholic schools in this Province, according to their respective status.

	ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.	ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.
	1st degree.	2nd degree.
Reading.....	1. Spelling. 2. Reading.	1. Spelling. 2. Reading. 3. Analysis of reading.
Writing.....	1st copy-book.....	1st copy-book, 2nd and 3rd. (According to the capacity of the scholars.)
Grammar.....		Elements: Analysis & dictation.
Arithmetic.....	1. Numeration. 2. Simple rules. 3. Mental calculus.	1. Numeration. 2. Simple rules. 3. Compound rules. 4. Mental calculus.
Book-keeping.....		Simple entry.
Geography.....		1. Preliminary notions on the globe and map of the world. 2. Details on the map of Canada.
History.....	Familiar conversations on the New Testament and catechism.	1. Abridgment of sacred history. 2. Abridgment of the history of Canada.
Object lessons.....	Object lessons and first notions of mechanical drawing.	1. Object lessons. 2. Mechanical drawing 3. Elements of agriculture.
	MODEL SCHOOLS.	ACADEMIES.
Reading.....	1. Reading. 2. Lessons in elocution.	1. Reading. 2. Lessons in elocution. 3. Lessons in declamation.
Writing.....		
Grammar.....	1. Syntax: analysis grammatical and logical. 2. Dictation.	Grammar reviewed: analysis & dictation.
Arithmetic.....	1. Proportion. 2. Rules of commerce. 3. Mental calculus.	1. Progressions. 2. Logarithms. 3. Algebra. 4. Mensuration.

	MODEL SCHOOLS.	ACADEMIES.
Book-keeping ..	Double Entry.	Double entry.
Geography.....	{ 1. In all its details. 2. Terrestrial Globe.	{ 1. In all its details. 2. Terrestrial globe.
History.....	{ 1. History of Canada and of France. 2. Sacred History.	{ History of Canada, of France, England & the United States.
Agriculture.....	{ Manual of agriculture.	{ Manual of agriculture and elements of agricultural chemistry.
Physics.....		{ Elements.
Drawing.....	{ Mechanical drawing.	{ Mechanical drawing & notions of architecture.
Divers.....	{ Setter writing.	{ Literary composition : narration, description, &c.

deny the accusations or do not appear, an enquiry be held by the Sub-Committee.

The Committee adjourned at 5 o'clock, P. M.

THURSDAY 10th OCTOBER.

Present : The same members except the Bishop of Chicoutimi and in addition His Lordships the Bishop of Ottawa.

The Committee devoted the time of this sitting to the distribution of the fund for Superior Education.

On motion of His Grace the Archbishop it was resolved :

That the sum allowed to the Municipalities of St. Denis (Kamouraska) and Ste. Ursule (Maskinongé) be not paid until said municipalities have submitted to the judgments rendered relative to them by the Superintendent.

The Committee adjourned at 5 o'clock, P. M.

FRIDAY 11th OCTOBER.

Present : The same members, less the Hon. Thomas Ryan, and in addition His Lordship the Bishop of Chicoutimi.

The Hon. Mr. Chauveau requested that a note be taken in the minutes of his formal objection to the rule adopted by the Committee to diminish grants to old classical Colleges for the benefit of institutions of a recent date—which request was granted.

The Committee concluded the distribution of the grant for Superior Education, and proceeded to distribute the fund for poor municipalities.

At the request of Mr. Murphy the sum of \$200 was granted to the Convent of the Sacred Heart.

Mr. Napoleon Legendre was again heard on his claim and produced some witnesses.

On motion of His Grace the Archbishop it was resolved :

That the existence of the contract set up by Mr. Legendre not having been proved this Committee do dismiss his appeal.

On motion of the Hon. Mr. Chauveau, it was resolved :

That a sum of \$6 for every day's attendance apart from travelling expenses, be granted to every member of the Committee or permanent Sub-Committee, and that this resolution be submitted for the approbation of the Government.

The Committee adjourned at half past four, P. M.

McGill University

The Corporation of McGill University have pleasure in acknowledging the following donations to the Faculty of Arts during the half-year ending the 23rd of October, 1878 :—

1. *To the Library* :—From the Institution of Civil Engineers, London, Minutes of Proceedings ; vol. 51st, 8vo. From H. W. Acland, Esq., M. D., F. R. S., Catalogue of Books added to the Radcliffe Library, Oxford University Museum, in 1877 ; 4to pap. From the American Philosophical Society, Philadelphia, Proceedings ; No. 100 to vol. 17th, 8vo. pap. From W. F. Warren, Esq., LL. D., Boston University Year Book, 1878 ; pam. 8vo. From A. Agassiz, Esq., Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoology, Harvard College, Cambridge ; No. 1 to vol. V, pam. 8vo. From the Harbor Commissioners of Montreal, Report of the Commission of Engineers on a general scheme of improvements for the Harbour of Montreal, 1877 ; 8vo. From Dr. F. V. Hayden, U. S. Geologist, Bulletin of the U. S. Geologist and Geographical Survey of the Territories ; vol. III, Nos. 24 (two copies of Nos. 2 and), and No. 6 (second series,

“ It was further resolved that the Superintendent do forward to Commissioners and Trustees a circular explaining the character and object of the foregoing programme.”

On motion of His Lordship the Bishop of Three Rivers the foregoing programme was referred to a Sub-Committee composed of the Superintendent His Grace the Archbishop, and His Lordship the Bishop of Rimouski.

The Superintendent submitted to the Committee the following resolutions adopted by the Protestant Committee of Public Instruction :

1st. That any Bachelor of Arts from any University English or Canadian, on presentation of his diploma and on payment of the usual examination fee, shall be exempt from the matriculation examination of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, and shall he duly inscribed as a Student of Medicine.

2nd. That every student who has matriculated in medicine, in no matter which University of the Province of Quebec, shall be exempt in the same manner, provided that the subjects of examination in such University have previously been submitted and approved by the College of Physicians and Surgeons. That the Honorable the Superintendent of Public Instruction be requested to communicate the foregoing resolutions to the Catholic Committee and to request them to give the subject their consideration and to act thereon as they may deem best.

On motion of His Grace the Archbishop, it was resolved :

That the state of things pointed out by the Protestant Committee can remain as it is without any serious inconvenience, but that in the Legislature think fit to make any change, all the liberal professions should be placed on the same footing.

A petition was read from the School Commissioners of St. Jean Deschailons, asking that the sum of \$150 accidentally lost by their Secretary Treasurer be reimbursed to them.

The Committee refused to entertain said petition.

Several documents, were read, relating to certain accusations brought against Miss Clairina Bérubé, heretofore teacher at Trois Pistoles, and it was resolved :

That Miss Clairina Bérubé be cited to appear, either personally or by Attorney, before a Sub-Committee composed of the Superintendent, His Grace the Archbishop and the Hon. Sir N. F. Belleau, on the 6th November next, at 10 o'clock, a. m., and that, if she

MISCELLANY.

1876; 6 pam, 8vo. Do, do, Bulletin of the U. S. Entomological Commission, Nos. 1 and 2, 1877, 2 pam, 8vo. Do, do, bulletin of the U. S. National Museum, No. 1, 1877, pam 8vo. Do, do, Lists of Elevations, No 1, pam, 8vo (2 copies.) From N. H. Winchell, Esq., U. S. Geologist, the Geological and Natural History Survey of Minnesota, Annual Reports for 1873, 1875 and 1876, 3 pam, 8vo. Do, do, Bulletin of the Minnesota Academy of Natural Sciences, for 1876, pam, 8vo. From the Faculty of Medicine, McGill University, 68 vols, comprising works on classical, philosophical and scientific subjects. From J. C. Chamberlin, Esq., U. S. Geologist, Geology of Wisconsin, Survey of 1873-1877, vol. II, roy, 8vo. From J. J. Stevenson, Esq., U. S. Geologist, Report of Progress of the Second Geological Survey of Pennsylvania in the Fayette and Westmoreland District, 1876, demi, 8vo. From G. H. Cook, Esq., U. S. Geologist, Geological Survey of New-Jersey, Reports on Clay Deposits 1878, roy, 8vo. From Dr. F. V. Hayden, U. S. Geologists, Geological and Geographical Atlas of Colorado and Portions of Adjacent Territory, 1877, (twenty large sheets.) From James Hall, Esq., Illustrations of Devonian Fossils, Corals, 1878, 4to. From G. Wicksteed, Esq., Q. C., Waifs in Verse, 8vo. From the Government of the Province of Quebec—Statutes of Quebec, session 1878, English and French, 2 vols, 8vo. From C. King, Esq., U. S. Geologist—Geological and Topographical Atlas accompanying the Report of the Geological Exploration of the 40th Parallel, large fol. From His Excellency the Governor-General of Canada—London University Calendar for 1878, 8vo. From I. D. Putnam, Esq.—Proceedings of the Davenport academy of Natural Sciences, January 1878 to June 1877, pam 8vo. From the Geological Survey of Canada—Report of progress for 1876-77, pam, 8vo. From the Librarian of the Cornell University—The Ten Year Book of Cornell University, 1868-78, 8vo. From W. J. Patterson, Esq.,—Home and Foreign Trade of Canada; also, Annual Report of the Commerce of Montreal for 1877, pam, 8vo. From the Hon. the Secretary of War, Washington—Annual report of the Chief Signals Officer for the year 1877, 8vo. From the Government of the Dominion of Canada—Sessional Papers, 1878, Nos. 4 and 5 to Vol XI, 2 vols 8vo. Do do.....—Statutes of Canada, Session 1879, English and French, 2 vols, 8vo. Do do.....—Sessional Papers, Nos. 2, 3, 6 and 7 to Vol. XI, 5 vols, 8vo. Do do.....—Journal of the House of Commons, 1878, Vol. XII, 8vo. Do do.....—Journals of the Senate of Canada, 1878; vol. xii, 8vo. From the Government of New Hampshire, U. S.—Geology of New Hampshire; vol. iii, 4to; with atlas, fol. From the Government of France—Collection de Dessins, Ecole de Ponts et Chaussées. Tome Ier (11 parts); fol. Do do.....—Legendes Explicatives des Planches. Parts 1-14; vol. I and II, 8vo. Do do.....—Notices sur les Modiles, Cartes et Dessins relatifs aux Travaux des Ponts et Chaussées, & 8vo. From the Government of Pennsylvania, U. S.—Report of Progress of the Second Geological Survey of Pennsylvania, 1875 to 1877; 3 vols; 8vo. From the Trustees of the British Museum, London, Eng.—Catalogue of Chiroptera; 8vo. Do do.....—Guide to the Exhibition Rooms of the Departments of Natural History and Antiquities; pam, 8vo. From the Superintendent of Meteorological Service, Toronto—Report of the Meteorological Service of the Dominion of Canada; 8vo; pap. From the Society of Engineers, London, Eng.—Transactions, 1863, 1855-1877; 14 vols; 8vo.

2. *To the Museum* :—From W. C. Harris, Montreal, orthoceratites from Utica shale at Whitby. From Rev. Mr. Emberson, M. A., specimens of mica and pyroxene. From J. S. Miller, Esq., East Templeton, a collection of specimens of apatite and associated minerals. From Mrs. Gilbert, Jackson, Michigan, nest of tarantula. From Lieut.-Col. Grant, Hamilton, specimens from the Niagara limestone. From Prof. Bowey, M. A., quartz, blende, and iron ore, Cornwall. J. S. Morkill, specimens of asbestos from Shefford. From J. Fraser Torrance, Esq., B. A., ores from Colorado and Utah. From Dr. Otto Hahn, Mesozoic, fossils from Germany.

—There has been an interesting correspondence in the *Times* as to the degree of comfort with which men can live at great heights. Mr. Webber, writing from the Grindelwald, in Switzerland, to Monday's *Times*, states that in Thibet he has lived for months together at a height of more than 15,000 feet above the level of the sea, and that the result was as follows :—His pulse, at normal heights only 63 per minute, seldom fell below 100 per minute during the whole time he was at that level. His respirations were often twice as numerous in the minute as they are at ordinary levels. A run of 100 yards would quicken both pulse and respiration more than a run of 1,000 yards at the sea-level, and the higher the level the greater the difficulty of walking or running fast. He crossed the shoulder of the Gurla Mandhata at a height of some 20,000 feet measured "by the thermometer," (surely a misprint or a slip of the pen for the "barometer?") and found the greatest difficulty in getting his breath quickly enough, had frequent and violent headaches, and found that his native guides and companions suffered much more even than he did. Clearly, the physical constitution of man has not been naturally selected so as to admit of great variations in the altitude of his dwelling-place.

—Archdeacon Denison has recently published some "Notes" of his life, from which we take the following about one of the schools he attended :—“There were two curious bits of discipline at that school; one, that whenever a boy committed a grave offence, every boy of the school was made a party to it; and a penitential letter was written home by every boy precisely in the same terms. Here is an instance. One night, as we followed the ushers two and two down a passage from the school-room to our bedrooms, William said to me, ‘George, I hate that usher fellow.’ ‘So do I,’ I said. ‘I shall spit on his back,’ said he. ‘Please don’t,’ said I, ‘we shall both be strapped.’ Strapping was administered with a piece of carriage-trace with the buckle-holes in it, through which the air rushed as the strap descended on the hand. ‘I shall spit on his back,’ said he; and as I expected, the usher having, I suppose, heard whispering, turned round, and William was caught in the act. The next morning, after the due personal treatment of the leading culprit by a process more painful than strapping, we were all drawn up in single file in the schoolroom, and every boy, older and younger, had to write from dictation, and then to copy from his slate, on a sheet of letter-paper the letter following. Letters then cost eightpence each :—“My dear Parents,—We have committed a great sin. For William Denison spat on the usher's back as he went to bed.—I remain, your affectionate son ARTHUR SHIRT.’ There were four Shirt brothers in the school, Arthur, Lionel, Frederick, and Augustus Shirt. I draw a veil over the feelings and expression of the Shirt parents upon opening the four letters, price 2s. 8d. The like thing happened again while I was there, upon the occasion of buying apple-tarts from an old woman over the play-ground wall. In this case the sin was of a more general character, but, as in the other case, was made universal :—‘My dear Parents,—We have committed a great sin. For we bought apple-tarts without the leave of the master, when we have plenty to eat, and that of the best quality.—I remain, &c.’ The other point of discipline was, that every boy who had not conducted himself well during the week had no mutton-pie on Saturday. Now this gave the mutton-pie a moral elevation, which, in his own nature, it did not deserve, being composed of what was left on the plates in the preceding days of the week. William had been at school at Esher with our elder brothers, Evelyn and Edward, before Sunbury. There, one Sunday morning, having lost his hat, he was made to walk to school in a straw coal-scuttle bonnet of one of the daughters of the house. The ways of discipline are various.

—The following Latin verse, addressed to Napoleon Bonaparte, has been brought to light in Germany. It is a very artistic composition, which in its first form pays a high tribute to Napoleon I., and prophesies for him a great and glorious future; but which, upon being reversed, indicates just the contrary—

Vaticinor tibi, quod navalis laurea cinget
 Tempora, nec magnas spes mare destituet.
 Dejiciet tua gens cunctos, nec Gallia victrix
 Denique frangetur littus ad Albionem.
 Sors bona, non mala sors concludet proelia quare
 Tempora te dicent : ' pars bona, non mala pars.'

Now read it backward :

' Pars mala, non bona pars,' dicent te tempora, quare
 Proelia concludet sors mala, non bona sors
 Albionem ad littus frangetur denique victrix
 Gallia, nec cunctos gens tua dejiciet.
 Destituet mare spes magnas, nec tempora cinget
 Laurea navalis, quod tibi vaticinor.

The use of milk.—Dr. Crosby, of the Bellevue Hospital pronounces milk an article of diet which all persons may use, under nearly under all conditions. There are those who say they cannot take milk, that it makes them bilious, etc, but he declares that this is not true. A person who is sick may take milk with the greatest possible advantage, because it contains, in a form easy of assimilation, all the elements essential for maintaining nutrition. It is the natural aliment of the young animal, and certainly answers a good purpose for the old animal, provided it is used properly, and not poured into a stomach already over filled, as though it had in itself no substance or richness. New milk, he does not hesitate to say, may be taken, as far as disease is concerned, in nearly every condition.

Perhaps it will require the addition of a spoonful or two of lime water. The addition of little salt will often prevent the after feeling of fullness and "wind on the stomach," which some complain of. If marked acidity of the stomach is present, then perhaps a little gentian may be requisite to stimulate the stomach somewhat, and it may be necessary to give it in small quantities and repeat it often; but ice cold milk can be put into a very irritable stomach, if given in small quantities and at short intervals, with the happiest effect. It is used in case of fever, when formerly it was thought to "feed," and when scaled it has a desirable effect in summer complaints.

But as an article of diet for people in health, and who wish to remain in that happy condition, that milk should be most appreciated. For the mid day luncheon of those whose hearty meal comes at night, or the supper of those who dine at noon, nothing is so good. The great variety and excellent quality of prepared cereals give a wide choice of food to use with milk. Bread with berries in their season, or baked sweet apples, boiled rice, cracked wheat, oatmeal, hulled corn or hominy, taken with a generous bowl of pure, cold milk, makes the best possible light meal in warm weather for children, and for all adults who have not some positive physical idiosyncrasy that prevent them from digesting it. The men of the firmest health and longest life are the men of regular and simple habits, and milk is a standard article in such a diet.

Written examinations.—The following excellent advice to those undergoing examination is taken from the *Canada School Journal*. All persons preparing for examination would do well to study it carefully.

1. *In preparing for an examination, write out as much as possible of the work.*—Writing is a much more effectual mode of study than reading. Let a student write out from a book several times any difficult proposition, and he will find that he has gained more knowledge of the proposition than he could have gained in a much longer time spent in merely reading it. The method of writing, which appears slow and laborious, is in reality an important economy of time and labor.

2. *Write about the question before you, and not about something else.*—No knowledge, however correct, if it does not bear directly on the question, can be taken into account. When the candidate writes very little about the question, and very much that is foreign to it, the examiner will conclude that he knows but little about it, and that he is simply trying to hide his ignorance by a show of knowledge.

3. *Let your answers be short and to the point.*—Of course your answer must be sufficiently long to express what the question requires, but the fewer words beyond that the better. Reading examination papers is not amusing work, and no examiner wishes to read more about a question than is just sufficient to answer it. Clearness of statement is of the utmost importance. Many an answer that has contained much correct matter, far more indeed than enough to have answered the question

correctly, has been marked low, or perhaps received no marks at all, simply because the examiner could not unravel the mystery in which the candidate had involved his answer.

4. *On receiving the examination paper, read it all over carefully once or twice before you begin to write.*—On first reading the paper you may, perhaps, think that there is not a question on it that you can answer. This is the result of mere nervousness. On considering it for a short time, you will find that light will begin to dawn upon you. Take the easiest question you can find on the paper, and write the answer to it as carefully and as quickly as you can; then the next easiest; and so on till you have done them all, or until you can do no more. You will find that toward the end you will be able to understand and explain what at first appeared altogether incomprehensible to you.

There is no more constant source of failure at examinations than the attempt often made by candidates to answer in order the questions on an examination paper. In this way he is frequently brought in contact with the most difficult question first, puzzles over it till his mind gets into the state of that of young Dombey, who was not certain whether it was twenty penny weights made one ounce, or twenty Romulus made one Remus.

5. *Give the full work of each question, and do the work on the paper you are going to hand to the examiner.*—The examiner wants to see the method by which you obtained the result much more than the result itself. Even if your final result is wrong, but the method of obtaining it be correct, he will give you credit for what you have done, which he could not do unless he had the whole work before him. Never work on a slate or a slip of paper, and then copy. By this method you lose more than half your time, and you are far more liable to make mistakes in copying the work than in doing it.

6. *Generally speaking, write the answer to each question on a separate page.*—By doing this you will be able to arrange the questions in order when you have finished.—Fasten the sheets together at the left hand corner. Do not leave the examination room until the time is up. If you cannot do any more questions, read over what you have done. You may detect and correct mistakes. Do not sit up late the night before examination to cram. Study but little during examination week. All that you may learn in this way will do you more harm than good. You will be tempted to write too fully on what you have so recently learned, and your mental vigor will be seriously diminished.

7. *Attend carefully to the style of your answers.*—"Dress does not make the man," says the old proverb, to which some person adds, "Of course not, but when he is made he looks much better by being dressed up." Style does not make the answer, but when it is made it certainly "looks much better by being dressed up." When you find a complicated mathematical question on an examination paper, you may be sure there is some easy method of solution. If you cannot find such solution, leave the question to the last. Examiners set questions to test your knowledge of principles, not your ability to do mere mechanical work.

Christmas.—Christmas time ! That man must be a misanthrope indeed in whose breast something like a jovial feeling is not roused—in whose mind some pleasant associations are not awakened—by the recurrence of Christmas. There are people who will tell you that Christmas is not to them what it used to be; that each succeeding Christmas has found some cherished hope, or happy prospect of the year before, dimmed or passed away; that the present only serves to remind them of reduced circumstances and straitened incomes—of feasts they once bestowed on hollow friends, and of the cold looks that meet them now in adversity and misfortune. Never heed such dismal reminiscences. There are few who cannot call up such thoughts any day in the year. Then do not select the merriest of the three hundred and sixty-five for your doleful recollections, but draw your chair nearer the blazing fire. One little seat may be empty; one slight form that gladdened the father's heart and roused the mother's pride to look upon, may not be there. Dwell not upon the past; think not that one short year ago the fair child, now resolving into dust, sat before you with the bloom of health upon its cheek, and the gayety of infancy in its joyous eye. Reflect upon your present blessings—of which every man has many—not on your own past misfortunes, of which all men have some, our life on it, and your Christmas shall be merry, and your new year a happy one.—*Chas. Dickens.*

ABSTRACT FOR THE MONTH OF SEPTEMBER, 1878.

OF TRI-HOURLY METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS TAKEN AT MCGILL COLLEGE OBSERVATORY, HEIGHT ABOVE SEA LEVEL, 187 FEET.

Day.	THERMOMETER.				BAROMETER.				+ Mean pressure of vapor	† Mean relative humidity.	WIND.		SKY CLOUDED IN TENTHS.			Rain and snow melted.	Day.
	Mean.	Max.	Min.	Range	Mean.	‡ Max.	‡ Min.	Range			General direction.	Me'n velocity in m. p. hour.	Mean	Max	Min.		
Sunday 1	74.0	63.0	11.0	S. W.	2.5	0.67	1 Sunday
2	72.45	79.6	66.3	13.3	29.9045	29.931	29.872	.059	.6384	80.5	W.	2.1	4.5	9	0		2
3	69.27	75.0	63.0	12.0	29.9971	30.032	29.945	.087	.6028	84.5	E.	6.8	6.4	10	2		3
4	68.01	76.1	69.9	15.2	30.0290	30.063	30.006	.047	.5571	81.6	S.	6.8	9.9	10	9	Inapp.	4
5	68.84	74.7	61.9	12.8	29.9646	29.987	29.940	.047	.6549	78.9	S.	5.0	5.6	10	0		5
6	65.47	71.0	58.6	12.4	30.1097	30.245	29.981	.264	.4822	76.9	N. E.	7.4	6.0	10	0	0.01	6
7	60.85	70.9	50.2	20.7	30.3011	30.331	30.261	.070	.4160	76.4	E.	10.5	6.0	10	2		7
Sunday 8	74.9	67.0	12.9	S.	9.2		8 Sunday
9	68.29	77.0	61.5	15.5	30.1666	30.228	30.107	.121	.5240	76.6	S. W.	7.7	2.9	8	0		9
10	68.42	77.2	60.4	16.8	30.0209	30.080	29.962	.118	.4914	73.1	S. W.	12.2	2.2	6	0		10
11	65.10	68.1	61.8	6.3	30.1266	30.210	30.005	.205	.5445	87.9	N.	6.1	10.0	10	10	0.05	11
12	70.02	80.9	59.8	21.1	30.0297	30.155	29.925	.280	.6272	85.4	E.	6.8	9.0	10	4	0.03	12
13	73.02	81.1	60.0	21.1	29.7124	29.901	29.534	.367	.6886	84.2	S.	13.3	9.1	10	6	0.21	13
14	58.26	61.7	53.3	8.4	29.7375	29.824	29.689	.135	.3760	77.6	W.	20.0	9.6	10	7	0.02	14
Sunday 15	63.3	49.3	14.0	W.	12.0		15 Sunday
16	58.27	68.9	47.4	21.5	30.1734	30.258	30.077	.181	.3394	70.5	S. E.	8.2	0.0	0	0		16
17	63.54	72.5	55.5	17.0	29.9979	30.0	29.915	.143	.4687	79.4	S. E.	10.8	7.2	10	3	0.01	17
18	64.65	70.5	59.0	11.5	29.9735	30.067	29.845	.222	.4356	72.2	S. W.	10.5	4.0	10	0	0.26	18
19	65.20	71.1	55.0	16.1	30.0039	30.112	29.836	.274	.4362	73.6	S.	8.6	7.7	10	4		19
20	74.25	84.0	65.4	18.6	29.7356	29.833	29.621	.212	.5641	67.0	S. E.	13.5	4.7	10	1		20
21	60.36	71.0	53.4	17.6	29.8471	29.970	29.687	.288	.3555	66.6	N. E.	12.9	6.7	10	0		21
Sunday 22	59.6	44.5	15.1	N. E.	9.1		22 Sunday
23	51.55	62.8	42.4	20.4	30.4300	30.512	30.322	.190	.2411	64.7	W.	4.0	0.4	3	0		23
24	55.47	59.9	49.0	10.9	30.1479	30.300	30.042	.258	.2685	82.5	W.	11.8	7.1	10	0	0.14	24
25	53.74	60.1	48.0	12.1	30.1614	30.231	30.027	.204	.3007	73.2	7.0	4.5	10	0		25
26	58.20	67.0	46.9	20.1	29.9274	30.186	29.778	.408	.3621	72.9	E.	16.9	5.0	10	0	0.10	26
27	46.37	53.2	40.6	12.6	30.3392	30.444	30.286	.208	.2067	65.9	E.	12.4	2.4	9	0		27
28	48.89	58.0	40.3	17.7	30.4296	30.521	30.320	.201	.1896	54.6	S.	5.6	0.7	3	0		28
Sunday 29	62.0	42.7	20.6	S. W.	6.6		29 Sunday
30	57.31	69.0	47.7	18.3	30.1384	30.200	30.057	.143	.3544	75.9	S.	5.8	4.2	9	0		30
Means.....	62.592	69.73	54.28	15.45	30.0662			.18108	.44545	75.30		9.07	5.43				Means.

* Barometer readings reduced to sea level, and to temperature of 32° Fahrenheit, † Pressure of vapor in inches of mercury
 ‡ Humidity relative, saturation 100. § Observed.
 Mean temperature of month, 62.592. Mean of max. and min. temperatures, 62.0. Greatest heat was 8.10 on the 20th; greatest cold was 40.3 on the 28th,—giving a range of temperature for the month of 43.7 degrees. Greatest range of the thermometer in one day was 21.5 on the 16th; least range was 6.3 degrees on the 11th. Mean range for the month was 15.4 degrees. Mean height of the barometer was 30.89511. Highest reading was 30.521 on the 11th; lowest reading was 29.534 on the 13th; giving a range of 0.987 in. Mean elastic force of vapor in the atmosphere was equal to .44515 in. of mercury. Mean relative humidity was 75.3. Maximum relative humidity was 97 on the 12th. Minimum relative humidity was 44 on the 23rd. Mean velocity of the wind was 9.1 miles per hour; greatest mileage in one hour was 27 on the 14th. Mean direction of the wind, S. Mean of sky clouded 54. per cent.
 Rain fell on 11 days. Total rain fall, 1.59 inches.