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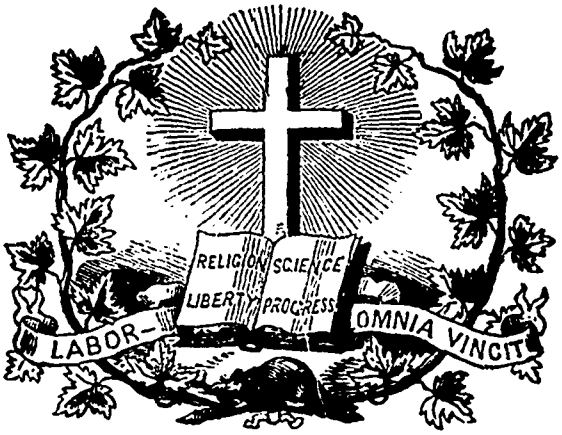


# JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

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## EDUCATION.

### THE COLLEGES OF CANADA.

II.

#### The McGill University.

In speaking of the Laval University and of the Seminary of Quebec—of which the former is but a necessary extension or development—we had to enter at length in the biography of the venerable Father of the institution, who not only gave it all he possessed, but lived as it were for his college, went himself through the numerous and severe trials which it had to encounter, and notwithstanding his generous efforts left it when dying in a precarious condition. It is not so with the McGill University. If we may use the expression, it was the posthumous child of the benevolent man who endowed it, and who, if he has not had the privilege of seeing the realization of his noble wishes in the present creditable organization and successful working of the institution, has been spared, on the other hand, the pain of following the many and long protracted crisis of its infancy.

Mr. McGill was a native of Glasgow, (Scotland) having been born in that city on the 6th of October, 1744. He came to this country at an early age, and engaged immediately in mercantile pursuits. On the 2d of December, 1776, he married Charlotte Guillemin, daughter of the late Guillaume Guillemin, in his life-time councillor of the King of France in Canada, *lieutenant-général* of the admiralty of Quebec, and judge of the Court of prerogatives, widow of the late François Amable Trottier DesRivières.

He was successively member of Parliament for the city of Montreal, and member of the Legislative and Executive councils, colonel of militia and brigadier-general of the same during the war of 1812. During a great part of his life he lived in the house at the corner of the "Place Jacques-Cartier," on Notre-Dame street, which is now occupied by public offices. It was then one of the finest residences in Montreal.

Mr. McGill was distinguished for his charity, his sound practical judgment and his kindness of heart, and he mixed much in society both with the English and French, being connected with the latter by his marriage. He died on the 19th of December, 1813, being 69 years of age, in the city of Montreal, where he had resided ever since he came to Canada.

By his last will Mr. McGill "gave to the Honorable John Richardson and other trustees, his farm and land called Burnside, situated near the city of Montreal, containing about forty-six acres, together with the dwelling-house and other buildings thereon erected, upon the condition of their conveying the said property to the Royal Institution for the advancement of learning, established by an Act of the Parliament of the Province of Lower Canada, entitled "An Act for the establishment of free schools and the advancement of learning in this Province." But in case the said institution should not, within the space of ten years from the time of his decease, erect and establish on the said tract of land an University or College for the purposes of education and the advancement of learning in this Province, with a competent number of professors and teachers to render such establishment effectual and beneficial for the purposes intended, it was provided that the trustees should convey over the whole of the said property to Mr. François Desrivières, the son of Mrs. McGill by her first marriage. It was also provided that the college or one of the college of the

University to be so erected should bear the name of the donor. Moreover, he gave under the same conditions to the Royal Institution a sum of ten thousand pounds, for the maintenance and support of the said college or university, which sum was also to revert to Mr. Desrivières in case of non-compliance with the intentions of the donor. This sum, if not paid immediately, was to bear interest after three years.

The estate of Burnside is situated near the mountain of Montreal, on the road that leads to the Priests' Farm, in a commanding position, and its value, like that of all properties lying in the same direction, has been daily increasing since the bequest that was made of it by Mr. McGill.

As to the other part of the bequest, when paid over to the college authorities, after a long protracted suit with the heirs, who had been advised by eminent counsel that the legacy was null, it amounted to £22,000.

The intentions of Mr. McGill did not meet that prompt execution which they merited (*). Great delay occurred before any movement whatever was made for securing the bequest and giving effect to his wishes. At last, a Royal Charter was obtained in 1821. In 1829 the estate of Burnside was surrendered by the residuary legatees, and in 1835 judgment was rendered against them for the legacy of £10,000 with interest.

The first step towards giving to the University a practical operation, was the establishment of the Medical Faculty, which, with the exception of two years, has always since been kept in activity. It has always been the most flourishing department of the institution, and has been for many years the only one in active operation. It was created by the merging into the University of a preexisting institution, "The Montreal Medical Institute."

Our readers will remember that the faculty of medicine of the Laval University had a like origin, and was also the first department organized in that institution. The want of professional education in the science of medicine is in fact *ex necessitate rei* the first and the most forcibly felt in a new country, and while for years the study of the law has been left to voluntary and private tutorship, on the contrary, even at a very early period, previous to the establishment among us of any medical college, many young men were sent by their parents to France or to England, to enable them to compete more successfully with those in the same profession who had come to Canada with the great advantage of having followed regular courses.

The first Principal of the McGill College, under its Charter in 1829, was the Ven. Archdeacon Mountain, (now Bishop of Quebec) and in the month of June of that year, a formal opening of the institution took place.

Sir

Your obedient & very humble Servant

James McGill

Archdeacon Mountain having resigned in 1835, the Rev. Dr. Bethune was appointed in his place, and after some unsuccessful efforts to obtain a change in the provisions of the charter, and the consumption of much time from misunderstandings between the governors under the charter and the Royal Institution, which held all the funds, it was at length agreed upon, that buildings for the use of the University should be erected; and accordingly those now standing on the west side of Sherbrooke street were commenced in 1839.

During a long period of time, however, a want of harmony among the governors, and of sympathy on the part of the public, kept the college in a very unsatisfactory condition.

If I may gather a correct opinion of the causes of such a state of things from the pamphlets that were published, and from the letters that found their way into the columns of newspapers, bearing on the subject, the cause of those difficulties was of a double nature, and partook of the character of a literary as well as of a religious controversy.

By his will the donor had not defined in any particular, the character of the institution, and neither from an educational nor from a religious point of view was it in the power of the governors to find in the words of the bequest a solution to the many problems which are standing in bold relief on the threshhold of any new undertaking of the same kind.

True it was, that the Honorable James McGill lived and died a member of the Church of England, and it was even surmised that his will had been originally prompted by the Ven. Archdeacon of Toronto, an intimate friend of the testator, and that it must have been accomplished with a view

(*) Address of the Board of Governors to Sir Edmund Head on the inauguration of Burnside Hall, (1856.)

to benefit more especially the Church of England. On the other hand, the numerous dissenters and those members, also of the Church of England, who entertain non-sectarian views in educational matters, contende that a bequest, which had not been made in terms in favor of one sect, should be deemed to have been intended for all. Indeed, Catholics might even have been allowed to urge that Mr. McGill, being desirous of shewing his gratitude to the inhabitants of a country where he had accumulated his wealth, could not be supposed to have excluded from the benefits of his noble bequest the great majority, nay, at the time when he came to Canada the very people from whom he had almost exclusively gathered the elements of his fortune, and moreover, that considering the great fondness and affection which, by the several legacies of his will, he had shewn to his wife and her children, he could not have meant to exclude their descendants from the college which was to bear his name.

But partly from the fact of the execution of the trust having been left to the Royal institution, the schools of which were far from being popular with their church, partly from the disinclination which they always entertained to any connection with persons of other sects in the management of such affairs, while they had institutions of their own amply provided with all the means of giving a high collegiate instruction, the Catholics did not raise any such issue as might have been grounded on the circumstances just now alluded to.

The McGill University, at the outset, assumed therefore a decided sectarian character, as connected with the Church of England, and even the feelings of the dissenters in the matter were for a long time more commonly evinced by a perfect indifference to the fate of the undertaking, and by a withholding of support from it, than by any course of active hostility.

The other source of difficulty we have mentioned is one which must be familiar to all those who have had to deal practically with educational subjects.

While discussions as to the preeminence to be given to literature, to mathematics or to natural philosophy, in the arrangement of a programme of studies, always remind one of the quarrel between the fencing master, the music master, and the dancing master of the *bourgeois-gentilhomme*—there will always be a great deal of that kind of thing in the management of educational institutions. It is true that all such questions seem to be very summarily disposed of by the answer that every branch of human knowledge is, in its own way, just as useful and just as important as any other branch, and that the success of a college will mainly depend on a fair apportionment, a proper equilibrium of all the influences, which are to assist in training the mind for the accomplishment of its task during life. But the real issue is always as to what will constitute that fair apportionment, that proper equilibrium, and such we believe, was one of the causes of division between the governors and the professors: while the latter were aiming at a classical collegiate education of the same nature as that given in England in the venerable institutions of Oxford and of Cambridge, the community at large was anxious for some kind of training more congenial, in their opinion, with the position and the wants of a new and progressive country.

(*To be continued in our next.*)

PIERRE J. O. CHAUVEAU.

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### A Word about Lying.

The first sin which darkened this earth was a lie. It was committed by the prince of darkness upon the tree of knowledge, and ever since. the increase of wisdom and learning seems to have been followed, to a certain extent, by a decrease of veracity. Lying is the fruitful parent of other sins, the evil spirit which goes out to make room for seven others, the cancer which eats up the vital powers of our higher nature. This seems to have been felt by ancient nations. The Grecian Mythology punished even the deities for lying, and the old Persians' Catechism of Moral Philosophy contained only one great foremost demand,—"to be true to one's self and to others."

The old Germans had a proverb, "A word, a man," while now frequently a man is but a word, and in the old Saxon and Gothic languages there is but one word, "ligan," to signify prostration of body and of soul, while in modern German and English there is but little difference of pronunciation or spelling between liegen and lügen, or a "liar" and a "lier."

We are surrounded by lying deeds, deceptions, or imitations, and have become so accustomed to them, that we are willing to forbear whenever they make their appearance. There has been a time with several nations, when the relation between the governing and governed rested on a true moral basis; but now the science of politics uses the sheep-skin cloak of patriotism to cover many a deed of selfishness and oppression, chooses liberal names for illiberal acts, and sometimes a glorious end is made to justify ignoble means. The practice of law has lost a great deal of its original purity, and many a lawyer will take greater pains to gain before court the case of his client, than to examine into the true state of things. In trade, assertions are frequently made, which are known to be wrong, or spurious articles are sold for genuine goods. The architect uses wood, sand, and paint to imitate stone, paper to build marble walls, and fresco-painting to make the interior of a room appear larger or higher than it really is. Our ceremonies, literally understood, contain a great deal more than they are intended to convey. Much of our poetry is but fiction—not the history of what has happened, but the creation of imagination. In all dramatic performance, the actors as well as the spectators are for a while withdrawn from real life. We have imitations of all kinds of jewelry, American Eau de Cologne, counterfeit money, manufactured hair, false eyes, teeth and limbs.

*We hate to be told by any one what he knows to be untrue.* Bankruptcy and even murder are less shameful than a lie. No flush of the cheek is more burning than that which follows the detection of a falsehood. Why is it? Is the word more than a deed, or the tongue more important than the hand?

Jean Paul explains it thus: "When I confront another person, our souls are, as it were, hidden in our bodies. I may guess at his character and intelligence by his eye or his general appearance, but I am without certainty. It is only through language, this embodiment of thought, this audible reason, that I can converse with him. The tongue is the telegraphic wire between soul and soul, his last will is revealed by his spoken word, and the action of his soul lies clearly before me. The importance of the spoken word has lost in intensity by the invention of writing. When an idea is expressed, not in the living, life-giving word, but in dead characters drawn upon lifeless paper, it loses to a great extent its power and vitality, and consequently a lie, when written or printed, appears less punishable. But how annihilating when the spiritual I of another human being communes with mine and tells me a downright lie! His living soul is vanished at once, only his bones, flesh, and skin are before me, and the words spoken by his tongue are just as insignificant to me as the wind whose howling does not indicate any pain. A spoken word may explain or annihilate many deeds; but it requires many deeds to neutralize the sting of one spoken lie. The liar treats his tongue as the beggar does his hand-organ; the instrument plays a plaintive air, while the possessor rejoices at the money he receives. The liar is unjust. I give myself without reserve to him, while he gives me only his body; and by building a draw in the free bridge of true conversation, which he opens and shuts at his pleasure, he makes me a tool of his will."

It will be seen at a glance how important it is that children be trained to speak the truth. Only a clear understanding of the child's inclinations, peculiarities and capacities will enable parents and teachers to devise the best plans and means for its progress. For if a child is accustomed to lie, many other evil thoughts and habits may hide themselves behind that screen, and thus escape being observed or checked. It is still worse when a spoken lie has been previously matured, when, in telling it, the child is perfectly at ease and confident of success. In such a case, the whole position of those who educate, and of him who is to be educated, is changed; the child has gained a superiority over parents and teachers, and the latter become a plaything in the hands of the former.

The question now comes—*What is the best method of training children to speak the truth?* and the nearest answer is:

*First. Prevent as much as possible the first lie.* It is natural for man to be in harmony with himself, to act as a unit, to speak and appear just as he feels and thinks. To dissolve this union of inward reality and outward appearance is unnatural, and can be accomplished only by a great effort. The first lie is always spoken with a trembling voice, undecided appearance, and a downcast eye. But when the strong fortification of truth is once taken, the good protecting angel of innocence recedes, and every subsequent lie is uttered with less effort and accompanied by less remorse. The rule just given is applicable to many cases which are often overlooked and still more frequently not sufficiently observed.

*Never consider that a lie which was not intended for one.* Little children up to five years of age have lessons to learn, which are harder, greater, and more important than adults usually imagine. The proper use of the five senses, a discrimination of the impressions thus made upon their minds, and a true expression of their ideas through the organs of speech in words, which are arbitrarily chosen, and not at all connected with the thing observed or the thought created—this is the task assigned to early childhood. Happily, children perform it most cheerfully. They learn language in a playful way. They never tell a lie. Their talking is only loud thinking; the first half of a thought affirms what the second denies. They will talk even what would appear plain nonsense to an adult, simply because they like to hear their own voices. They will repeat words many times and form strange combinations. All such talking is mechanical exercise of the organs of speech, or repetition of what they have heard, and therefore without meaning or significance. When children begin to utter connected thoughts, a new difficulty arises in *mistaking the true meaning of words*, and from ignorance of *grammatical construction*. Mistakes are made with regard to number, tense, or person; particles which express expansion or limitation, affirmation or negation, are used in the wrong way; the degrees of comparison are disregarded, or a part is taken for the whole, or *vice versâ*. The child may have misunderstood a whole question, or confined his attention only to the last words. In each of these and many other cases, the answer or statement of the child may be wrong in the eyes of an adult, and yet perfectly true within the limited sphere of a child under eight years of age.

Another cause which makes children often appear as if they deviated from truth, is their *active imagination*. They will imitate the doings of adults, with whom they come in contact, and play schoolmaster, carpenter, auctioneer, or soldier. They will hold town meetings, capture a thief, or arrange a funeral procession. They expect others to feel and act just as they do themselves. They breathe life into inanimate things around them. Their dolls are living babies, eating, drinking, sleeping, and crying; a stick becomes a fast-running horse, and a paper boat carries a whole army of living soldiers.

They make no careful discrimination between past, present, and future. An expected pleasure is to them a present reality, and an alarm or a punishment they have met with in the past, will be experienced anew with the original intensity as often as they are reminded of it. Their hours and weeks are long or short, according to their feeling. All their experience and knowledge is the material with which they color their past trials or joys, magnify present impressions, and form new combinations, or build castles in the air. Their minds are intensely active day and night. They live in dreams when waking, and are awakened by dreams when asleep. Up to a certain period they cannot distinguish things as they are, from the creations of their fancy, and are therefore liable to be misunderstood.

It is not sufficient, however, *not* to accuse the child of a lie, when it is actually innocent; we must as much as possible *remove all temptation to tell a lie.*

If we could see clearly how our mental and moral faculties are called forth and developed by circumstances and events, we should meet many a case, where adults caused a child to tell what was known to be untrue, and then punished it for it. If it is known with certainty that something wrong has been committed, parents or teachers ought first to ascertain whether the child knew the act to be wrong or not. In the latter case only proper instruction and advice are needed; anything beyond that is of evil. But if the child is conscious of having done wrong, it should be met with a firm accusation which would not leave the least room even for the thought of a denial. If it be not fairly ascertained that the child did wrong, a skilful way of catechizing has been found the best method of getting at the truth. The questions ought to be put calmly, kindly, and in such a succession that the child does not see the connection between its answers and their consequences. After some facts are established, the child's true position is often clearly seen. This method, however, requires practice, skill, and, above all, an earnest zeal to benefit the child, whatever the cost may be. Young parents and teachers are apt to fail in these attempts. They are either so fond of their charge as to overlook many a case which ought to be investigated, or have not time and patience enough to arrive at a satisfactory result. Sufficient time must also be given to the child to consider fully the true meaning of the questions, or else an inconsiderate answer may be given in haste. If cases occur where, in all probability, the first lie may be expected, it is preferable not to mention such a case at all. The little child must be kept as long as can be in the belief that the parent or teacher knows the truth and is free from error.

*Never advise or command a child to lie.* This point is seldom in all its bearings strictly observed. Children are sometimes made to ask one's pardon, when they do not see anything wrong in their doings; or they are commanded to show signs of affection to persons whom they do not like; or they are taught to learn and utter complimentary phrases, which they feel to be but words without meaning; or they are compelled to speak words of thanks after punishment, when they feel anything but thankfulness. A mother wishes to be undisturbed, and advises her daughter to tell callers that she is not at home. A member of the family is to be surprised with a present. The child has heard of it, but is told to deny all knowledge about it, if it should be questioned. An adult plays with children, hides himself and asks some of them not to betray to the others where he is hidden; not to mention cases of a grosser kind which occur in the lower classes of society, where the division line between truth and falsehood is almost invisible.

*Secondly. When a lie has been told, find out its motive and treat the child accordingly.* The real merit of a deed lies neither in its appearance nor in its subsequent consequences, but only in its motives. To read these in the hearts of the pupils is one of the highest duties of all those who have to deal with children; and to purify these is to elevate their moral standard most effectually. The various motives which induce children to lie may be brought in three groups,—indiscretion, fear, and desire.

Lies of *indiscretion* are committed without forethought or plan. They may occur in conversation. The child, in talking with an adult, expresses his loose ideas in words still less precise than his thoughts, and thus an original misunderstanding may cause the reproach of a lie. The child may be asked to testify as a witness before the family circle, to give advice to his playmate in a critical position, or to repeat a story. In these, as well as other cases, the child may have received a wrong impression, or his memory may be at fault, or his feelings and imagination may be wrought up to such a pitch, that he is incapable at the time to discriminate between appearance and reality. What is to be done in such a case? Sometimes the simple advice not to make fun, but to speak in earnest, may be of good effect; at other times it may be well to point out some of the contradictions of the statement, and request a correction of the mistakes. Or if the habit of not being careful enough continues, the child may be told that it will fall in disrepute, as one who does not adhere to truth. Good advice, instruction, and encouragement are all that is needed to counteract and prevent lies of this kind.

Another potent cause of lies is *fear*. A lie of fear is always committed when something has been done which the child knew to be wrong. The evil deed lies behind—confrontation and detection before him. Conscience tells him that punishment must follow, and imagination condenses and magnifies such punishment beyond proper limits. In the pressure of the moment there seems to be but one way of escaping, and, with a trembling voice and downcast eye, the deed done is denied. In many of these cases parents are perhaps as guilty as their children. Their look, voice and appearance magnify the importance of the deed, and the degree of punishment. They will even get into a passion, and speak words or commit deeds, worse than those which they pretend to punish.

In examination of this kind there is seldom enough kindness and forgiveness shown to make the child conquer his fear and confess the truth. The parent must feel really sorry, and try to make the child feel that it was its own deed which produced this perplexity on both sides. It would be faulty, however, to hold out frequently the promise of forgiveness as an inducement to plead guilty. Parents must keep their hands free to punish or forgive.

*The worst lie is that of desire.* It is committed when false statements are made, in order to obtain a certain wish. The object is clearly in view; in order to reach it, a plan is made, the best means are chosen, and the lie is told deliberately, and with full knowledge of its being a sin. Words and manner are carefully selected, the liar loses his identity and becomes a mere performer. No child begins its bad career with such a premeditated violation of truth; it has always been prepared for it by the preparatory classes just mentioned. The conscience of a wilful liar is already trodden under foot, and any other evil deed may be done; if temptation comes, the heart inclines to it, and a false statement will hide the deed from men.

The detection of such a lie should always be followed by a severe punishment. Thus far all eminent educators agree. But they disagree as to the kind of punishment. Rousseau and Kant propose to disbelieve for a while all statements of a child after it has told such a lie. This may be good in some cases, but at other times, especially when the child has stated the truth, it might put parents or teachers in rather an awkward position. Jean Paul thinks it best to condemn such a child to abstain from a king for a certain time, but this would prove to many a lazy child, especially in school, rather a reward than a punishment. Dr. Diesterweg and Dr. Benecke recommend, especially for young children, a comparatively severe corporal punishment, inflicted not in the heat of excitement, but after a while, in a loving, compassionate spirit. Dr. Dinter relates in his writing a case where one of his schoolfellows was cured radically in the following manner.

B, the son of a laborious mechanic, was the intimate playmate of C, who had rich parents. As B's father had met with considerable dissappointment in his business, B expected no Christmas gift. He thought, however, he might have a pleasant time, if C's father would invite him to spend Christmas eve at his house. Both boys agreed to carry out this plan. B told his father that he had been invited for that evening to Mr. C's house, and C begged his parents to give an invitation to his friend. Both fathers happened to meet and talk about this subject. They agreed upon a plan according to which both were to be punished by their own deeds. On Christmas C met B and took him to his own house. He was received kindly, but when the gifts were distributed and enjoyed, he, as an unexpected guest, did not receive anything. It was the custom of the teacher of that place to call on some families that evening. According to agreement he called on Master B, and Mr. B. accompanied him to C's house. Here the lie was detected, and in an adjoining room sentence was pronounced that C's Christmas tree and a new suit of clothes were to be given to a poor boy in the neighborhood, while B had to share his gifts with a boy appointed by the father. This had the desired effect. Both boys became truthful men.

*Thirdly. The most potent factor is a good example.* It surpasses the best preaching and teaching. On this point philosophy and experience agree, and but a few remarks will be needed.

Little children like to play. It is well if adults will join them from time to time in their harmless amusements. More care, however, should be taken not to strengthen or confirm erroneous ideas or creations of their imagination. The child must learn to distinguish between the playful prattle and the earnest talk of those around him, or between a little comedy, in which the members of the family are the actors, and the earnest drama of real life. To teach that difference practically, requires considerable attention and delicate taste. One child will bear more than another, and one adult can go further than another without doing any harm. All the words and deeds spoken and done by adults in the presence of children, should be carefully weighed, and always be founded on truth. If a boy grows up in such a pure atmosphere of truth, it will require a strong temptation from without to make him tell a lie. He is true to himself and others, first by imitation, then by habit, and last by principle and religion. The same is true in the opposite direction. Experienced teachers can judge pretty correctly from the appearance of children, how high the moral and intellectual barometer ranges in those families in which they were brought up.

Children under six years of age should never be taught to conceal anything, even if the secret were of the most innocent character. An object which is to remain a secret should be known only by adults. The heart teaches to speak, and reason to hold one's tongue. Little children have no developed reason, but they abound in heart. If an adult cannot keep a secret, how is a child to be expected to keep it? And will not the child, which is initiated in the secrets of adults, learn thus to hide secrets of its own?

*Finally. Adults should keep their promises.* No one is compelled to make such, but every one is bound by honor and truth to keep them. Children seldom forget promises made to them, but oftener those which they make themselves. It will be for their benefit not to ask too much of them in promises, but so much the more in fulfilment. To speak what one thinks, and to keep what one has spoken, is natural to man in his normal condition. If only the weeds of lie are kept away, and proper opportunities are given, the desire for truth will grow, and truth will make him free.—*Massachusetts Teacher.*

## "COUSIN ANNA."

BY T. S. ARTHUR.

"Father!" There was no answer.

"Father! father!" And a boy's quick, firm grasp was laid upon the arm of Mr. Jacobs, who sat near the lamp, absorbed in the pages of a book.

"What do you want, you troublesome child!" said Mr. Jacobs, turning upon his little son with an angry countenance.

"Does the world go round? George Andrews says the sun stands still and the world turns round."

"Of course it does, you little simpleton!" replied the father, in a tone of thorough contempt of the child's ignorance. "Now, don't come bothering me any more with your silly questions," he added, as he pushed the curious boy away.

Philip was disappointed as well as hurt by this treatment. The strange fact, which had been affirmed by George Andrews that the world turned round, had puzzled his brain sorely. He had thought about it, and imagined the consequences of so singular a phenomenon, until his mind was lost in bewilderment. If the world turned round, it was plain to him that the people would fall off. And then, again, did not the sun rise and go clear across the sky every day. No, no. George Andrews, if he *was* a big boy, must be wrong. So Philip ran home from the neighbor's house, where he had gone, after tea, to play with the children, and disturbed his father's pleasant state of mind by the untimely intrusion of what he was pleased to regard as a silly question.

Repulsed harshly, when he should have been received kindly and instructed patiently, Philip moved slowly away from his father's side, and sat down upon the floor to ponder the mystery of the earth's rotation—to look through the apparent truth and see, by the eye of reason, the real truth, that hid itself away from the unassisted natural vision. But, the more he thought, the more impossible seemed the thing which George Andrews had asserted. Forgetting, in a few minutes, his parent's frown, the child, in the eagerness of unsatisfied curiosity, started up from the floor, and crossing the room, disturbed his father with the question.

"Why don't the people fall off?"

"Jane! Take that child to bed."

The nurse was passing the sitting-room door at the moment. Mr. Jacobs' order was imperative; and the nurse knew that it must be obeyed.

"I don't want to go to bed," objected Philip.

"Take him away!" The father spoke sternly. "Next time, when you see me reading, don't disturb me with your foolish questions."

Mr. Jacobs turned to his book, and Philip was carried off in tears, to bed, suffering the penalty of a too eager curiosity. He cried himself to sleep.

Twice repulsed, and punishment added the second time, a new question arose in Philip's mind, almost as difficult of solution as the problem he had submitted to his father. Was it wrong to seek for knowledge? Ere light dawned upon his feeble intellect, tranquil sleep came with its blessed forgetfulness.

On the next morning at the breakfast-table, while Mr. Jacobs was relating to his wife some pleasant incident which had occured the day before, Philip broke in with the untimely question.

"Father! Where does the sun go at night?"

The inquiry was answered by a frown and a sharply spoken "Hush!"

"As I was saying, when that troublesome child interrupted me"—Mr. Jacobs looked toward his wife again, and went on with his story; but the telling of it took too long a time for the patience of Philip, into whose mind a flood of curious questions was pouring.

"Father!"

No regard was paid to the child.

"Father!"

Mr. Jacobs went on talking across the table.

"Father! why can't we fly like the birds?"

"Haven't I told you a hundred times not to ask questions when I was talking? If you speak again, you shall be sent from the table!"

Philip cowered down in his chair, looking frightened. But his young eyes were just opening upon a world of wonderful things, each of which but half revealed itself. He was what is called a "bright child," by some; and troublesome child by others. To all who would tolerate him he was an eager questioner. Too soon he forgot his father's threat to send him from the table if he spoke again. Ere the story was finished, he said in a loud voice,

"Mother! Does sugar grow on trees?"

"Philip!"

The child started and flushed as if caught in an evil act.

"Leave the table!"

Philip left the table slowly, and went in tears from the room.

"I never saw such a boy?" exclaimed Mr. Jacobs, with an irritated manner, and then fell into a silent, moody state. He did not finish his pleasant story.

"Nobody answers his questions," said the mother. There was a troubled murmur in her voice. "I can't do it; it would take all my time, and the wisdom of Solomon into the bargain. What do you think he asked me yesterday?"

"If the moon was made of green cheese probably?"

"Just what he did ask! Somebody imposed upon his young curiosity, and he came to me for the truth."

Now it was the father himself who had done this. On the preceding morning, just as he was leaving the house, Philip had caught hold of him and put the question,

"What is the moon made of, father?"

"Of green cheese," was the thoughtless answer—we might call it by a severer name. And Mr. Jacobs dragged himself away from the child's earnest grasp.

"Well, what reply did you make?" inquired Mr. Jacobs.

"I was amused, and laughed heartily."

"Well, what then? Was he satisfied with being laughed at?"

"No. He pressed the question."

"How did you answer him?"

"I began by trying to make him understand that the moon was another world like this?"

Mr. Jacobs laughed out loud.

"He was easily satisfied, I presume?"

"Indeed, then, and he was not. In less than two minutes he had asked me more questions than any astronomer could have answered to his satisfaction in a month."

"So you gave it up."

"I did, and told Jane to give him a saucer of sweet-meats and bread in which to drown his curiosity."

"Wise woman! It was effectual I suppose. You heard no more about the moon and green cheese?"

"Nothing more. When I next saw him, he was asleep on the floor, his face daubed with syrup from chin to eyebrows."

Mr. Jacobs laughed. A moment after, he said, looking serious,

"I must answer Mary's letter to-day."

"O yes. It won't do to put it off any longer," replied his wife. "Poor Mary! I feel sorry for her. I wonder what kind of a girl Anna is?"

"An ordinary girl, no doubt. Mary's husband was a coarse man; and they've always been very poor. The children have had few opportunities for improvement."

"I'm sorry," said Mrs. Jacobs. And her dreamy-looking eyes sunk to the floor. After a brief silence she looked up, adding,

"We shall have to give Anna a home."

"I don't know about that," replied her husband. "It might not be the best for our children."

"They are very young."

"So much the worse. She might give their young minds a twist that we could never get out again. I'm afraid."

"The poor girl will have to go out alone and friendless, to make her way in the world. She is your sister's child; and, for appearance sake, if nothing else, we must not abandon her to such a fate. Evil consequences might follow, that would occasion a life-long regret. I think we had better send for her. We need not offer her a home, now, but merely invite her to make us a visit."

"If you are willing," said Mr. Jacobs, "I will write to sister Mary to send Anna here for a few weeks. If we don't like her we can manage a quiet transfer to other quarters.

"Send for her by all means," replied his wife. "You can not do less under the circumstances."

So the letter was written, and the niece invited to make them a visit.

When Philip learned that his Cousin Anna—he had never heard of her before— was coming to make them a visit, he had a hundred curious questions to ask about her, to none of which he could get a satisfactory answer. As usual he annoyed his father with his singular and persevering inquiries; and the child got into trouble about his Cousin Anna, more than a dozen times before he looked into her face.

At last, the day came when she was to arrive. Mr. Jacobs did not greet the morning with much pleasure; and his wife felt nervous about the unpromising relative, who might prove a disagreable inmate of their family. She knew that it would be much easier to receive her into the house, than to get rid of her, should her presence be found an injury to the children. As Anna was to come to the city in charge of a gentleman from the town where she lived, who would bring her to her uncle's house, Mr. Jacobs did not feel called upon to put himself out on the occasion, by meeting her at the cars. It was rather later in the evening than usual when Mr. Jacobs came home from his store. He felt more than a little uncomfortable about the young relative he was to meet. A dozen times during the day, he expressed to himself regret for having extended the invitation. "Trouble will grow out of it, I am sure," he said, as he walked homeward. "When I saw her, ten years ago, she was the image of her father, and that isn't saying much in her favor. He was always a coarse, vulgar man. What Mary ever saw in him to like is more than I can imagine."

When Mr. Jacobs entered the family sitting-room, a slender girl, with a pale, delicate face, and large, dark eyes, that had in them a singular depth and brightness, arose and advanced a few steps toward him. There was a modest grace, an ease of manner, and an air of refinement about her that made a favorable impression at the first glance.

"Your uncle," said Mrs. Jacobs.

"Is this Anna Freeman?" There was no concealment of surprise on the part of Mr. Jacobs, as he took the young girl's hand and welcomed her cordially. He was pleased beyond measure at finding in his niece one so very different from the individual his thought had pictured. A brief conversation with her about her mother and younger sisters, and her own views of life and prospects, sufficed to give Mr. Jacobs the impression of a superior and well-cultivated mind.

Philip had attached himself to her almost from the moment she came into the house, plying her with questions that were patiently answered, and in a way clearly intelligible to his dawning intellect. He was hanging upon her words when his father came home and interrupted some attractive piece of information he was gathering from her lips. Impatient at the prolonged conversation, he at last broke in with a question.

"Philip!" Mr. Jacobs raised a finger and spoke sternly.

The child was standing by the side of his newly found relative, who drew an arm around him in an affectionate way, and looking into his face with a gentle smile, said,

"Wait a little while, dear, and I'll tell you all about it."

"I'm afraid he'll worry you to death with his questions," said Mr. Jacobs. "He plies them without mercy, in season and out of season."

"I am used to answering children's questions," replied Anna. "Philip and I have made friends already," she added, tightening the arm that was around the child.

"Have I troubled you with questions?" There was a shade of feeling in the boy's tones as he looked in the face of his Cousin Anna.

"No dear," she answered, "you'll never trouble me with questions. Ask as many as you please."

"May I ask one now?"

"No, not now," said Mr. Jacobs. "There is a time for all things. Never ask questions when older persons are conversing. I am talking with your Cousin Anna.

A shadow fell across the countenance of Philip. But Cousin Anna withdrew her hand from his waist, and lifting it up to his forehead, laid it among his glossy curls, and drew them tenderly back against her bosom.

"We'll have our talk all in a good time," she said, softly.

The child made a strong effort to repress his eager curiosity. Very, very long, as it seemed to him, did his father hold Cousin Anna in conversation. In several of the pauses he threw in a question; but was rebuked, or threatened, each time.

"Go away from your Cousin Anna!" Mr. Jacobs at length said, almost angrily. "She is tired with a long journey, and you are

worrying her to death. Call Jane, and have him taken from the room." Mr. Jacobs glanced over to his wife.

"Oh, no, uncle! Don't send him out the room," interposed Anna. "He does not trouble me in the least."

"Wait patiently, dear," she then whispered to the child. "Your time will come soon, and then I'll talk to you just as long as you please."

That time did come at last; but after what seemed to Philip a long, long delay. During supper time his father threatened him twice, without fully repressing the impulsive curiosity which almost every object excited in his young mind; and finally sent him from the table, ordering him, at the same time, to be taken off to bed. Anna looked surprised and grieved at this, and her pitying gaze followed the unhappy child as he was borne from the room. His sad, disappointed face, as she saw him lay it down almost hopelessly, upon the shoulder of Jane, touched her sympathies, and brought tears to her eyes. Mr. Jacobs observed the effect upon her of Philip's removal. The shade of disquiet alone that dimmed her young countenance rebuked him; for he perceived the cause.

"There is no other way," said Mr. Jacobs. "You might as well talk to the wind."

But Anna made no response.

"As to satisfying his idle curiosity, that is impossible."

"I have never thought the curiosity of children idle," said Anna. "The world is all new to them — and all a mystery. We hold the key to these mysteries; and we must unlock for them the doors of knowledge. If they do not come, questioning, to us, where can they go? We are their only hope."

There was nothing in the manner of his niece, as she thus answered, to offend. She spoke with simple truthfulness. And Mr. Jacobs was not offended, though her words threw light into his mind; and the light rebuked him.

"They are so thoughtless of time and seasons," remarked Mr. Jacobs.

"They are young, artless, and ignorant," replied Anna, "and need our widest consideration. I often think that we expect too much from them. Making all allowance for the difference of age and experience, we will find grown persons quite as inconsiderate as children."

"I believe you are right," said Mr. Jacobs, as he leaned back in his chair, and looked unusually thoughtful. "It has often occurred to me that we had too little patience with children. Well, you have full liberty to experiment with Philip– and if you satisfy his curiosity, I will have your name handed down to posterity as the eighth wonder of the world."

Anna smiled, and replied that she had no objection to make the experiment, and if they would excuse her, would go to Philip at once and soothe him in his trouble.

"I don't wonder at his impatience," she added, as she rose from the table, "for I was in the very midst of some very interesting explanations when you came home, to which he was listening with eyes and mouth, as well as mind, wide open, trying to take in my words at every possible and impossible avenue."

When Cousin Anna entered the bed-room to which Philip had been sent in disgrace, she found him half undressed, lying with his face buried in a pillow, and Jane endeavoring to remove his clothes.

"I never saw such a bad boy!" said the nurse impatiently. "He's always doing something. Turn over here I say!" But the child remained as immovable and heedless as a piece of wood.

"Philip!"

What a magic there was in the voice of Cousin Anna! What quick life flashed electrically through all the child's frame. She had bent over him as she spoke. Scarcely died the sound of her voice, ere his arms were about her neck.

"I will undress him, Jane," said Cousin Anna. The girl left the room, half wondering at the singular influence gained over the restless, almost ungovernable boy, by a stranger who had not been three hours in the house.

Tears dry quickly on the cheeks of childhood. Scarcely three minutes had glided away, ere sunshine succeeded the rain.

"Now tell me about the people on the other side of the world. Can't we dig right through?"

Anna had, through many interruptions by Philip's mother, who constantly repressed the child's questions, and reproved him for annoying his cousin, endeavored, during the two hours that succeeded her arrival to satisfy his highly stimulated curiosity in regard to the strange story he had heard about the world's turning around. She had made some progress, when her uncle returned home, and interrupted the talk with the child.

In reply to his renewed query, Anna, by the aid of the lamp, and an India rubber ball which happened to be lying on the bureau, showed Philip, by one of the common illustrations, familiar to every one, how the earth turns on its axis, giving the alternation of day and night. Of course, he was only partially convinced, and had many difficulties to interpose. He could not see how it was possible for the people to remain sticking on to the side of a round ball—and he wanted to know who turned the world around; if there was a man turning it with a crank like a grindstone; and why the water did not run off?

Not once did Cousin Anna smile at his amusing queries. She saw that they were simple, out-spoken difficulties that met him on the path of knowledge he was so eager to tread; and with wise and loving patience she answered and illustrated, until the grateful boy was satisfied. For full two hours he pressed his queries, going over the entire ground of doubt and difficulty already encountered in his young experience, and then, after so rare a feast of knowledge, listened with tranquil delight to a pleasant story that left his mind ready for sleep and dreams.

For the last hour Mr. and Mrs. Jacobs had listened near the door.

"God bless her!" whispered the father, as he laid his hand upon the arm of his wife, and drew her away. "She is wiser than we. Her loving patience is a rebuke. How unjust to that boy I have been!"

On the next day, Mr. Jacobs offered his niece a permanent home in his family.

"Be to us as a daughter," he said "and to our children an elder sister."

She smiled half sadly, as she replied, "My mother will not give up her claim. Let me be to you, dear uncle! a grateful niece, and to your sweet children, simple Cousin Anna."

"She is better than any sister, I'm sure—a great deal better than George Fitch's big sister Mary, who's always saying, "O, hush!" to him. I want her to be just Cousin Anna; and that's a great deal better than any sister."

Philip had been listening, and this was his uninvited commentary.

"It shall be Cousin Anna, and no more, said the grateful girl, stooping to hide her blushes, and kissing the forehead of the loving child.

And Cousin Anna she remained, blessing that household with her presence, and receiving her reward daily. Not so much in outward acknowledgment, as in deep interior satisfaction, arising from the consciousness that she was doing good among the children who loved her as a sister.

If any one inquired of Philip whether she was his sister, he would answer almost indignantly.

"No—she's not a sister! She's Cousin Anna!" And no one, who saw or heard him make this reply, could fail to understand his impression of the vast superiority of a cousin over a sister.—*New-York Teacher.*

## Notes of Lessons.

### SKETCH OF A LESSON ON THE LUNGS.

AGE 9—11.

*Leading idea.*—The necessity that we should breathe a *sufficient* quantity of *pure* air.

I.—INTRODUCTION:

This morning, children, I am going to talk with you about our lungs. Does any child know what I mean by our lungs?—What do we draw into our mouths and down our throats when we breathe? *The air.* Quite right; and who can tell me where the air goes after passing down the windpipe in our throat? Hold your hands here while you draw in your breath, (on the chest.) Now where does the air go? *Into our stomachs.* Yes, or what we call our chests. But there is a particular part in the *chest* into which the air *passes* and that part we call our * * Well it is what I said we were going to talk about. What are they? *Our lungs.* Quite right. The lungs are the part inside the chest into which the—air goes. Yes, but do we keep all the air in our lungs, and only keep drawing air into them always? *No, teacher.* No; besides drawing air into our *lungs*, we also breathe air *out.* Quite right; we draw air—*into the lungs*, and also —*breathe it out.*

II.—POSITION.

In what part of the body did we say the lungs were? *In the chest.* Quite right. And why should this part of our body be called our chest? What is a chest? *A box.* Then we call this our chest because it is like —*a box.* Quite right. Now we will see if it is really like a box. We know that this box is not made of iron or tin, or wood but of—*flesh and bones.* Quite right. Now I want you to name the bones which form this box or chest. What bone have we here? *The back bone.* Yes, the back

bone or spine. And here?—*the ribs.* Quite right. And here?—*the breast bone.* Yes; now what part of the chest will these bones form?—*the sides.* Quite right. Then we have found that it is like a box except that it wants—*a bottom*, and—*a lid.* Quite right; but we must not have a lid to our—*chest*, and why not? What has to come down into the lungs every time we breathe? *The air.* Then we only want a—*bottom*; and for the bottom we have a flat fleshy partition. And there are also fleshy bands which join the ribs to each other. Now you can tell me something that we shall find in our chest. *Our lungs.* Yes, and do you know of anything else that is in our chests besides our lungs? What do you feel beating here? *Our hearts.* Quite right, and there are other things that we will not talk of now, such as the liver, but our lesson is on the—*lungs.* Yes, now I want you to try and understand how the lungs are situated in the chest. Can any one tell me how many lungs each of us has? Well you know we have more than—*one*; or we should not call them *lungs*, but *lung*. Quite right, we have two lungs. Now look on the black board and I will try to show you how they are placed. What did you tell me we found beating in our chests? *Our heart.* Yes, then we will call this our heart. (H.) And how many lungs have we? *Two.* Quite right, and we shall find them placed so (LL) one on each side of the—*heart.* Yes, we must remember that the lungs are close to the—*heart.* Yes, and I want you to remember also that our chest is only large enough to hold the lungs and heart and liver, and other things that are in it, when the lungs are empty, that is before we have drawn in our—*breath.* And when we have drawn in the air and so filled our lungs, are they larger or smaller? *Larger.* Quite right, because when the air is in, it will stretch or expand them. Then if they become larger they will want more—*room.* And as the chest was only just large enough to hold them before what must it do in order to hold them now? It must stretch. Yes, or—*expand.* And what have we said that the chest is made of? *Bones and fleshy bands.* Yes, and which part do you think it is that stretches? *The fleshy part.* Quite right, the fleshy bands between—*the ribs.* When do these stretch to make the chest larger? *When we draw in our breath.* Yes, and so the chest becomes—*larger*, and gives room to the—*lungs.* Now can any one tell me what kind of clothes will prevent the chest expanding? *Tight clothes.* Quite right; then if we wear tight clothes we cannot draw enough air into—*the lungs.* Because they have not room to—*expand.*

III.—Recapitulation.—Structure.

But now although we have found out in what part of the body the—*lungs* are, we have not said what kind of things they are. Can any child tell me what they are like? Hands out all who have seen a large sponge. Hands down. Now hands out all who can tell me something that they noticed about the sponge. That little girl. *It has little cells in it.* Quite right. Another. *It is soft.* Quite right, and our lungs are very much like two large—*sponges.* Then what will they have in them? Cells. Yes, but we do not call them cells. What are they for? What goes into the lungs when we breathe? *The air.* Quite right, and part of these holes, or cells, are for the—*air.* Yes, and we will call those *air tubes.* What are they called? *Air tubes.* Yes, and besides these air tubes we have others through which the blood flows, what may they be called? *Veins.* Yes, or what do we call the tubes which carry the blood through the skin? Quite right, and we will call those which take the blood through the lungs—*blood vessels.* Quite right, and these blood vessels are largest where the lungs are widest, where is that? *In the upper part.* Quite right, and in the lower part they are very—*small.* Yes, nearly as small as hairs. Then they turn again and gradually become larger towards the—*top.*

IV.—Recapitulation.—Uses.

What did we say the tubes in the lungs were for? Part for the air, and part for the blood. And where does the blood come from into the lungs? What is placed between the lungs? *The heart.* Quite right, and you were told a few weeks ago that it was from the heart that the blood flowed all over the—*body.* Quite right, and it is from the heart that the blood flows into the—*lungs.* But when it is sent through the veins of the body it goes from the heart red and pure, and comes back dark-coloured and impure. But if we could see the blood flowing from the heart into the lungs we should see it looking very dark when it leaves the heart to go into the—*lungs.* And when it comes back to the heart it is charged with a bright—*red.* Then it is impure when it goes into the—*lungs*, and pure when it comes back to the—*heart.* Then it is made pure while it is in—*the lungs.* Can any child tell me how this is done? Well we cannot tell exactly how it is done but we can find out by *what* it is done. We will try. What did we say there were in the lungs besides the blood-vessels? *Air tubes.* Quite right, and the air tubes and blood-vessels are separated from each other by a very thin—*skin.* Yes, and this skin is so thin that the air acts upon the blood through this skin and makes the blood *pure.* But while the air purifies the blood, it becomes impure itself, so that the air we breathe out is not fit to breathe over—*again.* No it is not fit for us or any one else to breathe over again, for it is poison, and not pure. And if the air we breathe in is not pure it will not make our blood—*pure.* Then what kind of air do we need to breathe? *Pure air.* Yes, quite right; but even if the air is pure if our clothes are so tight that the lungs cannot expand, to take in enough air, will the blood be quite purified? *No.* Certainly not, because there will not be enough air in—*the lungs* to touch all the—*blood.* Then we must not only breathe *pure* air, but also—*enough of it* or else our blood will not be made—*pure.* And if our blood is not pure we shall be—*ill.*—*Papers for the Schoolmaster.*

## Rules for making expert Arithmeticians.

The following rules for imparting rapidity in calculation were given by Prof. De Morgan. When pupils have acquired such facility in the combination of numbers as to pronounce at once their results as they pronounce a word on seeing the letters, then alone are they prepared to proceed with the highest success to the problems of arithmetic.

1st. Supposing the learner to be able to count with sufficient rapidity backward and forward, by single units, he should then learn to count backward and forward by twos, by threes, by fours, up to tens, beginning with different numbers. For instance, commence with three and add four—thus: 3, 7, 11, 15, 19, etc.; or commencing with sixty-one—thus: 61, 57, 53, 49, 45, etc. *No reiteration should be allowed. It should not be three and four make seven, seven and four make eleven; but simply* 3, 7, 11, 15, *etc.*—If there be difficulty, let the pupil be allowed to take his own time; but let him be prevented from repeating any single word, except one which expressses a result.

2d. The next exercise is the formation of the defect of a lesser number from a greater, when the defect does not exceed nine.—The manner in which it should be required is by giving the lesser number, and the units only of the greater—the learner having to supply for himself the tens which should be in the greater, so that the defect may not exceed nine. Thus, having fifty-six and seeing four, the exercise consists in learning immediately to supply both the eight in "fifty-six and eight make sixty-four," and also the six tens. To perform this exercise by itself, write down any line of figures, as 823417554. Make examples by taking the first two figures for the lesser, and the next for the units of the greater; then the second and third, and the fourth, and so on. The process then is to make out, as rapidly as possible, eighty-two and one are eighty-three, twenty-three and one are twenty-four, thirty-four and seven are forty-one, forty-one and six are forty-seven, seventeen and eight are twenty-five, and so on.

3d. The multiplication table is now to be learned, up to nine times nine, at least, but not not in the common way. Of all the drawbacks upon rapidity of computation, none is so great as the common habit of reproducing in regular form the assertion, eight times seven are fifty-six, every time that eight and seven are seen, and multiplication is known to be coming. The exercise we now speak of consists in stating instantly the product of two digits as soon as they are seen. Take a line of figures, as before, and learn to repeat rapidly the product of every pair, without naming either of the pair. 72698593376598. The following products are to be caught instantly: 14, 12, 54, 72, 40. 45, 27, 21, 42, 30, 45, 72, etc. One advantage of this process will be, that the learner will become equally habituated to the products, whether the greater factor be seen first or the lesser.

4th. The next thing to be acquired is the formation of a product increased by a given digit, or a given digit by a product, instantly, without repetition of the factors or adend. Instead of four times eight are thirty-two, and three are thirty-five, we ought to require only the words 32-35; that is, only the results. If rows of figures be again taken, and if the exercise be repeated on each three figures consecutively—slowly at first, if necessary, but keeping strictly to the rule of allowing no additional words to be either articulated or thought of—it will not be found very difficult to make the results come as readily as those of the simple multiplication table. Thus, taking 62987401328, the object is to arrive rapidly at 21, 26, 79, or $6 \times 2 \times 8$, $2 \times 9 \times 8$, $9 \times 8 \times 7$, $8 \times 7 \times 4$; also at 72, 88, 119, etc., or $(6 \times 2) \times 9$, $(2 \times 9) \times 8$, $(9 \times 8) \times 7$, etc.

5th. The next process is to catch the result of the preceding process, and to add it to another figure, naming the first result only, and none of its constituents. Taking again a row of figures—725836294759—the object is to arrive at 19 and 27, 18 and 21, 43 and 49; or, taking the sum of the two first numbers, multiplying the third and adding the fourth, and so on—thus, 45 and 53, 56 and 59, 39 and 45, etc.

6th. The next of these exercises ressembles that in (2), only that the smaller number is found as in (4). A product increased by a digit is to be taken from a number, of which the unite place is before the operator, while the ten's is to be supplied as wanted, to make the defect not exceed nine. Thus, out of 7861, is to be instantly supplied 62 and 9 are 71, or $7 \times 8 \times 6$ is to be made up to the next number that ends with one.

7th. The last process is the inversion of (5), namely: finding the quotient and remainder of tens and units divided by a single digit; but this should be practiced without repeating, as in eight in fifty-nine, seven times and three over. It should be, at most, eight in fifty-nine, or seven and three. A row of figures may be used for practice, as in the preceding cases.

As soon as these seven rules become as familiar as counting, so soon and no sooner is the drudgery of computation annihilated.—These are the steps by which the calculator walks, and let his journey be in what direction it may, no single pace can be anything but one or another of the preceding.—*From Companion to British Almanac.*

## Cathechism on Methods of Teaching.

TRANSLATED FROM DIESTERWEG'S "ALMANAC." (*Jahrbuch.*) FOR 1855 AND 1856,

BY DR. HERMANN WIMMER.

### I. Intuitional instruction, (*Anschauungsunterricht.*)

BY A. DIESTERWEG.

1. *What is the object of intuitional instruction?*

To prepare the child who has just entered the primary school, for formal school instruction.

2. *What is therefore its external position in the course of instruction?*

It forms as it were the bridge from the liberty of home life to the regular discipline of the school; it is in regard to instruction, an intermediate between home and school.

3. *What is to be effected by it?*

The children are to learn to see and to hear accurately, to be attentive, to govern their imaginations, to observe, to keep quiet, and to speak distinctly and with the right emphasis.

4. *With what objects must this preparatory education deal; having in view a "formal" aim, but no acquisition of knowledge?*

Perceptible or perceived objects; hence its name. It has a two-fold meaning; real observation by the senses, especially by eye and ear,—and such management, by the teacher that the objects, their qualities and conditions, are made vivid interior perceptions.

5. *By what do we know that its end is attained?*

By the whole appearance of the children, and particularly by their correct and proper speech and pronunciation, which can not be valued too highly from the first beginning.

6. *What is the beginning of this instruction?*

After a conversation about father and mother, to gain their confidence, and after some directions concerning the mode of answering and behaving in the school-room, the first thing is to observe the room and its contents. The pupil is to be made acquainted with all around him; he must learn to see, to name, and to describe exactly, all objects in the room.

7. *What must be chiefly attended to from the first day?*

(*a*) A clear, emphatic statement in complete sentences. E. g. What sort of thing in this? This thing is a chair, etc.

(*b*) A comprehensive view of all qualities observed in an object, at the conclusion of each exercise. This is of the greatest importance in all instruction.

8. *What is the second step?*

Observation of the whole school, school-house, road, village or town, in their external qualities.

9. *The third?*

Observation of some of the animals in the place, and of man.

10. *What next?*

This depends on circumstances. In general, it may be said, that the result of this instruction may be secured by from four to six hours a week during the first year. The duller the children are, the longer it must be continued. It may be further extended to the trees and plants of the neighborhood, the trades and employments of the people in the place, clouds, weather, wind, fire, water, sun, moon, stars, etc.; in short, to all objects accessible to real observation. Accurate comtemplation or description of models of mathematical bodies may also be very advantageous. The teacher should draw the streets and houses of the place before the eyes of the pupils on the blackboard; he may resort to "*Stäbchenlegen,*" (laying down small sticks; see Diesterweg's *Kleinkinderschule,* (Primary School,) fifth edition, and Stangenberger's book;) he may use the picture tables; in one word, he may arrange any variety of useful exercises to attain the important end. It is least possible in this branch, to prescribe in books a regular and equal course to all.

Of the greatest importance, we may repeat, is the way in which the children speak and pronounce. A teacher who is unmindful of this, prepares trouble for his whole professional career. Instruction in teaching, if the teacher understands it, is at the same time instruction in language. It is not, however, instruction in grammar; yet it leads to the understanding of the language, and to attention to words and expressions in general. Not only the nouns, adjectives and verbs, but the propositions and conjunctions also, should be managed without the mention of their names, but by using practical examples of them. It is not the object to explain these words, but to use them correctly by means of a variety of exercises.

The best manuals for the Intuitional Method direct such instruction, and the teacher shows his skill in the suitable choice of objects, and especially in the varied and attractive treatment of them. Less depends on the selection of what is to be discussed, than on the way in which the attention of the children is secured. If the proverb "Every way is good except the tiresome" be true any where, it is true here. As soon as the children get tired, the subject must be dropped. Success depends entirely on the activity of the children. This is true, indeed, of all teaching, but preëminently so where knowledge and technical ability are not aimed at, but only an awakening of the slumbering faculties, a "formal" end. Attention, liveliness, a desire to observe, and to answer, etc., are the measures for judging of success.

If the result is secured, i. e., if the pupil is prepared for learning, the teacher leaves this instruction and advances to study proper, which is likewise intuitional. That is, he proceeds always from facts, from real, undeniable and undisputable facts. The importance of this principle is not yet enough understood, nor has the subject been exhausted by teachers or educators.

### II. Instruction in reading, by Hoscamp.

*Reading Writing together (Schreib-Lese-Unterricht.)*

1. *Shall the first instruction in reading be begun in connection with the first instruction in writing?*

Most certainly, for reading and writing are most intimately connected.

2. *Was instruction in the former separated from the latter in olden times?*

From ancient times writing was accompanied by reading; but not until modern times, (since Graser,) has reading been connected with writing, in all its steps.

3. *Is this method according to nature?*

It is natural, because reading and writing are properly but two different sides of the same thing, i. e., of the written language.

4. *But is it not easier, first to practice the one, and not to practice the other, until the greater difficulties of the former are mastered?*

Quite the contrary. Reading and writing assist each other mutually, and experience teaches, that the first instruction in either, is made more efficient by their union.

5. *In what shall they be connected?*

The teacher can either (analytically) view the spoken word as a sound, and then have it (synthetically) represented by the signs for the sounds, i. e., the letters, in which case writing is prior; or he may first view the written (printed) word as a representation of the sound, (analytically,) and then have it (synthetically) reproduced by pronouncing or reading—in which case reading is prior. We have, therefore, either a *Lese* (reading)-*Schreib* (writing)-*Methode,* or a *Schreib-Lese-Methode,*—Writing-reading-method.)

6. *What may be said in favor of the reading-writing-method?*

Writing always precedes reading; the inventor of writing did it for reading's sake; he wrote first, and then he read. Hence, instruction in reading must be joined to instruction in writing.

7. *What may be said in favor of the reading-writing-method?*

In answering this question we take, not the place of the inventor of writing, but of him to whom he first communicated his invention; the inventor taught him first to read and then to write, and in like manner, according to nature, we must proceed now.

8. *Which method is to be preferred?*

It is nearly indifferent, either in regard to subject or result, whether we put the pupil in the more artificial place of the first inventor, or in the more natural place of the first pupil.

9. *What rules must be observed in the adoption of either?*

Reading and writing must always be intimately connected; the elements of the word must be found by analysis, and made the basis of study; and only such words and syllables must be read and written, as a meaning for the pupil.

10. *Is it not requiring too much of a child, who has not yet mastered the mechanical part of reading, to ask him to think of the contents and understand what he reads?*

Not at all; for word and idea are one, and speaking and thinking are not to be disconnected. "Given the word, to think of its meaning," is not an operation which the pupil has to learn; he does it of himself and has always done it. But to speak, without joining an idea with it, the pupil has to learn, and that too in order to unlearn it afterward with much trouble.

11. *Why is it important never to read meaningless syllables and unintelligible words?*

Because the pupil will read in future as he is taught to read; therefore, he ought to get accustomed from the beginning to seek in all that he reads a proper idea. Every thing not essential, particularly all that would embarrass the first instruction, should be put off to a later time. It is not necessary to proceed from the easier sounds to the more difficult, for the child pronounces all with equal facility; but it is good to begin with the easier letters, so far as their form is concerned, for example, o, i, s, f.

*Reading by itself.*

Reading may be divided into (1,) mechanical; (2,) logical, (intelligent,) and (3,) asthetical, (feeling.)

12. *Are these grades strictly to be kept asunder?*

No; reading must never be merely mechanical, without regard to the understanding; with logical reading, mechanical ability ought at the same time to be advanced; nor should reading ever be without feeling; and with asthetical reading, both the mechanical and the logical processes should be practiced. The first belongs, in a common school, to the lowest class; the second, (logical,) to the middle, and the third to the highest class, i, e., they are preëminently to be attended to in those classes.

13. *Wherein consists the mechanical ability of reading?*

In a quick survey of the written or printed matter, and in the ability of representing a row of letters by the right sounds, syllables and words.

14. *How is this ability best acquired?*

By frequent class-reading, which must alternate with single reading, so that the former is always preceded by the latter, which must serve as a model. Single words and sentences are to be repeated, until they are readily pronounced. The teacher, by his accompanying voice, directs as to right pronunciation and accentuation.

15. *Wherein consists logical reading?*

In that the understood contents of a piece are emphasized in conformity with that understanding.

16. *When does the pupil understand the contents?*

When he knows the meaning of the words, and the meaning of their relations in the sentences.

17. *When does he understand the meaning of the words?*

When he knows the signification of the derived and compound words by the meaning of their elements, and when he well distinguishes between the proper and the figurative meanings of the same.

18. *Should the exercises in the formation of words, and such as help to understand the rhetorical figures, be practiced in the reading lesson?*

They should be combined with grammar, and occur in the reading lesson only so far as is necessary for understanding the words.

19. *When does the pupil understand the relations within the sentence?*

When he knows how one conception (of a word) refers to another; the different conceptions (words) to the speaker; one idea to another; and the different ideas to the speaker. It is sufficient for the pupil to understand these relations without having a conscious insight into them. An analysis of the conceptions and expressions belongs to the grammar, not to the reading lesson, in order not to spoil the pupil's employment of the contents, etc., etc. (The rest has more particular reference to the German language.)

*(To be continued.)*

## Remedy for Irregularity of Attendance.

It is a fact that four-fifths of all the "tardy" and "absent" marks, in most of our schools, are confined to one-fourth the scholars; and thus we prove the habit is of the few, and not of the many, and that, on that account, the reformatory means employed can not be the same as if all were alike in the matter.

If scholars love study at all, they will be induced to be regular; but if *not* do not allow a scholar habitually irregular to remain in a class where he always stands at the *foot;* put him in a lower class, no matter *how* low, until his lesson is so easy that he can keep up with his class if he is sometimes absent. You thus rid yourself of the disadvantages to the *school.* But if the scholar is still idle, and *prefers* remaining in a lower class, force him to study with diligence in some other way than by taking him into a class where he can not do as well as the others, for it is vastly easier to *compel* one scholar to study than to bear the loss of time he will cause to a whole class if allowed to be with them.

The following plan is very effective: Let the scholars present in the morning take the back seats, leaving those in front for tardy ones. It has been tried in some of our Eastern schools, and with marked success. The result in one school, of about 140 scholars, was to reduce the cases of absence and tardiness from 40 per cent. to 12 or 15 per cent. This certainly shows some value.

Again: An amusing story told at the opening of school, which need not occupy five minutes, is an incentive to the tardy ones to try to come in a little sooner—especially if the door is closed at nine o'clock and not opened until after the exercise is over.

Again: Scholars should not be allowed to be upon the school premises long before the hour for commencing school, for if so, we find two results, viz: 1. The scholars, being uncertain at what hour they must start in order to reach the school-room at nine o'clock, get into the habit of being too early or too late every day. 2. Because, when a company of scholars come together to play, those who are easily led astray have great temptations, and for a longer time, placed before them, to induce them to play truant, or do some other wrong thing, than if each took his seat as soon as he arrived at the school-room.—*Wisconsin Journal of Education.*

## Give your children Books.

Books are the cheapest teachers, and often the best. He who would have his children become good scholars and grow up thoughtful and intelligent men should provide them with books: not mere school books, nor learned treatises on religion or government; but books such as children can understand, the Rollo Books, Peter Parley's, or Jacob Abbott's histories, and as they grow older, larger works of history, biography, travels, science and philosophy. Five dollars well spent for books will often advance a family of children, more than a full year's schooling. I well remember with what a wild joy, I once, in boyhood, greeted my father's return from a visit to the city where at an auction he had purchased a bundle of new books. Among them were Sherwood's Stories, Robins' Journal, and two volumes entitled Scenes in Asia and Scenes in America. How through the long winter evenings I pored over those books! How the mind swelled with the new ideas it drank in! How I spelled away at the hard words, conquering in my zeal whole hosts of difficulties in the art of reading; and, better than all, kindling a thirst for reading and knowledge that lured me on and on, till I had mastered a course at college.

I do not mean to deny the need of school instruction; but the training of the schoolroom will be robbed of half its difficulties, and multiplied greatly in its results if children are provided with books which will interest and instruct them.

If you are too poor to buy books, set your children upon earning them for themselves. Give your boys some vacant corner of a field where they can raise a few bushels of corn, or allow them wages for any extra labor they may perform. Their work will be lightened and their souls enlarged by the efforts. So let the girls be permitted to earn a penny now and then, and when you go to town buy them good books. Better every way is such expenditure of the little sums your children will get than that of buying a sheep or calf or any other so called prudent investment, which engages them thus early in the mad chase for riches which makes the world so hard and selfish.—*Michigan Journal of Education.*

# POETRY.

## THE TEACHER'S GRAVE.

Out where the night wind mournfully
Sighs o'er a group of faded flowers,
And where the lone and timid bird
Is piping thro' the starry hours;
Where Autumn, o'er the tufted green,
Hath scattered sad and sombre hues,
And leaves are nestling in between
The lonely graves—these touching views
Point to an humble *mound of earth,*
Greened o'er by two light-footed Springs,
There lies a *casket,* from whose depth
A shining *gem* hath taken wings.

A *teacher's grave*, no thoughtless foot
May dare profane this calm retreat,
But here, Affection's seraph voice,
May oft her touching strains repeat.
No costly monumental pile
Is reared above the sacred spot,
No lines, with careful hand, are traced,
The grace of Art adorns it not.

But near a polished shaft is seen,
That shades a hero's last repose,
"Here sleeps the famed illustrious one,
Who conquered thousands, and the foes
Of freedom scattered like the night
Before the purple flush of morn,
Whene'er he waved his arm of power,
And bid the intruding host begone.
Revere, ye living, O revere
The memory of this son of fame,
And oft as ye may linger near,
With gratitude behold his name."

Just now a group of youthful hearts
Are clustering 'round the *teacher's* grave.
The hush of midnight fills the air,
And guileless hearts and spirits brave
Are bowing on the precious sod,
To drop a bright and burning tear
From out Affection's clearest fount,
For him who now is slumbering here.

O, bright mementoes are those lines
On Childhood's heart engraven,
More thrilling than the marble's tale,
And breathing strong of heaven;
And precious are the burning tears,
From crystal fountains welling,
Ere poisoned by the flow of years.
Affection's story telling.

If o'er my dust, no sculptured line
The story of my life may trace,
O let me have a holier shrine,
Which Time's rough hand can not efface.

J. W. B.

(*New York Teacher.*)

# OFFICIAL NOTICES.

GOVERNOR'S SECRETARY'S OFFICE,
Toronto, 20 February, 1858.

SIR.

I have the honor, by command of His Excellency, the Governor General, to transmit, for your information, a copy of the *Canada Gazette* of this date, in which is published a notification of an examination to take place in July next, of candidates for the service of the East India Company.

I have the honor to be,
Sir,
Your obedient servant,
R. J. PENNEFATHER,
Governor's Secretary.

The Chief Superintendent of Education,
Montreal.

—

Copy
[CIRCULAR.]

DOWNING STREET, 26th January, 1858.

SIR,

I transmit to you inclosed, a printed Notification of an Examination which is to take place in July next, of Candidates for the service of the East India Company; and I have to request that you will give every publicity to that Notification in the Colony under your Government.

I have the honor to be,
Sir.
Your obedient
Humble Servant,
(Signed) H. LABOUCHERE.

Governor,
The Right Honorable,
Sir E. W. HEAD, Baronet,
&c., &c., &.,
Canada.

CIVIL SERVICE OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY.

1o. In July, 1858, an examination will take place of candidates for appointments to the civil service of the East India Company. Notice will be hereafter given of the days and place of examination.

2o. Any natural-born subject of Her Majesty, who shall be desirous of entering the civil service of the East India Company, will be entitled to be examined at such examination, provided he shall, on or before the 1st of May, 1858, have transmitted to the India Board, Cannon Row, Westminster:—

(*a*) A certificate of his birth, showing that his age, on the 1st of May, 1858, will be above eighteen years and under twenty-three years.
(*b*) A certificate, signed by a physician or surgeon, of his having no disease, constitutional affection, or bodily infirmity, unfitting him for the civil service of the East India Company.
(*c*) A certificate of good moral character, signed by the head of the school or college at which he last received his education; or such proof of good moral character as may be satisfactory to the board of Commissioners for the affairs of India.
(*d*) A Statement of those of the branches of knowledge hereinafter enumerated in which he desires to be examined.

3o. The examination will take place only in the following branches of knowledge:—

| | |
|---|---|
| English Language and Literature.—Composition | 500 |
| English Literature and History, including that of the Laws and Constitution | 1,000 |
| | 1,500 |
| Language, Literature, and History of Greece | 750 |
| " " " Rome | 750 |
| " " " France | 375 |
| " " " Germany | 375 |
| " " " Italy | 375 |
| Mathematics, pure and mixed | 1,000 |
| Natural Science, that is, Chemistry, Electricity and Magnetism, Natural History, Geology, and Mineralogy | 500 |
| Moral Sciences, that is, Logic, and Mental, Moral and Political Philosophy | 500 |
| Sanscrit Language and Literature | 375 |
| Arabic Language and Literature | 375 |
| | 6,875 |

4o. The merit of the persons examined will be estimated by marks, according to the ordinary system in use at several of the Universities; and the number set opposite to each branch in the preceding paragraph denotes the greatest number of marks that can be obtained in respect of it.

5o. No candidate will be allowed any marks in respect of any subject of examination, unless he shall obtain, in respect of that subject, one-sixth of the number of marks set against that particular subject.

6o. The examination will be conducted by means of printed questions and written answers, and by *viva voce* examination.

7o. After the examination shall have been completed, the marks obtained by each candidate, in respect of each of the subjects in which he shall have been examined, will be added up, and the names of the twenty candidates who shall have obtained a greater aggregate number of marks than any of the remaining candidates will be set forth in order of merit; and those twenty candidates will be appointed to the civil service of the East India Company, in the Presidency of Bengal, provided they comply with the regulations in force at the time for the said service.

8o. The Commissioners for the affairs of India will be ready to receive, at any time previous to the 1st of May, 1858, the testimonials of persons desirous of being appointed to the office of Examiner, but no such appointment will be made until after the date above mentioned.

9o. All papers relating to the above-mentioned examination are to be sent, and all inquiries are to be addressed, thus:—

"The Secretary,
"India Board,
"Westminster,
"S. W."

"E. I. C. Civil Service Examination."

# JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

MONTREAL, (LOWER CANADA) FEBRUARY, 1858.

## St. Mary's College.

Scarcely ten years have elapsed since this Educational Institution was first established in our city, and already has its high reputation been widely spread both at home and abroad.

His Excellency, General Sir William Eyre, who has ever evinced the greatest interest in every thing connected with public instruction, in this Province, of the Government of which, he was for some

time the administrator, lately expressed a wish, to the Superintendent of Education, to visit an institution, which he had heard so highly spoken of. The Reverend Fathers, at the head of the establishment, expressed the gratification they felt at His Excellency's proposal, and consequently on Thursday, the 11th of February last, Sir William and Lady Eyre, accompanied by Colonel and Mrs. Thackwell, Major and Mrs. Robertson, Captain and Mrs. Brabazon, and by Mr. and Mrs. Chauveau, visited the vast Halls, the extensive galleries, and also, the elegantly decorated chapels of this college. The library and philosophical apparatus, particularly attracted the notice of the visitors, and it is but justice to remark, that these two apartments, which are situated in the most elevated portion of this vast establishment, from whence a most magnificent prospect of the City and surrounding country is presented to the visitor, already contain collections worthy of the high character of the Institution.

Besides a very superior electrical machine imported from Europe, there is another made on a very different plan, constructed by the Revd. Father Havequez, professor of Natural Philosophy. Several other instruments and apparatus in the collection were made in Montreal, under the direction of the same learned professor. The collection of Butterflies, also made by him, in Europe and in America, is well worthy of examination and attracted both the attention and admiration of the visitors.

The library contains a great number of volumes on Theology as well as on arts, sciences and general literature. On the table, there was a copy of the magnificent work on Archeology, "*Les Vitraux de la Cathédrale de Bourges,*" published by the Revd. Father Martin, (brother of the former director of this establishment,) whose death was announced in our columns during the past year.

On the termination of their visit, the General and *suite* were conducted to the recreation Hall, which is used and decorated for the sittings of the English and French academies.

As is usual on similar occasions, the hall was filled with the elite of the society of Montreal.

Several speeches and compositions were made and read by the students, one addressed to the general, read in English by Mr. Larue, of Three Rivers, and Mr. Kelly recited in French with great warmth and feeling the defence of Lally Tollendal.

Two acts of Shakespeare were performed with considerable talent, we noticed the two Messrs Kelly, Mr. de Bellefeuille and Master William Drummond, with whom eloquence, appears as natural as it is hereditary.

These exercises were varied by both vocal and instrumental music, the different pieces chosen exhibiting the exquisite tact and good taste which prevailed throughout the whole of the reception. Thus "*Ah quel plaisir d'être Soldat,*" was sung in French, with alterations suitable to the occasion, and "Home, sweet home!" in English.

We remarked with much pleasure two old students in the establishment, whom gratitude had brought back to the scenes of their younger days—altho' now accustomed to receive applause from assemblies of a very different nature. We allude to our *confrère* of the *Minerve*, Mr. Royal, and to Mr. Senécal, well known as lecturers in the room of the *Œuvre des bons livres*, who distinguished themselves, the latter by his performance on the violin, and the former by singing a satirical song which appeared highly to amuse the audience.

The exercises being finished, General Eyre, at the request of the Reverend Rector, addressed a few words to the scholars, with that warmth and lively sympathy for the cause of public education which he evinced on the occasion of the inauguration of the Normal schools.

# MONTHLY SUMMARY.

## MISCELLANEOUS INTELLIGENCE.

—The following appears to be the age of each of the present sovereigns of Europe.—King of Wurtemberg, 76. Leopold, King of Belgium, 67. Pius IX. 65. King of Prussia, 62. King of Sweden, 58. King of Saxony, 57. Emperor of the French, 49. King of Denmark, 49. King of Naples, 47. King of Bavaria, 42. Otho, King of Greece, 42 King of Holland, 40. Alexander, Emperor of Russia, 39. Victoria, Queen of Great Britain, 38 King of Hanover, 38. King of Sardinia, 37. The Sultan, 31. Emperor of Austria, 27. Queen of Spain, 27. King of Portugal, 20.

—An anonymous donor has contributed £5,000 to the special Indian fund of the Church Missionary Society in London

—There are two female reporters employed in the Congress at Washington,—one for the *Charleston Courier* and the other for the *Boston Post*

—Lord Mulgrave has been appointed Lieutenant-Governor of Nova Scotia. Major General Trollop, who was in command of the garrison of Quebec, has been appointed Governor of Newfoundland, and Mr Henry Smith, late Sollicitor General for Upper Canada, has been elected speaker of the Legislative Assembly. Mr. Smith is the sixth speaker since the Union. The others were Hon. A. Cuvillier, Sir A. N. MacNab, A. N. Morin, J. S. Macdonald, and L. V. Sicotte. They have been selected alternately from Upper and from Lower Canada.

—The last numbers of the illustrated publications in England are full of engravings relating to the marriage of the Princess Royal with the Prince of Prussia. Most of those engravings are remarkable, and considering that they have been got up at so short a notice, they are one of the great signs of our modern progress and quite characteristic of our times. The minute details which have been the subject of some of those illustrations, would never have been dreamt of in other days and in a moment almost simultaneously with the event itself those illustrations are spread throughout the whole world!

—His Excellency, the Governor General, in his speech from the throne at the opening of the present parliament, has alluded in very appropriate terms to the death of two Canadian officers in India Mr. Bradshaw and young Joly, the author of the very interesting letters published in a recent number of our journal.

—Her Majesty has authorized the levying of a regiment of 1,000 men in Canada The *Canada Gazette* contains all particulars. We call the attention of our readers to an official notice in our columns concerning the East India service.

## EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

—The *Bulletin de l'Instruction Primaire*, which was published in Paris under the patronage of the Minister of Public Instruction, has ceased. It is to be replaced by the *Journal des Instituteurs*, a political and educational paper. The direction of the educational department is to be confided to Mr. Rapet, Inspector of Schools in the *Académie* or District of Paris, who wrote in the *Bulletin* those remarkable articles which have been re-published in our own *Journal de l'Instruction Publique*, under the title "*Pédagogie.*"

—Messrs. R. Casgrain and A. Peltier, of the College of Ste. Anne la Pocatiere, below Quebec, have been sent to the School of Agriculture of Grignon, in France, to prepare for professorship in a school of Agriculture which is to be established at Ste Anne, in connection with the College.

—A correspondent in the "Gazette de Guernesey" protests against the name of "ragged schools" as an insult to the poor, and as unbecoming the character of institutions where the pupils are generally clothed by the charity of the managers. He proposes to substitute the name of "Schools of Charity," or "Schools for the Destitute," as more appropriate.

—The digest of the returns of the Department of Public Instruction, for Wisconsin for the past year, given in the Message of the Governor, shows the following figures:

The whole number of children in the state between the ages of 4 and 20, entitled to share in the common fund, is 241,647, being an increase of 27,761 over the number reported for the previous year.

The number of pupils who have attended the public schools, is 153,613.

The number of school-districts and part of districts reported, is 4,378, and the number of school-houses in the state, 2,945. The average amount of monthly wages to male teachers, was $24.67; and to female teachers, $15.16.

The amount apportioned to schools in March, 1857, was 66 cents to each pupil. The apparent amount to be apportioned this year, is about $230,000, which would be 95 cents to each pupil; but in view of the probable delay in payments to the funds, that average can not be fairly expected. The productive fund of the department now amounts to over three millions of dollars.

The Governor hints that the complaint of bad management hitherto in the school department, is quite general, and he calls the attention of the Legislature to the subject.

The State University of Wisconsin promises to be a success, not in *name* merely, but in *fact*. The Governor says:

"The number of students in attendance during the year, was 164, of whom 41 were in the former collegiate classes. The gradually increasing productive fund amounted on the 1st of October, to $315,423.46, giving an an annual income of $22,116.74. With the increase of the means to the educational department, the various chairs appropriate and necessary to the establishment of a University which should bear the name, as distinguished from the many colleges scattered throughout the land, have been and will continue to be filled. The new edifice of the institution, which is now in progress of construction, will add greatly to its facilities for carrying out the purpose of the munificent grant by Congress. The state has accepted the trust, and the representatives of the people will doubtless feel it to be a pleasure to aid the efforts of those who have the more immediate duty of discharging that trust."—*New-York Teacher.*

—It will be gratifying to our readers to know something of the appliances for education in the New state of California. We regret that we have no recent advices of current educational news; but we are enabled to place before them a statement of the resources of the state for popular education. We are indebted for the facts to the Christian Advocate, (San Francisco) of Jan. 15:

The Federal Government has granted to the state for school purposes, 500,000 acres of land, together with one-eighteenth of all remaining public lands. The proceeds of land sold (262,562 acres) on interest at 7 per cent, amounted last year $33,521.60 which was farther increased from other sources to $38,629.88. It is estimated that upon the sale of all the school lands, the annual increase of the fund will not be less than $1,000,000. "There are now 35,722 claimants on the school fund, an increase of 5,653 over the number reported one year since. This fact is most significant, especially as intimating the importance of a wise and assiduous devotion to the development and administration of this interest. It is a gratifying circumstance, that the valedictory message of Gov. Johnson, and the inaugural of Gov. Weller, comment upon this subject with commendable emphasis."

The state constitution makes the widest provision for educational purposes; and it only remains that the difficulties incident to a new civilization be removed, to place California among the first, if not *the* first state in the Union, in educational opportunities.—*N. Y. Teacher.*

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

—Mr. de Laprade has been elected to replace Alfred de Musset at the French Academy, and Mr. Jules Sandeau to replace Mr. Brifaut. The other candidates were Messrs. Liadieres, Mazere, Léon Halevy, Henri Martin, Philarète Chasle, de Carné and de Marcellus. Four different ballottings were held to replace Alfred de Musset, the last of which gave Laprade 17, Sandeau 15, Liadiere 1. Three ballottings were had to replace Mr. Brifaut, the last of which gave Sandeau 17, de Marcellus 8, de Carné 5, and Liadières 5. Mr. Victor de Laprade is well known as a poet of the religious school, and Mr. Sandeau as a novelist.

—A statue is to be erected to Christopher Columbus in Genoa. Rather late! But how many statues of that great man do we find in America?

—Béranger, in his autobiography, which has just been published, asserts that most of the poems attributed to André Chénier were composed by the editor of his works, Mr. Henri de la Touche, and that France has had its McPherson.

—Mr. Emile Augier, who has been elected some time ago to replace Mr. de Salvandy in the *Academie Française*, has delivered his inaugural speech, which has been replied to by Mr. Lebrun. Mr. Emile Augier is a poet and a dramatist.

—Mr. Jacques Viger of Montreal, well known by his historical and archæological researches and writings, has been elected a corresponding member of the Historical Society of the State of Michigan. The same society has resolved to celebrate with great *éclat* the next anniversary of the foundation of the city of Detroit by LaMotte Cadillac, on the 24th of July 1701. The Academy of Sciences of St. Louis of Missouri has also elected Mr. H. Latour, vice-president of the Natural History Society of Montreal, one of its corresponding members; the same honor has also been conferred on the Hon. P. J. O. Chauveau by the Academy of Sciences of New Orleans.

—Numerous lectures are being given in Montreal this winter. Mr. Giles has been lecturing before the Mercantile Library Association on Shakespeare, and Horace Greely on Reform and Reformers. Windell Phillips, of Boston, will also lecture before the same association on "the lost arts." Hon. L. A. Dessaulles has given a lecture at the Institut-Canadien on "progress," and Mr. Hector Fabre has read his *impressions de voyage* before a large audience at the Mechanics' Hall, under the patronage of the "Œuvre de la Sainte Enfance." The net proceeds of that charitable soirée have reached £35. At the "Œuvre des bons livres" two or three free lectures are given every week. The Hon. Mr Chauveau has lectured on the history, the present state and the future of French literature in America, before a crowded audience. The lectures of Mr. Senécal on Pothier, of Mr. Adélard Boucher on the fine arts, of Mr. Cyrille Boucher, of Mr. Royal, and of Mr. Hector Fabre on various other subjects have been well attended. The Board of Arts and Manufactures have caused courses of popular lectures on science and art to be given in the hall of the Mechanics' Institute, by Professor Howe, of McGill College, and Professor Robins, of the McGill Normal School. The popular courses of McGill College, and that of the Natural History Society are also well attended. The Young Men's Christian Association and the St. Patrick's Society have had numerous public lectures. D'Arcy McGee, Esq., M.P.P., lectured under the patronage of the latter, on the history of Ireland, with great success. These numerous soirées have not, however, prevented the public courses of the Jacques-Cartier Normal School from being well attended. The lectures on history by the Rev. Mr. Desmazures, and on literature by Mr. Chauveau, on every Mondays and Thursdays, are delivered before large audiences, and one of the pupil-teachers gives each evening a synopsis of the preceding lecture, which has been done by Messrs. Christin, Archambault, and Desplaines successively, in a very creditable manner.

—The public libraries of Paris now amount to 33, without taking into account, of course, the parish libraries and book depositaries of the *Œuvre des Bons Livres*, nor the numerous and pestilential *cabinets de lecture* that are to be met almost in every street. The Imperial Library, which was called like every thing else in France, by various names, according to the changes in the form of the government, now and then the "Royal Library," and at other times the "National Library," contains 1,400,000 printed books, 300,000 pamphlets, and 80,000 manuscripts. The next, in number, are the Library of the Arsenal, 220,000 volumes and 6,000 manuscripts. The "Bibliotheque Mazarine and the "Bibliotheque de Ste. Genevieve" 150,000 volumes each, and the latter 4,000 manuscripts. The "Sorbonne" library 80,000 volumes, the library of the City 65,000 volumes and 3,000 manuscripts. The others average between 40,000 and 8,000 volumes. The total number of volumes contained in all the libraries exceeds two millions and a half. They are all more or less accessible to the public.

SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

—Dr. Marshall Hall, lately deceased in London, has made many valuable additions to practical medicine during his long, laborious and useful career. But the discovery he announced shortly before his death, transcends them all in importance, and in the beneficial results likely to flow from it. From observations made on the bodies of those who had died from an overdose of chloroform, it appears that the tongue falls back into the throat, shuts down the epiglossis or valve that lies on the top of the windpipe closing it, and effectually barring the passage of air, and causing instant suffocation; the obvious practical inference from this was, to draw forward the tongue with a pair of forceps, and make artificial respiration, in the best way then known—namely, by compressing the ribs and stomach, and on removing the pressure the ribs spring outwards, and draw in a quantity of air, by keeping this up several lives have been saved. But it was reserved for the genius of Dr. Marshall Hall to make the best practical application of the observation. He reasoned as to the cause of the tongue falling back into the throat, and he inferred (which is the fact) that it is owing to the muscle being paralyzed, the tongue falls into the throat, simply from the attraction of gravitation, the body lying on the back. He next ascertained that the same thing occurs in drowning, death from narcotic poisoning, and all cases of asphyxia. If this be true the tongue ought to fall forward, on turning the body on the face, thus rising the epiglossis, and leaving the entrance of the windpipe free.

On making the experiment, he found that the tongue actually does fall forward on turning the body face downwards. He further observed that by so doing, the whole abdomen and ribs expand, fresh air rushes into the lungs as freely as if the respiration were natural. This should be performed regularly sixteen or eighteen times in the minute, the number of the natural respirations. In rotating the body from belly to the side the rotation should be carried a little farther back than the right angle, but not so as to place the body much on the back. Any man who could treat another this way might be the means of saving a fellow-citizen from the effects of drowning, without waiting for a physician when the opportunity would have passed, while waiting for the doctor's arrival. Since this promulgation by Dr. Hall we have read of two persons in England having been rescued from certain death by its means. One was a child of seven years of age, the other a man of thirty, who had been under the influence of chloroform in order to undergo surgical operations. Numbers of drowned persons have been resuscitated, and it has been used in the case of infants born asphyxiated. If a table be at hand, the best way is to place the patient on it with its head over the end, but if none be convenient it may be done on the ground, only lose no time in setting about it: do not be flurried: be calm and success will follow.

We would be astonished at this great discovery having attracted so little attention, were we not fully aware that every great medical discovery is *always* so treated for a length of time after it is first announced. It is the duty of the public press to make this legacy of Dr. Hall known with all speed, throughout the length and breadth of the land.

—An important paper has just been read to the Paris Academy of Sciences on a mission sent to India and Upper Asia in 1854, by the King of Prussia and East India Company. The members of the mission consisted of three brothers, MM. Herrmann, Adolphus, and Robert Schlagintweit, two of whom, MM. Herrmann and Robert, returned in June last, the third, M. Adolphus, is still among the Himalaya mountains, and is expected soon to return, via the Punjaub and Bombay. During the winter of 1854-55, these enterprising travellers visited the region lying between Bombay and Madras; in the following summer, M. Herrmann explored the eastern parts of the Himalaya, the Sikkim, Bhootan, and Kossia mountains, where he measured the altitudes of several peaks. The highest of all the summits known throughout the world appears, by his measurements, to be the Gahoorishanka, situated in the eastern portion of Nepaul, the same announced as such by Colonel Waugh, but called by him Mount Everest, because he had been unable to ascertain its real name in the plains of Hindoostan, where he effected his measurement. This peak is somewhat more than 29,000 English feet in height, and bears another name in Thibet, where it is called Chingopamaria. The other two brothers, MM. Adolphus and Robert, penetrated by different roads into the central parts of the Himalaya, Kumaon, and Gurwahl; they then visited Thibet in disguise, entered the great commercial station of Gartok, explored the environs of Lake Mansarowr, and that remarkable crest, which separates the waters of the Indus from those of the Dihang, often erroneously called the Brahmaputra. They ascended the Ibi-Gamine, 22,260 feet in height, that being an altitude never before attained in any part of the world. After having been separated from each other for a space of fourteen months, during which M. Robert ascertained that the table land of Amarkantak, in Central India, which is generally stated to be 8,000 feet above the level of the sea, is not more than 3,300 feet in height, the three

brothers again met at Simla, previous to commencing the operations intended for the summer of 1856. M. Adolphus, on leaving that place, crossed the Himalaya, went over Thibet, Baltistan, and visited the interesting spot where several mountain crests meet, and the Hindookoosh joins the range lying to the north of India. He then returned to the Punjaub through the valley of Kashmere. MM. Herrmann and Robert proceeded to Ladak by different routes. Under good disguises they were enabled to penetrate into Turkistan Proper, by crossing the Karakoroum and the Kuenluen mountains, and descending into the great valley of Yarkande, a region never visited before, not even by Marco Polo. It is a vast depression of between 4,000 and 3,000 feet, separating the Kuenluen, on the northern frontier of India, from the Syan Chane, or mountains of Central Asia, on the southern border of Russia. They then returned to Ladak, and entered the Punjaub by different routes through Kashmere. After a two years' negotiation, M. Herrmann was, at the commencement of 1857, admitted into Nepaul, where he determined the altitudes of the Machipoora and Mount Yassa, which have hitherto been vaguely called the Dhawalagery, which means nothing else but "snowy crests," and is applicable to all snow-capped mountains. M. Robert proceeded to Bombay through Scinde, Kutsch, and Guzerat, where he surveyed the chain called the Salt Range, and determined the changes effected in the course of centuries in the course of several rivers. Before returning to Europe he stayed three months in Ceylon. M. Adolphus visited various parts of the Punjaub and Cabool, previous to returning to the Himalaya, where he still is.

The chief results obtained from this careful exploration of Asia are the following:—The Himalaya mountains everywhere exercise a decided influence over all the elements of the magnetic force; the declination everywhere presents a slight deviation, causing the needle to converge towards the central parts of that enormous mass, and the magnetic intensity is greater than it would be anywhere else under an equal latitude. In the south of India the increase of the magnetic intensity from south to north is extremely rapid. The lines of equal magnetic intensity have a remarkable form, similar and perhaps parallel to those of certain groups of isothermal lines. The three travellers have collected all the materials necessary to ascertain this important fact. Irregular local variations in terrestrial magnetism are rare in those regions. In the Deccan and Behar the rocks are magnetic. On the Himalaya, at altitudes of 17,000, and even 20,000 feet, the daily maximum and minimum variations of the barometer occured nearly about the same hours as in the plains below. Again, at the above altitudes, the inversion of the curves of daily variation, which is met with on the Alps does not take place. At the altitude of 17,000 feet the diminution of transparency produced by a stratum of air of the thickness of 3,000 feet is no longer distinguishable by the eye. During the dust storms which frequently occur in India, the disk of the sun is seen of a blue color; if small bodies are made to project their shadows on a white surface under such circumstances, the shadow is of an orange colour, that is, complementary to blue. The transparency of the waters of the Ganges, the Brahmapootra, and the Indus, was tested by letting down a stone into them, which generally became invisible at a depth of from 12 to 15 centimetres (5 to 6 inches,) showing that they are overcharged with earthy particles, for in the sea near Corfu a stone is visible to the depth of 50 feet, and in the seas under the tropics it remains visible at a depth of 30 feet.—*Upper Canada Journal of Education.*

—At the meeting of the Canadian Institute, on the 12th December, the nominations were taken for office-bearers for the ensuing year. The Chairman, on opening the proceedings, proposed the re-election of the Hon. Chief Justice Draper, as President of the Institute. The Rev. Dr. Ryerson was also re-nominated; but his name, at his own request, has subsequently been withdrawn. Various other nominations to the subordinate offices and Council then took place; after which the Rev. Professor Hincks read a brief paper on the Botany of Western Canada, and Professor Chapman contributed some additional observations. The Chairman then called upon the Rev. Dr. McCaul, President of University College, for his promised paper, entitled "Notices of some ancient inscriptions found in Britain." The learned Doctor, in responding, stated that the paper in question was of a character too purely philological to admit of being read with profit before a general audience, but that he would give an abstract of its contents, and enter into a few explanatory observations on the mode of analysis adopted by him in the interpretation of these inscriptions. The remarks which followed, and which occupied more than half-an-hour, were of a most interesting and instructive character, and Dr. McCaul was warmly applauded at their close. The paper itself will appear in full in the next number of the Journal of the Institute. On the ensuing Saturday, (Dec. 19,) the Report of the Council was read, and the election of the following office-bearers and members of Council for 1858, proceeded with:—President, the Hon. the Chief Justice Draper, C. B.; 1st Vice-President, Colonel Baron de Rottenburg, C. B.; 2nd Vice-President, John Langton, Esq., M. A.; 3rd Vice-President, Hon. W. B. Robinson; Treasurer, D. Crawford, Esq.; Recording Secretary, Thomas Henning, Esq.; Corresponding Secretary, E. A. Meredith, L. L. D.; Librarian, Professor H. Croft, D. C. L.; Curator, Professor H. Y. Hind, M. A Council, Professor E. J. Chapman, Professor J. B Cherriman, M. A., Sanford Fleming, C. E., J. George Hodgins, Esq., M. A., Rev. Professor W. Hincks, F. L. S., Professor D. Wilson, L. L. D. A very cordial vote of thanks was unanimously given to the office-bearers of the last year. The next meeting of the Institute will be on the 9th of January.—*Colonist and Globe Reports.*

AN HOUR WITH AN AMBROTYPIST.—Look a few seconds into the brass tube attached to that square box, on three legs, into which the operator has put a little piece of glass with some chemicals on it. Be still. There, it is over. The operator has closed the tube, taken out the little piece of glass, and gone into his *dark* room. In a few moments he comes out with a fine picture. It looks natural as life. Each feature perfect and distinct, even to the slight pucker of the mouth, occasioned by the effort to keep from smiling. The brow, lips, chin, good-natured smile, are all there. Now, let us see how it was done.

I don't think it necessary for me to describe the little box, called a camera, into which the operator put the little piece of glass, for you have all seen one, and you know just how it looks. But the next time you go into the room where ambrotypes or daguerreotypes are taken, ask the operator to let you look into the box when some one is sitting in the chair, and you will see how the image is formed upon a piece of ground-glass in the camera. As almost any work on philosophy explains all about this, I will not occupy space in describing what you can learn just as well anywhere else. So let us look at some things not explained in the books. I take it for granted, then, that you know all that is necessary about the camera. Let us take a picture also.

Take up this piece of glass, about three inches by four. Put some very finely pulverised rotten stone on it, and wet it with a little alcohol. Then scour with a piece of white Canton flannel, until you get the glass perfectly clean and dry. Upon this you pour a thin film, called *collodion*. Then immerse it in the bath, or silver solution, the collodion side up. Let it remain from one-half to three minutes, until it looks smooth, and of a bluish-white colour. Place it in the *tablet*, and then expose it in the *camera* from five to thirty seconds. The time will depend upon the power of the light and the quality of the silver solution. Then take it into the dark room. Immerse in the developing solution, until faint outlines of the picture are seen. Take it out, and from a faucet let a stream of pure rain water run upon the collodion side, washing the other side with your hand until the oily appearance disappears. Then immerse in the fixing solution, or pour this solution on it, until the bluish appearance is gone. Again wash in pure water from the faucet, and stand it upon its edge to dry. If you wish to colour the lips, use a little rouge on the collodion side. Then pour on the negative varnish in the same manner as you did the collodion, drain well, and dry with a spirit lamp: then put on the black japan, dry it, and put in the case.

Now you have gone through the process, let us see what the bath solution, &c., are composed of.

*Collodion.*—This is made of gun-cotton, alcohol, and sulphuric ether. To make the gun-cotton, use nitre, sulphuric acid, and cotton. Powder the nitre in a druggist's mortar, pour in the acid and put in the cotton, and stir it with a piece of glass. It must then be washed until it is free from the acid. This is gun-cotton.

Put the ether, ten ounces, and alcohol, eight ounces, into a bottle. Then add the gun-cotton, eighty grains, and shake well, and most of the cotton will be cut or dissolved. Let it stand and settle. Pour off, and then make it ready for use, thus:—

Dissolve iodine of potassium, twenty-four grains, and bromide of potassium, seventeen grains, in as little water as possible, then pour this into collodion, six ounces, and shake well. Then add iodide of cadmium, nine grains, and a few drops of tincture of iodine. This makes the collodion. Most operators buy this collodion already made, and thus escape the trouble and perplexity of making it.

*Bath, or Silver Solution.*—Make a solution of nitrate of silver, in the proportion of forty grains of the silver to one ounce of water.

Dissolve five grains each of iodide of potassium and nitrate of silver in an ounce of water. This will form a yellow precipitate or settling. Put this precipitate into the silver solution, shake well, let it stand over night, and then filter it. This has a tendency to keep the bath good for a long time. A few drops of nitric acid should be added to the solution.

The *tablet* is a little frame-work into which the glass is placed before it is placed in the *camera*. It has a slide to it to keep the light from it until you are ready to let the image of the one whose picture you want, fall upon it.

The *dark room* is a place in which silver solution and developing solution are kept—from which all natural light should be excluded. The light here used is that of a spirit lamp. Natural light destroys the chemicals, or changes them, so as to make them unfit for taking pictures. It is the action of the light upon the chemicals that makes the image.

*Developing Solution.*—Dissolve proto-sulphate of iron, one and a half ounces, in water, one quart, and add acetic acid, four ounces; or take five ounces of this solution, and to that add six drachms of acetic acid.

*Fixing Solution.*—With one quart of water put cyanide of potassium, one ounce; nitrate of silver, ten grains; chloride of gold, five grains.

*Transparent negative varnish* is gum-demar, thinned with spirits of turpentine.

These preparations are varied by different artists; but the ones I have showed you here will work like a charm.

The *japan*, which is gum asphaltum cut or dissolved in turpentine, is used on the glass plate to secure the picture, and at the same time make it visible—as it is very difficult to see the picture unless it has a dark substance behind it. Sometimes two glasses are used. On one is the image; the other is simply a piece of glass with the japan on it. They are held together by a strip of paper with gum-arabic on it.—*North-Western Christian Advocate.*

STATEMENT SHEWING THE DISTRIBUTION OF SUM GRANTED FOR SUPPLEMENTARY AID TO POOR MUNICIPALITIES FOR 1857.

| COUNTIES. | Municipalities. | Reasons for granting supplementary aid and for establishing amount granted. | Amount of assessment levied. | Amount of annual Grant. | Amount of supplementary aid applied for. | Amount of supplementary aid granted. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Argenteuil.... | Sainte Angélique des Mille-Isles. | Building 2 school houses to cost £70. | 17 15 10 | 17 15 10 | 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| Athabaska.. | Aston. | Very poor. Assessed for £8. Repairs of school houses. | 10 4 8 | 7 9 4 | 10 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Warwick. | Newly established, are building several school houses. | 36 | 32 19 6 | 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | " Dissents. | | | | 75 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | St. Norbert. | Poor. | 43 2 10 | 17 14 4 | | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Stanfold. | do | | 19 6 7 | | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Tingwick. | do | | 31 3 1 | | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | St Christophe. | do | | 31 14 10 | | 10 Ten pounds. |
| Bonaventure | Cox. | Furnished £50. Building. schoo. house. | 58 17 6 | 58 17 6 | 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | New-Richmond. | | | | | |
| do | " Dissents. | Poor.—Dwellings very scattered. | 14 6 7 | | 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Port-Daniel. | | | 25 15 5 | 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Nouvel. | | | 20 6 10 | | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Carleton. | Poor.—Dwellings very scattered. | 56 6 3 | 29 15 7 | 25 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Hope. | do do | 45 | 38 17 6 | 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Maria. | Furnished £80 for buildg. 2 schl. hou | 46 18 7 | 46 18 7 | 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| Bellechasse. | St. Lazarre. | do £25 for do 1 do | 63 11 | 59 1 0 | 30 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| Berthier. | St. Norbert. | Built 3 schl. houses, £182. Poor. | 43 2 10 | 37 8 | 30 | 10 Ten pounds |
| Bagot. .... | Acton. | Assessed at a high rate. | 70. | 14 17 | 30 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Soraba. | Thinly peopled and poor. | | 17 5 7 | | 10 Ten pounds. |
| Beauce. | Aylmer. | Lately established and very poor. | 44 | 9 4 3 | 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Lambton. | do do | 45 | 20 17 7 | 12 10 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | St. Frédéric. | Built a church and very poor. | 58 | 10 19 10 | 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | St. Ephrem. | Lately established do | | 11 8 7 | | 10 Ten pounds. |
| Broome | Bolton.—Diss. | Very poor, a very small minority. | 36 | 15 | 50 | 15 Fifteen pounds. |
| Chicoutimi... | Laterière. | do | | 12 16 8 | | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Bagot. | do | | 35 17 11 | | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Bagotville. | do | | 18 19 5 | | 10 Ten pounds. |
| Champlain | Batiscan. | Furnished £50 to build school house. | 110 | 33 5 | 30 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| Compton. | Winslow. | Newly established and poor. | 35 | 25 3 2 | | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Hereford. | do do | 25 | 12 11 10 | 15 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Clifton. | Will build 2 school houses. | 13 5 9 | 13 5 9 | 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Bury. | Newly established and poor. | 62 | 27 4 7 | 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | New-Port. | Furnished £125 to build 2 schl. houses. | 20 | 11 18 2 | 10 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| Charlevoix... | St. Irenée. | do £ 50 do | 33 | 30 5 1 | 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | St. Urbain. | Repaired school houses, poor | 35 | 25 8 1 | | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | St. Fidèle. | Built 1 do do | 32 10 6 | 32 10 6 | 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Petite Rivière. | do do | 23 | 20 1 2 | 25 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Ste. Agnès. | Furnished £30 to build and is poor. | 44 9 4 | 14 9 4 | 25 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| 2 Montagnes. | St. Colomban. | Built 2 school houses, do | 30 | 30 18 6 | 40 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| Dorchester.... | Ste. Marguerite. | Is poor, suffered from bad harvest. | 49 19 6 | 19 19 6 | | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Cranbourne. | Voluntary subs. of £15. | 9 19 1 | 9 19 1 | 5 | 5 Five pounds. |
| Drummond... | Durham, No. 1. | Dissentients. | | 7 | | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Durham, No. 2. | | 24 | 19 9 10 | | 5 Five pounds. |
| Gaspé. ... | Grande Rivière. | Dwellings very scattered, poor. | 36 | 24 | 4 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | New-Port. | do do | 32 18 1 | 32 18 1 | | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Cap Rosier. | do do | 35 | 27 7 | 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Ile Bonaventure. | A small Island, do | 30 | 5 1 6 | 10 | 7 10 Seven pounds ten sh. |
| do | Malbaie. | Poor. | 36 | 27 3 6 | 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Douglas. | Poor. | 25 | 19 19 1 | 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Cap Chat. | Have built 1, are buildg. 1 oth. sch h. | 39 | 33 12 8 | 32 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| Hochelaga... | Longue-Pointe. | Built a school house, £50. | 40 | 35 6 | 20 | 5 Five pounds. |
| do | Côteau St. Louis. | | 25 | 5 5 1 | 30 | 5 Five pounds. |
| Huntingdon.. | Huntingdon. | Dissentients, very poor. | 7 | 7 | | 15 Fifteen pounds. |
| L'Islet ... | St. Cyrille. | Have 3 schools in operation, poor. | 20 | 15 12 11 | 20 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| Joliette..... | St. Ambroise. | Dissentients poor. | 15 | 11 13 10 | 20 | 5 Five pounds. |
| do | St. Alphonse. | Poor. | 72 | 39 4 7 | 10 15 | 6 10 Ten pounds. |
| Kamouraska. | Mont Carmel. | Poor. | 37 | 20 17 7 | 15 | 7 10 Seven pounds ten sh. |
| do | St. Pacôme. | 5 schools in operation. | 60 | 51 18 9 | 15 | 7 10 Seven pounds ten sh. |
| do | Ixworth. | Newly established and poor. | 25 | 20 | 10 | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | St. Alexandre. | | | 39 17 10 | | 7 10 Seven pounds ten sh. |
| Lotbinière... | St. Apollinaire. | | | 41 5 11 | 15 | 7 10 Seven pounds ten sh. |
| do | St. Flavien. | Insufficiency of Gov. grant. | 25 | 19 16 3 | 25 | 7 10 Seven pounds ten sh. |
| do | Ste. Gilles. | | | 36 17 11 | | 10 Ten pounds. |
| do | Ste. Agathe. | | | 18 4 4 | | 10 Ten pounds. |

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| COUNTIES. | Municipalities. | Reasons for granting supplementary aid and for establishing amount granted. | Amount of assessment levied. | Amount of Annual Grant. | Amount of supplementary aid applied for. | Amount of supplementary aid granted. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Maskinongé . | St. Paulin. | Insufficiency of Gov. grant. Poor. | 40 | 27 10 4 | | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| do | St. Didace. | do do do | 28 | 24 15 7 | 25 | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| Montmorency | St. Féréol. | do do do | 15 | 23 5 | | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| do | St. Pierre. | Building a school house, £75. | 38 17 11 | 30 17 10 | 25 | 7 10 | Seven pounds ten shl. |
| Montcalm.... | Kilkenny. | do do do | | 41 11 8 | | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| do | Ste. Julienne. | Reparations of schl. houses, £25. Poor. | 30 | 26 10 1 | 25 | 15 | Fifteen pounds. |
| St. Maurice.. | St. Sévère. | Building a church. Poor. | 42 | 34 12 1 | 15 | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| do | Shawenigan. | Building 2 school houses. Poor. | 27 18 11 | 20 17 6 | 50 | 15 | Fifteen pounds. |
| do | Pointe du Lac. | do do | 31 8 4 | 31 8 4 | 25 | 7 10 | Seven pounds ten shl. |
| Nicolet ..... | St. Pierre Célest. | Voluntary subscription, £60. Poor. | 31 8 4 | 31 8 4 | 25 | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| do | Ste Monique No 2 | do do do | | 14 1 3 | | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| Ottawa ..... | St. André Avelin. | do do do | | | | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| do | Eardley. | do do do | | | | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| do | Portland | do do do | | | | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| Pontiac ..... | Calumet. | Built a school house, £60. | 27 5 6 | 27 5 6 | | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| do | Mansfield. | Popul. scattered over a g. ext. of land. | 21 6 10 | 21 6 10 | | 15 | Fifteen pounds. |
| do | Sheen. | do do do do | | 8 7 | | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| do | Chichester. | do do do do | | 6 6 | | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| Portneuf..... | St. Basile. | Insufficiency of Gov. grant. Poor. | 24 18 4 | 24 18 4 | 15 | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| do | St. Raymond. | do do do do | 59 3 1 | 59 3 1 | 25 | 15 | Fifteen pounds. |
| do | Ecureuils. | do do do do | 43 | 19 17 | | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| Québec . .. | St. Dunstan. | Building school house, £110. Poor. | 13 13 4 | 13 13 4 | 20 | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| Rimouski ... | St. Octave. | New municipality, has 5 schools. | 66 | 25 6 3 | 25 | 15 | Fifteen pounds. |
| do | Metis. | Has built two school houses, £90. | 20 | 8 2 3 | 20 | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| Richmond ... | Orford. | Insufficiency of the Gov. grant. Poor. | 20 4 8 | 20 4 8 | | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| Shefford..... | Granby, diss. | Exert'g them'ves to keep up their sc. P. | 70 | 25 | 50 | 15 | Fifteen pounds. |
| do | Roxton. | do do do do | 125 | 38 11 9 | 30 | 15 | Fifteen pounds. |
| do | Milton. | Has built a school house. | 40 | 36 19 10 | 50 | 15 | Fifteen pounds. |
| do | Stukely. | Insufficiency of Gov. Grant. Poor. | 55 | 55 | 50 | 15 | Fifteen pounds. |
| Soulanges... | Côteau Landing. | do do do do | 21 15 | 8 8 11 | 20 | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| Témiscouata. | N-Dame du Port. | New municipality. Poor. | 41 18 5 | 32 16 1 | 20 | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| do | St. Modeste. | has 2 schools, is new and poor. | 25 | 14 10 | 25 | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| Vaudreuil .. | Newton. | Has built two school houses, £70. | 25 | 17 8 | 40 | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| Wolfe . .... | Wotton. | Building a school house, £20. | 27 | 23 2 3 | 20 | 10 | Ten pounds. |
| | | £ | | | | 1000 | |



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