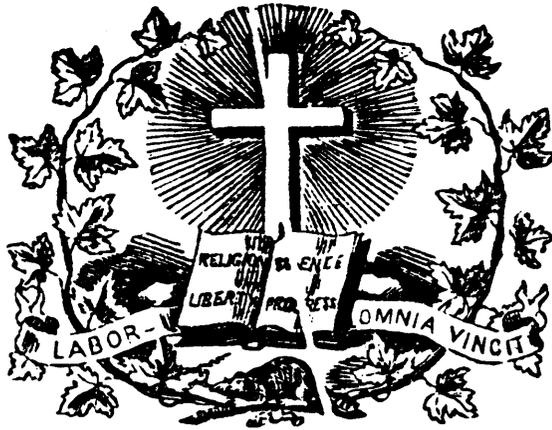


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EDUCATION.

Screwing Down Teachers.

Some parents go to a school, as they would to a shop, to purchase a certain quantity of education, as they would food or clothing at the lowest possible price. They enquire the amount of the fee, and whatever that may be, a guinea or a half-crown, they object and propose an abatement. Their arguments are amusing: "Schooling" is very dear to what it was when they

were young—Mr. So-and-so charges far less—teaching is but little trouble," &c., Others, we have heard, claim a reduction because the pupil is very young or very *little*, quite forgetting that there is at least as much trouble in teaching a very young child as one more advanced, and that a greater amount of professional skill is requisite in the former than in the latter case. Parents of a third variety may be found demanding a discount because they have three or four to pay for; and they quietly hint, that if the teacher will not give education to *four* for *three* fees, he shall have none. Would these parties admit such a practice in their own trades or professions? Would a banker lend *four* hundred pounds for the interest of *three*? Would a landlord let *four* houses for the rent of *three*? Would a baker sell *four* loaves for the price of *three*? Again a fourth class will advance many pleas to the same purpose; such as—"The boy joined the class a week after the quarter day; now; there are twelve weeks in a quarter, and the fee is six shillings, therefore sixpence must be deducted!" These people would be astonished, were they informed that the teacher, instead of granting a deduction, would be justified in charging *doubled* fee, as a trifling compensation for the extra trouble caused by his urging the laggard pupil on to overtake the class. They will also plead, "The boy was unwell for *three days and a half*!" In short, each economical father or managing mother believes that every shilling kept off the teacher is a shilling justifiably gained.

Besides these attempts at reduction, which every independent teacher should resist, there are others to which the benevolent must yield. A widow struggling to give her child a good education—a professional brother having a family to bring up on limited means—a merchant, suddenly unfortunate, whose children may have been with the teacher for years—all have claims upon his gratuitous services. Thus, if even those who are the most successful, and hold the most lucrative situations, realize far less than calculators suppose, how great must the privations be to men of very limited incomes, thus cruelly diminished!

In one word, let parents *economise* every where, that they may be generous, or at least *just*, to the most laborious and worst remunerated of all professions.—*Chamber's Edinburgh Journal.*

The Advantages of Great Cities for Professional Study.

In choosing a place of education, whether college or professional school, the advantages of different ones are so evenly balanced, that the decision, in most cases, is made from purely accidental reasons. Intrinsicly, there is not a very wide difference among our colleges and our professional schools. With rare exceptions, they are modelled on the same plans, pervaded by the same ideas, officered by the same class of men, and turn out the same average of students. Now, since this is so, it is far better for us to compare their merely external advantages, which make a difference among them well worth considering.

We may assume that for a college where the students are not yet mature, and where the studies can be pursued easily enough with the aid of text-books and a moderate library, the best location is in a country town, apart from the distractions and temptations of city life. But the same argument will not hold good with regard to professional schools. The students are now men, able to take care of themselves, if they ever will be. Moreover, they are just at the age when young men wish, and ought, to see life. Residence in a great city is the next best thing to foreign travel. It does much towards wearing off the rough provincialism and the rawness of youth that are apt to cling to the average student. And this a great city does, even if he merely lives there and goes about his business with little thought of his surroundings; and far more does it do this if he takes pains to get all the civilizing and refining influences that he may have in a metropolis. He meets a great variety of men. He probably will see something of all grades of society, and something of many nationalities. He learns, too, that he is a very small atom in the tide of humanity that ebbs and flows all around him; that his ideas, his opinions, his very existence, are of very small account after all. In short, he gets the conceit taken out of him amazingly, and begins to get that true self-knowledge which is the beginning of all wisdom.

Moreover, in the intense life of a great city he learns to work rapidly and effectively. Truly, if "fifty years of Europe" is better "than a cycle of Cathay," a decade of New-York is worth a century of "Sleepy Hollow:" there is more real work done. The impulse obtained in two or three years of active city life may last a lifetime. Even trade, usually so narrowing to the mind, becomes a liberalizing influence in a city like New-York, by the scale on which it is conducted and the amount of enterprise and capital required to manage it.

Every great city is a centre, not only of business activity, but of intellectual life—at least of a certain kind. Usually, even the highest intellectual life, that which produces literature, is found in the metropolis. But even where this is wholly or partially deficient, there is a certain amount of intellectual life of the lower kinds. The city is the centre of news, and therefore of newspapers; of politics, and therefore of public assemblages. Great men, and notorious men, can be seen on the streets. We need not trust to report so much, for we can see many things with our own eyes. Many illusions are thus dispelled, many errors corrected. Books and Magazines circulate more freely, libraries are more easily reached, and better ones. Lectures are more frequent, and all the machinery of intellectual life runs more rapidly and with more force. And for the study of the fine arts there is scarcely any opportunity except in great cities.

There are great peculiar advantages of city life; but there are in addition certain special advantages possessed by professional schools in a great city. Our professional schools hold the same relative position to our colleges, that the universities of France and Germany do to their colleges and gymnasia. And it has been found that universities thrive best in great cities. All the important universities founded in this century, Berlin, London, Christiana, and many of the most flourishing older ones, like Paris, Edinburgh, Dublin, Copenhagen, Vienna, are in great cities. The same reasons that hold in Europe, hold here. A

university without a library, is like a man without a head; and a good library can be collected more easily in a metropolis than elsewhere. Here also, are to be found other great libraries, that supplement the deficiencies of the university collection. Again in a great city, there are collateral advantages for a practical acquaintance with each of the professions;—for the lawyer, in the courts held almost daily; for the clergyman, in the great preachers and great charities; for the physician, in the great hospitals and frequent clinics. But more than all these, the professors are almost sure to be superior men. A country university may keep one great man: a city university will be sure to have several. For, allowing other things to be equal which is not the case usually, the intellectual society of the metropolis, its superior advantages for work in any department of thought, and the wider opportunities for fame and usefulness, continually draw off the great thinkers to the metropolis, and away from the country universities. Here, as elsewhere, the tendency of our age is toward the cities—centripetal, not centrifugal.—*American Educational Monthly.*

Why is Mechanical Labor Objectionable?

We reproduce the following from the *Philadelphia Ledger*:

A few days ago, a gentleman advertised for a clerk. By the close of the first day on which the advertisement appeared there were four hundred and eighteen applicants for the one clerkship. This afforded a very forcible illustration of the extent to which the occupation of clerking and book-keeping is overstocked. But a few months since the head of a business establishment, who wished some help in the way of writing, but in which some literary ability was required, advertised for an assistant at a moderate salary, and having incidentally mentioned that the position might suit a lawyer or physician not in a good practice, got more than a hundred applications, of which fifty-three were from young lawyers and doctors.

Here was another illustration of an over-supply of the professional or "genteel occupations." Another advertiser who wanted a person to take charge of the editorial work of a weekly paper, got fifty-seven applications, not more than half a dozen of the applicants being recognized newspaper writers, but nearly all of them being clerks, book-keepers, and professional men. Still another advertised for two apprentices in a wheelwright and smith shop, in one of the semi-rural wards of the city, requesting applicants to give their address and age. He got three applications, but in every case the applicant was too old, two of them being over eighteen, and one nearly twenty. Still another advertised for an office boy, about fourteen years old, and had so many applicants that his place was crowded for more than five hours, and the applicants were of all ages, from mere children, not more than twelve years old, to full grown men of twenty-one.

These are not very cheerful or encouraging signs. The present generation of young men seem to have a strong aversion to every kind of trade, business, calling, or occupation that requires manual labor, and an equally strong tendency toward some so-called "genteel" employment or profession. The result is seen in such lamentable facts as those above stated—a surplus of book-keepers and clerks of every kind who can get no employment, and are wasting their lives in the vain pursuit of what is not to be had, and terrible over-stock of lawyers without practice and doctors without patients. The passion on the part of boys and young men to be clerks, office attendants, messengers any thing, so that it is not work of the kind that will make them mechanics or tradesmen, is a deplorable sight to those who have full opportunities to see the distressing effect of it in the struggle for such employments by those unfortunates who have put it out of their power to do anything else, by neglecting to learn some permanent trade or business in which trained skill can always be turned to account.

The applications for clerkships and similar positions in large

establishments, are numerous beyond anything that would be thought of by those who have no chance to witness it. Parents and relatives, as well as the boys and young men themselves, seem to be afflicted with the same infatuation. To all such we say, that the worst advice you can give to your boy is to encourage him to be a clerk or a bookkeeper. At the best it is not a well-paid occupation. Very frequently it is among the poorest. This is the case when a clerk is fortunate enough to be employed, but if he should happen to be out of a place, then comes a weary scarcity, the fearful struggle with thousands of others looking for places; the never-ending disappointments, the hope deferred that makes the heart sick, the humiliations that take all the manhood out of poor souls, the privations of those who depend upon the earnings, and who have no resource when he is earning nothing. No father, no mother, no relative should wish to see their boys or kindred wasting their young lives in striving after the genteel positions that bring such trials and privations upon them in after life.

The Power of Attention.

In proportion to a man's power of attention will be the success with which his labor is rewarded. All commencement is difficult, and this is more especially true of intellectual effort. When we turn for the first time our view upon any given object, a hundred other things still retain possession of our thoughts. Our imagination and our memory, to which we must resort for materials with which to illustrate and enliven our new study, accord us their aid unwillingly, indeed only by compulsion. But if we are vigorous enough to pursue our course in spite of obstacles, every step as we advance will be found easier, the mind becomes more animated and energetic, the distractions gradually diminish, the attention is more exclusively concentrated upon its object, the kindred ideas flow with greater freedom and abundance, and afford an easier selection of what is suitable for illustration.

And so the difference between an ordinary mind and the mind of Newton consists principally in this, that the one is capable of a more continuous attention than the other—that a Newton is able, without fatigue, to connect inference with inference in one long series toward a determinate end; while the man of inferior capacity is soon obliged to break or let fall the thread which he has begun to spin. This is, in fact, what Sir Isaac, with equal modesty and shrewdness, himself admitted. To one who complimented him on his genius, he replied that if he had made any discoveries it was owing more to patient attention than to any other talent. Like Newton, Descartes also arrogated nothing to the force of his intellect; what he had accomplished more than other men, he attributed to the superiority of his method. Nay, genius itself has been analyzed by the shrewdest observers into a higher capacity of attention. "Genius," says Helvetius, "is nothing but a continued attention." "Genius," says Buffon, "is only a protracted patience." "In the exact sciences, at least," says Cuvier, "it is the patience of a sound intellect, when invincible, which truly constitutes genius." And Chesterfield has also observed that "the power of applying an attention, steady and undissipated, to a single object, is the sure mark of a superior genius."—*Sir William Hamilton.*

Practical.

The *Massachusetts Teacher* contains the following practical, truthful, and well put suggestions:—

"Too often is it the fact that teachers, after having acquired familiarity with certain branches of study, are content with their acquisitions. Knowing enough, in their own estimation, to carry their pupils through the course assigned, they are careless about increasing their knowledge. They cease to grow; become mere pedagogues. To this large class of teachers is justly chargeable much of the disrespect with which too many educated people regard the occupation of teaching. A teacher

ought to know all that he has occasion to teach and a great deal more. He should possess an ever-increasing store of knowledge from which he may draw at pleasure, and with which he may command the admiration of his pupils and the respect of the community.

We ought to keep ourselves well informed in regard to the various educational movements of the day, that we may have a clear understanding of their purpose, be able to judge wisely of their merits, and be ready to take advantage of such new thoughts and instrumentalities as promise to aid us in the discharge of our duties.

We ought to draw what benefit we can from new educational publications, whether in the form of text-books or of periodicals. As an intelligent mechanic is quick to adopt new and improved tools appropriate to his trade, a teacher should be ever ready to seize upon whatever good thoughts, principles, and methods have been wrought out by other educators. A new book must be poor indeed, if it contain nothing new; and single, really new and valuable thought is often worth more than the cost of a volume. A teacher needs his library of professional books just as much as a doctor, who is not a quack, needs his works on medicine; or a clergyman his works on theology and the religious discussions of the times; or a lawyer, his numerous legal commentaries and reports. It is idle to expect that the business of teaching shall hold a high place among recognized professions until teachers themselves believe, and act as if they believe, that true teaching is both a science and an art, demanding profound and long-continued study, involving principles and methods of great importance, and giving occasion for the exercise of the highest faculties and qualities of the mind and heart. So long as the mass of teachers ignore all professional reading, are content to go in the ruts which they have made or others have made for them, and depend only upon certain stereotyped ways and means, without considering the principles upon which good teaching is based, teachers generally must fail to command that respect which ought to be liberally given to those whose chief work is to develop, instruct, and adorn the intellectual and moral natures of the young."

LITERATURE.

POETRY.

THE CHILDREN.

When the lessons and tasks are all ended,
And the school for the day is dismissed
And the little ones gather around me
To bid me good night and be kissed:
O! the little white arms that encircle
My neck in a tender embrace;
O! the smiles that are halos of heaven,
Shedding sunshine of love on my face.

And when they are gone I sit dreaming
Of my childhood, too lovely to last;
Of love that my heart will remember,
While it wakes to the pulse of the past,
Ere the world and its wickedness made me
A partner of sorrow and sin;
When the Glory of God was about me,
And the glory of gladness within.

O! my heart grows weak as a woman's,
And the fountains of feeling will flow,
When I think of the paths steep and stony,
Where the feet of the dear ones must go;
Of the tempest of fate blowing wild;
O! there's nothing on earth half so holy
As the innocent heart of a child.

They are idols of hearts and of households ;
 They are angels of God in disguise ;
 His sunlight still sleeps in their tresses ;
 His glory still gleams in their eyes.
 O! those truants from home and from heaven,
 They have made me more manly and mild
 And I know now how Jesus could liken
 The Kingdom of God to a child.

I ask not a life for the dear ones,
 All radiant, as others have done ;
 But that life may have just enough shadow
 To temper the glare of the sun ;
 I would pray God to guard them from evil
 But my prayer would bound back to myself ;
 Ah, a seraph may pray for a sinner,
 But a sinner must pray for himself.

The twig is so easily bended,
 I have banished the rule and the rod ;
 I have taught them the goodness of knowledge,
 They have taught me the wisdom of God :—
 My heart is a dungeon of darkness,
 Where I shut them from breaking a rule ;
 My frown is sufficient correction ;
 My love is the law of the school.

I shall leave the old house in the autumn,
 To traverse its threshold no more ;
 Ah! how I shall sigh for the dear ones,
 That meet me each morn at the door!
 I shall miss the "good night" and the kisses,
 And the gush of their innocent glee,
 The group on the green, and the flowers
 That are brought every morning to me.

I shall miss them at noon and at eve—
 Their song in the school and the street ;
 I shall miss the low hum of their voices,
 And the tramp of their delicate feet.
 When the lessons and tasks are all ended,
 And Death says, "The school is dismissed!"
 May the little ones gather around me,
 To bid me good night and be kissed.

DICKENS.

The Mystery of Editing.

The world at large does not understand the mysteries of a newspaper ; and, as in a watch, the hands that are seen are but the passive instruments of the spring, which is never seen ; so, in the newspaper, the most worthy causes of its prosperity are often least observed or known. Who suspects the benefit which the paper derives from the enterprise, the vigilance, and the watchful fidelity of the publisher? Who pauses to think how much of the pleasure of reading is derived from the skill and care of the printer? We feel the blemishes of printing, if they exist, but seldom observe the excellences.

We eat a hearty dinner, but do not think of the farmer that raised the materials thereof, or the cook that prepared them with infinite pains and skill. But a cook of vegetables, meat, pastries, and infinite bonbons, has a paradisiacal office in comparison with an editor! Before him pass in review all the exchange newspapers. He is to know all their contents, to mark for other eyes the matter that requires attention. His scissors are to be alert, to clip with incessant industry all the little items that together form so large an interest in the news department. He passes in review each week every State in the Union, through the newspaper lens. He looks across the ocean, and in strange lands, and following the sun, he searches all around the world for material. It will require but two seconds' time for the readers to take in what two hours' search produced. By him are read the manuscripts that swarm the office like flies in July. It is his frown that dooms them. It is his hand that condenses a whole page into a line. It is his sternness that restrains sentimental obituaries, that gives young poets a twig on which to sit and sing their first lays.

And the power behind the throne, in newspapers as in higher places, is sometimes as important as the throne itself. Correspondence, occasional or regular, stands in awe at that silent power which has the last chance at an article, and may send it forth in glory or humility. And, in short, as the body depends upon a good digestion, so the health of a paper depends upon that vigorous digestion which goes on by means of the editor. Ought they not to be honored?

And since little fame attends them, they should at least have their creature comforts multiplied. From that dark and dismal den in which they have so long had purgatorial residence, they are at length translated!—*Henry Ward Beecher.*

Lords and Commons of England.

Legally, no Parliament may endure for more than seven years. If not officially dissolved before the expiration of that time, it expires of itself. The first Parliament was held in France, by that name, about the middle of the Twelfth Century, but cannot be said to have appeared in British law until the early part of the Thirteenth Century. It was certainly a recognized institution in the reign of Edward I.—say the year 1294. The shortest session was of a single day, in 1339, when Richard II. was deposed; the longest, known as the Long Parliament, sat from 1640 to 1653, when Cromwell roughly dissolved it, bidding his Ironsides "take that bauble away," pointing to the silver-gilt mace. In 1404 lawyers were expressly excluded from the House of Commons. In 1542 members were first protected from arrest. In 1547, the Journals of the Commons were begun. In 1549 Francis Russell, son of the Earl of Bedford, was the first *Peer's* son who sat in the House of Commons. In 1649 a peer was elected and sat in the Commons. In 1641 an act was passed providing for the meeting of Parliament at least once in three years. It was repealed in 1664. Another act, limiting the duration of Parliament to at least three years, was passed in 1694, but repealed in 1716, by what is called the Septennial Act, which is still in force and acted upon. Edward I. held one Parliament every two years. From Edward III. until near the close of the reign of Charles I., the statute law was that a new Parliament should be elected once a year. Then (in 1641) the first Triennial Act was passed. In 1840, the members of both Houses voluntarily surrendered the privilege of franking letters which had existed since the year 1660. The Queen did the same and uses the penny "Queen's head" stamps on all her correspondence. Actually, though a Parliament may be continued for seven years, its duration is very much less. In the 66 years since the assemblage of the first Union Parliament (November, 1802), there have been 19 dissolutions, which makes an average of three years and a half for each Parliament. One of the popular demands in England is that annual Parliaments be restored, that at elections the voting shall be by ballot, and that, as formerly was the case, every member of the House of Commons shall receive a stated salary. There are 658 members in all (for England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales), and only by exercising very rigid economy could a member of the Common's House, contrive to live in London on a less outlay than from £500 to £700 per annum, so heavy are the expenses attending upon being a British legislator. It follows, therefore, that men of moderate means are thereby excluded from the House of Commons, which indeed, with its noblemen, peer's sons, and immediate relatives, baronets, lawyers, naval and military officers, rich merchants, landowners, and officials, has become "the best club in London," into which a poor man has small chance of being admitted. No member of the Houses of Lords or Commons receives the slightest salary, and no perquisite whatever. He may write his letters in the library of the House of which he is a member upon the paper supplied to that House, and use its envelopes, but to do so to any extent would be considered shabby.

The House of Lords is a more ancient body than the Common's House, having been the first summoned by writ in 1205, early in the reign of King John, ten years before he signed Magna Charta at Runnymede. The Commons were not admitted into the Parliament until long after. At each general election a writ of summons is sent to each temporal and spiritual lord. The Bishops are the spiritual lords supposed to hold certain ancient baronies under the sovereign, which gives them the right to sit in the Upper House. Some of the temporal lords sit by descent, some by creation, some by election, since the union of England with Scotland in 1707, and with Ireland in 1801. Thus, Scotland at each general election, chooses 16 per cent out of its whole peerage, to represent it in the Lords, and Ireland sends four Bishops (who sit in rotation) and twenty-eight representative peers, elected for life. There are three princes of the Royal family, three archbishops, 20 dukes, 20 marquises, 129 earls, 221 barons, and 28 bishops, or 462 in all, in the House of Lords. A few peers were minors, and could not sit, and several ladies are peeresses in their own right, the title, in most cases, descending to their eldest son. The peers have much increased of late. There were 176 peers at the death of Charles II. : William III., 192; Anne, 209; George I., 229; George III., 339; George IV., 396; William IV., 456, and in 1868, *Victoria regnante*, about 472 peers. A number of Irish and Scotch peers, who have no

right to sit in the House of Lords, are not included in the above total. An Irish peer may represent any English, Welsh, or Scotch constituency in the House of Commons, but a Scotch Peer is not permitted this privilege. The Bishops are not allowed to vote on any case involving capital punishment. In 1649, the Commons abolished the House of Lords. On the Restoration, in 1660, the upper Chamber was restored. In 1689, the two Houses united in placing William of Orange and Mary Stuart, his wife, upon the throne. In October, 1831, the Lords rejected the Reform bill, but passed it in June 1832. In February, 1856, the Lords successfully opposed the Queen's creation of life-peerages. A patent calling Sir James Park, a retired judge, to the House of Lords, the title to drop on his death, was said to be illegal, whereupon a new patent creating him a baron, in the usual way, was issued immediately after. Peers of Parliament, like members of Commons, are free from all arrest for debt, as being the Sovereign's counsellors, but execution may be taken, for debt, upon their lands and goods. A peer may act as a justice of the peace in any part of the United Kingdom, may vote at, but must not interfere in, any parliamentary election—though his voting has fallen into disuse. Until a few months ago, when the Lords voluntarily abandoned the privilege, a peer could vote by proxy in a number of cases. A nobleman can be tried on a criminal charge only by his peers—as, in 1841 the late Earl of Cardigan was tried by the House of Lords for shooting Capt. Harvey Tuckett in a duel, and acquitted, as Tuckett's identity was not proved. In January, 1765, the fifth Lord Byron, tried by the House of Lords for killing Mr. William Chaworth in a duel, (fought in a room in the Star and Garter Tavern, Pall Mall, London, without any witness) was convicted of manslaughter, but claiming the benefit of an old statute passed in the reign of Edward IV., whereby peers are, in all cases where "benefit of clergy" is allowed, to be dismissed on conviction of a first offence without burning in the hand, loss of inheritance, or corruption of blood, his Lordship was dismissed on payment of his fees.—*Exchange.*

Arctic and Antarctic Oceans.

Among the navigators and scientific men of former times, it was disputed whether salt water was capable of being frozen. Experience—in many cases a stern teacher—has set that question at rest, proving that within the polar circles the sea is, for hundreds of miles, covered with masses of ice, which form a sullen, unyielding barrier to the poles. Maury describes the agencies at work in these terrible solitudes in a famous passage: "There icebergs are framed and glaciers launched; there the tides have their cradle, the whales their nursery; there the winds complete their circuits, and the currents of the sea their round in the wonderful system of oceanic circulation; there the aurora is lighted up, and the trembling needle brought to rest; and there too, in the mazes of that mystic circle, terrestrial forces of occult power and of vast influence upon the well-being of man are continually at play. Within the arctic circle are the pole of the winds and the poles of the cold; the pole of the earth and of the magnet. It is a circle of mysteries; and the desire to enter it—to explore its untrodden wastes and secret chambers, and to study its physical aspects—has grown into a longing."

Marine ice is whitish, opaque, and rough on the surface, and consists of thin flakes of a porous spongy texture. From the quantity of strong brine enclosed in its substance, it is very heavy and dense, and projects only one-fifth above water. When sea-water begins to freeze, it partially deposits its salt, which, thus set free, retards the process of congelation below. Old floes are almost fresh, but a thaw renders them brackish. The polar seas do not congeal until the temperature falls to 28½ degrees of Fahrenheit, which takes place in September in the north, and March in the south; though even in summer, a slight increase of cold is sufficient to form young ice several inches thick. The sun sets early in November, and the severity of the arctic winter begins in December, continuing to the end of Jan., during which time the thermometer ranges to about 40 degrees below zero. A week or two of milder weather comes on; but the middle of February brings with it the sun, immediately followed by the most intense cold of the whole winter. After that the sun's influence begins to be felt. And in July the ice breaks up. During the three summer months, the sun never sets, but noon and midnight are equally illumined by brilliant sunshine. A few stars appear in September. The darkest part of the winter is from the middle of December to the middle of January, when the aurora transforms the sky into a vault of fire, and paraselenæ appear, surrounding the moon with blazing crosses, circles, and mockmoons, scarcely surpassed by the wonderful deceptions of the solar rays. The intense cold of February is accompanied by considerable twilight; and in the latitude of Bank's Land, there is even at the end of January tolerable

light from 9.30 A. M. to 2.30 P. M., so much so, that at noon Arcturus is the sole star unquenched by the increasing daylight. The only navigable time is from July to Sept. within the northern, and January, February, and part of March within the southern circle. During the rest of the year, the arctic regions are impenetrably sealed by vast fields of ice, both "floe" and "pack" covering every foot of water, from the shallowest inlet to the wide expanse of Baffin's Bay or Melville Sound.

The interior of Greenland is occupied by vast glaciers which encroach on the coast, filling the deep dark fiords with frozen snow. As summer advances, those portions of the glacier that project into the sea are undermined by the waves, and fall with tremendous noise, rocking in the foaming water till they gain equilibrium, when, perfect icebergs, they float here and there, impelled by winds and currents. Many are borne by the polar current southward. They meet the warm waters of the Gulf-stream in latitude 50 degrees, where they melt, and deposit the loads of earth and stones-borrowed from the Greenland soil. According to Maury, this has probably, in course of time, formed the Grand Bank of Newfoundland. They are in incredible numbers. As many as five hundred have been counted in sight together, ranging from fifty to three hundred feet in height, and of all sizes up to a mile in extent. Their appearance is very beautiful and no less extraordinary. Gothic churches, Egyptian temples, aerial palaces with pillars and arched windows festooned with crystal draperies, are only some of the inconceivable varieties of form displayed, while they gleam under the summer sun like mountains of burnished silver, with pinnacles and cliffs of clear sapphire or the palest green, from which rush cataracts of limpid water mingled with fragments of ice. These various hues arise from several causes. Bergs are originally composed of fresh water ice of different ages, but that formed from salt water frequently overlies it in parts. A great deal of snow lies on their summits, and forms large ponds of fresh water, when dissolved by the heat of the sun. Finally, the solar rays, touch the bergs with colors, changing with the position of the spectator. Only one-eighth of their total thickness is seen above water. Frequently bergs capsize in consequence of the sea undermining their base. An ominous rolling motion gives notice of this event; it continues for some time, and at last the berg heels over and disappears with a terrific plunge, sending up columns of spray. It reappears bottom upwards, balances itself, and floats on with a changed face.

All the antarctic land yet discovered consists of gigantic cliffs without a single opening, three thousand feet high in some places, descending in others to one hundred feet. The whole is faced with ice of enormous thickness, and covered with snow, so that at a glance the eye can scarcely imagine it to be land at all, but for spots showing the dark stone where the cliff is too perpendicular to admit of even ice maintaining its hold. Nothing is so tenacious as the cold of the antarctic regions. In February, the warmest summer month of 1841, the thermometer never rose above 14 degrees at noon near the continent. It is rarely above 30 degrees in the sun at mid-day during summer, and falls in winter more than 50 degrees below zero. The sun stays a week longer north of the equator than it does south, making the winter and night of the antarctic regions longer. South Georgia, in a latitude corresponding with that of Yorkshire in the northern hemisphere, is always covered with frozen snow, and produces scarcely anything but mosses and lichens. The immense preponderance of water south of latitude 50 degrees, allows the fierce westerly winds to blow round and round the world, a perpetual cyclone, keeping the sea in constant agitation.

The two polar circles differ greatly in physical conditions. The antarctic has a marine climate, that is to say, it is equable. Though wet and stormy, it is not subject to extremes of temperature, and it is believed that the south pole must be warmer than the north in winter. Arctic sunshine raises the thermometer to 66 or 70 degrees, and hung in the shade immediately after, the mercury falls to the freezing point. The arctic climate is continental—dry, calm, and variable. The thermometer has a range of about 120 degrees; and when the round of the seasons brings but little change in the frightful antarctic wastes, nothing can surpass the beauty of the arctic summer—"an endless blaze of light, the air, sea and earth teeming with life," plains glowing with richly tinted flowers, and strange, glittering forms sailing past "in stately and solemn procession." Its currents are strong, and bear large numbers of bergs to meet the warm Gulf-water, and as it is natural to suppose bergs are found to be most numerous where the drift is strongest. The antarctic seas are in direct opposition to this. Not only are its currents sluggish and feeble, but the most powerful of them, Humboldt's Current, carries few bergs along the Chilean coast, while the main icedrift is towards the Falklands on one side, and the Cape of Good Hope on the other, where there is scarcely any motion of the water. This is a fact which no navigators are able to explain, except

perhaps on the supposition that there may be strong submarine currents at a great depth below the surface. Bergs have been observed in Baffin's Bay drifting rapidly to the north where there was a powerful surface-current running against them, showing that in consequence of their weight and immense draft of water (in some instances more than a thousand feet), they must be influenced by some "resistless undertow" yet stronger.—*Chamber's Journal*.

The Whips.

Astonishing as the assertion may seem to the uninitiated, Parliamentary government, as at present organized, could not be carried on without the Whips. Upon their exertions very frequently depends the fate of a Ministry, or the triumph of a policy. They are the real autocrats of the House; without their advice no step is taken; without their aid no movement would be successful. The plan of the sessional campaign having been fixed by the Cabinet, it is left to the Whips to carry out the details. They it is who choose the battle-ground, marshal the forces on either side, regulate the hostilities, and decide as to the duration of the fight. They are supreme in every thing but the initiation of measures. The Whips work in darkness. They carry on their operations secretly, and their entire confidence is accorded to none but the chiefs. Their ways are manifold, and their action mysterious. Silence is their only wear. People who take their knowledge from the morning newspaper are apt to imagine that public questions are determined merely by the dictum of the great politicians, and that when Mr. Gladstone or Mr. Disraeli has introduced a Bill upon a particular subject, nothing remains but to let it be debated, and to take the division in due course. This is true enough so far as it goes; but between the debate and the calling of the division there is a vast gulf fixed, and here it is that the experienced Whip manifests his usefulness. . . . The Whips not only in a large measure regulate who is to speak, but also the order and sequence of the speaking. They compare their rival notebooks, and arrange the list of succession. Thus, the Conservatives learning that Mr. Lowe is prepared with a slashing onslaught against the Ministry, and that he intends to speak on Thursday night, arrange perhaps to pit against him Lord Stanley, Mr. Gathorne Hardy, or some other of their ablest men, whose opinion shall carry the most influence in the country as against that of the member of Calne. Consequently, if half a dozen of the mediocrities of Conservatism, despising the authority of the Whips, rise at the same time as Lord Stanley or Mr. Hardy, the Speaker, being aware of the arrangement, decides in favour of the noble lord, or the Home Secretary, as the case may be, who would, in Parliamentary etiquette, be held to have caught the presidential eye. The succession of speakers in a great debate is thus regulated, like the figures on a chess-board, according to their weight and worth. The keenest logician on the one side is pitted against the keenest logician on the other; the greatest lawyer of the Tories is matched against the greatest lawyer of the Whigs; the finest rhetorician of the Treasury bench is met by him who possesses the gift of eloquence in rarest perfection among the ranks of the Opposition. Thus: Sir Hugh Cairns was always "put up" against Sir Roundell Palmer; shrewd Mr. Henley perhaps against Mr. Bright; Sir Stafford Northcote against Mr. Hill; Lord Stanley against Mr. Horsman; Lord Cranborne against Mr. Lowe—care having been taken, although not always successfully, to match the opponents as completely as the choice of men permitted. Except during the solitude of the dinner-hour, there is no chance of an ambitious mediocrity breaking through this arrangement. The Speaker being in the confidence of the Whigs, takes care that his eye shall only be "caught" by him for whom the honour has been arranged, although, be it added, this rule is only adhered to upon great occasions. Onerous, however, as are the duties of the Whip in this respect, they form but a tithe of what he has actually to accomplish. He it is who is the medium of communication between the Prime Minister and the Opposition. The former very likely foresees that unless he can disarm somewhat of the virulence of the latter, he may find himself in a minority. Then steps in the faithful Whip, plays his part, and averts the danger; he hints to some of the more pliable of the Opposition that if a modified motion is proposed, it will be accepted by the head of the Government. He declares that the Treasury have it in contemplation to construct a harbour of refuge at Flamborough, advance a heavy loan for docks at Cardiff, subsidize the university of Little Pedington, or arrange a new scale of superannuation allowances for the faithful clerks of the Plymouth Custom-house. Waverers are caught by these means, and the edge of wrath turned aside. The support of neutrals is gained by somewhat similar means. The Whip arranges that the Premier shall bow to Brown publicly in the Lobby, and be suave and complimentary; that the Premier shall inquire of Jones as to the aftermath in

the Norfolk meadows, and exchange opinions upon the breadth of turnips and potatoes in the Peak of Derbyshire. The Whip arranges that it shall be hinted at mysteriously that the Premier is much stricken with Robinson's ability, and that stranger things had happened than his selection for the post of Secretary to the Treasury or Admiralty. The Whip arranges that Mrs. Chiltern Hundreds shall be invited to the duke's *salon* or the state banquet. And in this humble diplomatic way much support is gained or opposition disarmed.—*Id.*

SCIENCE.

On the Physical Constitution of the Sun.

A paper read before the Literary and Historical Society of Quebec, by Capt. Ashe, R. N.

Since I have had my Equatorial fitted for Celestial Photography, I have taken many pictures of the sun and devoted much time to the study of its physical constitution, and I am confirmed in my opinion, that "sun spots," are planetary bodies that have fallen on the sun.

The many photographs that I possess of spots, taken during their transit across the sun's disc, with the umbra in the centre of the penumbra, when seen on either limb and also when seen centrally, convince me that they cannot be cavities.

It seems strange to me that a theory which is based upon mere assumption should be supported by so many distinguished Astronomers; why are we to suppose that the body of the sun is dark? and why are we to assume that an opening in a luminous envelope should be of a darker color, than the surface?

Is there anything by analogy, that would lead us to suppose, that an opening in a gaseous, or liquid body should have its edges, internally and externally, well defined, and continuing its form for several days? How are we to account for the bridge (which generally divides the umbra) being much brighter than the surface of the Sun?

As I suppose them to be small asteroids that have fallen upon the Sun, there is nothing contrary to analogy, to suppose that a zone or belt of small planets should revolve between Mercury and the Sun, indeed such a zone will account for the perturbations of Mercury, and will perform the duty assigned to Vulcan. And this zone may be the zodiacal light.

Now if these asteroids revolve in orbits, inclined to the sun's equator, varying from 10° to 40° , then as the catastrophe of falling into the Sun, would happen in passing their perihelia; those asteroids that had their perihelia in North Latitude would form the Northern zone of spots, and those having their perihelia in South Latitude would form the Southern zone. And because few of their orbits are inclined to the sun's equator above 40° we have a clear reason, why the Polar regions of the sun are exempt from spots, and because a spot cannot be in perihelia when in the ascending or descending node, we have a reason why the equatorial region is rarely visited by them. Every student of the sun, must have early discovered, the fact, that spots, as a very general rule, are formed on the side of the Sun, farthest from the Earth; and as the sun revolves upon its axis in about twenty-five days, we have conclusive evidence that the sun is passive, and that the earth is active in the cause of spots. If they are planetary bodies, then it is reasonable to suppose that they should pale on the side of the sun opposite to the disturbing body; but if they are of a meteorological nature, then we might suppose them to be formed on the side nearest the Earth.

It will be very easy to calculate the planetary influence, in disturbing these small bodies, and predict when it is likely to have a maximum or minimum period. I say likely, because there are two things necessary for a solution of the problem, one of which only is known, we should know the period of greatest number of asteroids passing their perihelia, and also the time of maximum disturbing force.

However this we know that if they are planetary bodies, then at periods of maxima, there should be a continuation of disturbing bodies so as to give a maximum effect. We see by the "Researches on Solar Physics," that there was a maximum on or about the 15th July 1860, and by looking at the position of the planets, I find that Mercury, Venus, the Earth and Mars were nearly in a straight line on one side of the sun, and consequently all acting together to draw these asteroids upon the sun opposite to the earth. And upon looking at their positions on the 1st December 1856, when there was a minimum period of spots, I find that the Earth, Venus, Jupiter and Saturn were in four different quarters of the heavens, and that Mercury and Mars were nearly opposite to each other. I am fully persuaded there has been, and always will be, at periods of maxima and minima

of spot frequency, a combination of the planets that will give decisive evidence, that spots are planetary bodies.

Now a planetary body falling on the sun, would soon form a mass of liquid metal, covering a great space, with dross surrounding it. It is very probable that this mass of metal would split in various directions, and that the central part would be thickest for some time. Here we have a reason for the umbra, penumbra, bridge, and nucleus, and all the changes usually seen to take place would be fully and easily accounted for under this supposition.

Again if they are planetary bodies, their velocity in passing their perihelia would be greater than the surface of the sun upon which they impinge. Here then we account for the drift, which should always in that case be towards the equator. Under these circumstances I should suppose the equatorial region of the sun to be hotter than the polar—which has been suggested, and also that there would be currents that would distribute the dross over the entire surface of the sun, which assumes a form variously described as granulations, willow leaves, &c.

Long after the asteroid has fallen, the dross would be displaced by the undulations, forming what is seen as faculae, and I should fancy if there is much drift that the faculae would be seen mostly on the following side of the spot.

The spectroscope tells us that all the known metals are in a state of incandescence in the Sun. And in conclusion no other solution can be given to the question, "How is the enormous expenditure of light and heat kept up?" but by supposing that planetary bodies fall into it.

The Materials of the Universe.

A great part of the magnificence of spectrum analysis consists in the extent of its application. Not bounded by the system to which we belong, it carries out its gaze to the utmost limit where light is manifested in sufficient quantity to be comprehended in its grasp. And therefore it would only be a natural consequence of our achievement in solar discovery that those remoter strongholds of mystery should be assailed in turn. Too much, of course, ought not to be expected in the result of a proceeding of such extreme delicacy, and requiring such intense exertion of vision. We have to deal with no glowing disc, no golden shield displaying at once its blazonry, but with points, which the highest effort of the most powerful telescope can invest with no true dimensions; whose apparent magnitude is but an illusion—where light is all. But that light, because it is light, shall be made to tell us of its origin; and if it speak but in a whisper that whisper shall bear an interpretation of wonder. And what is that interpretation? It will not lead us to "doubt that the stars are fire," flaming with intrinsic, not visible by reflected light; for their mere aspect, combined with their extreme apparent minuteness, has already excluded that doubt. It will not announce to us as a discovery that they are suns; for such would be the natural inference of any one who considered that, at a sufficient distance from the eye, our sun must necessarily be dwarfed into a star. But it will tell us this fact, utterly undemonstrable in any other way, that those suns are so far identical in chemical constitution with our own, that they have the spectrum of solid or fluid incandescence, interrupted by the bars of developed and reabsorbed light given out by volatilized elementary matter—that they are so far similar as to contain many of the same elementary lines—that they are so far dissimilar as to exhibit bands corresponding neither with solar nor terrestrial elements and indicating materials utterly unknown and inconceivable. That interpretation tells us, too, how in certain stars the incandescent gases seem to give out their brilliant lines unreversed by traversing a cooler external shell; and how, in one case at least, a temporary blazing out of light depended upon an actual ignition of a vast volume of hydrogen; it was for the time "a star on fire." Nor is that all. There are, irregularly dispersed throughout the heavens, small patches of a misty aspect, a great proportion of which are proved by the use of powerful telescopes to consist of densely compacted aggregations of extremely minute stars; while others, by their obstinate resistance to this mode of analysis, and the "milky," or to use an artist's term, "sponged out" character of their light indicate some other constitution. Little had that constitution been suspected before the spectroscope of Huggins applied the decisive test. Long ago, indeed, the bold speculations of Sir W. Herschel and Laplace had ascribed to them the combination of mist and fire, and viewed in them the embryo state of future suns and their dependent planetary systems—a hypothesis as captivating to the imagination of some, as unsatisfactory to the mental habits of others. But, whether acceptable or displeasing, this is not so. At a subsequent epoch, indeed, that "nebular theory" had been viewed with less favour, in consequence of the

overstraining of a plausible analogy. So many of these cloudy masses, once deemed "irresolvable," had given way before the recent increase of optical power, that it was not unreasonably inferred that instrumental deficiency alone prevented a similar analysis in every case. Yet appearances were occasionally against that inference, and this time appearances were right. The spectroscope has taken up the investigation where the telescope could carry it on no longer, and pronounces the nature of many of those bodies to be truly that of a fiery mist, composed, however, not, as had been fancied, of all the uncondensed materials of a future sun and planets, but of a very few gaseous elements, whose insulation in space and incandescent condition, can never cease to be a source of amazement.—*Frazer's Magazine.*

ART.

How Chromos Are Made.

Chromo-Lithography is the art of printing pictures from stone, in colors. The most difficult branch of it—which is now generally implied when chromos are spoken of—is the art of reproducing oil paintings. When a chromo is made by a competent hand, it presents an exact counterpart of the original painting, with the delicate gradation of tints and shades, and with much of the spirit and tone of a brush and palette.

To understand how chromos are made, the art of lithography must first be briefly explained. The stone used in lithographing is a species of limestone found in Bavaria, and is wrought into thick slabs with finely polished surfaces. The drawing is made upon the slab with a sort of colored scap, which adheres to the stone, and enters into a chemical combination with it after the application of certain acids and gums. When the drawing is complete, the slab is put on the press, and carefully dampened with a sponge. The oil color (or ink) is then applied with a common printer's roller. Of course, the parts of the slab which contain no drawing, being wet, resist the ink; while the drawing itself being oily, repels the water, but retains the color applied. It is thus that, without a raised surface or incision—as in common printing, wood-cuts and steel engravings—lithography produces printed drawings from a perfectly smooth stone.

In a chromo, the first proof is a light ground tint, covering nearly all the surface. It has only a faint, shadowy resemblance to the completed picture. It is, in fact, rather a shadow than an outline. The next proof, from the second stone, contains all the shades of another color. This process is repeated again and again; occasionally as often as thirty times. We saw one proof, in a visit to Mr. Prang's establishment—a group of cattle—that had passed through the press twelve times; and it still bore a greater resemblance to a spoiled colored photograph than to the charming picture which it subsequently became. The number of impressions, however, does not necessarily indicate the number of colors in a painting, because the colors and tints are greatly multiplied by combinations created in the process of printing one over another. In twenty-five impressions, it is sometimes necessary and possible to produce a hundred distinct shades.

The last impression is made by an engraved stone, which produces that resemblance to canvas noticeable in all of Mr. Prang's finer specimens. English and German chromos, as a rule, do not attempt to give this delicate final touch, although it would seem to be essential in order to make a perfect imitation of a painting.

The paper used is white, heavy "plate paper," of the best quality, which has to pass through a heavy press, sheet by sheet, before its surface is fit to receive an impression.

The process thus briefly explained, we need hardly add, requires equally great skill and judgment at every stage. A single error is instantly detected by the practised eye in the finished specimen. The production of a chromo, if it is at all complicated, requires several months—sometimes several years—of careful preparation. The mere drawing of the different and entirely detached parts on so many different stones is of itself a work that requires an amount of labor and a degree of skill which, to a person unfamiliar with the process, would appear incredible. Still more difficult, and needing still greater skill, is the process of coloring. This demands a knowledge which artists have hitherto almost exclusively monopolized, and, in addition to it, the practical familiarity of a printer with mechanical details. "Drying" and "registering" are as important branches of the art of making chromos, as drawing and coloring. On proper

registering, for example, the entire possibility of producing a picture at every stage of its progress depends. "Registering" is that part of a pressman's work which consists in so arranging the paper in the press, that it shall receive the impression on exactly the same spot of every sheet. In book work, each page must be exactly opposite the page printed on the other side of the sheet, in order that the impression, if on thin paper, may not "show through." In newspaper work this is of less importance, and often is not attended to with any special care. But in chromo-lithography the difference of a hair's breadth would spoil a picture; for it would hopelessly mix up the colors.

After the chromo has passed through the press, it is embossed and varnished, and then put up for the market. These final processes are for the purpose of breaking the glossy light, and of softening the hard outlines which the picture receives from the stone, which imparts to it the resemblance of a painting on canvas.—*Boston Daily Advertiser*.

OFFICIAL NOTICES.



Ministry of Public Instruction

APPOINTMENTS.

SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.

The Lieutenant-Governor, by an Order in Council dated the 30th ult., was pleased to appoint the following School Commissioners for the hereinafter mentioned Municipalities:

Hope, Co. of Bonaventure: The Revd. Mr. W. Scott in the room and stead of the Revd. Mr. P. Jaque.

St. Sylvestre (North), Co. of Lotbinière: Messrs. Robert Lypsey, Thomas Somerville, John Doonan, John Lowry, and Damase Bourgault.

St. Justin, Co. of Maskinongé: Mr. François Vermette in the room and stead of Mr. Antoine Lafrenière.

Eagan Kensington, Co. of Ottawa: Messrs. Charles McArthur, John Kelly, J. P.; Patrick Kiely, James McDonagh, and Joseph Godin.

St. Césaire, Co. of Rouville: Godfroi Lagüe, J. Uldéric Messier, Nazaire Nadeau, Octave Senécal, and François Noisieux.

Bergeronnes, Co. of Saguenay: Messrs. Thadée Couturier and Augustin Bouchard, in the room and stead of Messrs. Jean Savard and Benjamin Simard.

Ste. Marguerite de Wexford, Co. of Terrebonne: Messrs. Isidore Legault and François Cloutier in the room and stead of Messrs. Isidore Legault and Isidore Migneron.

Terrebonne (Paroisse), Co. of Terrebonne: Messrs. Joseph Filion, Louis Grenne, Pierre Valiquette, Joachim Lapointe, and Joseph Gadbois.

Banlieue, Trois-Rivières: Mr. Jean-Baptiste Beauvillier in the room and stead of Mr. Joseph Lafrenière.

DIPLOMAS GRANTED BY BOARDS OF EXAMINERS.

MONTREAL CATHOLIC BOARD.

Session of February 2nd 1869.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, (F.) 1st Class:—Misses Louise Josephine Aubin, Honorine Beauchamp, Alphonsine Birtz, Gléphire Blandin, Hermine Brouillard, Marie Chalifoux, Sophie Daigneault, Mrs. Muir, née Rosalie Dubois, Georgine Gareau, Julie Legault, Céline Limoges, Cordélie Mercier, Céline Ménard, Parmélie Ouellet, Mathilde Pinsonnault, Cordélie Raymond, Emma Riopel, Rose de Lima Robert, Vitaline Vigneault, and Mr. Patrick McGuire, (Eng.).

2nd Class:—Misses Elmire Barrette, Rose de Lima Briault Lamarche, Mathilde Corbeille, Eveline Chevalier, Lucie Gadoua ou Galouais, Mrs. Lamontagne, née Olive Hénault, Julie Marion, and Caroline Robichaud.

F. X. VALADE,
Secretary.

MONTREAL PROTESTANT BOARD.

Session of February 2nd 1869.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, (E.) 1st Class:—Misses Margaret Muir, F. E. Phillips, and Nydia Lestourneau, (F. & E.)

2nd Class:—Messrs. Henry G. Brisbin, John Brisbin; Misses Julia C. Copeland, Isabella Grant and Sarah Nichols.

T. A. GIBSON,
Secretary.

STANSTEAD BOARD.

Session of November 5th 1867.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, (Eng.) 1st Class:—Messrs. Leroy D. Hitchcock, Nathan R. Otis, Elwin J. Merry, George H. Brown; Misses Elma J. Merry, Arina L. Abbott, Viola Taylor, Sarah E. Hill, Alice A. Flanders and Lydia M. Lincoln.

C. A. RICHARDSON,
Secretary.

Session of November 3rd 1868.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, (Eng.) 1st Class:—Messrs. Hamilton Corey, James G. Ayer, Milton S. Woodman; Mrs. Electa B. Oliver and Miss Jennie E. Harden.

2nd Class:—Mr. Gardner M. Hunt; Misses Susan A. Flynn, Florence E. Kezar and Emma L. Rexford.

C. A. RICHARDSON,
Secretary.

Session of February 2nd 1869.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, (Eng.) 1st Class:—Messrs. Azro F. Davis, Lyman P. Austin, Quincy A. Randall, Amos Johnson Shurtleff; Misses Mary Jane Smith and Margaret Stevenson.

2nd Class:—Mr. Joseph Willis and Miss Lucinda F. Call.

C. A. RICHARDSON,
Secretary.

BEAUCE BOARD.

Session of February 2nd 1869.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, (F.) 1st Class:—Miss Eulalie Boivin.

2nd Class:—(Eng.) Miss Bridget Brennan,

J. T. P. PROULX,
Secretary.

KAMOURASKA BOARD.

Session of February 2nd 1869.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, (F.) 1st Class:—Miss Henriette Bernier.
2nd Class:—Misses Aurélie Beaulieu, Clémentine Bossé and Hermine Côté.

P. DUMAIS,
Secretary.

WATERLOO AND SWEETSBURGH PROTESTANT BOARD

Session of February 2nd 1869.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, (Eng.) 1st Class:—Messrs. Alexander E. Struthers, Samuel L. Willard; Misses Mary S. Knowles, and Gracie C. Savage.

2nd Class:—Messrs. John M. Constable, Alvin Gaines; Misses Lorance Burhart, and Florence A. Marsh.

WM. GIBSON,
Secretary.

WATERLOO AND SWEETSBURGH CATHOLIC BOARD.

Session of February 2nd 1869.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, 1st Class:—Mr. N. A. Rivière; (E. & F.) Misses Margaret McCaffrey, Mary Ann Seahill, (Eng.), Julie Goddu, (F.).
2nd Class:—(F.) Misses Aurélie Ernestine Racicot and Adéline Lévêque.

J. F. LEONARD,
Secretary.

RICHMOND PROTESTANT BOARD.

Session of November 5th 1867.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, (Eng.) 1st Class:—Misses Philipp White, Matilda Mulvena and Mary Jane Healy.

2nd Class:—Misses Louisa Lodge and Elizabeth Jackson.

HENRY BURNHAM,
Secretary.

BONAVENTURE BOARD.

Session of November 6th 1866.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, (Eng.) 1st Class :—Messrs. Walter C. Ross, John Little; Misses Philomène Lavoie, Marie Emilie Martin, Angèle Lucas, Marie H. Dubé and Angélique Philomène Arcenault. (F.)

J. A. LeBEL,
Secretary.

Session of February 2nd 1869.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, 1st Class :—Misses Agnes McCormick, (E.) and Angeline Gagnier (F.).

J. A. LeBEL,
Secretary.

QUEBEC CATHOLIC BOARD.

Session of February 4th 1868.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA, (F.) 2nd Class :—Misses Alfredine Odina Garon and Lucie De Varennes

N. LACASSE,
Secretary.

Session of February 2nd 1869.

MODEL SCHOOL DIPLOMA, (F. & E.) 2nd Class :—Miss M. Alice Davidson.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMA (F.) 2nd Class :—Misses M. Louise Fiset, M. Louise Pelletier, and Mary Stuart (Eng.).

N. LACASSE,
Secretary.

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

QUEBEC, PROVINCE OF QUEBEC, APRIL, 1869.

To Our Readers.

Unwilling to allow the publication, in this issue, of the Tables of the Apportionment of the Grant to Poor School Municipalities and the New Education Bill, passed during last Session of the Quebec Legislature, to interfere with the usual reading matter of our Journal, we have increased the size of our present number by one half. Notwithstanding this, we can only give the text (*pur et simple*) of the Education Bill, but will have something to say on it in our next. We have so arranged the Tables that they may be detached from the Journal, should any one desire to do so.

We would hope the foregoing remarks will be received as an apology for our being unable to acknowledge receipt of our usual courteous monthly Exchanges, as well as several new ones and Reports of Superintendents of Education. In the present number, however, will be found some valuable information and statistics selected from a few of the Reports that have been on our table for some time. Next month we hope to pay off all arrears.

An Act to Amend the Law Respecting Education in this Province.

HER MAJESTY, by and with the advice and consent of the Legislature of Quebec, enacts as follows :

1. Within four months after the passing of this Act the Lieutenant-Governor in Council shall appoint, to form and constitute the Council of Public Instruction for the Province of Quebec, together with the Minister of Public Instruction or Superintendent of Education for the Province, as the case may be, for the time being, twenty-one persons, fourteen of whom shall be Roman Catholics and seven

Protestants, and until such appointment shall take place the Members of the present Council of Public Instruction shall continue in office.

2. The said Council, so soon as reorganized under this Act shall resolve itself into two Committees, the one consisting of the Roman Catholic and the other of the Protestant Members thereof, and the matters and things which by law belong to the said Council shall be referred to the said Committees respectively, in so far as they shall specially affect the interests of Roman Catholic and of Protestant Education respectively, and in such manner and form as the whole shall from time to time be determined by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council on the report of the Minister of Public Instruction, or of the Superintendent of Education. The Minister of Public Instruction or Superintendent of Education, as the case may be, for the time being, shall be a member (*ex-officio*) of each Committee, but shall have the right of voting only in the Committee of the religious faith to which he shall belong.

3. The *quorum* of the Council of Public Instruction thus reorganized shall consist of nine members, and each of the Committees of the same shall fix its own *quorum*.

4. The total aid to Universities, Classical Colleges, Industrial Colleges, Academies and Model Schools, under the provisions of Chapter fifteenth of the Consolidated Statutes for Lower Canada, or of any other law that may be passed concerning Superior Education, shall in future be distributed between the totality of the Roman Catholic and of the Protestant Institutions respectively, in the relative proportion of the respective Roman Catholic and Protestant populations of the Province according to the then last census.

5. If at any meeting of the Council of Public Instruction, ten of the Roman Catholic, or five of the Protestant Members, appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, do record their votes to the effect that it is advisable that the management of Roman Catholic and of Protestant Schools and Institutions respectively should be distinct and separate, it shall be the duty of the President of the said Council to call a special meeting of the Council to take place within sixty and at least thirty days after the meeting at which such vote shall have been recorded, for the purpose of reconsidering the same.

6. If at the meeting thus called the same vote is confirmed by the same number of the said Roman Catholic or Protestant Members, as the case may be, the President of the said Council shall transmit to the Lieutenant-Governor a copy of the minutes of the said meetings, and within three months the Roman Catholic and Protestant Members of the said Council appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council shall be declared by order in Council to form two separate Councils of Public Instruction, with separate powers and jurisdictions in relation to Protestant and Catholic education respectively, as the whole shall be defined by such Order in Council.

7. If at the time of the passing of such order in Council or at any time thereafter there is a Minister of Public Instruction, he shall be a member (*ex-officio*) of both Councils of Public Instruction, but he shall have the right of voting only in the Council of the religious faith to which he shall belong, and there shall also be appointed two Secretaries of the Department of Public Instruction, and one of them shall be Secretary to the Roman Catholic and the other to the Protestant Council of Public Instruction, and their duties under the direction of the Minister of Public Instruction, shall be defined from time to time by order in Council, on the report of the said Minister.

8. If at the time of the division of the Council of Public Instruction into two separate Councils, or at any time thereafter there is, instead of a Minister of Public Instruction a Superintendent of Education, the said Superintendent shall be (*ex-officio*) a member of the Council of Public Instruction of the religious faith to which he shall belong, and there shall be appointed two Deputy-Superintendents, and the management of the Protestant and Catholic Schools and Institutions, respectively, shall be divided between them under the Superintendent, in such form as the Lieutenant-Governor in Council shall direct and the said Deputy-Superintendents shall be respectively members (*ex-officio*) of the Councils to which shall belong the schools under their respective management, and there may be appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, on the recommendation of each Council of Public Instruction, a Secretary to each of them.

9. From and after the time of the passing of the Order in Council for the division of the Council of Public Instruction as provided by the sixth Section of this Act, the grants to the Normal Schools and all other grants whatsoever for educational purposes and all expenses

of the government for educational purposes shall be divided between the Roman Catholic and Protestant Institutions, and for the benefit of Roman Catholics and Protestants respectively, in proportion to the Roman Catholic and Protestant populations of the Province, at the then last census; but the sums to be paid to the Common Schools shall continue to be apportioned and distributed in accordance with Chapter fifteen of the Consolidated Statutes for Lower Canada.

10. Dissentients shall not be liable for any assessment or school-rate which may be imposed by the School Commissioners, except for the assessment for the then current year, for assessments for the building of any school-house previously contracted for, or for the payment of debts previously incurred; provided always, that such assessments are levied within six months from the date of the dissent mentioned in the fifty-fifth Section of the fifteenth Chapter of the Consolidated Statutes for Lower Canada, or of the declaration hereinafter mentioned.

11. The word "inhabitants" wherever it occurs in the said 55th Section of the said Chapter shall be and is hereby replaced by the words "proprietors, occupants, tenants or rate-payers."

12. Any dissident may, at any time, declare in writing his intention of ceasing to support the dissentient school; and the receipt of his declaration by the Chairman of the School Trustees, and by the Chairman of the School Commissioners respectively, shall place him again under the control of the said School Commissioners, subject however to the above restrictions as to assessments.

13. The School Commissioners of the majority in any School Municipality shall alone have the power of levying taxes on the lands and real estate of Corporations and Incorporated Companies; but they shall annually pay over to the Trustees of the minority a proportion of all the taxes levied by them on such Corporations or Companies, in the same ratio as the Government grant for the same year shall have been divided between them and the said Trustees; and the proportion of taxes so levied for the building of school-houses and for the payment of debts, thus paid over to the Trustees aforesaid, shall be set apart by them for the building or the repairing of their own school houses. No religious, charitable or educational Institutions or Corporations shall be taxed for school purposes on the property occupied by them for the objects for which they were instituted, but on all property held by them or any of them, for the purposes of deriving any income therefrom, they shall be taxed by the School Commissioners of the religious majority or minority, to which such Corporations or Institutions belong, and to the exclusive benefit of such majority or minority, in conformity with the declarations which they or each of them may make to that effect, but in the event that the religious body to which such Corporations or Institutions belong is not apparent, and where no such declaration has been made, then such last mentioned properties shall be dealt with in like manner, as the properties of other Corporations or Incorporated Companies, in virtue of this Section.

Any non-resident proprietor may declare in writing to the School Commissioners and to the Trustees of dissentient schools his intention of dividing his taxes between the schools of the majority and those of the minority and in that case, the School Commissioners shall continue to levy and receive such taxes, and shall pay over to the Trustees of the dissentient schools such part and proportion thereof as directed by the said proprietor.

14. Whenever the School Trustees of the minority in two adjoining Municipalities shall be unable to support a school in each Municipality, it shall be lawful for them to unite and to establish and maintain under their joint management, a school which shall be situated as near the limits of both Municipalities as possible, so as to be accessible to both; said Trustees shall jointly report their proceedings to the Minister of Public Instruction or to the Superintendent of Education, for the time being as the case may be, who shall remit the share of the Common School grant to the Secretary-Treasurer whose name shall appear first on the return.

15. Whenever there shall be no dissentient school in a Municipality, it shall be lawful for any resident head of a family professing the religious faith of the minority in the said Municipality and having children of school age, to declare in writing to the Chairman of the School Commissioners that he intends to support a school, in a neighbouring Municipality, which school shall not be more than three miles distant from his residence; and he shall thenceforward pay, subject to the restrictions above mentioned, his taxes to the Commissioners or Trustees, as the case may be, by whom such school shall be maintained; but special mention shall be made in all school

returns of children coming from a neighbouring Municipality and such children shall not be taken into account in apportioning the school grants between the Commissioners and Trustees.

16. Whenever the Trustees of separate schools in any Municipality shall have been a year without schools, either in their own Municipality or jointly with other Trustees in an adjoining Municipality, and it shall appear that they are not carrying out the school law in good faith, and are taking no steps towards obtaining schools, it shall be lawful for the Minister of Public Instruction or the Superintendent of Education, for the time being, as the case may be, after giving three consecutive notices in the *Quebec Official Gazette*, in the *Journal of Education* and in the *Journal de l'Instruction Publique* to that effect, to recommend to the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, three months after the publication of the first of the said notices, that the Corporation of Trustees of separate schools for such Municipality be declared extinct; and the ratepayers who shall have been under the control of the said Trustees shall then be subject to all the rates and assessments to be levied by the School Commissioners, and shall be further held to pay to the Commissioners a sum equal to their share of all school taxes levied by the Commissioners during all the time for which the said Trustees of dissentient schools may have neglected to keep their schools in operation; but one year after the time at which such Corporation of Trustees shall have been declared extinct through the *Quebec Official Gazette*, any number of rate-payers professing the religious faith of the minority in such Municipality may again elect Trustees and form a new Corporation as by law provided.

17. The term of office of the School Commissioners of the Roman Catholic and Protestant Boards of School Commissioners of the cities of Quebec and Montreal shall expire on the first of July next, and previous to the said day the Lieutenant-Governor in Council on the recommendation of the Minister of Public Instruction, shall appoint for each of the said Boards, three Commissioners to form part of the same and the Corporations of the cities of Quebec and Montreal shall also appoint for each of the said Boards in their respective cities, three Commissioners to form part of the same; and the said Commissioners then appointed shall come into office on the first day of July next; provided that if twenty days previous to the said day, either of the said Corporations shall have failed to signify in writing to the Minister of Public Instruction, any of the appointments they are required to make, the same shall be made by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council in the manner above provided for.

18. In case any of the appointments to be made by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council shall not have been made previous to the day above named they shall be made with the least possible delay thereafter, and the School Commissioners thus appointed shall come into office immediately after their appointment.

19. On the first day of July of each subsequent year, in each Board, one of the School Commissioners appointed by the Corporation and one of those appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council shall go out of office and shall be replaced according to the mode of their appointment; and all the above provisions shall apply; and for the first and second years the last named in the lists of appointments published in the *Quebec Official Gazette*, shall go out of office first, and thenceforward, the two oldest according to the dates of their appointment shall go out first, so that after the two years from the passing of this act each shall serve during three years.

20. Any vacancy in the said Boards by death, absence from the Province or otherwise, shall be filled according to the manner in which the original appointment shall have been made, and the School Commissioners who shall fill such vacancies, shall remain in office only during the unexpired term of office of their predecessors; and whenever a School Commissioner shall have been appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, by reason of the Corporation having neglected to make the appointment, he shall for the purposes of this act and of the foregoing section be deemed to have been appointed by the Corporation.

21. The one hundred and thirty-third Section of Chapter fifteenth of the Consolidated Statutes for Lower Canada and the three first Sections of the twenty-second Chapter of the Statutes of this Province, passed in the thirty-first year of Her Majesty's Reign, are repealed.

22. The annual grant to be paid for the support of schools in the cities of Quebec and of Montreal, under the twenty-fourth, eighty-eighth, and eighty-ninth Sections of the fifteenth Chapter of the Con-

solidated Statutes for Lower Canada, shall be in the proportion of the populations of the said cities, and shall be apportioned by the Minister of Public Instruction, or the Superintendent of Education for the time being, between the Roman Catholic and Protestant Boards of School Commissioners, according to the relative proportions of the Roman Catholic and Protestant populations in the said cities, according to the then last census.

23. The Corporations of the said cities of Quebec and Montreal shall pay for the support of the schools in the said cities a sum equal to three times the amount of the share of the Government grant coming to the said cities under the above provisions, and the sum coming to each of the Roman Catholic and Protestant Boards of School Commissioners under the following provisions shall be paid by the said Corporations to the Secretary-Treasurers of the said Boards irrespective of the collection of the tax thereafter provided for in two equal semi-annual payments on the first of January and on the first of July of each year, and shall be recoverable by the said Boards before any Court of competent civil jurisdiction with interest and costs. For the present year, the payment due on the first of July may be delayed to the first of August.

24. The Corporations of the cities of Quebec and of Montreal, shall levy annually by assessment on real estate in the said cities, a tax sufficient to cover the amount payable by them for the support of schools under the above provisions, and the said tax shall be laid and collected and recovered at the time and in the manner provided for the other city taxes on real estate, except that if, for the present year, the time for assessing and levying the city taxes is past when this law shall come into force, the said tax shall be forthwith laid and levied notwithstanding. The said tax shall be known as the "City School tax."

25. Property belonging to religious, charitable or education Institutions and Corporations, and occupied by the said Institutions or Corporations for the objects for which they were respectively established and not held by them solely for the purpose of deriving an income therefrom shall be exempted from the said "City School tax."

26. The said "City School tax," shall be payable by the proprietors of real estate to the exclusion of the tenant, and the tenant shall not be bound to reimburse the same to the proprietor, except in the case of special agreement to that effect, and the said tax shall not be deemed to be included in any lease to be made after the passing of this act under the name of "Municipal or City, or Corporation taxes," or the word "all taxes," but shall be mentioned as the "City School tax." The usufructuary or the occupant, under an emphyteutic lease shall be deemed to be the proprietor for the purposes of this act, as also the occupant in case where the proprietor shall be unknown.

27. The Corporation of the city of Montreal, and the Assessment Board in the city of Quebec, shall forthwith cause to be made, and shall hereafter cause to be made every year at the same time as the assessment, and in the same manner, a statement of the real estate in each of the said cities. The Assessors, in the said cities for the purposes of this act shall be in equal number Roman Catholics and Protestants—a Roman Catholic and a Protestant acting for each Ward, and the necessary appointments for that object are hereby authorized.

28. The said statement shall bear against each lot or property the estimated value of the same, the name of the proprietor and the amount of the city School tax to be levied on the same for the year, but the latter head of information may be left out for the first year if more convenient.

29. The said statement shall be divided into four distinct panels :

1. Panel number one shall consist of the real estate belonging exclusively to Roman Catholic proprietors.

2. Panel number two shall consist of the real estate belonging exclusively to Protestants.

3. Panel number three shall consist of the real estate belonging to Corporations or Incorporated Companies and subject to taxation under this act, or to persons not belonging to the Roman Catholic or Protestant faith, or whose religious faith shall not have been ascertained, or belonging partly or jointly to persons belonging some to the Roman Catholic and others to the Protestant religion, or to persons who shall have declared in writing their desire of having their property inscribed on said panel, or to Firms and Commercial Part-

nerships who shall not have declared through their agent, or one of their members, their desire of being placed on the first or on the second panel.

4. Panel number four shall consist of the real estate exempted from taxation.

5. Properties possessed for purposes of revenue by Religious, Charitable or Educational Institutions or Corporations shall be inscribed upon list number one or list number two according to the religious denomination to which such Institutions or Corporations shall belong or in accordance with the declarations made by each of them to that effect, and if the religious denomination is not apparent and if no such declaration has been made they shall be placed upon list number three.

30. The said statement so soon as completed shall be placed in the office of the City Treasurer, and notice thereof shall forthwith be given in at least two newspapers published in the French language, and two published in the English language, in the said cities, and during thirty days after the publication of the first of the said notices, the said panels shall be opened for inspection.

31. During the thirty days it shall be lawful for either Board of School Commissioners or for any Person or Corporation whose name shall have been entered wrongly or omitted on any of the said panels, or who shall find that the name of any other Person or Corporation has been entered wrongly or omitted in any of the said panels, to file any complaint they may have to make with the City Treasurer, who shall accordingly alter and revise the said panels if necessary, and within three days it shall be lawful to appeal from his decision to the Recorder.

32. After the expiring of the said delays, the said panels shall be acted upon for the purposes of this Act for the then current year, but may be further corrected as hereinafter provided. And all accounts for the said tax sent and delivered to the rate payers and the receipts given to the same shall bear conspicuously on their face the words "panel number one, Roman Catholic School tax," "panel number two, Protestant School tax," or "panel number three, neutral School tax" as the case may be according to the panel on which the property shall have been inscribed. It shall be lawful for each Board of School Commissioners or for any Person or Corporation after the expiration of the said thirty days, but at least thirty days before the second payment to be made by the Corporation after the making of the said panels, to bring any complaints they may have in relation to the said panels before the Treasurer after giving three days notice thereof to the Board of School Commissioners, whose share of the sum may be diminished by reason of such complaints, with a right of appeal within three days to the Recorder, and according to the decision of the Treasurer or the Recorder, the panel or panels shall be amended, and on the forthcoming payments the error shall be rectified for both payments.

After the second payment it shall be lawful for the Corporation, if they see fit to declare by resolution that the statement and panels amended shall be in force for three years from the date of the said panels, and in such case no other statement and panels shall be made while such statement and panels are in force.

33. The sum to be paid by the Corporations semi-annually for the support of the schools shall be apportioned as follows :

1. A sum proportionate to the value of the property inscribed on panel number three shall be divided between the Roman Catholic and Protestant Boards in the relative ratio of the Roman Catholic and the Protestant populations in the said cities according to the then last census.

2. The remainder of the said amount shall be divided between the Roman Catholic and Protestant Boards in the relative ratio of the value of the property inscribed on panel number one and on panel number two respectively.

34. It shall be lawful for the said Boards of School Commissioners to require from the parents or tutors of the children attending their schools (except in case of such of them as shall be exempted by reason of their poverty) the payment of a monthly fee not exceeding twenty five cents for the Elementary Schools, fifty cents for the Model Schools and four dollars for the Academies, according to the rules and regulations which shall be made by them from time to time with the approval of the Minister of Public Instruction ; and they shall mention in their semi-annual report the number of children educated free of charge and the number paying each rate of fees,

and the said monthly fees shall be recoverable from the said parents or tutors in the Recorder's Court or any other tribunal of competent jurisdiction, but no suit shall be instituted for the same for more than a year in arrear nor more than a year after they shall have become due.

35. The School Commissioners of the said cities, during the next twenty years, shall have the power of laying aside annually a portion of their revenues not exceeding one fourth for the purchase of lots and for the construction of school houses, without any limitation as to the amount to be spent on each school house, any law to the contrary notwithstanding. And it shall be lawful for the said Boards with the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council to raise loans for the said purposes, and to transfer as security for such loans a part of their annual claims on the Corporation for the following years subject to the above limitation, and the said Board may with the approbation aforesaid raise money in advance for the said purpose by issuing debentures of not less than \$100.00 each redeemable in not more than twenty years and for an amount not exceeding in the whole for any one of the said Boards the sum of \$100,000, and in such case the portion of their revenue set aside annually as aforesaid or so much thereof as they may determine, shall be applied to the forming of a sinking fund for the redemption of such debentures.

36. Sections sixty-one and sixty-two of the fifteenth Chapter of the Consolidated Statutes for Lower Canada, shall not in future apply to the Secretary-Treasurers of the School Commissioners of the said cities, and the said Secretary-Treasurers shall send semi-annual returns on the first of January and on the first of July to the Minister of Public Instruction, or the Superintendent of Education, as the case may be, of all the receipts and expenses of the said Boards; they shall act, under the Commissioners, as managers and visitors of schools, shall superintend the construction of all school houses built by the said Boards, take steps to supply the schools with proper school furniture and apparatus, and render any service that may be required from them by the School Commissioners in relation to the same; and a percentage not exceeding three per cent on the sums received by them shall be allowed, not to exceed in any case the annual sum of six hundred dollars, as their remuneration; the whole subject to the approval of the Minister of Public Instruction.

37. The said School Commissioners of the cities of Quebec and Montreal shall have a right to hold real estate to any amount notwithstanding any provisions of any law to the contrary.

38. The words "religious majority" and "religious minority" in this and in any other Statute in force concerning Public Instruction shall mean the Roman Catholic or Protestant majority or minority as the case may be.

39. The sum appropriated annually by the fifteenth Chapter of the Consolidated Statutes for Lower Canada to poor Municipalities shall in future be eight thousand instead of four thousand dollars, and for that object a sum of four thousand dollars shall be added and remain added to the Common School grant permanent and additional, as also a sum equal to the increase which will take place by virtue of this act in the share of the said grant coming to the cities of Quebec and of Montreal.

ESSAYS.

1. *Notes on Education in the Eastern Townships*, by Archibald Duff, M.A., Montreal.

2. *A Paper on the Means of Providing for the Support and Education of Neglected Children and the Foundation of Ragged Schools*, by Mr. Todd, Montreal.

Each of these essays, read before the Association of teachers in connection with McGill Normal School, treats of important matters, possessing, at the time, peculiar claims on the attention of the public. While we are assured that our readers will feel interested in the subject as discussed by Mr. Duff, yet, as many of them must be already more or less acquainted with the state of Education in the Eastern Townships, we have thought it necessary, in view of our limited space, to confine ourselves to

the duty of presenting a somewhat comprehensive abstract of his essay, including the principal facts and views advanced by him.

Mr. Todd's essay treats of topics probably less familiar to most of our readers and is published in full.

1. *Notes on Education in the Eastern Townships.*—Mr. Duff, states at the outset that his facts were collected in the course of his personal experience as a teacher in the Eastern Townships. He takes up first the subject of Elementary Schools.

"These schools," he says, "form the great body of the educational institutions in the country and deserve the greatest share of. Our attention, our chief energy should be given to efforts to extend and perfect the elementary school system. The discussions held of late years in the Teachers' Conventions in the country have had reference mainly to this end, and much good has been the result.

The attendance on these schools is of a very variable nature. During the summer months, the elder children of many farmers' families are kept at home for work, and the youngest ones only are sent to school, where they may be kept in order, and learn something until their strength is sufficient to be used in farm labour. Some parents know that this is not the wisest plan, but the majority do not understand that a parent's duty is to give to the mind of the child as well as to his body the best education within his reach, and not to draw out of him all the physical exertion possible, under the pretext that his earnings are needed to help in the support of the family. There are many men in the country, who would have been intelligent members of society, thinking and acting independently for the good of the whole community, instead of being toil-worn drudges, or useless loafers, if they had not had drawn out of them so much hard work in their youth, but had been allowed the benefit of all the opportunities of learning within their reach. Is it not our part to educate the people to a knowledge of their duty, in this respect? It is true that many persons must begin early in life to work for their own support, but this is not so wide-spread a disadvantage as it is thought to be.

During the winter months the older children are free to attend school, while the younger ones are kept at home by the severity of the weather and the long heavy roads. Thus the winter attendance is almost entirely different from that in summer. The subjects studied are of course not altogether the same, the winter work being more advanced. Often, at this season, the few more forward scholars, who are eager to learn all they can, in the little time they have and at as little expense as possible, find no great difficulty in persuading the Teacher to form a class in some subject which rightly belongs to our Academy course, as for instance, Algebra.

With the younger scholars, the chief study is reading, most of the time being occupied with this. Elementary Arithmetic, Geography, History of Canada, Writing, and sometimes Grammar, coming next in importance. There is very little home study required, the work of preparation as well as that of reciting being attended to in school."

Next follow some remarks respecting the substitution of female for male teachers in the summer season, and their relative remuneration for services in the Common Schools. Mr. Duff speaks of a frequent change of teachers as "an advantage hard to be seen" and adds, that one of the evil consequences consists in the fact "that very few give themselves permanently to the work of teaching."

Respecting teachers generally, and the increasing influence of the Normal School training upon the efficiency of the instruction given in the country parts these observations are made.

"Most of the teachers are young persons who engage for short terms of about four months, and who do not remain longer than three or four years in the work. The rate of remuneration has a great deal to do with this, and it is surprising that so many, even for a short time, continue teaching, while they might, in most cases, be earning more in other occupations.

Very few have had the benefit of a Normal School Training, and thus find the work far more difficult at first than they otherwise would. It is to be feared that there are many who do not even seek, by study of proper works, to improve themselves as they ought. It is a pleasing fact however, and one that does not surprise us, that we

find those who hold Normal School Diplomas ranking among the best Teachers, doing their work thoroughly and carefully, and gaining favour with the people. Familiarity with the field in which they have to work is of course of great importance. Possessing this, they can readily apply the principles they have studied to the particular task allotted to them. Improvement is being made steadily in the standing of teachers generally, and it is to be noted that the number of those who avail themselves of the benefits afforded by Teachers' Associations is increasing. It is more and more felt that the Teacher's work is a peculiar and a difficult one, and one for whose right performance no ordinary effort must be put forth."

The very important subjects of School accommodations, appliances, and internal arrangements for ventilation &c., are next noticed.

"The improvement which is being made in school accommodation is note worthy. A traveller at once notices that the aspect of the exterior of school buildings is much more pleasing than it used to be. That which will attract children as well as benefit them is studied. Such matters are chiefly in the hands of School Commissioners and Trustees, but the Teacher as well can do not a little good. The example of one of our country Teachers is worthy of notice. A little corner of the schoolyard was fenced off by the boys, and the enclosure dug and prepared to receive plants. At a trifling cost the Teacher procured a few seeds and roots, and a little work spent regularly and shared by all kept up a beautiful little garden through the summer, a source of pleasure to the whole school and to passers by as well. The internal arrangements are also fast improving, but here there is more need for the skill of one who has studied carefully the frames of the children who are to live in the schoolroom a great part of the day. In most places there is the right desire to make the schoolroom comfortable, but every one is not acquainted with the results of the study that has been expended on the form and arrangement of desks, the places for recitation, the blackboard, &c., the best method of ventilating the room and maintaining a proper temperature. There still exist in the very backwoods settlements, some of the primitive log-shanty temples of learning, in which the floors and seats are made of planks that have not been sawn but hewn out of the log, and where the chinks between the logs of the wall are stuffed with moss to keep out the cold of winter, and left open for ventilation in summer, when the entire removal of the little window is not enough to let in the fresh air. But the people who have still such houses are but recent settlers, and are unwilling to let these remain long.

In the parts most remote from the larger towns and villages, the settlers are few in number, and a school municipality with only two or three school districts sometimes includes the area of more than one township ten miles square. The children have to walk a long distance in such cases to gain their scanty Education, and as the people are often poor, the clothing of the scholars is not the most comfortable, and school books are scarce.

It is certainly of much importance that we be well acquainted with these facts, with the people and the teachers among them, both for their good and our own. We are apt to judge of parts of the Province which we do not know by countries and institutions far off from them, perhaps across the Atlantic. We are thus unable to sympathize with them in their need."

On the subject of Model Schools and Academies the Essayist expresses himself as follows :

"Let us now turn our attention to the higher grades of Schools, the Model Schools and Academies. Of the first little needs to be said. There are very few of them, and in several cases they are not a benefit. It seems unnecessary to have a grade of schools between the Elementary and the Academy, and in practice the Model Schools do not hold such a place, but fall into one of the other two ranks.

Of the Academies much needs to be said at the present, and that not in congratulation on the good working of an excellent system, but in lamentation over serious defects, in call for immediate improvement, and in suggestion for remedy. A comparison between the work of our Common School system and the system or rather the no-system, of our Academies would lead us to call the former flourishing. The results of the two are very different, for while in general the youth leaving the Common Schools have a very good elementary education, those leaving the Academies have little or nothing more. Moreover the number of lads who enter College, from these Academies is now almost nothing. These two facts may well surprise us, and cause anxiety for the future of the country. Were they known and considered as they ought to be by the people, they would surely not continue to exist. It might be reasonably asked,—what has

become of all the public funds that have been expended for the support of these schools? In the most populous counties nearly every township has an Academy; one at least has two, and these within six miles of one another, some have more.

The attendance is very variable, sometimes being under twenty, and at times in particular places going down to half this number, while it seldom reaches sixty. The subjects taught are those styled "Common English" branches which are the same as the subjects of the Elementary School, often next door; the "Higher English" branches including History of other countries besides our own, Algebra, Geometry, &c.; and lastly "Languages." The greatest part of the scholars will be found studying the lowest class of subjects, sometimes with the addition of one of the others. These subjects are sometimes classified by the Trustees, and in some cases by the Teacher at his own discretion. The classification is of most importance as determining the fees paid.

The Teachers of all Academies are now required to be Licentiatees of the Normal Schools or of the Board of Examiners for School Diplomas; and a school which engages a teacher not provided with a diploma is liable to be deprived of its aid from the Superior Education Fund.

The rate of remuneration of the Teachers is low. It usually depends on the state of the school, being made up of the greater part of the grant received from the Superior Education Fund and of the amount of tuition fees paid by the scholars; a small portion of these being required for other expenses of the School. The latter part of the revenue of course varies, and cannot be large while the numbers are such as have been described. The former part has been for some years steadily decreasing probably by reason of the increase in number of the institutions receiving aid from the Fund.

The management of Academies is not regulated by any law, and is diverse in the various cases. There is usually a Board of Trustees who hold the school building and other property, and who engage the instructor and may make rules for the working of the School. But the election of these Trustees is not in all cases in the hands of the public, nor even in the hands of the parents of the scholars. It may be held by the persons, or the heirs of those, who originally contributed to the establishment of the school.

There is no requirement as to the age of those who may attend or their qualifications, or as to examinations to be held to determine the rank of the scholars and give an opportunity of judging of the work done. In many cases the Academy is merely the village school, where those able to afford the fees, besides their taxes for common school support may send their children, instead of allowing them to associate with those who must go to the Lower School but who received the very same instruction. Thus there are among the scholars of the Academies youths of all ages, from little children who can hardly read to young men and women who purpose standing examination before the boards of Examiners, and are seeking some preparation.

It has been noticed above that the number of young men who go up from these schools to matriculation at College is very small, and indeed it seems smaller than it was some years ago when the qualifications of teachers were not required to be so high. The fault is not however in the standard of the Teachers' Examination, else we might suppose that the Common Schools were not prospering as well as when their teachers were of lower qualification. Such, however, is not the fact, rather the opposite. The Common Schools are now far more prosperous and useful. The evil is not in the Teachers, but in the schools and the people. The schools are ill-managed, and there is no certainty that a Teacher will be allowed to keep a class of scholars for that length of time, and to give them that attention which will ensure a good result. Further, his remuneration is small, and not fixed. For these reasons men who have spent much valuable time and labour in fitting themselves for the position will not engage in the work. The schools are not able to obtain good men to work constantly in them, and are therefore open only occasionally, and even then with inferior Teachers. The confidence of the people is lost, and many who would gladly avail themselves of the opportunity to study are discouraged, or go to a distance at considerable expense.

There may be various ways of remedying these evils, but this plan recommends itself,—a reduction in the number of the institutions, and a much better support for each, with a wise and uniform system of management fixed by Statute."

Having discussed somewhat fully the details which he believes would be involved in the carrying out of his suggestion relative to a diminution in the number of Schools of higher grades, the author proceeds to notice the subject of text books. Of these he says that those imported from Britain or from the United States

are not calculated to be so serviceable as works of first class merit would be if prepared by Canadian teachers, suggesting that there are persons "who are still or have been teachers in the Townships, who are well qualified to supply the want. Shall we not make some effort to draw out these? Such books as have been published in Canada are in very general use in the country, but are hardly equal in worth to those from abroad, and do not receive the preference that might be desired. Montreal is a much more convenient market for the supply of such articles than any town across the border."

After some further remarks upon the work of School Commissioners and Inspectors, Mr. Duff concluded in the following words :

"The writer had the privilege during one summer of journeying for a week with one of the Inspectors on one of his tours. As far as possible the school in each district passed was examined as to the proficiency of the scholars; and in some cases prizes were given to the most deserving. Encouragement and advice were kindly given to Teachers and Scholars, and no doubt much good followed these visits. In the far remote districts especially they are highly prized. The statistics of the schools were collected, and the affairs of the municipal officers examined. Where practicable the people too were gathered together, and counselled as to their duty towards their children and their schools.

There are thus many things connected with our Educational system that are very pleasing. Where we can do better, let us go forward with courage. Let us hope that ere long the important offices in the management of Educational affairs will be held by men who have practical experience in the work of Teaching. Then we may expect a greater sympathy between them and the Teachers, a greater desire for advancement. These remarks apply especially to the Boards of Examiners for Diplomas. Their work requires more inspection than it now receives. They are not sufficiently directed in the performance of their duty, and yet in some respects, they are too much bound by narrow rules.

Let us take courage, believing that he who has made the mind of man, endowing it with powers so wonderful, will richly bless every effort put forth for its proper cultivation, and that our work shall not be fruitless.

Let us seek to have all our schools, little, and seemingly weak though they often are, centres whence is diffused the light which shall indeed make men wise for their work in the world; and where, rather than receiving any evil, the youth of the land may be encouraged to seek for themselves that righteousness that exalteth a nation."

2. *Essay on the Support and Education of Neglected Children.*

The subject of providing for the support and education of neglected and destitute children, has occupied the attention of the Christian philanthropist for more than half a century. Many attempts had been made but without success. In the year 1845, the Rev. Dr. Guthrie of Edinburgh opened a school for the poor children who lived in the immediate vicinity of his church. None were admitted but those who were unable to pay for their education. The number was small and the attendance was very irregular. To remedy this, he offered to every child who could come a good substantial Breakfast. This had the desired effect. The room in a very short time became too small for the number seeking admission. A large three story building, in every way suitable for the purpose, was offered to him and gladly accepted. The next question that had to be considered was where was he to find the means necessary for feeding the number now seeking admission. He then issued his famous plea for Ragged Schools, which drew the attention of all who were anxious to reclaim these outcasts. Money flowed in from all quarters, and before two years had passed away, not only were the children comfortably provided with three good meals daily, but good clothing was provided for them to wear when in school. The success which had attended his exertions thus far led him to try and get at a class still lower in the scale of humanity, viz., juvenile delinquents. At this time the streets were swarming with beggars and young thieves. The number of convictions of children in the City of Edinburgh was 14 per cent of the criminals who were annually sent to prison. To get at these it was necessary that the officers of

the law should be enlisted in the cause. Many excuses were made by them to the repeated applications on Dr. Guthrie's part for their assistance in sending them to the Ragged Schools instead of sending them to prison. After much hesitation a trial was made, and a few noted thieves were sent as an experiment. The success was much greater than was anticipated. These by kindness and careful watching were led to give up their old habits and latterly they became useful members of society. The success which had followed Dr. Guthrie's exertions in the capital led other cities and towns to follow, and before the opening of the World's fair in 1851. There was not a city or town in Scotland where such a School was needed but had one. And now go where you will, you cannot fail to find one of those necessary Institutions which have done more good than can be told and which are looked upon now as more necessary than a Jail or a Poor-house.

As my experience was intimately connected with the Original Ragged Schools for seven years, the following remarks will refer more particularly to them. It was of the utmost importance that in dealing with the class for which the Schools were intended, that none should be admitted but those whose parents were so poor as not to be able to provide for and educate them. All who were known to be beggars were eagerly sought after, and those who had been convicted of stealing were the peculiar care of the Institution.

As the success of the scheme became more widely known, our means increased and with our means so did our influence extend. Subscriptions from all parts of the world were regularly sent us, and many a visit we have had from distinguished foreigners who came, many of them, doubting but went away believing. The Educational department of the Schools was conducted much in the same way as in the Schools here, with this exception that the Bible was the Text Book.

I think these children more easily acquired knowledge than those more highly favoured. They were exceedingly fond of Geography and Arithmetic. When we saw them flagging at their other lessons, a change was made to either of these studies, and they became joyous and happy. One poor half witted boy by dint of sheer perseverance became so good at Geography that the benevolent founder challenged any school in the city to beat him. Poor Pat was never put to the test, but so great was his love for the science that when the others were at their plays, he was always found poring over the maps, or reading of places which he found there. Their knowledge of the Bible also was very great. A benevolent gentleman in London started a Magazine which was specially devoted to Ragged Schools. Six Bible questions were proposed every month, and answers were given in the number for the following month. Our Scholars became competitors for the prizes and until they were ruled out they carried them off regularly. One of the prize takers (a boy) specially deserves to be noticed. When sent to us he had been repeatedly convicted for begging. His father was dead and his mother was a good for nothing creature. After being with us some time he became diligent, took to his lessons kindly and in three years' time he became not only the head of Schools in Scotland but in England also. He carried off more prizes than all the others put together.

The Girls' and Infants' Schools were ably conducted, but there was much more difficulty experienced in reclaiming the Girls than the Boys. This may partly be accounted for in the greater influence which their mothers exercised over them. Little or no difficulty was felt in gaining the affections of those who were orphans. In a very short time after being admitted they took kindly to the officers of the Institution, and very many of them now are respectable members of society, who, but for the Ragged Schools would have led a life of shame and died a miserable death. A few instances will suffice, and these are taken at random:—

B. H. was brought to the School at the age of ten by the police. She was an incorrigible beggar,—for months after her admission, she gave us great trouble, repeatedly deserting, and was by some looked upon as a hopeless case. At last the magistrate thought it best to send her off to prison, but she begged so hard to be sent back to School that another trial was granted her. At this time she was perfectly ignorant of the Alphabet. Her aversion to learning was so great that it was deemed advisable not to force her to learn, she was therefore sent into the kitchen to assist the cook. After having spent some time there, she was brought back to School and after much labour and perseverance on the part of her Teachers, she managed to get through the Alphabet,—this accomplished, her progress in learning was rapid, and she ultimately became one of the prize takers also. When her education was finished she was apprenticed to a Bookbinder where she served her apprenticeship faithfully,—continuing in the same employment, until one of the Boys, (now a man), took her for his wife. Another M. N. an orphan with a brother were found stealing, they were fortunate in being brought before

magistrate whose large hearted benevolence was known throughout the length and breadth of Scotland, who not only sent them to the School but paid for them while there and was their steady friend and guardian as long as he lived. She became table maid to one of the Directors and was up till very recently in the same situation. Her brother was sent out to New-Brunswick where he is now earning an honest living. J. R., was sent to School when thirteen years of age,—was hopelessly bad—returned to her old habits and at last died in the Lock Hospital. But it would tax your time and patience to give you any more. Suffice it to say that while many of these girls returned to their old haunts and habits, yet over one hundred in my experience have to date their rise in life to the Original Ragged Schools.

While every pains was taken to give them a sound scriptural education, it was necessary that they should be taught habits of industry as well. The Girls were all taught to make and mend their own clothes, cook the food for the Establishment, wash the School clothes and scrub the floors of the buildings twice a week. By these means they were thoroughly trained to become good servants, and when the time came in many instances they became good frugal wives.

The Infant School was a very important part of the Institution, it was the receiver so to speak of all the infantile vagrant population of the city, and in due time became the feeder to the Boys' and Girls' School. This School was not opened for some time after the Boys' and Girls' School was established. It was very cheering to visit this part of the establishment and see little creatures from four to seven years of age, neatly clothed enjoying the blessings of good food, kind treatment throughout the day, and comfortable beds to lie on at night, if they had no homes to go to,—that we had many such the following cases will show. Two little girls aged respectively four and six years, were found one cold winter day nearly frozen to death by one of our Directors who brought them to the School, they could not tell where they lived or what their mother did; they were taken in and some clothes given them (for they were nearly naked) lodgings procured for them, and every enquiry was made to find out something about them but without success. They suddenly disappeared and were missing for some time, at last they were traced to a miserable hovel in one of the wynds of the High Street, but words fail to give a description of the scene I saw in this miserable den. In it were found five men and as many women all in a beastly state of intoxication,—in a corner lying on a heap of straw were found the little truants, nearly naked, their unnatural mother having pawned for drink the few clothes given to them. This was one of the worst dens I ever visited. After receiving a great deal of abuse, I prevailed upon the mother to let me have the children back. A reluctant consent was given, and the poor little things were once more under our care. For a long time the mother kept taking them away, but at last she committed some crime which rid us of her presence and the children of their worst friend.

The daily routine of the Schools was as follows: From 7 till half past 8, changing clothes, bathing and play; Breakfast from half past 8 till 9; play till 10; 10 to 11, Bible lessons; 11 till 1, ordinary lessons; 1 till 2, play; 2 till half past 2, dinner; 3 to 5 lessons; 5 to 6, work; 6 to 7, supper, changing clothes, and dismissal. The Girls' school had the forenoon devoted entirely to reading, &c. In the afternoon, the more advanced were employed in making and mending their own School dresses and making School shirts for the Boys. Those who were not far enough advanced in their education had a lesson in the afternoon. Rewards by the friends of the Institution were held out to those who excelled in sewing and knitting. These rewards consisted of pieces of dress, which if kept clean they were allowed to wear in the School instead of the School dress. This was considered a great honour and besides being a saving to the Institution, acted as an incentive to others to do their best to win the much coveted prize. Those who were drafted off during the week to assist the cook had two lessons daily. Five girls were always in the kitchen—this came to them in rotation every five weeks. The infants were kept as much as possible in the play ground when not at their lessons. When the girls attained the age of 13, they were sent out as servants,—I am happy to say that the demand was always in excess of the supply. Great care was taken, in finding that the applicants were suitable persons to send them to, but some times we were misled, and those heartless persons used them very cruelly.

The Industrial Department of the Boys' School consisted of shoemaking (or rather shoemending), tailoring, carpentry, brace making, bag making and box making. The shoemakers were employed in mending the shoes of the children, the tailors in making and mending the School clothes, carpenters in making chests for holding clothes, bracemakers making braces for a factory, this was a remunerative employment, six gross of braces being turned out weekly

by 24 boys, for which we received 3s. a gross. As all the furnishings were provided by the manufactory there was consequently no outlay.

Box making employed 36 boys,—this work was very attractive, and none could get into this room unless they had been well behaved. This department was more than self sustaining as after paying an experienced workman the ordinary wages, we had a clear profit of sixty pounds to be added to the funds of the Institution.

The number of children on the Roll of the School at all times was 320; of these 120 were in the Boys', 100 in the Girls', and 100 in the Infant School. The average amount of sickness was 12, and the average number absent without leave 10.

The cost of feeding, clothing, lodging and educating a child was £5 per annum, it never exceeded this but was sometimes a little less.

This sum was apportioned as follows:

Education £1. 5s.; Industrial Training 15s.; Lodging for the homeless 7s.; Food £1. 7s. 6d.; Clothing 15s.; Coal, water and gas 4s., and the balance was for incidental expenses.

Where good mistresses were found, my experience of the girls was that they made honest, faithful, and obedient servants. The same hours for educational purposes were employed by the boys, with this exception that in the industrial department where work was in demand, we had relays of workers,—for example, the brace makers, box makers, carpenters, tailors and shoemakers, were divided into two gangs, working so many hours per day, then they were changed from the workshops to the school rooms. This system was found to work well, as they were neither overwrought in the one room or overtasked in the other. Rewards in the Boys' school were also given, but of a different kind. Boys who became expert in the work they were engaged on were allowed a small sum weekly which was carefully laid aside for them until they left the school, it was then expended in buying Sunday clothes and other little necessaries which the rules of the Institution did not provide them with. The Boys were allowed to choose the trade they wished to learn, when they were fit to leave the School, but it generally happened that those who had been with the tailors when in School chose that as their trade and so with the others. A good many of the Boys found situations in the country; one of them is now the adopted son of a farmer in Teviotdale; another is gardiner to a retired officer; six of them at the time of the Crimean war volunteered with the navy, and were present at the taking of one of the forts in the Baltic; another was taken out to Australia by a wealthy merchant who on a visit to the School took a fancy to him paid his outfit and passage, the last accounts I heard of him were that he was giving every satisfaction to his kind hearted employer: during the time I was in charge of the Schools, I had only five Boys who lapsed and fell back into their evil courses.

The Boy who was dux of the School became a carriage painter in the west of Scotland, he sent money to pay his mother's rent, but for reasons which it would not do to state here, he refused to live with her,—suffice it to say, that they were good and met with the hearty approval of his best friends.

The Tailor Boys were all more than once convicted of stealing before their admission to the School. One of them J. L. was as often as five times convicted,—both his parents had been transported. When brought to us he gave us a great deal of trouble, often ran away, but it was no use, he was brought back by the police and at last settled down—having become reconciled to his lot,—was made foreman in the Tailors' shop, and gave all his Teachers every satisfaction. The same tale might be told of the other five—they all belonged to the same gang, and all underwent the same ordeal.

The Australian Boy's case was still worse. He was a child of shame, his mother was the daughter of a respectable farmer, was seduced by a gentleman in her neighbourhood, was deserted by him and became a common prostitute. Five convictions were recorded against him before he was sent to the School and four afterwards,—every thing was done that could be thought of to break him off his evil habits.

The highest post in the School was that of servant to the Superintendent,—this situation had always been filled hitherto by the best boy,—as it was one of responsibility. The boy holding it had a great many privileges,—for example, he did not require to do any work but that of waiting upon his master. His clothes were always of the best and he was allowed two pairs of shoes annually besides many other things, and last but not least he had his hair cut to his own liking and that by a professional barber.

The place became vacant by the removal of the boy who held it,—Robert was promoted to it, it was the turning point in his career, he held it for three years, and during that time he had many opportunities of stealing money and other things, but he manfully resisted all temptations and left the School with a character as good as any of his predecessors.

W. M. the son of a Sweep, was notorious for playing truant being generally absent half the week. Bribes were held out to him

without effect, punishments were inflicted with the same result. At last he was appointed care-taker of the play grounds which had the desired effect. He became a good scholar, but refused to learn a trade,—said it was no use as he was going to follow his father's profession, which he did, but became a better man,—his only fault when at School was his dirty habits.

The Educational Staff consisted of Superintendent and Head Master, Senior and Junior Teachers for the Boys' School; Teacher and Assistant for the Girls', and Teacher for the Infant School; Music Teacher for all the Schools,—£355.

The Industrial Staff comprised box maker, carpenter, brace maker, tailor, shoemaker, drill sergeant, cook and female attendant,—£175. A doctor was paid a stipulated sum yearly for his advice. He visited the Schools once a week, or oftener if necessary and visited those who were confined at home.

Every child entering the School was vaccinated, the wisdom of which was proved in the fact that when small pox was raging in the city we had only one case in our School, while Schools of a higher class had to be closed on account of its ravages. The worst enemy we had to contend with in the shape of epidemics was Typhus, which swept off a great number. At the opening of the School two of the Teachers died and others were long laid aside from discharging their arduous duties.

The punishments inflicted were various the most effectual that of cutting their hair short, depriving them of their holidays, or making them do the work out of their turn—this refers only to the girls; the best for the boys was giving them a cold bath, stopping their dinner, or forfeiting their rewards, which were given the more deserving.

To prevent truancy we followed the old plan of set a thief to catch a thief which was in every case successful. There was a squad of boys detailed every evening to hunt up those who had been absent through the day. The chief of this staff was one eyed Davie, one time a noted kipper, and very few, if Davie got a sight of them, could elude him or his staff. Davie had neither father nor mother and was completely friendless. He was apprenticed to a shoemaker and bade fair to be an excellent workman. I have just to mention one other character. M. L. who was of a peculiarly morose disposition, associated with none, had no friends—a perfect Ishmaelite. He was stupid at everything; lessons he cordially hated and work still more. The office of Barber becoming vacant, by the promotion of the boy who held it to a better post, Mike volunteered his services. As this was an office coveted by none, his offer was gladly accepted. It was soon discovered however, that it was not his love for the office or a desire to make himself useful that prompted him to do so, but a spirit of revenge on some of the boys who were in the habit of teasing him in the play ground. As it was absolutely necessary that their hair should be often cut, Mike had it in his power to retaliate on his tormentors which he did and that most effectually, as soon as he had one of them under his hands—the poor boy's head being furrowed like an ill ploughed field. When reprimanded for doing so, he said he has got what he deserves—he wont torment me any more. And so it was for when any of the older boys especially were guilty of breaking any of the rules the performances of Mike upon their devoted heads deterred others from being guilty of like transgressions.

So successful had been our treatment of offenders that the Commissioners of police voted annually to the Institution the sum of two hundred pounds sterling, and a good right they had to do so for in 1847 the number of children under 14 years of age sent to prison in Edinburgh was 14 per cent; in 1850, it was reduced to 9; in 1856, to 5; and in 1868 it was not quite one per cent. The excellent Governor of the prison in a recent report says that he attributes the gradual diminution of crime in the city among the young nearly if not entirely to the efforts of Ragged Schools. And Dr. Guthrie in a speech delivered a few weeks ago, said the Beggars in 1848 swarmed like locusts from the Grassmarket, Cowgate, High Street and Canongate, now he said you may walk the streets of Edinburgh from morning to night and you wont see one.

And now in conclusion, I take this opportunity of saying of the benevolent founder of the Ragged Schools, that had he never preached a sermon, written a book, or procured manses for his less favoured brethren, or done any of the many benevolent acts which he daily did to the poor of his own parish, the establishment of the Original Ragged Schools is the best and noblest deed he ever performed and many will rise up to call him blessed.

Educational Reports.

Limited space obliged us to deal briefly with the following reports. We endeavored however to give the facts and figures we deemed of most interest to our readers.

NEW-BRUNSWICK FOR 1867.

In the first term of the School year, from the end of September 1866, to the beginning of April 1867, there were 797 Schools in operation, or 4 more than in the like period of the preceding year. These 797 Schools employed 815 Teachers, of whom 18 were Assistants, where the daily average attendance of pupils was 40 or upwards. We find also an increase of 11 Teachers during the same period. In the Summer Term, which usually shows the most Schools and the largest attendance of pupils, we find something like a corresponding advance. The Schools then in operation were 847, employing 866 Teachers, of whom 19 were Assistants in large schools.

Of the 815 Teachers employed in the Winter Term of the past year, 584 were of the trained class, against 569 in the like period of the preceding year, showing an increase of 15 in favor of 1867. In Summer the number of the trained Teachers employed was 637, as against 612 in the previous Summer, or an increase of 25 trained Teachers in favor of 1867. The number of the untrained still engaged in both Terms, was respectively 231 and 229.

In the Winter Term, as we have seen, there were employed 815 Teachers, of whom 430 were men, and 385 women. In Summer the whole number engaged was 866, of whom 407 were men, and 459 women. Whilst the whole number just mentioned shows a considerable increase for the year, the proportion of male and female Teachers remains nearly the same as in 1866. It has to be remarked, however, that the demand for male Teachers for some time past has very considerably exceeded the supply at the present rates of remuneration; at the same time the fact is undeniable that female Teachers, especially those of the third class, are not rising in popular estimation. In the first term, male Teachers of the first and second classes have increased in number 4 and 6 respectively; while the returns show 2 less of the lowest grade. On the other hand, there is a decrease of 10 and 3 of female Teachers of the first and second classes, with an increase of 13 of the lowest grade. Coming to the Summer Term we find an increase of 3 men of the first class, with a decrease of 18 and 2 in the second and third grades respectively. The same Term gives a decrease of 8 females of the highest classification, with an increase of 3 and 44 respectively of the second and lowest grades.

These results, as far as they indicate an increase of Teachers, either male or female, of the higher classification, are in my judgment entirely satisfactory; but where we find an increasing influx of the lower classed Teachers, with a corresponding reduction in the number of the higher, we can only express our oft-repeated regrets that the usual remuneration is not sufficient to retain in the profession, for any great length of time, young persons whose talents and education, with equal industry in other pursuits, are certain to ensure them higher rewards.

The sum paid by the Province for salaries of Teachers in the Winter Term of the past year was \$39,732.82, or \$429.45 less than that paid for the like service in 1866. In the Summer Term, the sum required was \$41,019.79, or \$12.50 less than was paid in the corresponding term of 1866. The whole amount for the year was therefore \$78,752.61.

In the first term the local contributions reached the goodly sum of \$53,181.66, or an increase upon the corresponding period of the preceding year of \$2,121.56. The second term also shows an increase of \$1,822.04, the local support having amounted to \$54,259.98. This makes the sum total of the local subscriptions, tuition fees, assessment, and "board," amount to \$107,441.64, the largest reported since 1862, and exceeding the Provincial expenditure for the same purpose by \$3,933.60.

The number of pupils registered in the Winter Term of the past year was 28,231, or an increase of 422 on the corresponding period in 1866. In Summer, the number on the School Rolls was 30,871, showing an increase of 1,090 on the like Term in the preceding year. Assuming, as has been done in former Reports, that about one-fourth of the registered pupils in Winter are not found at School in Summer, and adding that portion to the Summer attendance, we get 37,929 as a tolerable approximation to the number of pupils at the Common and Superior Schools for longer or shorter periods in 1867. Again adding to these figures the attendance at the Grammar, Madras, Denominational, and a few other Schools not included in the foregoing enumeration, or probably 3,000 pupils, we get 40,929 as the estimated number of pupils receiving instruction at the Public Schools during the past year. It is, however, only fair to ourselves

to add that if instead of one-fourth, we assume, with the Superintendent of Education in Nova Scotia, in his Report for 1866, one-third of the Winter attendance as the number retiring before the Summer Term, our estimate of the whole year's attendance would be increased 2,402, making in all about 42,881.

This result is certainly the best ever yet attained, and is in itself a matter of great satisfaction. It shows that over one in every seven in our population was receiving School instruction during some portion of the past year, and proves that in this respect we are much in advance of many of the old countries of Europe. We will even compare not unfavourably with some of our advanced neighbours on this continent.

We will conclude with a paragraph or two from Mr. Inspector Morrison's report :

According to the Census of 1861, the number of children over 6, and under 16 years of age, in this Province, was 64,880; and assuming 3 per cent, as the mean annual increase, there must be at present, in New Brunswick, more than 76,000, children between 6 and 16 years of age; and we may safely assume that there are 10,000 more between 16 and 18; making altogether 86,000 persons of suitable age to attend School. Probably there were attending School for a longer or shorter period, during last year, about 39,000 pupils of all ages. These figures exhibit the appalling fact, that there are now more than 47,000 of the youth of our Province who do not attend School at all.

It is found in all countries in which much attention is paid to Public Instruction, that the Schools require constant and careful supervision, and that the value of inspection is directly proportional to the frequency of its repetition. When the examination occurs only once in a term, it is clear that the value of it is reduced to a minimum, the Teacher is apt to charge any deficiencies to his predecessor, and before the Inspector returns to see whether his suggestions have been adopted, and whether satisfactory improvement has been made, the Teacher is off to another District, and thus he is able to evade inspection, or to defeat the object of it altogether. If inspections should occur once in three months, they would be much more effectual than they are at present, and they would rectify the evil to which I have just alluded. At all events, there should be two consecutive inspections of the same School previous to the payment of the Provincial money.

PENNSYLVANIA.

In our last issue we acknowledged receipt of the Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools of this State, for the year ending June 1, 1868, and now proceed to give a summary of its more important features.

The number of School Districts in the State is 1918; Schools, 13,666; School directors, 11,698; Superintendents, 75; Teachers, 16,771; Pupils, 800,515; average number of pupils, 508,104; total cost of tuition, building, etc., and contingencies, \$6,118,675.19; cost including expenditures of all kinds, \$6,200,557.96; estimated value of School property, \$10,556,765.00.

Percentage of attendance upon the whole number exclusive of Philadelphia, .657; average cost of tuition per month for each pupil, 90 cents; whole number of male Teachers, 6,935; female Teachers, 8,569; average no. of mills on the dollar, School tax, 7.53; average no. of mills on the dollar, building tax, 5.51; amount of tax levied, \$4,019,910.13.

Number of Schools in Philadelphia under Superintendence of the Board, 382; male Teachers, 81; female do, 1,286; number of pupils registered, 134,189; average attendance, 69,781; percentage of attendance, .51; monthly cost per pupil on average attendance, \$1.30. The increase in the average attendance of pupils in 1868 over that in 1867, is 23,786, while the increase in 1867 over that in 1866, was only 1488. Philadelphia expended in building purposes, \$355,779.63. Within a fraction of \$2,000,000.00 were spent for building purposes during the year.

In the ten years from 1858 to 1868, excluding Philadelphia, the number of male Teachers has diminished by 1256, and the number of female Teachers has increased by 3932. The average monthly salaries of male Teachers have been increased \$13.13, and of female Teachers, \$11.54. The tax levied for School purposes has very nearly doubled. The cost of building School houses has gone up from \$454,343.53 to \$1,357,726.79; that is, there was expended in 1868 nearly three times as much money for this purpose as in 1858.

The cost of instruction was almost twice as much, and contingencies almost four times as much the last year as they were ten years ago.

The Teachers' Institutes were attended last year by 10,268 actual Teachers; 2,043 School Directors and other active friends of education were present, and the aggregate number of spectators was 25,505. The provisions of the law in the relation to Teachers' certificates met at first with a considerable opposition, but the good resulting from their operation has justified their wisdom. A large number of professional certificates, unworthily held, has been revoked. As this class of certificates must be renewed every three years, they cannot hereafter stand in the way of progress. Those 282, who have obtained the new *permanent* certificate, constitute the very cream of the profession. The county superintendency proves itself to be the "right arm" of the system.

The Board of controllers of the city of Philadelphia caused an inquiry to be made to ascertain how many children in that city did not attend schools of any kind. The result of this census, taken by the police, under the direction of the Mayor, was the startling fact, that out of about 150,000 children, between the ages of six and eighteen, 20,534 attended neither public nor private schools. Of these 20,534 nearly 11,000 were between the ages of six and twelve, thus showing that they were not kept at home on account of domestic duties. Pittsburgh has undertaken a similar work, and enough is known to warrant the conclusion that quite as large a proportion of children attend no school there, as in her sister city. From these and other facts it is computed that there are at least 75,000 children of school age, in Pennsylvania, whose education may be said to be totally neglected. In addition to this, there are probably 1,000 children, old enough to go to school, in the different almshouses of the commonwealth, in very few of which there is any provision for their instruction. In 1867 there were admitted into the houses of refuge, 536 children, (whose average age was 14½ years) classified as follows:—Did not know the alphabet, 57; knew the alphabet only, 92; could read poorly, 262; read well, 21; could write poorly, 177; write tolerably, 94; could not write, 246. There were in the almshouses of 46 counties in the year 1867, when visited by the county superintendents, 2809 persons over ten years of age. Of these 1187 could not read; 1189, a little; 70, a good education.

There were in the jails of the same counties, 1601 of whom, 434 could not read; good education, 123. In the Eastern Penitentiary, 291 convicts were received in 1867, of whom, 62 were illiterate; 203 could read and write; good education, 2.

In the State Penitentiaries of the States of Ohio, Missouri, Kansas, and Iowa for the year 1867, there were 1,339 convicts, of whom only 28 had received a good education.

A table prepared by John S. Holloway, Esq., Warden of the Eastern Penitentiary, shows, of the 626 convicts then in prison, 350 or 62.50 per cent had attended the public schools; 159 or 25.40 per cent had attended private schools and 77 or 12.30 per cent had never gone to school.

The Normal School system of Pennsylvania, quite comprehensive in its aims, contemplates the establishment of twelve schools, four of which are already in operation, and were attended by 2,121 students of whom 1,702 were in the Normal departments, and 419 in the model schools. The four in operation send out yearly about 75 graduates, well prepared, and 1,000 under-graduates partially prepared for the work of teaching.

To sum up there are more than 800,000 pupils enrolled; less than two-thirds attend regularly; average school term less than six months; expended for school purposes, over \$6,000,000 per annum; 2,000 school houses unfit for use; scarcely one half the school houses suitably furnished; not one sixth of them have sufficient apparatus to illustrate the branches taught; teachers are so poorly paid, that more than one third of those who were teaching a year ago, have abandoned the profession, mainly because they have found, not more congenial, but more remunerative employment; of those now teaching, 3,297 have attended Normal Schools, and 9,399 have read works on teaching,—a wonderful change, for it is only a few years since Normal Schools were established, and books on teaching became to ordinary teachers more than a myth.

MAINE.

The Superintendent of Education in his Report of the Common Schools of this State for 1868, on page 5, says:—"Excepting in the larger and more vigorous towns, as a State, we are behind the record of fifteen years ago in School matters. Our school houses are no better—only half of them pronounced in good condition; our teachers plodding as ever, with no extra facilities for improvement, excepting the Normal Schools, which by no means counterbalance the loss of the County Teachers' Institutes, their pay not advanced with the increased cost of living; School inspection in no degree more thorough than formerly, parents exhibiting no increased amount of

interest, while the actual percentage of average attendance in the public Schools is less than formerly."

By an analysis of the "Comparative Statement" found on page 65 of the Report, we find that,—In the whole number of Scholars, the decrease from 1858-68 was, 16,683. In the number enrolled in summer Schools, the decrease was, 20,630. In the number enrolled in winter Schools, the decrease was, 30,205. In the average attendance, summer Schools, the decrease was, 15,319. In the average attendance, winter Schools, the decrease was, 25,360. The percentage of average attendance to whole number, .42. Percentage of average attendance of Scholars registered, .77. Aggregate amount expended for Schools, \$1,072,498.00.

MISSOURI.

We are indebted to the *Journal of Education*, St. Louis, published by J. B. Merwin, for the following:

Governor Fletcher says:

The whole number of children between the ages of five and twenty-one years in the State is 544,664, of whom 510,183 are white, and 34,481 colored. The number of teachers employed is 7,100. We have 6,040 public school houses in the State.

The permanent school fund now consists of

Missouri 6 per cent bonds.....	\$20,000 00
United States bonds.....	\$1,669,760 00
Total.....	\$1,689,760 00

The interest received in gold on the United States bonds has amounted to \$92,793 00. This gold has been sold for the aggregate of \$130,991 25 in currency, of which the sum of \$92,793 has been distributed to the counties for schools, being 6 per cent. on the original investment, and \$83,198 25 reinvested in United States bonds.

The portion of the levy of revenue tax set apart by law for the school fund for the past year is \$217,011.69. The amount for distribution for the year, from all sources, is \$273,261.30.

About half as many school houses have been built in one year of free Missouri, as was built in a period of forty years, from 1820 to 1860.

Within the last two years a system of "Teachers' Institutes" has been organized. They partake of the character of primary schools of training for the teachers, and exist in every county of the State, with very few exceptions. The practical good resulting from these meetings of the teachers of each county for consultation and comparison of modes of instruction, commends this feature of our general system of public instruction to the General Assembly for a legal embodiment and support in the acts governing common schools. This should be done at least until a system of Normal schools shall be established.

Public Instruction should embrace the rudiments of the science of government, at least so far as defines the general rights and duties of the citizen. It should also include the elementary sciences, especially as they relate to nature and the industrial arts. The arts of industry should be supported by the science of the school. Instruction in the general principles of agriculture, of physiology, of botany, of natural history; in a word, instruction in the direction of future usefulness should be authorized and required in our system of State schools.

The State University is now in a prosperous condition. It has a full corps of Professors, with the Normal department, which was provided for by the last General Assembly in complete and successful operation, and with a military department fully organized, in which military tactics and civil engineering are taught by a distinguished officer of the army, who has been assigned to that duty under a law of the United States, the University begins to assume the proportions contemplated by the framers of the constitution, and may soon be made to take rank among the best educational establishments in the country.

The endowment of the University is as follows, in addition to one and three-fourths per cent on the balance of State revenue after deducting amount for Public Schools:

In United States 5-20 bonds.....	\$100,000 00
Stock in bank at Chillicothe.....	23,000 00
Money in the State Treasury.....	707 50
Total.....	\$123,707 50

The income from which amount during the past year, \$10,677 50, added to the sum of \$11,388 derived from the State revenue, makes the total income for the past year, \$22,065 50.

MONTHLY SUMMARY.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

—The opening of an Electric Telegraph School of Instruction is announced in London. By means of this instruction, good manipulators of the telegraph can be turned out to fill the numerous posts that will shortly be open to them, if we may judge from the rapid extension of telegraph projects. The chief feature of this undertaking, however, is that it opens out a new field for female labour, and merits the attention of those who are endeavouring to discover new channels of remunerative occupation of educated women. Should the Post Office authorities, as empowered by special Act of Parliament passed last Session, take possession of all the telegraphs in this country, they will extend the present number of stations by some 600. To all candidates for employment in the Government Civil Service, the knowledge of the practical working of the telegraph must prove of advantage.

—In compliance with a usage which dates from a very remote period, the pupils of the celebrated College of the Propaganda at Rome, placed under the direction of Cardinal Barnabo, gave an interesting sitting of the Polyglot Academy just before the Epiphany. The proceedings, which took place on Sunday, and were repeated on the following day, drew together, as usual, a numerous and distinguished auditory. Amongst the persons present were cardinals, prelates, princes, and personages belonging to high Roman and foreign society. The intellectual exhibition is assuredly most curious. To hear thirty-two different languages, or idioms, spoken by young men belonging to nearly all the nations of Europe, and a great number of those of Asia, Africa, America, and Oceanica, is not an ordinary enjoyment. This event occurs only in the Eternal City, and is repeated but once a year—always at the same period of the year. The entire universe, so to speak, by the representatives of so many tongues, comes at the Epiphany, as did formerly the Magi, to adore the Redeemer, and address to him the homage of its vows. On the present occasion the display was considered unusually successful.—*Ed. Times.*

—A deputation from the London Church Schoolmasters' Association waited upon Earl de Grey, Lord President of the Committee, on Friday, 19th February, to present a memorial praying for certain alterations in the Revised Code, and in the mode of dealing with school teachers. The memorial stated that the memorialists hailed as an important advance the proposal made in the Government Bill of last session to appoint a Minister of Education, and they suggested that under the supervision of such a Minister a department so organized might be extended so as to embrace the whole field of education, secondary as well as primary. They felt that the Revised Code had produced generally a disastrous influence on education, because it imposed an unfair test of results, which tended to make the instruction mechanical in elementary schools; had been ruinous to training colleges, and had both diminished the number and lowered the character of pupil teachers. The memorialists hoped the religious element in popular education would be maintained. They hoped the value of the certificate would be rigidly maintained, and that direct payment would be made to masters, as under the old code, for the instruction of pupil teachers. They venture to think that an Act might fairly be introduced into Parliament, which should compel children above six years of age to attend some school until they reached the age at which they may legally be sent to work. The memorialists drew attention to the unsatisfactory nature of the elementary teacher's position, and suggested that the teacher who served longer than fifteen years in an elementary school should be entitled to a pension. Earl de Grey and Ripon replied that the Government regretted they could not deal with the general question of education this session, as the work which overshadowed all others would prevent it. But it would be dealt with when the proper time came, and the suggestions of the deputation would be remembered, and perhaps acted upon.—*Id.*

—FRANCE—*Quinquennial Census.*—This census, taken in 1866, and now published, contains, for the first time, a table shewing to what extent elementary instruction is diffused throughout the population. After deducting from the total of fully thirty-eight millions, nearly six million children under eight years of age, and nearly half a million adults, whose instruction could not be verified, there remain about nine million adults unable to read, and about thirteen millions unable to write. With regard to the sexes, this means that of twelve Frenchmen, three can't read, and four can't write; and of twelve Frenchwomen, four can't read, and six can't write.

—*Agricultural College.*—It has been calculated that fruits, roots, and vegetables, form one-third of the food of Paris; consequently, allowing for the greater quantity of meat and bread used in the capital, one-half of the food of France generally. And it is obvious that on the production of corn, wine, and oil, the prosperity of France largely depends.

Hence by solicitude of the government for the prosperity of agriculture in all its branches; and because the French government considers that anything whatever is better done through knowledge and insight, than according to some blind tradition, it has tried to reach agricultural practice through the agricultural mind in the country schools. Already, in six thousand of the country schools special lessons are given on gardening, and more than half of the ordinary Normal schools now send out teachers instructed in the best methods of raising vegetables, fruits and grain. Agriculture is taught in the non-classical secondary schools (*enseignement secondaire spécial*) established in 1865, theoretically by lessons in natural history, farm management, farm accounts, and agricultural chemistry and mechanics; and practically in the school-garden when there is one, and in all cases by inspections of the best examples afforded in the neighbourhood. Moreover, in several departments, teachers of agriculture, besides giving lesson in schools, perambulate the country districts, lecturing on the process of agriculture and on rural economy generally. But not all this, nor any extension or intensification of this is enough for M. Duruy, Education Minister.

In an official report presented to the Emperor, that gentleman says:— "When, sixty years ago, France wished to have a body of men qualified in the highest degree for the direction of whatever operations are based on mathematical principles, she founded the *Ecole Polytechnique*. The immediate object of that great institution was not to form artillery officers, civil or military engineers, but to supply the various practical schools, as the school of mines, that of artillery, that of naval architecture, &c., with pupils, who having mastered the highest mathematics, were willing to employ their science in the promotion of an art. The world acknowledges the wisdom of that foundation in the increase of our national wealth. Agriculture now demands a like benefit, a great school where, by the thorough study of the theory, improvement in the practice of agriculture may be assured."

M. Duruy proposes to establish this *école supérieure d'agronomie* in connection with the Natural History Museum at Paris, which possesses the collections, a library, and professors, all suitable for the purpose. The lectures are to be on the physiology of plants and animals, whether useful or noxious: the composition of soils, and of the rocks whence they are derived; the nature and succession of the strata forming the crust of the globe; the laws regulating atmospheric phenomena: the chemical analysis of soils, water, manures, plants, &c.; mechanics, law, and architecture in their agricultural relations. In addition to all this, it is proposed to establish an experimental garden in Vincennes Park.

Who Pays the Professors?—There are four hundred professorial chairs in France, and not one of the Professors takes a fee; they are all salaried by government, and to finger a fee would be felt by most of them a degradation. All fees are paid to a government official; and these are so nicely calculated that they amount almost to the total of the salaries paid. In 1866, this was the account:—

Paid by Government.....	£112,000
Received by do.....	103,000
Balance taken out of Treasury.....	£9,000

A simple calculation shews that the average income of a French university professor is under £300 a year.—*Museum*.

— *National Education in Ireland*.—The return moved for by Earl Russell respecting the cost of National Education in Ireland between the 31st March, 1858, and the 1st April, 1868, has just appeared. The first part gives an account of the sums expended out of the Parliamentary rates during that period.

Year ended	Amount voted.		Amount expended.		
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	
31st March, 1859	223000		257595	15	6
" 1860	249468		256612	13	1
" 1861	270722		242533	1	6
" 1862	285377		294692	2	8
" 1863	290903		313579	9	8
" 1864	306016		319795	2	0
" 1865	316770		337178	15	0
" 1866	325583		348589	15	2
" 1867	336130		360101	9	1
" 1868	344709		380048	0	0
Total.....	£2948678		£3160726	3	8

Note.—It will be observed that the amount expended exceeds the vote each year. This arises from the estimates being heretofore voted for the net amount required, there being receipts from sales of books, farm produce, and other sources, which supplement the Parliamentary grant. The second part relates, so far as it can be given or estimated, to the sums derived from subscriptions, school pence, or other sources, and spent in each year, in addition to the moneys voted by Parliament.

Year ended 31st Dec.	School Fees.			Local subscriptions, endowments, &c.			Total.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1858	30681	7	4	1674	11	9	32355	19	1
1859	34297	16	2	9506	6	2	43804	2	4
1860	33961	13	1	10000	4	3	43961	17	4
1861	34342	1	9	9930	0	4	44272	2	1
1862	34899	19	10	10968	1	4	45868	1	2
1863	34696	6	3	11537	9	4	46233	15	7
1864	36935	6	8	12054	9	4	48989	16	0
1865	39135	18	2	12338	15	3	51474	13	5
1866	40529	8	2	12341	8	5	52870	16	7
1867	40883	14	5	11986	2	4	52869	16	9
Total.....	£360363	11	10	£102337	8	6	£462701	0	4

Note.—It will be observed that the return is made out for the years ended 31st December in each case. The information for those periods was available in the records of the office for ready use, whereas considerable delay would have been involved in making this return for the financial years ended the 31st March.

— *Prussia*.—The new school law virtually surrenders the principle of compulsory attendance, since the parents may, not must, be punished for the absence of their children. Religious instruction and Bible History are yet to have precedence of all other studies. All teachers in a school must belong to the same religious sect. No provision is made for the education of Jewish children.

— The Queen has been pleased to appoint James Stuart Laurie, Esq., formerly one of her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools in England, to be Director of Public Instruction in the Island of Ceylon.

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

— *Appreciation of Shakespeare among the Asiatics*.—An exchange states that a translation of Shakespeare's plays and poems in Hindostanee has been published in Bombay.

— *The Press of the United States*.—A recent statistical publication says, that in the United States there are 542 daily papers, 4425 weekly, 277 monthly; total 5144. The number of printing offices exceeds 6000. In addition there are 56 tri-weekly, 63 semi-weekly, 46 semi-monthly, and 24 quarterly, making the total number of all American publications 5734, or, of newspapers proper, a total of 5358.

— *Royal Literary Fund*.—On the 10th ult. the annual meeting of the members of this fund was held at the Chambers of the Corporation, Earl Stanhope, the President, occupying the chair. Mr. W. H. Harrison, the senior registrar, read the report of the council, from which it appeared that grants were made last year to 28 males and 11 females, amounting in the whole to £1,356. The authors relieved were thus classified:—History and biography, biblical literature, science and art, periodical literature, topography and travels, classical literature and education, poetry, essays and tales, political economy, law, and miscellaneous. The receipts for the year amounted to £3,026. 16s. 8d., and the disbursements to £1,884. 3s. 8d. The permanent fund produced in dividends £789. The sum of £700 stock was purchased after the payment of the July dividend. The permanent fund, therefore, now amounts to £27,000, producing an annual dividend of £810. The stock of the Newton property consists of £8,167. 15s. 10d. in the Three per Cents. Reduced, producing an annual dividend of £245. 0s. 8d. The total receipts from the Newton estate, at Whitechapel, were £370. Earl Stanhope said the net receipts of their last annual dinner, of which Mr. Disraeli was chairman, amounted to £1,200, which no previous dinner, or indeed very few, had exceeded. At the next dinner, to be given on the 5th of May, Lord Stanley, M. P., would take the chair.

— We have to announce the death of Sir J. E. Tennent, Bart. Deceased was in his sixty-fifth year, and held office under the late Sir Robert Peel as Secretary to the India Board. He was a Conservative M. P. for Belfast from December, 1832, till August, 1845, and for Lisburn from December, 1851, till December, 1852. Numerous works proceeded from his pen, the best known of which are "Travels in Greece in 1825," "Travels in Belgium," "History of Modern Greece," published in 1848; "Account of Ceylon—Physical, Historical, and Topographical," "Progress of Christianity in Ceylon," published in 1850; and "Sketches of the Natural History of Ceylon," published in 1861. The deceased baronet is succeeded by his son, William Emerson Tennent, of the Board of Trade.

—*Price of Rare Books*—At the sale of the library of the late Rev. W. Moore Brabazon, at Messrs. Puttick and Simpson's, Leicester-square, the following curious works were sold:—Lot 92. D'Urfe's "Pills to Purge Melancholy," 6 vols., "uncut," sold for £42; another copy, in the last day's sale, in the ordinary state, produced £10. 5s. Lot 310. "Common Prayer," printed by Juge and Cawood in 1559, being the first edition in Elizabeth's reign, although not quite perfect, sold for £43.

—It is stated that on the 4th ult. her Majesty had the pleasure of becoming personally acquainted with two distinguished writers of the age, Mr. Carlyle and Mr. Browning. These eminent men were invited to meet the Queen at the residence of the Dean of Westminster, and the interview was one of a very pleasing and characteristic kind. Mr. and Mrs. Grote were also of the party.

—*Good and Bad Handwriting*.—I have heard illegible writing justified as a mark of genius. That of course is a very flattering theory. I wish I could think it true. But, like most of these flattering theories about disagreeable eccentricities, it has one fatal fault,—it is inconsistent with notorious facts. Men of genius do not, I believe, as a rule scribble. They write legibly. Thackeray, we all know, was a beautiful penman. He prided himself on his writing. He could write the Lord's Prayer in a legible hand on a bit of paper not bigger than a sixpence. I never heard that Charles Dickens had a contribution returned because it was illegible. "Douglas Jerrold's copy was almost as good as copperplate;" and my friend, who, in his own graphic style, is sketching the career of "Christopher Kenrick" in these pages in a masculine, clear, and flexible hand, tells me that one of Jerrold's friends, "Shirley Brooks, writes plainly; and with very little revision." Lord Lytton's manuscript is written in a careless scrawl, but it is not illegible, though from interlineations and corrections, perhaps now and then puzzling to printers; and Mr. Disraeli writes in a large and angular running hand, legible enough if not particularly elegant. And most of our leading politicians are excellent penmen. Mr. Gladstone seems to write as he generally speaks, in a hasty, impetuous manner. But with all his haste and impetuosity his writing is perfectly legible. It is an Oxford hand. Lord Derby writes, what I may perhaps call, an aristocratic hand et once elegant and legible. Lord Russell writes a lady like hand. It is like everything else about the Earl, small, and occasionally puzzling, but not inelegant. Mr. Bright's letters are as distinctly and regularly formed as this print. Lord Stanley's despatches are as legible as large pica. You may run and read them. Every character is fully formed; every "i" is dotted, every "r" crossed. You will find no sign of haste or slovenliness in his MS. I might go on in this style through a dozen more names. But it is not necessary. I have cited enough cases to prove my point, that illegible hand writing is not a mark of genius, or even of superior intelligence. I know, on the other hand, that there are many men of genius who write and have written execrably. Sir John Bowring is one of these. It is said that Lord Palmerston once sent back an important despatch of Sir John's to China, with a request that it might be copied in a readable handwriting; and Lord Cowley, our late Ambassador at the court of France, wrote so hastily and so illegibly that Lord Granville, I believe, once asked his lordship to keep the originals of his despatches for his own information, and send copies to the Foreign Office. "Lord Lytton, who moved a clause to the Reform Bill that nobody should have a vote who could not write a legible hand, writes so illegibly that the clerks at the table could not read the resolution which he handed in," and Christopher Kenrick adds, that "Tom Taylor writes as if he had wool at the head of his pen." And these men are the types, I fear, of a far larger class than the first set of politicians and authors whom I have enumerated.

—*Gentleman's Magazine*.

SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

—Dr. Livingstone has been elected corresponding member of the French Academy of Sciences. There were fifty-six voters, forty-four of whom gave their suffrages in favor of Livingstone.

—Messrs. Salt of Birmingham, have constructed a very ingenious and well-designed apparatus for the vaporization of carbolic acid, by means of which that valuable disinfectant can be diffused through the rooms of a house without any of the disadvantages attending its use in its ordinary liquid state. The apparatus consists of a receptacle for the acid covered by a finely perforated lid. Beneath the receptacle is an air chamber, and beneath this chamber is a recess for a spirit-lamp. Two or three tablespoonfuls or more of carbolic acid, if in the liquid form, or a portion of the crystals having been placed in the upper receptacle, the lamp is lighted, and in a few moments the acid begins to evaporate and the vapour is diffused into the atmosphere of the apartment through the perforated plate. The apparatus will be found an excellent addition to the sick room where it is found desirable to use carbolic acid as a disinfecting agent. Its great advantage is that it can be so manipulated as to keep the atmosphere charged with a distinct but not unpleasant

odour of the acid by increasing or diminishing the supply as may be required, and it will thus be found particularly handy and useful in private houses.

—*Meteorology*.—Meteorology has of late years made great progress in France, so far at least as regards the organisation of a regular system of observation. This, it must be allowed, is in a great measure due to the enlightened exertions of Mr. Duruy, the Minister of Public Instruction, who, in 1864, provided all the primary Normal schools with good instruments, and recommended the pupils to keep registers of barometrical and thermometrical readings, the fall of rain, the state of the weather, &c. The system is now in full activity at all those establishments, where observations are now taken every three hours between 6 a. m. and 9 p. m.; but at seventeen of these schools also at midnight and 3 o'clock a. m. The average annual temperature is obtained by eight observations daily. As for the barometrical observations, they have been turned to good account, in obtaining forecasts of the weather, according to Admiral Fitzroy's system, which has been adopted and improved in France. The barometrical readings registered at the normal schools are of great public importance, as every storm announces its proximity by a considerable depression. Nor do these readings stand alone; they are combined with hygrometrical observations, testing for manifestations of ozone, &c. Nothing is omitted, and at the end of each year the loose leaves on which the various data have been registered, are made up into books. Here again there is a decided improvement; that of 1865 only comprising the path of common storms and hurricanes, while that of 1866 also gives the zones visited by hail-storms, and special remarks on the climate of France, and that of 1867 contains a fourth part, consisting of various papers and documents on the general results obtained. The latter are peculiarly interesting; from them we learn that the storms visiting France chiefly come from the Atlantic, with the exception of local ones engendered by the winds of the Mediterranean, when they skim the declivities of the south-eastern coast. Another remarkable result is this: that hail is produced by two clouds, one above the other, with a considerable distance intervening between them. These clouds cross each other at a certain angle; a noise is then heard like the rumbling of a cart, and is immediately followed by a shower of hail. With the straitened means at his disposal, Mr. Duruy has indeed done wonders, and he may well be proud of the result.—*Museum*.

—*Novel Application of Gas*.—Mr. James Allison Hogg, gas engineer, Edinburgh, has discovered a method of producing intense light with coal gas by mixing it with atmospheric air. The mixture of gases is lighted after passing through a tissue of iridio-platina wires at a determined pressure. In a few seconds the metal becomes heated up to a white heat, the flame disappears, and an intense white light is the result. An enlarged picture has been taken by its aid on prepared photographic paper. The light will burn in a gale of wind without any protection round it, and a downpour of rain will not affect it.

—*The Colour of the Sky*.—Professor Tyndall, the *Engineer* says, is now engaged on the chemical action of light upon vapours, and he has quite recently handed in a paper to the Royal Society on the colours of the sky, on the polarization of light by the sky, and by cloudy matter generally. By the condensation of liquids of various kinds into particles so small that their diameters are measured, not by tens of thousandths, but by hundreds of thousandths of an inch, he succeeds in producing a blue which equals, if it does transcend, that of the deepest and purest Italian sky, and this blue exhibits all the effects of polarization which have been hitherto observed in skylight.

—*Curious Production of Cold*.—Dr. Phipson has recently discovered, says the *Scientific Review*, that an intense degree of cold is produced by dissolving sulphocyanate of ammonium in water. Many salts, more especially salts of ammonia lower the temperature of water whilst dissolving; but according to Dr. Phipson, no compound produces this effect in so marvellous a manner as sulphocyanate of ammonium. In one experiment 35 grammes of this salt, dissolved rapidly in 35 cubic centimetres of water at 23 degrees Centigrade, caused the thermometer to descend in a few seconds to—10 degrees, C. The moisture of the atmosphere instantly condensed itself on the outside of the glass in thin plates of ice.

—*The Right Hand*.—An American curioso asks, with reasonable wonder, why we use the right hand in preference to the left. Nature appears, remarks a writer in *Once a Week*, to have dictated the habit; its universality goes far to prove that it is instinctive; for among existing nations none seem to be gifted as were the Benjamites of old. The left arm is the weaker, but whether naturally or only from disuse remains to be ascertained. It would appear that the difference of strength extends to the organs of locomotion. When we meet an obstacle in walking, it is easier to turn to the right than to the left, as if the right leg had the most power and freedom of motion; and it is said that if a man lose himself on a plain, without any guide or landmarks, he will, in his efforts to go straightforward, invariably bear to

the left, the dexter limb imperceptibly taking longer strides. Even a left-handed man uses his right manual for many purposes; and a right-handed mortal has to train hard to become ambidexterous. Only one suggestion can we afford to account for the general righthandedness; it is that nature has designedly kept the working arm away from the heart, that the violent actions of the one may affect as little as possible the delicate functions of the other.

STATISTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

— *National Debts.*—The public debt of each of the principal foreign countries, and the amount per head of population respectively, is as follows:—Russian Empire in 1866, £274,544,770, and £3. 14. 1d.; Sweden in 1865, £4,114,888 and £1; Norway in 1865, £1,854,157 and £1. 1s. 10d.; Denmark in 1865, £14,862,465 and £8. 18s. 9d.; Prussia, old provinces, in 1866, £42,123,064 and £1. 15s. 8d.; Oldenburg in 1865, £621,585 and £2. 1s. 2d.; Hanover in 1865, £6,423,955 and £3. 6s. 3d.; Brunswick in 1863, £1,707,707 and £5. 16s. 5d.; Bavaria in 1866, £29,663,267 and £6. 3s. 5d.; Saxony in 1865, £9,912,049 and £4. 4s. 10d.; Wurtemberg in 1866, £7,033,911 and £3. 19s. 6d.; Baden in 1866, £9,256,728 and £6. 9s. 6d.; Electoral Hesse in '864, £1,845,892 and £2. 9s. 6d.; Ducal Hesse in '865, £228,916 and 5s. 4d.; Hamburg in 1865, £4,222,897 and £9. 17s. 4d.; Spain and Balearic Islands in 1865, £103,927,471 and £10. 4s. 6d.; Austria in 1866, £268,965,064 and £7. 5s. 3d.; Italy in 1865, £211,503,298 and £9. 19s. 3d.; Greece in 1867, £14,000,000 and £12. 15s. 3d.; Turkish Empire in 1867-8, £69,142,270 and £1. 19s. 1d.; United States in 1866, £579,880,391 and £18. 8s. 9d.; Brazil in 1866, £30,762,289 and £3. 1s. 3d.; Chili in 1865, £2,932,405 and £1. 15s. The national debt of the United Kingdom in 1866 was £802,842,949, averaging £26. 15s. 9d. per head of population. In the year 1868 it was £749,101,428—viz, funded debt, £741,190,328 (exclusive of the charge of terminable annuities, the estimated capital of which in March, 1868, amounted to £47,930,222); unfunded debt, £7,911,100.

—According to the quarterly return of the Registrar-General, in the United Kingdom, the births of 252,700 children, and the deaths of 158,399 persons of both sexes, were registered in the three months ending on December 31st. The recorded natural increase was 94,307; the native emigrants were 23,872. The registered number of persons married in the quarter ending September 30 was 106,470. The resident population of the kingdom in the middle of 1868 is estimated at 30,369,345. Altogether, 1,047,859 births and 628,881 deaths were registered in the twelve months, thus making the natural increase 410,978, or, after correction, 1,177 daily. The recorded number of emigrants of home origin was 142,731, or 391 daily. The average price of wheat fell from 67s. 11d. in the autumn of 1867 to 51s. 11d. in the last thirteen weeks of 1868, and had the price of bread fallen in the same proportion, it would have fallen in the proportion of 8d. to 6d. The birth-rate per 1,000 of England proper was 36.31: the death-rate, 22.20. In both cases the rates are slightly above those for the corresponding period of 1867.

METEOROLOGICAL INTELLIGENCE.

— *Meteorological observations at Quebec*—Latitude 46°48'30" N; Longitude 71°12'15" W.; height above St. Lawrence, 230 feet; taken during the month of March, 1869, By Sgt. J. Thurling, A. H. C., Quebec.

Barometer, highest reading on the 22nd.....	30.249 inches.
" lowest " 31st.....	29.333
range of pressure.....	.916
mean for month reduced to 32°.....	29.730
Thermometer, highest reading on the 28th.....	52.0 degrees.
lowest " 5th.....	-11.0
range in month.....	63.0
for month.....	22.6
Hygrometer, mean of dry bulb.....	22.8
" wet bulb.....	20.8
" dew point.....	7.6
Elastic force of vapour.....	.061 inches.
Vapour in a cubic foot of air.....	0.7 grains.
" required to saturate, do.....	0.7
Mean degree of humidity (Sat. 100).....	50
Average weight of a cubic foot of air.....	573.4 grains.
Cloud, mean amount of (0-10).....	5.7
Ozone " " (0-10).....	1.0
Wind, general direction.....	West & N. W.
mean daily horizontal movement.....	144.4 miles.
Rain, number of days it fell.....	3
amount collected on ground.....	0.47 inches.
" " 10 feet above.....	0.46
Snow, number of days it fell.....	13

— *From the Records of the Montreal Observatory.*—Lat. 45°31' North; Long, 4h. 54m. 11 sec. West of Greenwich, and 182 feet above mean sea level,—for March, 1869,—by Chas. Smallwood, M.D., LL.D., D.C.L.

DAYS.	Barometer correcte at 32°			Temperature of the Air.			Direction of Wind.			Miles in 24 hours.
	7 a.m.	2 p.m.	9 p.m.	7 a.m.	2 p.m.	9 p.m.	7 a.m.	2 p.m.	9 p.m.	
1	29.989	29.750	29.691	-9.7	20.1	4.0	W	SW	SW	214.12
2	.542	.537	.501	-8.2	13.1	11.3	N	NE	NE	112.10
3	.650	.642	.650	6.2	32.0	24.2	W	WSW	WSW	79.29
4	.425	.579	.760	25.4	24.9	4.1	WSW	WSW	W	67.99a
5	.751	.679	.601	-3.4	18.1	8.1	W	SW	W	129.91
6	.469	.501	.675	-0.5	21.6	11.9	N	NE	NE	91.74b
7	.998	.927	.890	11.8	24.1	14.3	W	W	W	101.24
8	.751	.750	.750	16.1	36.0	24.2	W	W	W	124.10
9	.900	.853	.747	13.1	31.0	28.0	N	S	S	99.24c
10	.799	.354	.150	16.1	8.0	12.2	NE	NE	NE	111.00d
11	.649	.700	.749	7.9	28.0	19.2	W	W	W	204.20e
12	.681	.627	.500	14.4	31.7	16.2	W	W	W	224.11
13	.259	.410	.501	13.1	34.1	21.8	NE	W	W	120.00f
14	.449	.204	.402	20.7	31.5	29.6	WSW	S	byW	82.21g
15	.651	.782	.850	20.1	38.0	18.9	W	W	W	124.19
16	.900	.811	.799	8.2	21.1	17.9	W	W	W	161.18
17	.800	.794	.761	14.2	31.7	21.9	W	W	W	81.11
18	.862	.810	.849	17.1	33.3	22.0	W	W	W	72.00
19	.812	.711	.547	23.8	43.8	29.1	W	W	W	107.74
20	.300	.411	.455	30.1	34.1	20.2	W	W	nbyW	70.10h
21	.801	.910	30.040	8.7	26.4	13.9	nbyW	W	byW	121.11
22	30.201	30.114	.041	10.0	28.6	19.0	W	SE	SE	140.00
23	29.789	29.741	29.710	24.0	32.1	30.7	SE	WSW	WSW	67.74i
24	.700	.774	.852	28.2	41.2	28.0	WSW	W	W	96.47j
25	30.087	30.066	30.050	15.2	40.0	28.2	SE	SE	SE	47.11
26	29.921	29.700	29.581	28.0	38.8	16.4	E	E	E	61.27*
27	.453	.611	.700	40.1	44.0	40.1	W	W	W	99.00†
28	.869	.857	.800	36.3	53.2	35.6	NE	NE	NE	79.74
29	.661	.517	.445	32.0	43.6	37.9	NE	NE	NE	120.10‡
30	.165	.132	.100	35.1	39.2	33.7	NE	NE	NE	101.29§
31	.213	.477	.501	33.7	40.2	31.7	NE	W	W	59.20

RAIN IN INCHES.—*0.614; †0.241; ‡0.212; §0.027; ||0.024.

SNOW IN INCHES.—a, Inapp.; b, Inapp.; c, 0.90; d, 0.56; e, 0.26; f, 1.35; g, 0.60; h, Inapp.; i, 2.30; j, Inapp.; ||0.10.

The highest reading of the Barometer was on the 22nd day, and indicated 30.201 inches. The lowest reading was on the 30th d. y, and was 29.100 inches, giving a monthly range of 1.101 inches.

The highest temperature was on the 28th, viz, 53.2 degrees, and the lowest was on the 1st, 9.9 degrees (below zero.) The mean temperature of the month was 24.06 degrees, and is 2.99 higher than the Isothermal for Montreal and 6.34 degrees lower than March, 1868.

Rain fell on 5 days amounting to 1.118 inches. Snow fell on 11 days amounting to 14.07 inches. Total amount up to date, 166.00 inches.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION FOR THE PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

The Journal of Education,—published under the direction of the Hon. the Minister of Public Instruction and edited by H. H. MILLS Esq., LL.D. D.C.L. and P. DELANEY Esq., of that Department,—offers an advantageous medium for advertising on matters appertaining exclusively to Education or the Arts and Sciences.

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APPORTIONMENT OF THE SUPPLEMENTARY GRANT TO POOR SCHOOL MUNICIPALITIES, FOR 1868.

COUNTIES.	MUNICIPALITIES.	Reasons for the Grant as well as the Amount.	Amount of Ordinary Grant.	Amount of Assessment Raised.	Amount Asked.	Amount Granted.
Argenteuil	Mille Iles, No. 1	New and poor	21 98	72 00	40 00	
"	" No. 2		22 22	67 00	40 00	22 00
"	" No. 3		19 36	68 00	40 00	
"	Harrington, No. 1	New and poor	28 82	135 00	40 00	16 00
"	" No. 2		28 22	52 06	40 00	16 00
"	Township Morin (Diss.)	"	8 60	65 00	33 00	16 00
"	Gore and Wentworth	Maintains eight schools	128 42	324 66	40 00	22 00
"	St. André (Diss.)	Population poor and scattered	94 30	238 00	40 00	22 00
L'Assomption	St. Lin (Diss.)	"	41 00	256 00	30 00	16 00
Arthabaska	St. Valère	New and poor, maintains two schools	55 28	120 00	30 00	22 00
"	St. Christophe	" " five schools	167 26	207 00	30 00	22 00
"	St. Norbert	" " three schools	139 30	208 00	30 00	22 00
"	Blanford	" " "	57 42	114 00	40 00	22 00
"	Warwick	Maintains six schools	121 74	600 00	40 00	22 00
"	Chester West	New and poor, maintains five schools	84 90	420 00	60 00	22 00
"	Chester East	" " "	88 98			
"	Tingwick	" " maintains five schools	121 54	230 00	40 00	22 00
"	Victoriaville	Maintains four schools	92 07	337 00	40 00	22 00
"	Chenier	" eight schools	160 05	674 00	40 00	22 00
"	Ste. Clotilde	New settlement, two schools	21 36	140 00	100 00	22 00
Bonaventure	Hope	Maintains " " "	78 34	270 00	40 00	20 00
"	Ristigouche	" " "	58 90	117 15	40 00	20 00
"	Ristigouche (Sauvages)	" " "	50 00	20 00	40 00	40 00
"	Matajédiac	" " "	35 47	90 00	50 00	20 00
"	Maria	" six schools, one Model	206 10	256 78	50 00	22 00
"	Port Daniel	" three schools	130 58	148 00	40 00	20 00
"	Nouvelle	" one school	59 97	80 00	40 00	16 00
"	Rustico	" two schools	43 06	200 00	40 00	22 00
"	New Richmond (Diss.)	" " "	170 70	200 00	40 00	16 00
"	Hope (Diss.)	" " "	20 30	200 15	40 00	16 00
Bagot	Acton Vale	" two Superior schools	173 04	735 00	40 00	22 00
"	St. André	" " "	47 19	286 00	40 00	22 00
Beauce	St. Côme	" " "	62 51	160 00	30 00	22 00
"	St. Frédérick	" six schools	169 58	263 00	42 00	22 00
"	St. Ephrem	" four schools	104 02	300 00	40 00	22 00
"	St. Victor	" " "	130 78	380 00	40 00	22 00
"	Aylmer	" " "	53 94	134 00	40 00	22 00
"	Lambton	" " "	143 32	425 00	30 00	22 00
"	St. George	" five schools	200 10	315 00	40 00	22 00
"	St. Pierre de Broughton	" " "	174 44	742 00	30 00	22 00
Bellechasse	St. Cajetan	New settlement, three schools	73 26	201 00	100 00	22 00
Brome	Bolton (Diss.)	Population poor and scattered	23 58	188 80	120 00	20 00
Châteauguay	Ormstown (Diss.)	" " "	42 36	127 14	80 00	20 00
Champlain	St. Narcisse	Maintains four schools and built a new school house	110 66	294 80	40 00	22 00
"	Mont Carmel	" two schools " " "	55 62	271 00	100 00	22 00
"	St. Tite	" " "	107 72	147 00	80 00	22 00
Jhicutimi	Hébertville	New settlement	109 62	270 00	40 00	22 00
"	St. Joseph	Maintains three schools	69 04	156 80	40 00	22 00
"	Harvey	" two schools	43 40	215 00	40 00	22 00
"	Jonquière	" " "	45 34	130 00	40 00	22 00
"	Village de Bagotville	Has built a new school-house	48 62	128 00	40 00	30 00
"	St. Alphonse	Maintains six schools	149 80	483 00	28 00	22 00
"	Anse St. Jean	New and poor Settlement	39 34	50 00	30 00	22 00
"	Laterrière	Maintains four schools	92 26	326 49	26 00	22 00
"	Grande Baie	" three schools	147 86	408 00	30 00	22 00
"	Ouatchouan	" " "	45 58	151 00	30 00	22 00
Compton	Hereford	Maintains five schools, has built two new school-houses	41 38	500 00	40 00	22 00
"	Clifton	" " " " "	61 50	260 00	50 00	22 00
"	Lingwick	" five schools	63 76	330 00	40 00	22 00
"	Westbury	" three schools	33 58	240 00	40 00	22 00
"	St. Romain	" five schools	80 62	312 00	30 00	22 00
"	Whitton	" two schools	57 88	85 00	30 00	22 00
"	Clifton (Diss.)	" " "			30 00	16 00
Amount carried over						1286 00

APPORTIONMENT OF THE SUPPLEMENTARY GRANT TO POOR SCHOOL MUNICIPALITIES FOR 1868.—*Concluded.*

COUNTIES.	MUNICIPALITIES.	Reasons for the Grant as well as the Amount.	Amount of Ordinary Grant.	Amount of Assessment Raised.	Amount Asked.	Amount Granted.
		Amount carried over..				2602 00
Montmagny...	St. Paul de Montminy...	New and poor..	67 84	72 00	60 00	22 00
Montmorency..	Laval	Population scattered and poor..	26 78	84 00	30 00	16 00
"	St. Tite des Caps..	"	38 00	120 00	30 00	16 00
Montcalm	Chertsey	Maintains four schools..	103 90	400 00	50 00	22 00
"	Kilkenny	"	171 54	223 00	40 00	22 00
Nicolet.....	Ste. Gertrude..	"	160 64	185 00	80 00	22 00
Ottawa	Hartwell	" two schools	32 78	90 00	40 00	22 00
"	Monte-Bello..	"	33 88	241 00	40 00	22 00
"	Ange Gardien..	" four schools..	101 66	457 00	40 00	22 00
"	Templeton	" six schools	204 96	924 00	40 00	22 00
"	Ripon	" three schools..	68 84	300 00	40 00	22 00
"	Lowe	" two schools	92 92	125 25	40 00	22 00
"	Ste. Angélique..	" five schools..	154 44	682 22	40 00	22 00
"	St. Joseph de Wakefield..	" one school	49 18	150 00	40 00	16 00
Portneuf	Portneuf	" three schools of which two are Superior schools.	210 61	324 00	200 00	22 00
Pontiac	Calumet.....	" four schools	118 70	424 00	50 00	22 00
"	Leslie.....	" one school, new and very poor..	32 22	40 00	40 00	22 00
"	Litchfield..	"	44 69	200 00	40 00	22 00
"	Ste. Elizabeth de Frankton..	"	61 93	332 00	40 00	22 00
Québec.....	Stoneham	" two schools	77 88	120 00	40 00	22 00
"	Cap Rouge	New and poor..	67 56	196 00	30 00	22 00
"	St. Dunstan..	Poor and maintains a superior school	57 08	80 00	30 00	22 00
"	Ste. Foye	New and poor..	122 66	280 00	40 00	22 00
"	Ancienne Lorette..	Maintains two schools of which one is a Superior School.				
"	Tewkesbury..	To aid in defraying the expense of erecting a sch.-house, the assess. for the erection of which was annulled by the Court.	246 80	560 00	30 00	30 00
"	St. Gabriel de Valcartier..	Building a new school-house \$600..			200 00	30 00
Rimouski.....	St. Fabien					22 00
"	Ste. Félicité	Maintains five schools	137 46	263 70	30 00	22 00
"	Métis	" three schools	128 44	132 00	30 00	22 00
"	St. Mathieu	"	57 08	142 53	28 00	22 00
"	McNider	"	84 10	183 27	28 00	22 00
Richmond.....	Stoke	" two schools	139 62	148 00	30 00	22 00
Shefford.....	Granby (<i>Diss.</i>)	" five schools	70 41	527 33	30 00	28 00
"	St. Valérien	"	116 68	210 00	30 00	28 00
"	North Ely	" six schools	107 40	217 98	40 00	22 00
St. Maurice	Shawinigan	" five schools	76 98	660 88	40 00	22 00
"	St. Sévère	" eight schools	114 18	386 00	50 00	26 00
Saguenay.....	Escoumains	" four schools, one a Model..	105 82	166 32	80 00	26 00
"	Bergeronnes	" one school, (repairs \$50)	116 31	81 00	30 00	22 00
"	Tadoussac	" " built a new school-house \$120..	40 00	68 00	30 00	22 00
"	Rivière-aux-Canards..	"	51 78	44 50	30 00	22 00
"	Ste. Marguerite..	New and poor, one school			30 00	22 00
Stanstead.....	Hatley (<i>Diss.</i>)	Very poor, one school	22 60		30 00	22 00
"	Jarford	Population poor and scattered, two schools	17 04	87 00	30 00	22 00
Terrebonne.....	Ste. Agathe	Maintains five schools	79 14	300 00	40 00	22 00
"	St. Sauveur	New and poor, two schools	90 44	98 18	60 00	28 00
"	Abercrombie	Maintains five schools	205 86	278 65	80 00	22 00
"	Ste. Adèle	New and poor, communication difficult..	55 96	70 00	26 00	22 00
Témiscouata...	St. Eloi	" " maintains two schools	140 98	240 84	40 00	22 00
"	St. Antonin	Maintains five schools	157 92	204 80	40 00	22 00
"	St. Modeste	" three schools	125 24	112 00	40 00	22 00
"	Madawaska	" two schools	70 10	120 00	40 00	22 00
"	St. Jean de Dieu..	New and poor, two schools	106 65	120 00	40 00	22 00
"	St. Epiphane	" " one school	23 34	40 00	20 00	26 00
Wolfe	Wolfestown	" " three schools	125 04	128 00	30 00	28 00
"	North Ham	" " two schools	140 18	300 00	40 00	22 00
"	Weedon	" " three schools	68 96	160 00	40 00	28 00
"	Weedon (<i>Diss.</i>)	" " six schools	91 46	612 52	30 00	28 00
"	Wotton	" " sparsely settled, one school		41 00	55 00	30 00
"	St. Camille	" " seven schools	173 32	402 89	50 00	24 00
Yamaska.....	St. Zéphirin..	" " four schools	154 94	200 00	40 00	22 00
		" " six schools	70 72	440 00	30 00	22 00
		Total				\$4000 00