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THE
JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

FOR

Upper Canada,

EDITED BY

THE REVEREND EGERTON RYERSON, D.D.,

Chief Superintendent of Schools;

ASSISTED BY MR. J. GEORGE HODGINS,

VOLUME IV. FOR THE YEAR 1851.



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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

	PAGE.
I. Third Annual Address of the Chief Superintendent of Schools.....	1-3
II. History of the English Language— <i>Edinburgh Review</i>	3-5
III. MISCELLANEOUS. 1. Touch us gently, Time. 2. Old Letters. 3. Free School Historical Facts. 4. The two Schools. 5. The Crusades. 6. Power of Kindness. 7. British Constitution; and various interesting items.....	5-7
IV. EDITORIAL. Encouraging symptoms for the Future. 2. Education in the City of Hamilton—Report of a Committee of the Board of Trustees. 3. Progress of Education in Canada. 4. Free Education by the State.....	8-12
V. Popular Science—illustrated—(continued).....	12-14
VI. EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE. 1. Canada. 2. British and Foreign. 3. United States.....	14-15
VII. LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.....	15-16
VIII. EDITORIAL NOTICES—to Local Superintendents—of Books, Pamphlets, &c.....	16

Third Annual Address

TO THE PEOPLE OF UPPER CANADA.

BY THE

CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS.

MY FELLOW-COUNTRYMEN:—

In presenting to you my annual address at the commencement of 1851, I am not in a position to enter into statistical details in respect to past educational progress; nor is it necessary that I should do so, as my last annual School Report has just been printed by order of the Legislative Assembly, and placed in the hands of each Municipal Council and School Corporation throughout Upper Canada. I will, therefore, on the present occasion confine myself to a few general remarks and practical suggestions.

My first remark relates to the settlement of the general principles and great organic provisions of our school system. It has been a common and not unfounded complaint, that there was nothing abiding, nothing settled in the principles and provisions of our School Law. Perpetual change in a school law is perpetual infancy in a public school system. Permanence and stability are essential conditions of growth, whether in an oak of the forest, or in a system of national education. But the works of man are not like the works of God, perfect at the beginning. The history of all science teaches us, that experiments must precede the principles which they establish; and the period of experiment in any thing is likely to be a period of change as well as of infancy. In no branch of political economy have more experiments been made, and with less progress towards the definiteness and dignity of a science, than in the department of public education. The chief reason I apprehend to be, not that it is more difficult than any other, but that it has received less attention than any other in proportion to its magnitude and importance—that in very few instances has any one man, with zeal and capacity for the task, been permanently set apart to investigate the subject in all its aspects and applications, and to bring definitely and practically before the authorities, and legislators, and citizens of his country, the results of general experience and

careful consideration, and embody them in actual recommendations and measures, and administrative policy. In New York and other States, the succession of temporary State School officers has been accompanied with an almost corresponding succession of school laws; and every confident and adventurous theorist in the Legislature, who had perhaps never been out of the limits of his native State, or read half a dozen school laws, or never studied a school system, in his life, was ready with some new project in which he imagined and insisted was embodied the sum of all human perfection, but which was no sooner tried than abandoned. In the State of New York, after almost annual legislation for nearly forty years, the general provisions of the last amended school law of that State, are, I have been informed, a reënactment substantially and almost *verbatim* of the general provisions of the school law of 1811, which was adopted on the recommendation of an able Committee that had devoted a year to the examination and consideration of the subject—thus coming back to the place of beginning, after having made the whole circle in school legislation. But in Upper Canada, our abnormal state of legislative experiment and change has been less protracted and tedious. We have had the great advantage of our neighbours' experiments and experience, and have reached (and I hope have exceeded) their results in legislation, without the drawbacks of their many trials and disappointments; and some of the material changes in our school law have been required by the introduction of a new system of Municipal Councils; and other portions of our recent school legislation have consisted in the introduction of new and necessary provisions, rather than the repeal of existing ones. The careful inquiry which has been instituted into the whole subject during the last five years, the many consultations which have been held in the several counties throughout the country, the minute and anxious attention which was bestowed upon it by the Government and the Legislature during the last session, all warrant the assurance in the public mind, that no future legislation on the subject of our Common Schools will take place, except as new wants may suggest, and the experience and convictions of the country shall require. I am the more convinced of the correctness of this conclusion from the fact, that every suggestion, whether friendly or hostile, which I have seen in newspapers proposing substitutes for certain provisions of our present school law, has been tried and found unsuccessful in some one of the neighbouring States—a fact of which the projectors might have satisfied themselves, had they investigated the history of school legislation in those States, before undertaking to give lessons on the subject for Upper Canada. It cannot fail to be satisfactory and encouraging to every practical man and friend of education, to enter upon the school duties and interests of a new year with the conviction, that his labours will not be in vain, and that the system to which he shall endeavour to give efficiency will be an abiding agency for the educational development and elevation of his country.

My second general remark refers to the position which our school system and its administration occupy in respect to parties and party interests.

The virus of party spirit is poisonous to the interests of education in any country or neighbourhood, and the clangour and jostling of party conflicts are its funeral knell. It perishes in the social storm, but grows and blooms and bears fruit in the serenity and sunshine of social peace and harmony. It has, therefore, been the policy of the enemies of general education, in any country and of

whatever party, as if prompted by a malevolent instinct, to seek to invest the agency for its extension with a party character, and then strangle it as a party monster. And even unintentionally and incidentally, the interests of education have largely suffered from the same unwise influence. Among our American neighbours, I have been assured, that party selfishness and contests have proved one of the most serious obstacles to the progress of their educational systems and interests. The working of their machinery of government involving countless elections and endless party conflicts, the local, if not higher, administration of their school systems has often been perverted and pressed into degrading service as an engine of party—to the grief of the earnest and patriotic friends of education; and it has been alleged, that to the intrigues of party aspirants may be traced the origin of no inconsiderable number of their projects of school laws and school reforms. It is highly honourable to the discernment and patriotism of our neighbours, that under a system of polity which to so high a degree lives and moves and breathes in an atmosphere of almost theatrical excitement, the interests of education have been so nobly sustained and its progress has been so rapid and extensive. I regard it as an interesting incident in our Canadian history, and a brilliant sign and certain augury of educational progress, that our system of popular instruction stands forth by common consent and suffrage, *the exclusive property of no party, and the equal friend of all parties*. If one party introduced legislative enactments laying the foundation and delineating the general outlines of the system in 1841 and 1843, and if another introduced a legislative measure to modify and essentially to improve it in 1846, both parties have united to mature and consolidate it in 1850. I think there was a moral sublimity in the spectacle presented by our Legislature at its last session, when the leading minds of both parties, (with only subordinate exceptions unworthy of formal notice, and reflecting just darkness enough to give stronger expression and greater majesty to the general outlines of the picture) forgetting the rivalships and alienations of party, and uniting as one man to provide the best system they could devise for the universal education of their common country—the spirit of sect being merged in the spirit of Christianity, and the spirit of partizanship absorbed in that of patriotism. I have stated the fact to several distinguished public men, as well in the United States as in England, and in every instance the comment has been one of admiration of such a spirit in the public men of Canada, and congratulation on the educational and social prospects of the Canadian people under such circumstances. As a practical development of the same spirit in administration, which had been thus illustrated in legislation, the same persons have been reappointed, in 1850, to perpetuate and extend the work of education under the law, who were first appointed in 1846 to devise and establish it. The example and spirit of these acts should thrill the heart of every man of every party in Canada, and tell him that in the education of youth he should forget sect and party, and only know Christianity and his country.

I have a third general remark to make, and it is this—that our system of municipalities affords unprecedented and unparalleled facilities for the education and social advancement of our country. Since I came to England, a member of the Canadian Legislature now in this country, an able political opponent of the author of our present municipal law, but deeply interested in the financial and general advancement of Upper Canada, and who has to do with matters affected by that law, has expressed to me his conviction that our Municipal Law is the grandest, the most comprehensive, and most complete measure of which he has any knowledge, for developing the resources and promoting the improvement of a country,—especially a young country. But what is thus stated by an impartial and competent judge to be true of this law in respect to the general resources and interests of the country is I think, pre-eminently true in respect to its educational interests. Among the conditions essential to the advancement and greatness of a people, are individual development and social co-operation—to add as much as possible to the intellectual and moral value and power of each individual man, and to collect and combine individual effort and resources in what appertains to the well-being of the whole community. That system of polity is best which best provides for the wisest and most judicious operation of these two principles—the individual and the social. Now, to the development of the former, self reliance is requisite; and in order to that there must be self-

government. To the most potent developments of the latter, organization is essential; and such organization as combines the whole community for all public purposes, and within convenient geographical limits. In our system of municipalities, and in our school system which is engrafted upon the municipalities, these objects are carefully studied, and effectually provided for, and provided for to an extent that I have not witnessed or read of in any other country. In the neighbouring States, there are excellent town and city municipalities with ample powers, and in some States there are municipalities of townships and counties for certain objects; but these are isolated from, and independent of, each other, and are far from possessing powers commensurate with the development of the resources and meeting all the public wants of the community within their respective limits. It is in Upper Canada alone that we have a complete and uniform system of municipal organization, from the smallest incorporated village to the largest city, and from the feeblest school section and remotest township to the largest county or union of counties—the one rising above the other, but not superseding it—the one connected with the other, but not contravening it—the one merging into the other for purposes of wider expansion and more extensive combination. By their constitution, these municipal and school corporations are reflections of the sentiments and feelings of the people within their respective circles of jurisdictions, and their powers are adequate to meet all the economic exigencies of each municipality, whether of schools or roads, of the diffusion of knowledge or the development of wealth. Around the fire-sides and in the primary meetings, all matters of local interest are freely examined and discussed; the people feel that these affairs are their own, and that the wise disposal and management of them depend upon their own energy and discretion. In this development of individual self-reliance, intelligence, and action in local affairs of common interest, we have one of the primary elements of a people's social advancement; whilst in the municipal organizations we have the aggregate intelligence and resources of the whole community on every material question and interest of common concern. What the individual cannot do, in respect to a school, a library, a road, or a railway, can be easily accomplished by the municipality; and the concentration of individual feeling and sentiment gives character and direction to municipal action. The laws constituting municipalities and schools are the charters of their government, and the forms and regulations for executing them are aids to strengthen their hands and charts to direct the course of those who are selected to administer them.

The application of this simple but comprehensive machinery to the interests of schools and general knowledge opens up for Upper Canada the prospect of a glorious future. One of the most formidable obstacles to the universal diffusion of education and knowledge, is class isolation and class exclusiveness—where the higher grades of society are wholly severed from the lower in responsibility, obligations, and sympathy, where sect wraps itself up in the cloak of its own pride, and sees nothing of knowledge, or virtue, or patriotism beyond its own enclosures, and where the men of liberal education regard the education of the masses as an encroachment upon their own domains, or beneath their care or notice. The feeble and most needy, as also the most numerous classes, are thus rendered still feebler by neglect, while the educated and more wealthy are rendered still stronger by monopoly. Our municipal and school system, on the contrary, is of the largest comprehension—it embraces in its provisions all classes and all sects, and places the property of all, without exception, under contribution for the education of all without respect of persons. Thus every man, whether rich or poor, is made equal before the law, and is laid under obligation, according to his means, of educating the whole community. And our law provides, for the application of this great principle, not only for the establishment of schools and all requisites for their support and efficient operation, but also for the establishment and maintenance of libraries of general knowledge and reading; nor does it leave each municipality, unassisted, to collect books where and how it can, and at whatever prices, but calls in the position and assistance of government to arrange for procuring, at the lowest prices, a selection of books ample in number and variety, and suitable in character, to meet the wants and wishes of every municipality in Upper Canada. The Department of Public Instruction having to do in respect to books with no private parties, but with school and municipal corporations only, the legitimate field of private trade cannot be entrenched upon,

nor the ordinary channels of private business in the least interfered with; but they will rather be enlarged by the cultivation of public taste, and the increased demand for books of instruction and entertainment.

Such are the educational circumstances under which the people of Upper Canada commence the year 1851. Several practical suggestions have been made in connexion with the preceding remarks; others are so obvious, as inferences, that I need not repeat them in this place. All that I will, therefore, add is, that if the year 1850 has been signalized by laying the foundations of our system of public instruction deeper and broader, should not the year 1851 be characterized by rearing the superstructure higher upon those foundations? If during the last few years Upper Canada has advanced beyond the State of New York in three great elements of popular education—the average time of keeping open the schools during the year, the amount of money raised by the people at large for the support of education in proportion to the population, and the proportional number of teachers trained in the Normal School—why may not Upper Canada, with its improved school law and its municipal system, become the best educated and the most intelligent country in North America? Upon ourselves will be the responsibility and shame if it be not so.

In the course of the year I hope to be able to visit each county or union of counties in Upper Canada, to bring before you at public meetings those parts of our school system which are yet to be brought into operation, and to confer with you upon the best means of perfecting what has been commenced. In devising these means, I try to conceive of the children in each municipality and school section, even the most remote and feeble, as my own children, and to provide for them educationally, as far as in my power, in the way that I would wish my own children to be provided for under like circumstances. However far I may come short of my own wishes and of your necessities, I trust you will be satisfied with my humble endeavours when they come to be practically developed; and I am sure your cordial coöperation will not be wanting in what is best for our children and patriotic for our country. I earnestly implore the Divine blessing to crown our united exertions with the most abundant success!

Your faithful servant,
E. RYERSON.

London, December, 1850.

HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

From an elaborate and carefully written article in the last Number of the *Edinburgh Review*, we have selected the following Sketch of the *History of the English Language*. The subject is treated with much ability, and displays minute research. We have been obliged to omit many striking illustrations and interesting episodes in endeavouring to compress the contribution to the quarterly within the limits of our monthly. The article, although compressed, will prove eminently instructive and valuable.

It is hardly necessary to inform any of our readers that the Anglo-Saxon was one of the numerous offshoots from the prolific stock of Gothic languages. Like the modern German, it had far more various and complicated inflections of its articles, pronouns, and adjectives, than the modern English; and in the verbs more inflectional forms than the latter at present exhibits. Like the modern German, it also admitted what appears to us an inverted and unnatural order in construction; and lastly, it possessed a similar power of combining its elements, and of forming new compounds at its pleasure. This last is the singular advantage of a homogeneous language; for by a species of elasticity, it can thus accommodate itself to any condition of the national mind. Contracted during the period of barbarism, it readily expands in proportion to the demands of knowledge and civilization. By far the most momentous part of the change which has converted Anglo-Saxon into modern English, consists in the loss of many of the abovementioned grammatical peculiarities, and in mere changes of form and orthography. The vocabulary of the older language has been to a vast extent transferred to the new. Five-eighths at least of the language spoken by Alfred still circulates in the veins of the modern English.

The Anglo-Saxons invaded Britain in 449, and in something less

than a century had conquered nearly as much of the island as they ever conquered at all. They retained their language uncorrupted—by no means always the case with conquerors. As Gibbon expresses it, “a large army is but a small nation;” the progress of conquest is slow; and the victors, in time, are apt to adopt, with some modifications, the language of the vanquished.

The Anglo-Saxon continued to be spoken, nearly in its purity, till the Conquest (1066). It may be reckoned to have reached its highest state of development in the age of Alfred,—a natural consequence of the encouragement given to literature and every species of culture by that truly enlightened and patriotic prince.

About the time of the Conquest, or rather a little before, commenced those changes, which terminated in the formation of what we must call a new language—the English. Yet it is not till two centuries after that event (1258), that we possess a document which shows us the transformation almost complete.

The specimens which we possess of the earliest English, though scanty, are sufficient to show that the change in the language was nearly complete about the epoch fixed upon above, namely, 1258. Probably the first extant specimen of modern English, is a proclamation addressed to the people of Huntingdonshire by Henry III. in 1258.* A song of triumph (probably composed in London), on the victory of the confederate barons, in 1264, at Lewes, is somewhat less obsolete in its style; which is what one would expect. Robert of Gloucester (about 1300) made a metrical version of Geoffrey of Monmouth. By this time it appears a considerable number of French words had been received into the English language,—but still in no such quantity as to justify the representation of Dr. Johnson, who says rather vaguely, that he seems to have “used a kind of intermediate diction, neither Saxon nor English.” Vaguely, we say, for the passage might suggest the notion that French was found in a very large proportion: this, however, he does not mean; for, he is evidently referring principally to the change in the grammatical character of the language. Warton, speaking of the same author, calls him “full of Saxonisms.” Hallam says, “On comparing him with Layamon, a native of the same county, and a writer on the same subject, it will appear that a great quantity of French had flowed into the language since the loss of Normandy.” The historian must be supposed to be speaking comparatively with the French previously existing. The style of Robert of Gloucester may be easily estimated by any one curious enough to look into the accessible and copious extracts in Warton and Ellis; it will at once be seen that, relatively to the Saxon, the French is still a very subordinate element.

It was not till the middle and towards the close of the fourteenth century, that English became, to any considerable extent, the language of literature. The first prose work was Sir John Mandeville's *Travels*, which appeared in 1356. Wickliffe's translation of the Bible—alas! still existing only in manuscript—is referred to 1383: Trevisa's translation of Hygden's *Polychronicon* to 1385: and Chaucer's immortal works were all produced in the latter half of the same century. The statute of 1362, which decreed that the pleadings in courts of justice should be conducted in English, in consequence of the general ignorance of French, had been just preceded (1354) by an order that no ecclesiastical preferment should be given in England to any person not conversant with the English language, and resident there, cardinals alone excepted.† Shortly after it appears to have become the common language of the court and nobility, as well as of the people.

The higher classes exclusively spoke French, from the Conquest to the reign of Edward III. Brompton relates that as Henry II. was returning from Ireland, through Pembrokehire, and was addressed as the *gode olde Kynge*, he was obliged to ask his squire the mean-

* Since this document is highly curious, and usually cited as the first authentic specimen of modern English, it may be as well to state that it may be consulted in Henry's *History of Great Britain*, vol. viii. Appendix No. 4, or in Latham's *English Language*, pp. 77, 78. For a catalogue of specimens of early English, see Latham, p. 78. It is singular that the reign of Henry III. should thus present us, within less than ten years of each other, with both the first extant Act of State in modern English (1258, as in the text), and also with the first Statute (1266, de *Scaccario*.) in French. And it is not less difficult to account for the first statutory appearance of the French language at that time, than for its having continued to be the ordinary language of the Statutes until 1 Richard III., 1483: especially after its abolition from Pleadings, 36 Edward III., on the popular reasons set forth in the preamble: “Reasonably the said laws and customs the rather shall be perceived and known and better understood in the Tongue used in the said Realm, and by so much every man may the better govern himself without offending the Law, and better defend his Heritage: and in divers countries where the King and Nobles have been, good governance and just right is done to every person, because that the Laws and Customs are used in the Tongue of the Country.”

† Southey's *Common-Place Book*, third series. Page 391.

ing of the words; and Hovden mentions that Longchamp, Bishop of Ely and Chancellor to Richard I., did not know a word of English: though, as Hallam remarks, "it seems probable that the higher classes were generally acquainted with English, at least in the latter part of that period." All letters, including those of a merely private nature, were written in Latin till 1270, after which French was used. There is in Rymer a despatch in French as late as Hen. V., while Prince, addressed to his father; notwithstanding Thierry's criticism upon it, the fair Katharine would have understood it better than, according to Shakspeare, she afterwards understood his English. The fact that French was long the language of power, rank, wealth, and fashion, had naturally led to its more sedulous cultivation, and as naturally to the neglect of the vernacular,—which though the language of the mass, must have been subject during all that period to manifold deprivations from its not being critically studied.

Since, however, up to the reign of Edward III., French was the language of the sovereign and the nobility, and the courts of law,—since it was the universal practice up to that time (clearly shown in the extract above referred to), to construe Latin into French,—and since, as we learn from the statutes of Oriol College, Oxford, so late as 1328, students were ordered to converse either in French or Latin, of course as being the two polite languages,—we may be sure that the new language, if we must call it so, which had been forming in silence and obscurity, could have been little written; and the revolution, therefore, is in no degree to be ascribed to any such cause. Even in the reign of Henry VIII., when Leland had the pillaging of all the great libraries in the kingdom, he found only two or three books in English.

The writer, however, who at this earliest epoch of our literature exerted the greatest influence on the language, was unquestionably Chaucer; and he certainly introduced a large number of words from the French, as might be expected from his early familiarity with the metrical romances, and his extensive translations from them. He also endeavoured, though unsuccessfully, to introduce innovations of accent and pronunciation in his attempt at a more unexceptionable harmony.

The first English printer, the celebrated Caxton, died in 1491. Southey's friend, Burnett, in his "Specimens of English Prose Writers" (which may be called almost their joint production), notices, as remarkable, what Caxton says of Trevisa's Translation. We should like to compare the Translation, as Caxton altered it on printing it, with the Cottponian or some other MS., so as to judge for ourselves by the difference between the two of the effect of the intermediate hundred years:—"I, William Caxton, a simple person, have endeavoured me to write first over all the said book of *Polychronicon*,—somewhat have changed the rude and olde English, that is to wit, certain words, which in these days we neither used ne understood." And again: "Some gentlemen blamed me, saying that in my translations, I have over curious terms, which could not be understood of common people, and desired me to use olde homely terms in my translations. As I fain would satisfy every man, so to do, I took an old book and read therein: but certainly the English was so rude and broad that I could not well understand it. Also the Lord Abbot of Westminster did show to me late certain evidences written in old English, for to reduce it into our English then used: but it was written in such wise, that it was more like Dutch than English; so that I could not reduce, ne bring it to be understanden. And certainly, our language now used, varyeth far from that which was spoken when I was born; for we Englishmen ben born under the domination of the moon, which is never stedfast, but ever wavereth; waxing one season and waneth and decreaseth another season; and common English that is spoken in one shire, varyeth from another." Of the magical power of the instrument, which had now come into Caxton's hands, there can, at all events, be no doubt. With it, he himself probably exercised a greater influence on the language than any other man between Chaucer and the Reformation; and the changes wrought in it by his wondrous art were almost immediately conspicuous.

Owing partly to the more general writing, and still more to the printing of the language, a sensible improvement took place between the age of Caxton and the death of Henry VIII. The compositions which remain to us exhibit progressively greater brevity of expression, as well as compactness of construction, and even some degree of occasional elegance. To give the language, how-

ever, that polish and refinement which it was destined ultimately to reach, another cause still more powerful was to come into operation contemporaneously with the above causes; we mean the revival of classical literature.

A favourable instance of this influence operating on a mind of the first order may be found in the writings of the bosom friend of Erasmus, Sir Thomas More. Ben Jonson tells us that "his works were considered as models of pure and elegant style;" and Hallam is of opinion that his history of Richard III. "is the first example of good English language; pure and conspicuous, well chosen, without vulgarisms or pedantry."

Not only was the first effect of the revival of classical literature on language and style simply beneficial, but it continued to be so till Elizabeth had ascended the throne. The critical cultivation of the language proceeded for some time on right principles and by a safe method. Nay, some of the learned men of the century might be considered almost *purists* in their views upon this subject. Thus we are told that Sir John Cheke (1514-1557), the famous Professor of Greek at Cambridge, under whom studied Roger Ascham, the celebrated tutor of Elizabeth herself, projected a plan of reforming the English language by eradicating all words except those derived from Saxon roots!

"From the authors," says Dr. Johnson, "which rose in the time of Elizabeth a speech might be formed adequate to all the purposes of use and elegance. If the language of theology were extracted from Hooker and the translators of the Bible, the terms of natural knowledge from Bacon, the phrases of policy, war, and navigation from Raleigh, the dialect of poetry from Spenser and Sydney, and the diction of common life from Shakspeare, few ideas would be lost to mankind for want of English words in which they might be expressed."

Up to Elizabeth's reign there was, perhaps, no great reason to complain of the extent of classical importations; after that period, however, we certainly find the Latin element making undue encroachments; and those encroachments continued for nearly half a century onward, producing a very perceptible difference for the worse in diction, and introducing a species of construction utterly unsuited to the genius of the English language.

So extensive were these importations, that there are comparatively few terms of classical origin now in use (if we except the additions to the nomenclature of modern science), which are not to be met with in some shape or other in the writings who flourished from the accession of Elizabeth to the Restoration. From the writings of Sir Thomas Browne, Jeremy Taylor, Donne, and about a score more of our authors of this period, might probably be collected two or three thousand Latin derivatives, which have since become obsolete; many of them among the *αραξ λεγομενα*, as critics would say, of the authors themselves. Some such audacities were ventured on among his "native wood notes wild" even by Shakspeare,—at least some pass under his name.

Of the writers of this epoch who so largely imported Latinisms into the language, Jeremy Taylor is perhaps the one who, as little as any, affects the periodic style. Though his sentences are often long, inordinately long, his connectives are usually extremely simple. One favourite and much abused conjunction is his general link. How exquisite is the harmony, as well as the conception of the following sentence! The close is music itself:—"So much as moments are exceeded by eternity, and the sighing of a man by the joys of an angel, and a salutary frown by the light of God's countenance, a few frowns by the infinite and eternal hallelujahs, so much are the sorrows of the godly to be undervalued in respect of what is deposited for them in the treasures of eternity. Their sorrows can die, but so cannot their joys. And if the blessed martyrs and confessors were asked concerning their past sufferings and their present rest, and the joys of their certain expectation, you should hear them glory in nothing but in the mercies of God, and in the cross of the Lord Jesus. Every chain is a ray of light, and every prison is a palace, and every loss is the purchase of a kingdom, and every affront in the cause of God is an eternal honour, and every day of sorrow is a thousand years of comfort, multiplied with a never ceasing numeration,—days without night, joys without sorrow, sanctity without sin, charity without stain, possession without fear, society without envying, communication of joys without lessening; and they shall dwell in a blessed country, where an enemy never entered, and from whence a friend never went away."

With the Restoration (1660) commenced a striking series of

changes in English construction and style, terminating at the commencement of the next century in those forms, usages, and laws of composition, which with very limited and transient exceptions have prevailed ever since. Immediately after the accession of Charles II., the periodic style began to give way, and a more simple structure to take its place; the license of coining Latin derivatives also ceased: indeed, our language was substantially the same as it is at present. What was required was to file away asperities, to throw out redundancies, to refine barbarisms, to bring into greater accordance with the analogies of the language words half exotic in form, to refine what was worthy of being refined, and to reject the ore which would not pay for the cost of smelting.

The first changes, however, which commenced with the Restoration were such as might well make a thoughtful student of the language question whether they would not deteriorate rather than benefit it.

One of the new dangers, though not the chief, was of a flood of affected Gallicisms, with which the young monarch and his merry court naturally came stored, and which they seemed as willing to impart to our barbarous countrymen, as those vices which had the same source, and in which they were, unhappily, equally proficient.

In the mean time some of the words thus introduced really became serviceable; and in spite of the ridicule with which they were treated, stood firm and have obtained a permanent footing. It is curious that many of the foreign terms and affected phrases with which Dryden, in one of his plays, has interlarded the discourse of one of his fine ladies, by way of satire on the prevailing practice in the circles of fashion, have received the sanction of usage, and are now parts of the language. The gradual introduction and ultimate naturalization of foreign terms, at first ridiculed and satirised, often afford us a striking proof of the precarious influence even of the most enlightened criticism, when sustained by the best reasons.

At the commencement of the following century, those changes of construction and style which commenced with the Revolution were completed. The elements of the language were in fact just what they are still, both in form and construction; not taking into account such additions as the mere increase of knowledge has necessitated. New thoughts will of course require new terms. Meanwhile the periodic structure had disappeared at the same time that the vocabulary was adjusting itself. In this second fermentation, the language worked itself clear from all the feculence which had hitherto clouded it,—till at length, fully refined and clarified, it flowed transparent as crystal from the pen of the elegant Addison.

During the next generation the vocabulary of the English language fluctuated but little. An affectation, indeed, of French idiom and phraseology was manifested by many authors from time to time, and is conspicuous enough in Bolingbroke.

The last considerable fluctuation in literary diction was produced by the great critic and censor himself,—whose theory, as it often happens, was more perfect than his practice. Johnson is sometimes somewhat unjustly represented as having actually introduced into the language many new words of Latin lineage. It was Johnson's familiarity with certain authors, as Sir Thomas Browne, Jeremy Taylor, Burton, which supplied him with his Latinisms. In brief, if Johnson rendered turbid the pure "well of English," it was not by pouring in a foreign admixture, but by stirring up the sediment which had sunk or was sinking to the bottom. Of his Latinisms, those in his well-known definition of network may be taken as a specimen; they were not new; but what a heap of them in the same sentence! "Any thing reticulated or decussated, with interstices at equal distances between the intersections."

Extensive as the imitation of Johnson was, it could not last long. The rage of imitation is always a violent, but transient epidemic. Meantime Sir James Macintosh (no incompetent judge) had so strong a sense of the pernicious influence of Johnson's style on our language generally, that so late as 1831 he declared, that "from the corruptions introduced by Dr. Johnson, English style was only then recovering." Other critics, besides Dr. Parr, would probably think this an exaggeration. True genius, even in Johnson's time, witness Goldsmith and Burke, could not descend to imitate; and, long before 1831, Johnson's writings, though always and deservedly popular, had ceased to exercise any appreciable influence on mere style.

Since 1830, the tendency to innovate has been on the part of students of the German. So far as this tendency confines itself to

occasional, gradual, and cautious transplantation of genuine and expressive words from the German vernacular; or, better still, so far as it leads us, by a reflex influence, to cherish the Saxon element in our own language, to keep the other elements in check, and to give this its proper place, it is matter of congratulation.

The number of Greek and Latin derivatives which have been introduced in the course of the last fifty years, and especially the last thirty years, in consequence of the immense extension of the physical sciences, must be immense. In botany, geology, conchology, mineralogy, and, above all, chemistry, the nomenclature has increased at a most prodigious rate. If all these terms were considered as much English words as those which enter into the dialect of common life, of poetry, of eloquence, of historic composition, we could hardly say that the Anglo-Saxon now forms so decidedly preponderant an element as it has done throughout the whole previous course of our literary history.

It would be well for every scientific writer, who is addressing his discourse in any degree *ad populum*, or not exclusively to the scientific world, to peruse with care the observations of Whately in his "Rhetoric," on the use and abuse of technical language; and to study as models the writings of such men as Paley, Sir John Herschel, and Sir Charles Bell. To express the results of science without the ostentation of its terms, is an excellent art indeed, and known to but few.

The principal excellences of a language consist in copiousness, meaning by that word distinct expressions for distinct things; in variety, or different expressions for the same thing; in precision; in ductility; in energy; and in harmony. The English language, on the whole, will probably sustain comparison with any ever spoken by man. In ductility and in power of transposition it yields to Greek and German; and to many other languages in some one point or other. But few have ever combined *all* the excellences of language in so high a degree. Coleridge doubts whether it yields to the Greek and German even in those points in which their superiority has been generally conceded. "It may be doubted," says he, on one occasion, "whether a composite language like the English is not a happier instrument of expression than a homogeneous one like the German;" and on another he declares, "As to mere power of expression, I doubt whether even the Greek surpasses the English."

When we reflect on the enormous breadth both of the Old World and of the New, over which this noble language is either already spoken, or is fast spreading, and the immense treasures of literature which are consigned to it, it becomes us to guard it with jealous care as a sacred deposit—not our least important trust in the heritage of humanity.

Miscellaneous.

TOUCH US GENTLY, TIME!

BY BARRY CORNWALL.

Touch us gently, Time: Let us glide down thy stream
Gently—as we sometimes glide Through a quiet dream!
Humble voyagers are we, Husband, wife, and children three;
One is lost—an angel fled To the azure overhead!

Touch us gently, Time: we've not Proud nor soaring wings;
Our ambition, our content, Lives in little things.
Humble voyagers are we O'er life's dim, unsounded sea,
Seeking only some calm clime.—Touch us gently, gently Time!

OLD LETTERS.

Old letters! Oh then spare them—they are priceless for their age!
I love—Oh how I love to see each yellow time-stained page!
They tell of joys that are no more, of hopes that long have fled;
Old letters! Oh then spare them—they are sacred to the dead!

They tell of times—of happy times—in years long, long gone by,
Of dear ones who have ceased to live but in the memory;
They picture many a bright, bright scene, in sunny days of yore,
Old letters! Oh then spare them, for they are a priceless store.

Old am I too, and grey-hair'd now—deserted and alone,
And all of those I once could call my friends, alas! are gone;
Yet oft at midnight's stilly hour, in solitude's retreat,
With each one in his silent tomb, I hold communion sweet.

Old letters! here is one—the hand of youth is on its face;
Ah! that was from a brother young in some far foreign place:
A sailor boy, beloved by all, frank, open-hearted, brave—
Cold, cold and lonesome is his rest beneath the Atlantic wave.

Oh! ye are now the only links that bind us to the past;
Sweet, sweet memorials of the days too happy far to last;
The tear-drop fills again the eye whence tears had almost fled;
Old letters! ye are precious! ye are sacred to the dead!

N. Y. Albion.

FREE SCHOOL HISTORICAL FACTS—HOLLAND, NEW ENGLAND, NEW YORK, AND UPPER CANADA.

From a Paper read before the N. Y. Historical Society, Dec. 3, 1850, by Mr. BROADHEAD, we learn "that *Free Schools* were everywhere established in Holland as early as 1585; and in the midst of their war with Spain, provision was made for the instruction of twenty-six children of all classes."—On the Historical view of the question of *Free Schools* in the State of New York Mr. B. remarks: "The Dutch who settled in New Netherland [i. e. New York] were honest, plain-spoken men, who came here in pursuit of honest gain, but who brought along with them the liberal ideas, and simple maxims, and homely virtues of their country; they brought with them, too, their churches and schools, their clergy and school-masters. Before the end of STUYVESANT'S administration, schools existed in many of the Towns and Villages. A Latin School was established in New Amsterdam in 1657, to which children were sent from Virginia to be taught the classics. The claim that emigrants from New England alone introduced the system of *Free Schools* into our State is unjust to the memory of our early Dutch settlers. The children of the people were gratuitously educated in Holland long before *Free Schools* were thought of in Old England or New England. As far as circumstances would permit, the liberal system of the Fatherland was introduced by the Dutch into New Netherland." In connexion with the foregoing tribute to the educational zeal of the early American immigrants from Holland, it is rather a singular coincidence, that the introduction of the system of *Free Schools* into Canada should also be due to the descendent of an immigrant from Holland.—For a detailed account of the system of Popular Education at present in operation in Holland, see the 2nd vol. of this *Journal*, pages 104, 105.

THE TWO SCHOOLS. A VISION.

A spirit near me said, "Look forth upon the Land of Life. What do you see?"

"Steep mountains covered by a mighty plain, a table land of many coloured beauty. Beauty, nay, it seems all beautiful at first, but now I see that there are some parts barren."

"Are they quite barren?—look more closely still?"

"No, in the wildest deserts, now, I see some gum-dropping acacias, and the crimson blossom of the cactus. But there are regions that rejoice abundantly in flowers and fruit; and now, O spirit, I see men and women moving to and fro."

"Observe them, mortal."

"A severe man seizes an unhappy shrieking child, and leads it to the roughest ascent of the mountain. He will lead it over steep rocks to the plane of the mature. On ugly needle-points he makes the child sit down, and teaches it its duty in the world above."

"Its duty, mortal! Do you listen to the teacher?"

"Spirit, I hear now. The child is informed about two languages spoken by nations extinct centuries ago, and something else, O spirit, about the base of an hypothenseuse."

"Does the child attend?"

"Not much, but it is beaten sorely, and its knees are bruised against the rocks, till it is hauled up, woe-begone and weary to the upper plain. It looks about bewildered, all is strange, it knows not how to act. Fogs crown the barren mountain paths. Spirit, I am unhappy; there are many children thus hauled up, and young men upon the plain walk in fog, or among brambles; many fall into pits; but some, getting into flower paths, lie down and learn. Some become active, seeking right, but, ignorant of what right is, they wander among men out of their fog-land, preaching folly."

"Have they no better guide?"

"Yes, now there comes one with a smiling face, and rolls upon the flowers with the little ones, and they are drawn to him. And he has magic spells to conjure up glorious spectacles of fairy land. He frolics with them, and might be first cousin to the butterflies. He wreathes their little heads with flower garlands, and with his fairy hand on his lips, he walks toward the mountains; eagerly they follow. He seeks the smoothest upward path, and that is but a rough one, yet they run up merrily, guide and children, butterflies pursuing still the flowers as they nod over a host of laughing faces. They talk of the delightful fairy world, and, resting in the shady places, learn of the yet more delightful worlds of God. They learn to love the maker of the flowers; they listen to the

story of the race they go to labour with upon the plain, and love them for the labour they have done. They learn old languages of men, to understand the past,—but more eagerly they learn the voices of the men of their own day, that they may take part with the present. And in their study, when they flag, they fall back upon thoughts of the Child Valley they are leaving. Sports and fancies are the rod and spur that bring them with new vigour to the lessons. When they reach the plain, they cry, 'We know you, men and women; we know to what you have aspired for centuries; we know the love there is in God; we come prepared to labour with you, dear, good friends. We will not call you clumsy when we see you tumble, we will try to pick you up; when we fall, you shall pick us up. We have been trained to love, and therefore we can aid you heartily, for love is labour!'"

The spirit whispered, "You have seen and you have heard. Go now and speak unto your fellow-men; ask justice for the child."

To-day should love to-morrow, for it is a thing of hope; let the young Future not be nursed by Care. God gave not fancy to the child that men should stamp its blossoms down into the loose soil of intellect. The child's heart was not made full to the brim of love, that men should pour its love away, and bruise instead of kiss the trusting innocent. Love and fancy are the stems on which we may graft knowledge readily. What is called by some dry folks a solid foundation may be a thing not desirable. To cut down all the trees, and root up all the flowers in a garden, to cover walks and flower-beds alike with a hard crust of well rolled gravel, that would be to lay down your solid foundation after a plan which some think good in a child's mind, though not quite worth adopting in a garden. O, teacher, love the child and learn of it, so let it love and learn of you.—*Dickens' Household Words.*

THE CRUSADES, OR CROISADES.

These expeditions commenced in 1096. The foundation of them was a superstitious veneration for those places where our Saviour performed his miracles, and accomplished the work of man's redemption. Jerusalem had been taken by Omar, friend and great successor of Mahomet. In 1065 it changed masters—the Turks took it from the Saracens (so called from Sarah, wife of Abraham). Peter the Hermit proposed the scheme to Pope Martin II, who summoned a council of 4,000 ecclesiastics and 30,000 seculars at Placentia (Gallia Cisalpina) and the speakers pleased them so well that they immediately declared for war. The first crusade consisted of 700,000 men. 7 other crusades followed. Voltaire computed the people who perished in them at upwards of 2,000,000.—*The good effects* of the crusades were: 1st, diffusion of the Latin tongue; 2nd, great improvement in trade, manufactures, and the arts.—*The bad*:—They retarded the march of civilization; thickened the clouds of ignorance and superstition; encouraged intolerance, cruelty, and fierceness. Religion lost its mildness and charity, war its mitigating qualities of honour and courtesy. We feel no sorrow at the final doom of the crusades, because in their origin the war was iniquitous and unjust. "*The blood of man should never be shed but to redeem the blood of man. It is well shed for our family, for our friends, for our God, for our kind, the rest is vanity, the rest is crime.*"—[Mr. Mill, vol. 2, page 873, extracted from "London Encyclopædia," vol. 6, page 682.

1st Crusade commenced	1096.
2nd " "	1144.
3rd " "	1188, under Richard II, who went out with 300,000 crusaders.
4th " "	1195.
5th " "	1198.
6th " "	1228, under Richard, Earl of Cornwall, brother to Henry III.
7th " "	1249.
8th " "	1270, under Prince Edward of England.

In 1291 the Town of Acre was taken and plundered by the Sultan of Egypt, and the Christians quite driven out of Syria.

POWER OF KINDNESS.—No man has ever measured it, for it is boundless; no man has ever seen its death, for it is eternal. In all ages of the world, in every clime, among every kind, it hath shone out a bright and beautiful star, a beaming glory!

THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION,—Although unwritten, consists of *Acts of Parliament, Decisions of Courts of Justice, and Immemorial Usages*. Its elements and safeguards are:—

1. Trial by Jury. 2. Charta de Foresta. 3. Magna Charta.
4. Parliament. 5. Petition of Rights. 6. Habeas Corpus. 7. Declaration at the time of accession of William III and Mary II.
8. Liberty of the Press.

The rudiments of the British Constitution may be traced as far back as the Norman Conquest.—*Tytler*.

TRIAL BY JURY,—HENRY II, 1160.—All crimes must be tried by a jury of 12 men in England and Ireland, and 15 in Scotland. The prisoner has a right to challenge without showing any cause (except in Scotland) 20 successively, in ordinary cases, and 35 in cases of treason.—*Tytler*.

CHARTA DE FORESTA,—JOHN, 1215.—The Royal privilege of killing game over all the kingdom (established by William I, the Conqueror) was abolished, and the Woods and Forests were given to their owners, who were permitted to enclose and use them at their pleasure.—*Tytler*.

MAGNA CHARTA,—JOHN, 1215.—This Charter was wrested from King John, at the point of the sword, by his Barons at Runnymede, England, 1215.

Stillest streams
Of water fairest meadows, and the bird
That flutters least is longest on the wing.

Episcopal Recorder.

LORD BACON says that Reading makes a full man; Talking makes a ready man; Writing makes a correct man.

PHRENOLOGY was discovered in the ninth century by Johannes Scotus Erigena, or John the Irish Scot, not by Gall.

Establishment of Oxford University.—Johannes Scotus Erigena was the celebrated person who assisted King Alfred the Great in the foundation or establishment of the University of Oxford, and was the first instructor of the English people in the sciences of Geometry, Astronomy, &c.

The learned and judicious Mosheim says there were in the 9th century, particularly among the Irish, men of acute parts and extensive knowledge, and who were perfectly well entitled to the appellation of Philosophers. His (Scotus') portrait was formerly, and perhaps still preserved over the door of the refectory of Brasenose College, Oxford, sculptured in stone.—*Dublin Penny Journal, Vol. 1, No. 7, pp. 60.*

DISTINCTION BETWEEN MIND AND MATTER.—The science of the former rests ultimately on the phenomena exhibited to our senses; that of the latter on the phenomena of which we are conscious.—*Page 4, Elements of Philosophy of the Human Mind—by Dugald Stewart.*

LORD CLIVE.—For remarkable instance of military fidelity during the first siege sustained by Lord Clive, see Macaulay's Review, Malcolm's Life of Lord Clive, page 101, British Essayists.—The Seypoy came to Lord Clive to propose that all the grain should be given to the Europeans, who required more nourishment than the natives of Asia.—Lord Clive's garrison—120 Europeans, 200 Seypoy—total 320; French 10,000! From his first visit to India [1739] dates the renown of English arms in the East. From his second visit to India, dates the political ascendancy of the English in that country. From his third visit to India [1765] dates the purity of the administration of our Eastern Empire. His name stands high on the roll of conquerors. *He died by his own hand, 22nd Nov., 1774.*

The tendency of institutions like those of England is to encourage readiness in public men, at the expense both of fulness and of exactness.—*Macaulay's Works, Vol. 3, Page 258.*

The hearts of men are their books; events are their tutors; great actions are their eloquence; and such a one was Cromwell.—*Vide Macaulay's Cowley and Milton, page 374.*

THE BOOK OF LIFE.—It is a great work. Every year is a volume—every month a chapter—every week a page—every day a paragraph. Study it well. Napoleon said to some boys at a school he visited:—"My lads, every hour of lost time is a chance for future misfortune."

States have always been best governed by men who have taken a wide view of public affairs, and who have rather a general acquaintance with many sciences than a perfect mastery of one.—*Vide Macaulay's Athenian Orators.*

ORIGINAL COMPOSITIONS.—It should be observed, says Goldsmith, in his introduction of "*An Enquiry into the Present state of Polite Learning*," published in 1759,—“that the more original any performance is, the more liable it is to deviate; for cautious stupidity is always in the right.” He also distinguishes ancient learning into three periods, viz:—commencement, or age of Poets; maturity, or age of philosophers; and its decline, or age of critics (he seems to have abhorred critics).

THE EXISTENCE OF A GOD.—The firm rocks—the perpetual hills—the solemn arch of heaven as well as the grand and restless ocean, the gently flowing stream, and the ever changing seasons, all proclaim a God.

“THE GENIUS OF DEATH”.—Among the Etruscan vases taken out of Herculaneum, during the excavations, after having been imbedded in lava two thousand years, there was one exhibited in a high state of preservation—a striking and frightful feature of the “Genius of Death”—so pale and yet so faint—so young and yet so relentless—winged—resting on his bow in a graceful attitude—giving as it would seem mortality a holy-day; yet his countenance, though beautifully regular, expresses a chilling severity, mingling a paradox of sentiment in representing what the power of the understanding cannot define, or the most sunny imagination scarcely trace a shadow of,—death alive!

THE DEAD.—A curious mind has been casting up the number of human births and deaths since our Saviour, eighteen hundred years ago, began his mission of mercy, in the far off land of despised Judea.

The average number of births per second, up to this time has been eight hundred and fifteen. This after deducting the present population of the world (960,000,000,) leaves thirty-one thousand and fifty millions that have gone down to the grave.

Of this number—9,000,000,000 have died in war.

7,920,000,000 by famine and pestilence.

500,000,000 by martyrdom.

580,000,000 by intoxicating drinks.

12,000,000,000 natural and otherwise.

The loss of time is most acutely felt by those who know how to employ their hours, and wish to have no idle moments.

Boërhaave, the celebrated Physician, said that an hour spent every morning in private prayer and meditation, gave him spirit and vigour for the business of the day, and kept his temper active, patient, and calm.

A MOTHER'S LOVE.—Oh the fulness of a mother's love. Time, nor change, nor distance, disease, wrong, unkindness, cannot exhaust it. It lives a fountain of undying waters, where the outcast, the wanderer may return, and the same hand that wiped away the tears of childhood will be put forth, to cool the fevered brow, and the parched lips of the world's rejected victim.—*Episcopal Recorder.*

A deaf and dumb person being asked, “What is forgiveness?” took a pencil and wrote a reply, containing a volume of the most exquisite and deep truth, in these words:—“It is the odour which flowers yield when trampled upon.” Another being asked, “What is gratitude?” replied in a similar manner:—“It is the memory of the heart.”

I know nothing that so utterly converts society into “the gallery of pictures” as the recollection of one *loved and lost*.—*Butwer's Godolphin.*

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TORONTO, JANUARY, 1851.

ENCOURAGING SYMPTOMS FOR THE FUTURE.

At the beginning of the *NEW YEAR* we desire to glance for a moment at the past and the future, and to offer a few words of congratulation and encouragement.

In presenting the Third Annual Address of the Chief Superintendent of Schools to the People of Upper Canada, (which will be found on our first page,) we cannot but rejoice at the unexampled degree of success which has attended their efforts to perfect and render really permanent our system of popular Education; to invest it with a freeness and universality that the poorest child may consider its enjoyment as his birthright, and the richest deem it a privilege to participate in its advantages, and to contribute to its support and permanence. Although we have yet too much reason to deplore the want of an enlarged and enlightened generosity in a mixed section of our countrymen and fellow colonists in the support and diffusion of sound general Education upon equal terms among all classes alike; still, in tracing back the history of popular Education in Upper Canada for the last few years, and carefully scanning each step of progress—possibly too measured—we cannot disguise the deep feelings of pleasure which we experience in reflecting upon the real, palpable improvement which has taken place in the character and condition of our common schools. This improvement is now a recognized historical fact; and it afforded us no little satisfaction in hearing it made the subject of academic congratulation in an official address before the chief men and scholars of Upper Canada upon the occasion of the recent annual commencement of the University of Toronto.

As intimated in the Address of the Chief Superintendent, we have now reason to believe, that, after successive years of somewhat indefinite legislation in School affairs, we have at length reached that calm and settled period in our educational history when the fruits of our united toil and labour will be permitted to mature and ripen to an abundant and glorious harvest. As in rural affairs, so in the affairs of intellectual life, there is a time to sow and a time to reap, a time to break up the fallow ground and to harrow in the fruitful seed, so there is a time for gentle rain and sunshine, for unceasing culture and watchful solicitude. The time for breaking up and moulding the rough character of our School System—of giving it a broad and noble outline—of laying deep its foundations, and of marking out the bounds of our future operations, is past, and we may now cordially and unreservedly devote our energies to the development of the germ of the noble seed that has been sown; to give effect to the wise decisions of the Legislature, and to seek no further, until time and experience demand it, to loosen again the cords which bind together the several mutually dependent parts of our elementary school system.

We cannot forbear referring here to one or two very gratifying circumstances, already alluded to in the Annual Address, connected with the recent reënactment and consolidation of our school system. We have reason to believe that the principles and prominent features of our present School law received the unanimous sanction of the most experienced educationists of Upper Canada, previous to their being submitted to the Legislature. And if the subject received such careful attention from numerous individuals skillfully experienced in the working of former school laws, it received even closer and more profound attention from the members of the Go-

vernment, and of the Legislature itself. Never before did the great subject of popular education in Upper Canada receive so thorough, so minute, and so patriotic an investigation; never before were mere party ties and preferences so completely obliterated in the discussion of a great question of vital and national interest. Every clamour was hushed; every diversified feeling was harmonized; the two great sectional interests of the Legislature were merged into one of high-toned nationality; and in this anxious, calm, and patriotic spirit did the united Legislature of our country seek to embody in the enactments of our School law the generous spirit which characterized their own feelings and deliberations—to blend in just and effective proportions executive with municipal and local with individual coöperation—to invest the entire system with the characteristics of parental and generous solicitude, and to imbue it with the spirit of energetic coöperation. Not the least interesting historical reminiscence connected with our present School law is the fact—and it is indicative of the feelings of the Executive Government for the success of the measure—that the *first* Bill of the United Parliament which received the Royal Assent in Toronto, was an “Act for the better Establishment and Maintenance of Common Schools in Upper Canada.”

In all these respects has the Legislature of Canada—although too modestly, we confess—followed in the footsteps of the noble pilgrims of New England, who knew that in the laws establishing Common Schools, *more than in any other enactment*, lay the secret of the future glory and success of their youthful colony: “Every child, with them, as it was born into the world, was lifted from the earth by the genius of their country, and in the Statutes of the land received as its birthright a pledge of the public care for its morals and its mind.” In New England, *FREE SCHOOLS* have been established for two centuries; in New York the people have now at two successive ballots decreed that Free Schools shall be established for ever as a birthright for their children; while in Upper Canada we content ourselves by merely suffering Free Schools, with all their great and permanent advantages, to flourish or decay as caprice or selfishness dictate. As a people we reject alike the two-century experience of New England, and the touching, almost parental solicitude recently expressed in the votes deliberately recorded in favour of free and universal education in the State of New York. But yet, notwithstanding these chilling facts, we have made encouraging and, comparatively speaking, rapid progress in Free Schools. Three years ago the name of a Free School was unknown in Upper Canada; and when it was uttered, people hesitated to adopt it, while some denounced the innovation as containing the germ of an unmixed Prussian despotism! little dreaming at the time, that by establishing even a partial system of Free Schools in Prussia, that very despotism was but springing a mine that would eventually involve it in utter destruction, and shatter its strongest citadel to atoms. Now, in Upper Canada, we can reckon our Free Schools by tens, almost by hundreds. Scarcely a newspaper we take up containing a report of the proceedings of the local municipalities, but we perceive by-laws enacted, establishing, either partially or entirely, one or more Free Schools in a township. Lecturers make the subject a leading topic of discussion and encouragement; and trustees are anxious, by special meetings and otherwise, to induce their constituents to sanction the practical application of the principle to the support of their schools. The 12th section of the School Law recognizes in distinct and emphatic terms the right and the privilege of the people to confer upon their separate localities the great boon of a Free School—free to the children of the rich man as well as to the children of the

poor man—supported by all alike for the benefit of all, according to the ratio of the bountiful gifts bestowed upon them by a kind and beneficent PROVIDENCE; so that with the same lavish hand with which HE has blessed us with an abundance of air and sunshine, and other common blessings, we may with equal generosity diffuse among our neighbourhoods the blessings of Free Common Schools, for the religious, moral, and intellectual training of our children: our country's future rulers, judges, statesmen, and pastors.

Next to the very encouraging indications referred to, we reflect with equal satisfaction upon the numerous accessions of intelligent influence and zeal in favour of our common schools. During the past year the interest felt by educated men in the success of our elementary schools has been unprecedented. This has been mainly owing to the agency employed to call into action this powerful but hitherto dormant influence and coöperation. The establishment of elective City and Town Boards of School Trustees—of County Boards of Public Instruction, in connexion with the important and extensive powers conferred upon these Boards—the superior class of qualifications required of local superintendents, together with the fixed rate of remuneration to which those officers are entitled—and the systematizing of the entire of our School operations—have tended materially to elevate the tone of public sentiment in regard to popular Education.

In cities and towns the elective franchise in School affairs is much more extended than for ordinary municipal purposes; while the powers conferred upon the School corporation are even more important—not to say potent—as regards the character and future destiny of the city and town concerned—than those possessed by the municipality itself. Educated men feel honoured by having interests so vital committed to their hands, and they have in every instance which has come under our notice, endeavoured at once to elevate the character and condition of the Schools under their charge—to erect large, pleasant, and commodious School Houses—to introduce a gradation and system of schools, and generally to give a fresh and healthy impetus to the great work in which they are engaged. It is pleasing thus to witness the exalted tone of enlightened public feeling which is gradually springing up in all our cities and towns.

No less cheering is the general aspect, which popular Education presents in our Counties and rural School Sections. Within the last few years the profession of School Teaching has been invested with a higher degree of importance; the standard of qualification has been raised; and the condition of School Teachers generally has been very materially improved. We anticipate much good will result from the judicious labours of the new County Boards of Public Instruction. It remains henceforth with them to say whether or not a virtuous or a vicious, a moral or an intemperate man shall be entrusted with the early training of the youth of our land. So far, their efforts to improve the moral and religious tone of the profession of school-teaching, as well as to elevate its literary character, have long been very decided and beneficial. We earnestly trust that future years will witness a still more rigid adherence on the part of Teachers and Trustees to the spirit of the admirable regulations for their guidance promulgated by the Council of Public Instruction for Upper Canada.

The delivery of Public Educational Lectures—another most important feature of our elementary school system—has begun to develop itself, and to exercise a powerful influence in promoting the interests of popular education, wherever it has been called into requisition. Local Superintendents are required by law to deliver one lecture a year in each of the school sections under their supervision. Wherever this requirement of the School Act has been

complied with, and the people have gathered to listen, an improved and enlightened public feeling in favour of a more generous system of education has been the result. Already our attention has been called to some valuable educational lectures of considerable literary pretensions, delivered in various parts of Upper Canada.

In this rapid glance which we have taken of our educational progress and capabilities we see much upon which to congratulate our country, and to incite us all to a still more united and vigorous effort to give a full and generous expansion to every part of our popularized and admirably adjusted school system. We are fully convinced that all it requires is the active and liberal coöperation of all parties concerned in its administration, in order to produce the most abundant and gratifying results. Its elasticity and adaptation to the varied intellectual wants of our population in towns and cities as well as in rural school sections; and its close and intimate connexion with the municipal institutions of the country, as illustrated in the Chief Superintendent's Address, cannot fail, with the Divine blessing, to render it a most important and effective auxiliary for the promotion of the social, material, and intellectual prosperity of this the destined home of thousands from our fatherland.

EDUCATION IN THE CITY OF HAMILTON—ZEALOUS EFFORTS ON THE PART OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

A Committee from the Board of Trustees for the City of Hamilton, consisting of Ex-Mayor DISTIN, Councillor TRILLER, and WM. LEGGO, Esquire, having been deputed to visit London, Brantford, and Toronto, to make inquiries as to the system of Schools adopted in those places, &c., have just presented to the Board an elaborate and most interesting Report. The information sought had particular reference to the system of Schools to be adopted in Hamilton: whether it should consist of a central School, with primary, secondary, and superior Departments for 1,000 male and female pupils, or whether it should be simply Ward Schools scattered all over the Town. The opinion which the Committee elicited was unanimous in favour of a central School with the Departments referred to connected with it—to be hereafter expanded, as in other large cities, into a series of schools in separate buildings, comprising the usual gradation of Primary Schools, English High Schools, and Grammar Schools. We omit the greater part of the Report containing the opinions *in extenso* of the School authorities in each place in favour of a Central School; and confine ourselves to those portions having special reference to the system of Schools in the places visited by the Committee:—

The Committee appointed to visit London, Brantford, and Toronto, for the purpose of obtaining information respecting the system of education, and the style of the school houses adopted in these places, beg to Report,—That they considered that it would be their duty to obtain all information within their reach which could in any way afford assistance to your Board in deciding upon an extensive and complete system of Common School education. Such a system as would ensure a regular plan of gradation in the studies prescribed, and lead the scholar gradually and regularly from the simplest rudiments of an English education to the portals of the Grammar School, whence, after passing through the usual course of Classical and Mathematical studies, he might pass on to the College, and thence to the University.

BRANTFORD.—Your Committee first visited Brantford, which enjoys the enviable reputation of possessing one of the best, if not the best, Common Schools in the Province. They were accompanied in the visit to the school by Mr. VanBroeklin the Mayor, and members of the Board of Trustees, who furnished them with every information in their power, and were kind enough to provide them with the elevation and plans of the building, prepared by Mr. Turner, of Brantford. Until the erection of this building the system of Ward Schools prevailed, and when it was determined to build, it became a stoutly contested question, whether good Ward Schools should be erected, or whether they should all be merged in one large School for the whole Town. After much discussion, and after conferences with the officers of the Education Department, it was resolved to adopt the latter plan. The Board were impelled to the decision chiefly by the weighty consideration that the most important elements in an educational system,—a regular plan of gradation in teaching,—and a division of labour among the teachers, could not possibly be introduced into the system of Sectional Schools in so small a Town. The securing these was of the gravest consequence, and the most pressing objection to the plan of a Central School was, that its locality would prove inconvenient to the younger

scholars, who would not be able to travel from one extremity of the Town to another, particularly during the winter season. This objection is one which immediately occurs to the mind of a person not well acquainted with the practical working of large and well conducted schools, and your Committee must confess that they were at one time much disposed to consider it as one of great weight; but, after learning the actual working of such schools in Brantford, London, and Toronto, and on consulting the unanimous testimonies of experienced teachers, as recorded in various educational reports and journals, they have arrived at quite a different conclusion. The enquiries of your Committee on this point were specially directed to the effect which the Brantford school has had in absorbing the attendance of scholars from distant schools and localities, and they wish to place the result of these enquiries emphatically before your Board. They were very frankly told by Mr. Kirkland, the Chairman of the Board, that he was one of those who objected to the merging of the Ward Schools into one Central School, and that he strongly urged the objection just noted. He was however overruled, and he is now happy to find that his fears were groundless, as it has been ascertained that those scholars who live in the remote quarters of the Town, are, as a general rule, the most punctual in their attendance. This was ascribed to the fact, that by providing superior accommodations, superior teachers, and a superior system of teaching, the status of the school had been so elevated that no judicious parent would permit his child to lose all the advantages of a very superior school, merely because he had to walk an additional half mile to reach it. The effect of raising the status of the Common Schools in Brantford, has been strikingly exhibited by the fact that children of all grades of society are here found pursuing the same studies in the same classes, and that these have been drawn, in some instances, from a distance of many miles, attracted by the very superior character of the teachers employed, and of the system adopted. The gentlemen above named, though at one time holding different views on this point, were now unanimously of opinion that no Ward School could exist in Brantford, within the powerful influence of the Central School.

The Central School was built last year. It is a large and handsome edifice of brick, built in the Roman style, having a frontage of 58 feet, and 46 feet deep. It stands quite on the outskirts to the north of the town, about a mile from the opposite extremity, nearly in the centre of a plot of ground of about three acres, sold to the Trustees by the Government at the nominal price of £60. It has already cost £800, and it is estimated that it will require £200 more to complete it in some minor details, and in fencing, laying out, and planting with ornamental trees and shrubbery the ground attached. There are two entrances, one for the boys, another for the girls. There are three rooms in the first story devoted to the males—one large one 50 × 33 feet, and two galleries or recitation rooms, 10 × 15 feet each. The second story is devoted to the females and smaller boys, and consists of two rooms with desks, respectively 32 × 32 feet, and 23 × 32 feet, and two galleries, each 11 × 15 feet. These afford accommodation for 500 scholars, and there are now in attendance 300—200 boys and 100 girls. The entrance halls are well supplied with conveniences for the orderly disposition of the out-door garments of the scholars, effectually preventing confusion among even such a number. The seating is extremely commodious, and differs entirely from the ordinary desks and benches. The seats hold but two children each, and are so arranged that there is no confusion produced in leaving or returning to them. Your Committee were much pleased to find that great attention had been paid to ventilation, there being proper openings in the walls into flues leading to the cupola. The building is equally and comfortably warmed by a hot air furnace. There are two yards, or playgrounds, one for the boys, the other for the girls, provided with suitable out-buildings. These are perfectly distinct, and no mingling of sexes is permitted in the sports of the children.

The staff of the school consists of a head master, Mr. Hughes, an assistant, Mr. Hutton, and a female teacher, Mrs. Corbett; but the monitorial system is necessarily adopted to some extent. The system of teaching is that adopted in the Model School at Toronto, and differs in the most important particulars from that used in our Ward Schools. Your Committee cannot speak too highly of the system of education, and so far as they have been able to ascertain, the public feeling as regards the centralization of the schools has undergone a very material change.

LONDON.—Your Committee next visited the Union School, London. They were very politely waited on by Mr. Morrill the Mayor, and members of the Board of Trustees, who accompanied them to the school, and kindly afforded every information in their power. It is, as regards size and architectural beauty, by far the finest school house in the Province. It is a large two-story edifice in the Elizabethan style, built of light-coloured brick, having a frontage of 133 feet, composed of a centre of 68 feet, and two ends of 32 feet 6 inches each; the depth of the centre portion is 30 feet, that of the ends 49 feet each. It, like the Brantford school, stands in the outskirts of the town, more than a mile from the opposite limits. It is placed nearly in the centre of a plot of five acres, presented to the Trustees by the Government. It is arranged with accommodations for 800 scholars, and there are already in attendance about 500. The building affords six school rooms, three in each story, all the same size, 47 × 30 feet. There are two front entrances, one for boys, another for girls, and the entrance halls are furnished with suitable conveniences for the orderly arrangement of the out-door garments of the children. The Lancasterian mode of seating has been adopted, but it is the intention of the Trustees to introduce the improved plan of having separate desks and seats for each two scholars. The rooms are well provided with maps, Holbrook's instruments, black boards, coloured drawings, illustrations of Natural History, and a great variety of illustrated lessons for the younger children. Each of the six rooms is supplied with a large stove, but the Board have determined to abandon the use of the stove heat, which is found objectionable in various ways, and introduce a hot air furnace. An efficient mode of ventilation has been adopted. The Trustees intend, so soon as their means will permit, to enclose the whole five acres by a neat and substantial fence six feet high, and to divide the grounds into two yards, one for boys, the other for girls, with suitable out-buildings, shade trees, and shrubbery.

The system adopted, as regards the number and location of the school houses, is precisely the same as that of Brantford. One large Central School, called the Union School, has been established, to the entire exclusion of Sectional or Ward Schools. The plan very naturally met with local opposition, and, as in Brantford, it was strongly insisted that it would be

seriously inconvenient to the younger children to attend a school placed in an outskirt of a town covering so great a space as London. It was urged that children would not, in fact could not, walk the required distance, particularly in bad weather, and the result would be that, on the one hand, the school would be poorly attended, while on the other, the convenience of Ward Schools would be taken away. The Trustees, however, very fortunately determined to believe that the universal experience of well-educated towns, both in Great Britain and the United States, would be similar in London, and the plan of a Central School, without any Ward Schools, was carried. The system of teaching is the same as that adopted in Brantford, and in the Model School, Toronto; though, from not possessing a sufficiently large staff of teachers, the monitorial system is resorted to. The staff consists of the head master, Mr. Wilson; an assistant, Mr. Murtagh, for the boys; and Miss Haige, Miss McElroy, and Miss Cameron, in the female department.

The London school has been built in the face of a very strong opposition. Your Committee were informed that very unfortunately it became partly a political question; and when they learned that it had been exposed to the turmoils of political contests, they were prepared to hear that its efficiency had been impaired. This division forebodes disastrous consequences, since it may require years to allay the feeling engendered, and so long as dissension affects so tender a subject as that of popular education, its progress must be seriously retarded. Your Committee were, however, happy to find that the opposition had been, not to the centralization of the schools, but to the project of making the Union School a Free School; and so far as the abandonment of the sectional system is concerned, your Committee were informed that it met with general approbation; they heard no complaints that the distance was too great for the younger scholars, but on the contrary, they were distinctly told by the Mayor, by the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, and by the Teachers, that the attendance of those scholars who resided at a distance was more regular than that of those who lived near the school.

TORONTO.—THE MODEL SCHOOL.—Your Committee next visited Toronto, and in the absence of Dr. Ryerson, the Chief Superintendent, in England, had a lengthy interview with Mr. Hodgins, the Deputy Superintendent. Your Committee were particular in ascertaining the views of the Educational Department on the general expediency of Ward Schools in Towns like Hamilton, and they were assured by that gentleman, that the distinct and unhesitating opinion entertained by the Department, based on the practice of the best educated English and American towns was, that Central School is the best system for Towns of moderate size, and that the Ward system is the worst possible one. Mr. Hodgins, in support of this opinion, referred your Committee to an extract from the Annual Report of Normal, Model and Common Schools in Upper Canada, for 1847, presented to the Legislative Assembly by the Chief Superintendent, on the *Evil of Small School Sections.**

On reading the latter part of the quotation, Mr. Hodgins remarked that the same effect had been strikingly exhibited in the working of the Model School. Although it is situated at an extremity of a city containing 25,000 inhabitants, it is found that the anxiety to obtain admission is so great, that there are at present 200 children on the list for admission, and that many come from Yorkville, a distance of quite two miles, passing in their route perhaps as many as three or four Ward Schools.

The Model School is so called, as being the model of a Common School. It is at present fitted up very temporarily in the southern extremity of the city, opposite Upper Canada College. Your Committee will not enter into any description of this building, as it is but temporary, and quite unfitted for its purposes. It is under the immediate management of a head Master, Mr. McCallum, and an assistant, Mr. Sangster, assisted daily by young men and women from the Normal School. There are at present 300 boys in attendance, there being as yet no accommodation for girls. The school is well supplied with maps, astronomical and philosophical apparatus, black boards, Holbrook's school instruments, and a great variety of engravings, illustrative of Natural History. For the present, the Monitorial system is adopted, but it is hoped that ere long the School will be supplied with such a staff of teachers as will enable the authorities to dispense with the services of Monitors.

The peculiar excellencies of the system of teaching and government adopted, are chiefly these:

- 1.—A division of labour among a number of teachers, there being a teacher for each branch.
- 2.—A division of the whole school into large classes of from 75 to 100 Scholars each—each of which classes passes in due order through the hands of each teacher during the day.
- 3.—Teaching rather by means of sensible objects than by books, for example,—Teaching Reading with the assistance of coloured Prints and Diagrams of various kinds, such as of animals, costumes, trades, &c., pasted on boards of wood or strong pasteboard; the primary rules of numbers by the Numerical Frame; geography through examination of maps, instead of burthening the memory by learning by rote lessons in books;—mental arithmetic by interesting trials of skill; the rudiments of geometry by means of models of the various geometrical figures; mechanics, by models of machines best adapted to illustrate the mechanical powers; astronomy by small working models, such as the Tellurian, suspension Orrery, globe, orbit plane, &c.; by which the actual motion of the heavenly bodies is exhibited; geology by specimens.
- 4.—Teaching rather through the affection than through the fears of the scholars.

Perhaps the characteristic first mentioned is the most important. By having a master for each branch, the best teaching talent is secured, and by making each class pass successively from one master to the other, the scholars are kept constantly occupied, and have therefore no opportunity to waste their time; and the additional important advantage is secured that this change of masters and of school rooms breaks monotony, and keeps the children from tiring. The details of a morning's duties may thus be briefly stated. Each scholar has his number, which corresponds with the number of his seat and of the hook in the hat room in which his out-door garments are hung. The boys are assembled in three rows by signals from the master, and proceed in perfect silence and order according to their numbering to the large room, passing through the hat room, where they leave

* See 2nd Vol. of the Journal of Education, page 114.

their out-door clothes. The school is at present divided into three divisions, corresponding with the number of rooms,—the first division passes on without interruption to the first gallery or recitation room, the second takes possession of the second gallery, and the third silently, and with the precision of trained soldiers, organizes into a number of monitorial circles in the large room. Each class in the galleries closes its exercises at the same time; and, supposing that the first is engaged in grammar, and the second in Arithmetic, they exchange rooms and Masters simultaneously, one class passing out of the gallery by one door into the room, (which is at the same moment being left by the second), by another, which immediately fills up the seats just left vacant. By this simple mode, the classes change places and masters until they have each passed through the several exercises of the day, and in this way one teacher is able with perfect ease to teach and control from 100 to 120 Scholars. One of the most remarkable features in the system is the extraordinary order and quietness of the school; although each of the 300 scholars whom your Committee saw engaged in their exercises was occupied, not a sound was heard save that of the answers to the questions proposed. Each boy being under the immediate supervision of a master, there was no talking, no playing, no idling. The scholars are all kept constantly occupied under the eye of a teacher, and it is only under this system that this extremely important desideratum can be secured. After passing in this way in large classes from the Grammar Master to the Teacher of Arithmetic, from him to the Master in Geography, from him to the Writing Master, and so on through the whole course for the forenoon, the school is dismissed to the playgrounds, where the scholars engage in their sports, but still under the supervision of a Teacher, who joins in their amusements, controls their tempers, and even in their plays morality is inculcated, and vice repressed.

Your Committee were much pleased to find in the three schools they visited that corporeal punishment is discarded. In the Model School the only punishment is dismissal, and the bearing of the teachers toward the scholars is uniformly that of kindness and affection. The teachers are not merely teachers of grammar, arithmetic or geography; they teach order by being themselves orderly, and they teach gentleness and amiability, by being themselves gentle and amiable. If a boy is found impenetrable by such a mode of treatment, he is dismissed as unfit for the companionship of those who can be governed by kindness, and led by affection.

Your Committee next visited the Normal School, under the charge of Mr. Robertson, assisted by Mr. Hind; but as this Institution is peculiar in its object, the system of teaching cannot be observed in a common school, and your Committee mention the visit merely for the purpose of laying before your Board the opinions of these accomplished and experienced teachers on the several matters submitted to them.

With regard to the union of a Grammar School with a Common, or Central School, your Committee were informed by the Deputy Superintendent that although the Common School Act confers power on the Common School Trustees to co-operate in such a manner, yet the Act which, among other more important matters, conferred a similar power on the Grammar School Trustees, did not pass; and that until the measures is carried no union can legally be effected.

Your Committee beg to recommend, as the result of their enquiries, assisted by a reference to the system of Education adopted in the best educated cities and towns of Great Britain and the United States, that a Central School be erected with as little delay as possible, on a plot of ground of not less than two acres, as near the centre of the city as circumstances will permit, which may provide for the accommodation of at least 1000 scholars.

Your Committee will here remark that the cost to the public of each scholar under our present ward system is from fifty to sixty shillings per year; while under the extensive and apparently expensive system of Boston, Providence, and other towns of the New England States, it does not exceed twenty-seven shillings and sixpence; and they are strongly inclined to think that, even in a pecuniary point of view, a system of centralization such as that proposed would be far more advantageous than the Sectional system.

Your Committee beg, in conclusion, to report that, one examining the plans prepared by Messrs. Cumberland and Ridout, for the proposed Normal and Model Schools in Toronto, which are to cost £3000, they found that a great deal of pains have been expended on them, as well by the architects, as by the officers of the Education Department, assisted by the teachers of the Normal School, and by every experience within reach; and your Committee being anxious to secure the advice and skill of the gentlemen who prepared them, requested them to sketch the plan of such a school house as was recommended by Messrs. Robertson and Hind, to be laid before your Board.

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN CANADA.

From a carefully prepared article upon Canadian Statistics in the *Montreal Pilot* of the 2d inst., we select the following, relating to the actual state and progress of miscellaneous Education, and Literature and Science, in Canada:—

II. EDUCATION.

Beginning with Elementary Schools, we refer with great pleasure to the progress made in that department. In Upper Canada there are 2871 schools, with 3209 teachers, and 138,465 scholars. In Lower Canada there are 1794 schools, and 67,982 scholars. Upper Canada has also a Normal School, the advantages of which have been already enjoyed by upwards of 600 Teachers—and a Council of Public Instruction.

In addition to the Elementary Schools, in Lower Canada, there are the Schools of the "Christian Brothers," containing 3694 pupils, and Nuns' Schools, with 2,000 pupils.

For the support of Elementary Schools the Legislature has voted

£50,000 per annum for these nine years past, in addition to the salaries and incidental expenses of the Education Department, which are charged on the Consolidated Fund.

Next, we have the Upper Canada Grammar Schools, 25 or 30 in number, supported by a Special Fund, arising out of the land set apart for this purpose in the reign of George III. The present annual income is about £4,500, and it is increasing.

Analogous to these institutions, in the Lower Province are the "High Schools" of Montreal and Quebec, certain "Academies" in the Eastern Townships, and the Roman Catholic "Seminaries" or "Colleges." The Seminary at Quebec contains 22 Professors and 385 students;—in the College at Montreal there are 18 Professors and 250 students. The other Colleges, nine in number, are situated in different parts of the Province, and are numerous attended, by the sons of the gentlemen of the country, and by those who design to enter the learned professions. They contain about 1400 students. Most of these institutions, with several others not named, and four Schools for Indians, receive aid from the Legislature.

The advantages of a University education, with the opportunity of obtaining degrees, may be enjoyed in Upper Canada at the University of Toronto, which is supplied with twelve Professors;—at Queen's College, Kingston, where there are five Professors; and at Victoria College, Cobourg, which has two Professors and three Tutors. There are also the Roman Catholic Colleges of Regiopolis, Kingston, with six Professors—and Bytown, where there are two and a Superior.

Similar advantages are offered at McGill College, Montreal, under two Professors and three Lecturers. The number of students, we believe, is very small. In the Medical Department there are eleven Professors, and 52 students.

Theological instruction is imparted to candidates for the Christian Ministry at the following places;—at Cobourg (U. C.) and Lennoxville (L. C.) to Church of England Students—at Queen's College, to Church of Scotland students—at Knox's College, Toronto, to Free Church students—and at the Congregational Theological Institute, and the Divinity Hall of the United Presbyterian Synod, in the same city, to the students of those denominations. Roman Catholic candidates for the priesthood, we believe, study at such of the existing colleges as may be indicated to them by the proper authorities.

Our educational arrangements, it may be asserted without fear of contradiction, are as complete as can ordinarily be found in so young a country.

III. LITERATURE AND SCIENCE.

Mechanics' Institutes are established in our principal cities and towns, and have contributed in an eminent degree to the diffusion of knowledge among the classes for whose benefit they are designed. The lectures delivered in connection with these Institutes during the winter season, and to which the public are admitted, embracing a great variety of subjects, literary, scientific, and historical, are usually well attended, and prove an attractive source of rational enjoyment.

Mercantile Library Associations have been formed in Quebec and Montreal, and have been productive of great benefit.

The Historical Society of Quebec, founded in 1824, under the auspices of Earl Dalhousie, is the only institution of the kind in Canada. Three volumes of its transactions have been published, containing much curious information. Besides its library, rich in historical lore, the Society possesses some very valuable manuscript documents, relating to the history of Canada.

The Natural History Society of Montreal, established in 1826, has a good library, furnished with the best scientific works, and an extensive museum. The mineralogical and botanical collections are remarkably fine; there is scarcely anything equal to them in North America. The stuffed specimens of the beasts and birds of Canada include nearly all the species peculiar to this Province. A course of lectures is delivered before this Society every winter; but we have not heard that it has promoted the advancement of science by original investigations, or the publication of Papers or Transactions. Scientific research, we apprehend, is not valued as it ought to be, in either section of the Province.

A Meteorological Register is kept at Montreal, and there is a Magnetical Observatory, maintained by Government, at Toronto. Their monthly reports are regularly published in the *British Ame-*

rican Medical and Physical Journal—a very meritorious publication.

The number of volumes in the Libraries of the undermentioned Institutions, is thus reported:—

Quebec Mechanics' Institute (founded 1830), 100 members	2000
Quebec Mercantile Library Association, 300 members . . .	8000
Quebec Historical Society	1400
Montreal Seminary	10,000
Do. do. private property of members	5000
Montreal College	8000
Do. Do. Students' Library	3000
Bibliothèque de Bons Livres, Montreal	5500
Montreal Natural History Society	1000
Montreal Mechanics' Institute (incorp. 1845) 569 members	1530
Montreal Mercantile Library Association (founded 1840)	
480 members	3866
Institut Canadien (founded 1844), 230 members	700
Baptist College, Montreal	2800
Advocates' Library	2000
Kingston Mechanics' Institute (founded 1834) 60 members	1100
Queen's College	3000
Regiopolis College	2000
Common School Libraries in Upper Canada	5,215
Sunday School Libraries in Upper Canada	50,732
Public Libraries in different parts of Upper Canada	11,624

There *was* a Library of great extent and value, belonging to the Parliament of Canada—but Montreal barbarians burnt it. The loss is in many respects irreparable.

Canada is far in advance of the Mother Country, in reference to the number and circulation of its newspapers. With a population of 1,500,000, we have, during the summer months, seven daily journals—two in Quebec, three in Montreal, one in Kingston, and one in Toronto—(there will be two more in Montreal next summer)—while the number of tri-weekly, semi-weekly, and weekly papers published in different parts of the Province amounts to upwards of eighty. This is a very gratifying fact, as it indicates an extensive reading population.

Our monthly periodicals are as yet but few, but they are respectably conducted. There will be several additions this year.

From the *Toronto Patriot*, of the 2nd January, 1851.

Then again, let us look at the means of education. Not many years since, to plant a family in the country, if it did not possess within itself the means of instructing the juvenile branches, was to condemn them to hopeless ignorance of every thing beyond the merest rudiments—to compel them to be hewers of wood and drudges all their days. But what do we find now!—Grammar Schools, one or more, in every district throughout the Upper Province, conducted by gentlemen [many of them clergymen] of talent and proficiency—in which both Classics and Mathematics are taught to a high grade. The character of Upper Canada College is well known, but how frequently has it happened that the well taught lads from that establishment have had to contend, severely and hardly, with those educated at the *Country Schools*. Private Schools of an equally high character abound—and it is not too much to say, that they are to be found equal to any private academies in Great Britain. Then again, our *Common Schools*, even under all the disadvantages of perpetual changes, the, perhaps, unavoidable results of the infancy of the system, have made amazing progress in the last few years, and we believe that in no part of the world has the labouring population more [in very few so many] advantages in this respect. To look up to the higher Seminaries, though we cannot expect yet to compete with the time-honoured Royal institutions of Oxford, Cambridge, Dublin, or Glasgow, we can proudly refer to our Toronto University as giving high promise of what may be expected. Besides this, we have the near prospect of, in some respects, a rival University, the funds for which have been provided solely by the members of the Church of England, the management to be under episcopal surveillance, but open for instruction and degrees to all. Again, we have the Wesleyan and Presbyterian Universities, and sundry Colleges for theological instruction belonging to other religious denominations.

FREE EDUCATION BY THE STATE.—We commend to our readers the following extract from a work recently published by an enlight-

ened clergyman in the city of New York. We conceive the argument to be unanswerable:—"This public provision for the education of the people, we have seen, is more or less interwoven with the policy of several of the most enlightened countries of Europe, and especially with that of our own. On what principle is the measure to be justified? What makes it either the right or duty of Government to employ the resources of a nation for the purposes of education? The thing is both justified and required, on the principle that the State is bound to promote and secure the best means for giving strength and stability to her own institutions, for the prevention as well as the punishment of crime, and for advancing the general welfare of the public. It is simply because education is essential to these great ends of Government that a State, as such, can either claim the right, or make it her duty, to employ the public property for the purposes of general instruction, or of diffusing the elements of knowledge. Ignorance is the parent of crime and degradation, and the State has the right to educate, if she has the right to punish, inasmuch as she is equally bound to use all due means for the prevention of crime, and to punish it when it has been committed.

POPULAR SCIENCE.

(Continued from Vol. III., Page 181.)

LATENT HEAT.

27. When bodies change their form, as ice, when it is changed into water; water into steam; a mixture of salt and snow into a liquid; or any solid into a fluid or gaseous state, a large amount of heat is observed to be *lost to the senses*. Thus, if we pour half a pound of boiling water upon a pound of ice, the ice melts, and the water produced is no warmer than the ice. If we boil water in an open vessel over a common fire, the water never acquires a higher temperature than 212° , although it is placed in a vessel exposed to a flame of at least 900° ; or, if we mix salt and snow together, each being at 32° , the resulting fluid will be found at 0° . In all these cases a large amount of Heat has disappeared, it has been consumed by the bodies in the act of changing their form, and has entered into their constitution. The Heat which disappears when a body changes its form from a solid to a fluid, or from a fluid to a gas or vapour, is said to become latent. It must not be supposed that any portion of Heat is *lost* or annihilated by this disappearance; it may be at once rendered sensible by a contrary change, as when gases or vapours are made to assume the form of a fluid, or fluids the forms of solids. If a cubic inch of water be converted by Heat into steam, and the vapour thus formed passed through water at the temperature of 32° , it will be found to contain a sufficient quantity of Heat to raise five and a half cubic inches to the boiling point. The temperature of steam is 212° at the level of the sea; since, when condensed, it is capable of raising five and a half times the quantity of ice-cold water as that from which it was produced to the boiling point, it has manifestly rendered latent no less than four and a half times 212° , or 954° . This large amount of Heat is required by steam to enable it to retain its form. The Heat serves to repel the minute particles of water from each other. If slowly abstracted, the particles of water will attract each other and assume the fluid state; if still further abstracted the fluid particles will attract each other with energy and take the form of ice.

28. It has been observed that steam contains 954° of latent Heat; a simple experiment will also convince us that water contains a considerable quantity of this wonderful agent in its latent or hidden state. If we take a pound of ice at 32° and a pound of boiling water at 212° , and mix them together, we shall find that the temperature of the fluid after the ice has melted exhibits only 52° . It appears, therefore, that the water has lost 160° and the ice gained 20° ; the difference, namely, 140° has been consumed by the ice in changing its form to that of water.

29. It will appear from the foregoing observations, that the solid, fluid, and gaseous forms of bodies are dependent upon the quantity of latent Heat they contain. We may suppose that particles of matter destitute of Heat, attract each other with wonderful energy. When they are enveloped with a certain quantity of Heat, the repulsive property of that agent overcomes their mutual attraction, the particles of matter move easily about one another and form a fluid; when the quantity of Heat surrounding each particle is greatly in-

creased, they repel each other and form a gas. It is supposed that all simple and many compound bodies can assume the solid, fluid, and gaseous states. Out of twenty-eight gases now known to chemists, twenty-five have been made to take the fluid form, and several that of a solid. The change is effected by pressure and cold.

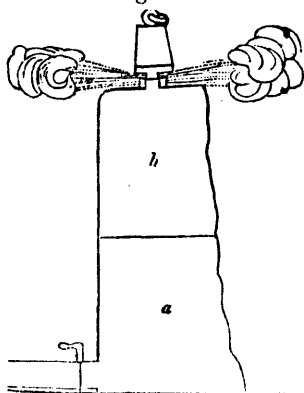
30. Since steam obtained from boiling water is a vapour, capable of being compressed, it follows, that there must exist a repulsive force between the particles of which a bubble is composed exactly equal to the pressure of the atmosphere, otherwise the bubble would be crushed as soon as formed. This does actually take place during the gradual elevation of the temperature of water. When kettles are filled with the fluid and placed upon the fire, we invariably hear "a singing" before the water begins to boil. The sound is produced by the crushing of bubbles of steam, formed against the hot sides of the vessel, and unable to resist the pressure of the atmosphere. A series of small explosions are produced, which occur with great rapidity, throwing the vessel into a state of vibration, and producing a musical note. When the temperature of the vessel and water rise to the boiling point, steam is formed of sufficient power to resist the weight of the superincumbent air.

31. The temperature of boiling water is dependent upon the pressure of the atmosphere. The act of boiling consists in the rapid formation of steam capable of resisting atmospheric pressure. When the pressure is equal to 0° , water will boil at a temperature of 70° . Since the higher we ascend from the earth, the less will be the superincumbent pressure, the height of mountains can be discovered by the boiling point of water upon their summits. It is found that for every five hundred and sixty feet above the level of the sea, the boiling point of water is reduced by one degree. At an altitude of 5600 feet, water will boil at 202° , at 11,200 feet of altitude, its temperature will be 192° . The pressure of the atmosphere upon the surface of the fluid diminishing as the altitude increases.

32. Take a common Florence flask and introduce a small quantity of water. Apply the heat of a spirit lamp until it boils violently, then cork the flask and remove the lamp. The upper part of the flask is now filled with steam, which slowly condenses as the vessel radiates its heat, and the pressure being partially removed from the surface of the fluid, it will begin to boil again for some minutes; when quiescent, pour cold water on the flask, the steam will then be altogether condensed, and the pressure being completely removed, the water will boil with increased energy.

33. When water is confined in close vessels and subjected to the heat of a fire, steam accumulates, and presses upon the surface of the fluid. The temperature of the water necessarily rises, in order to form steam capable of overcoming that pressure; but the quantity of steam continually increasing, and with it the pressure, the temperature of the boiling fluid will rise in the same ratio. The longer the operation continues, the greater will be the expansive force of the newly formed steam, otherwise each bubble would be crushed as produced. Thus, steam at a temperature of 212° exerts a pressure of 14 lbs. upon the square inch, exactly equal to the weight of the atmosphere; at 250° the force exerted will be 28 lbs. upon the same extent of surface; at 275° , 42 lbs.; at 320° , 84 lbs.; and at 439° , 350 lbs. By confining steam in properly constructed vessels, and increasing its expansive force, it may be converted into the motive power of the most useful machine, which the ingenuity of man has contrived, namely, the steam engine.

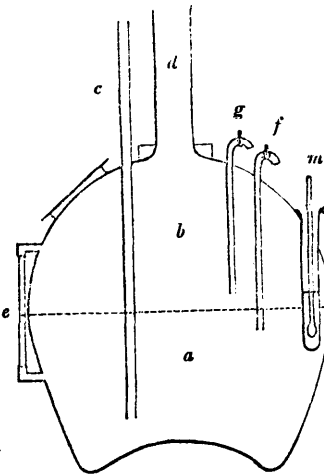
Fig. 6.



34. When steam is generated in a boiler, it is always necessary to provide a passage for its escape as soon as it acquires a certain expansive power due to its increased temperature, otherwise disastrous consequences might ensue. Fig. 6 represents a section of a boiler provided with a loaded valve. Let us suppose, that the temperature of the steam in the boiler is 275° , it will then exert a pressure equal to 42 lbs. upon the square inch (see Art. 33). The pressure of the atmosphere on the outside is 14 lbs. to

the square inch, therefore the actual force tending to burst the boiler is 28 lbs. on the same unit of surface. If the orifice of the valve is one square inch in area, a weight of 28 lbs. will have to be placed upon it, in order to confine the steam. Now, if the temperature increases one degree, the expansive force of the steam will be greater than 28 lbs. on the square inch, the weight will therefore be lifted and the steam escape, until its expansive force is reduced below the pressure of the weight.

Fig. 7.



35. In the construction of boilers, various artifices are employed to afford means for ascertaining the temperature of the steam, and the quantity of water in the boiler. Fig. 7 is a sectional diagram of some of these important parts of its structure. The space in the boiler occupied by water is indicated by the dotted line and marked *a*; the upper portion, *b*, is filled with steam; *d* is the pipe which conveys the steam to the cylinder; *c*, the feed pipe, through which water is forced into the boiler; *e*, a strong glass tube to enable the engineer to see the height of the water; *m*, a thermometer, placed in an iron tube descending into the boiler, and half filled with quicksilver; the object of the introduction of this instrument is to indicate the temperature, and by that means the expansive force of the steam. *f* and *g* are two pipes provided with stop-cocks, one terminating just above the proper height of the water in the boiler, the other just below that height. When *g* is turned, steam should rush out, and water when *f* is turned. If steam come out of both there is too little water in the boiler, if water come out of both, there is too much of that fluid present.

EVAPORATION.

36. The conversion of any liquid into vapour by heat is termed evaporation. It will appear from what has been said in Art. 27, that the change depends altogether upon the transformation of sensible heat into latent heat. Whenever evaporation takes place from the surface of a fluid at ordinary temperatures, without the intervention of direct solar or artificial heat, a supply of that agent must be afforded by surrounding bodies. Evaporation takes place at all temperatures: when the air is not loaded with moisture, even ice and snow evaporate. If a known quantity of either of those bodies be weighed in the evening and exposed to a temperature below the freezing point, they will be found to have sensibly diminished in weight before the morning. Evaporation takes place to a very great extent from the leaves of vegetables and the skin of most animals. The universal tendency of evaporation must necessarily be to diminish the temperature not only of the fluid from which it directly proceeds, but also of all surrounding bodies. The warmth of the soil after a hot summer's day decreases rapidly, owing to radiation, and the evaporation of the moisture it contains. It is evident that soils containing much moisture will be of a colder character than those which are comparatively dry. A vast amount of the earth's heat, is hourly rendered latent by the evaporation of seas, rivers, and soils. The vapour rises into the atmosphere, and when it comes into cold upper regions, it condenses and forms clouds, giving off at the same time much of its latent heat in the sensible state. It is thus that we become aware of another beautiful adaptation for modifying the heat of the earth and the cold of elevated regions. The property of the spontaneous evaporation of water at all temperatures, is of great importance. A constant supply of vapour to form clouds is being continually given off into the air, otherwise seasons of drought would inevitably follow the winter months, and tend to convert the temperate zones into arid deserts, enlivened only by a brief and scanty vegetation during a few summer months.

37. The process of evaporation is much employed in the Arts. Fig. 8, represents a glass or iron vessel called a retort, into which

the fluid to be evaporated is introduced, the long neck terminates in a receiver surrounded with cold water, in which the vapour is condensed.

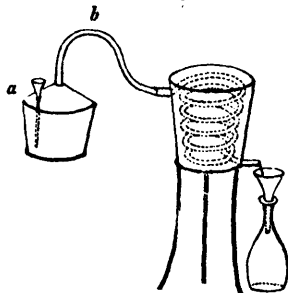
Fig 8.



When delicate preparations of certain vegetables are required, the retort is heated by steam. In the Apothecaries' Halls of London and Dublin, large ranges of retorts are submitted to the uniform and subdued temperature of steam, where the heat of a lamp, fire, or sand bath would prove of too irregular and intense a character. In the various processes of distillation and refining, the limited temperature of ordinary steam is often found too high. In such cases the pressure of the atmosphere is partially removed from the surface of the fluid, which is then capable of boiling at reduced temperatures, at the same time, that tendency towards decomposition which is induced in many bodies

by heat is completely overcome. Thus, in the preparation of loaf sugar, it is found that the temperature of 212° converts a large portion of the pure crystals of sugar into treacle; this change does not take place when the syrup is boiled at a low temperature. It is therefore found highly convenient and economical to boil the syrup in close vessels from which the air has been partially pumped out—the pressure being removed from the surface of the liquid, the necessary boiling process goes on at a very low temperature, without the formation of treacle.

Fig. 9.



38. When distillation is required on a large scale, the instrument illustrated in Fig. 9 is employed. *a* is called the still, to which the heat of a fire or of steam is applied; the pipe *b* leads into a vessel termed the refrigerator, which is filled with cold water. The dotted line represents the continuation of the pipe *b* coiled round in the refrigerator, it is here called the worm. The cold water condenses the vapour in the worm; the fluid formed

flows out into a receiver as shown in the diagram.

HEAT OF COMPOSITION.—SPECIFIC HEAT.

39. If two bodies, such as water and quicksilver, be exposed to the same degree of heat for the same length of time, the quicksilver will be found to have acquired a much higher temperature than the water. It appears that different bodies require unequal quantities of heat to increase their temperature uniformly. A certain quantity of heat enters, as it were, into the composition of the bodies and becomes latent. Water renders latent more heat of composition than quicksilver, before its temperature is increased to the same degree. It is found by experiment that: gases require more than fluids, and fluids more than solids. The relative quantity of heat rendered latent by different bodies, in order to raise their temperature through a certain number of degrees, is termed their *Specific Heat*. (The heat required by the species or kind of body.) The more dense a body becomes, the less will be its specific heat. Hence, air when compressed has its temperature increased, that heat being given out which it required for the preservation of its form before compression. Again, air suddenly rarefied has its specific heat greatly increased, and a portion of its sensible heat is rendered latent. Hence, the sudden expansion of air produces cold. When, therefore, currents of warm air containing dissolved vapour of water rise into the upper regions of the atmosphere, the diminished pressure enables them to expand; a portion of their sensible heat becomes latent, and produces a reduction of temperature, which condenses the aqueous vapour and originates clouds. The average diminution of temperature due to the expansion of air in its upward course, is one degree for every 300 feet of elevation above the earth. If, therefore, a body of heated air, containing vapour of water, rise to the height of 3000 feet, its temperature will be reduced by rarefaction alone, 10° , and consequently a portion of its dissolved vapour will be condensed, and assume the form of a mist.

SOURCES OF HEAT.

40. The chief source of Heat is the sun. Rays proceed in all directions from that luminary through the planetary spaces. When an assemblage of rays penetrate the atmosphere of the earth, they

are immediately affected by the ponderable medium through which they pass. The quantity arriving at the earth is about four-fifths of that which first entered the atmosphere at its outermost limits. During their passage one portion is either reflected back into the planetary spaces, or from particle to particle of the substance of air. Another portion is absorbed and elevates the temperature of the absorbing medium.

41. Of terrestrial sources of heat, Combustion is the most important. All artificial processes of obtaining fire and light are illustrations of the remarkable evolution of latent heat resulting from a chemical change in the burning bodies. Friction affords us another method of developing this wonderful agent. The last source necessary to be mentioned exists in ourselves. The process of respiration produces an abundant supply of natural warmth.

PRODUCTION OF HIGH AND LOW TEMPERATURES.

42. An intense heat is produced when the solar rays are condensed by means of a burning glass. Many bodies resist the highest temperature of a wind furnace, but melt like snow before the flame of the oxy-hydrogen blow-pipe. A powerful current of galvanic electricity passing through a small space of atmospheric air develops a very intense degree of heat. The following tables contain a number of freezing mixtures, which are capable of reducing the temperature of bodies plunged into them many degrees below the freezing point. In using the materials care must be taken to mix them in very thin glass vessels, otherwise the low temperature indicated will not be attained:—

Mixtures.	Parts.	Thermometer Falls.
Nitrate of Ammonia	1	From 50° to 4° .
Water.....	1	
Sulphate of Soda [Glauber Salts]....	3	From 50° to -3° .
Diluted Nitric Acid.....	2	
Sulphate of Soda.....	8	From 50° to 0° .
Muriatic Acid	5	
Sulphate of Soda.....	5	From 50° to 3° .
Diluted Sulphuric Acid	4	
Snow	3	From 32° to -23° .
Diluted Sulphuric Acid.....	2	
Snow	8	From 32° to -27° .
Muriatic Acid	5	
Snow	7	From 32° to -30° .
Diluted Nitric Acid.....	4	
Snow	3	From 32° to -51° .
Potash	4	

Educational Intelligence.

CANADA.

Items.—The Boards of Public Instruction in the various counties of Upper Canada have set to work vigorously in the performance of their duties. The examination of Teachers, from the published Reports of the several Boards, seems to have been thorough and satisfactory. The third class Teachers are, however, the most numerous, and the first class least so. It is to be hoped that each successive year will witness a decrease in the number of third class Teachers; and that they will not cease their efforts of improvement until they elevate themselves to the dignity of first class Teachers.—Part of the 1,000,000 acres of land set apart by the Government in 1849 for the purpose of creating an annual fund of £100,000 for the support of Common Schools in Canada have been put into the market for sale. The land for sale is situated in the vicinity of Owen's Sound.—The examination of the Common Schools in Port Hope on the 24th Dec. before the Revd. Messrs. I. Shortt and G. Goodson, is reported as very satisfactory. An intelligent spectator writes as follows on the subject in the Port Hope Watchman:—"But, sir, I think we have seen the worst days of Teachers in Canada, as elsewhere, and I think the Schoolmaster is really abroad! that his exertions are taking effect—that his self denial is appreciated, and his position is improved—improving. With all the faults of the Chief Superintendent, I believe no other man has done or could do so much for education here as the Rev. Egerton Ryerson! I may be mistaken, sir, when I attribute all this improvement to him. Yet I think I do him no more than justice when I say, he has stirred the thinking portion of Canada to its very centre on the all important subject of education. Untiring, energetic, vigilant, and sagacious, he has upheaved a mass of lethargy in this Canada, incapable of being moved by any less powerful means. I bear an unwilling testimony.—The Free School Question seems to have influenced in a good degree the elections of School Trustees for 1851 in the several cities and towns of Upper Canada. Prescott, Niagara, Hamilton

and London, are examples.—From the *Picton Sun* we learn that Dr. Whitley's lectures on Education, as local Superintendent, are creating some interest in his township. His re-appointment is hailed with much pleasure.—The examination of the Carleton, Leeds and Grenville, and Wentworth and Halton County Grammar Schools are reported as highly satisfactory.—The Rev. Alexander Luke, of the Prescott Grammar School, has been lately presented by his pupils "with a beautiful and costly pencil case with a gold pen, as a token of their high regard for him." How grateful to a Teacher must be such a tribute of esteem and affection on the part of his pupils!—The examination of Mr. D. Watson's school, London, C. W., on the 24th Dec., exhibited the result of much solicitude on the part of the Teacher, and proficiency on the part of the pupils.—John Kirkland, Esq. local Superintendent at Guelph, is writing an excellent series of articles for the serious consideration of persons at the Annual School Meetings.—Various papers in the Province extract liberally from our Educational and Literary Summaries without the slightest acknowledgment!

New Professorships, Toronto University.—A Lectureship on Hebrew and Oriental Literature has been established in the Toronto University, and Mr. J. M. Hirschfelder, so well known amongst us for some years past, has been appointed to the office. This appointment has given general satisfaction. An important bill is now before the Senate of the University, for the establishment of a Professorship of Agriculture, and an Experimental School, in connection with the Provincial Board of Agriculture. It is supposed that the fees in the several University Classes will be reduced, and means will be taken to increase the number and value of the Prizes.—[Patriot.]

Education in Brockville.—Our Town Schools are becoming very efficient. The Principal of the Grammar School, James Windeat, Esq., A. B. of Cambridge University, well sustains, in this distant land the character of his *Alma Mater*. We believe there is not in the Province a better or more eminent seminary of learning than the Brockville Grammar School; nor is there one in all the Districts of Upper Canada, that has been more successful, in obtaining for its pupils prizes, and other rewards and promotions, in the University of Toronto. The Common Schools are also in an efficient state, and the Teachers, Messrs. M'Kerris, Cosgrove, Miller, and Shaw, appear to give general satisfaction to the Board of Trustees, in their respective wards. In addition to the Public Schools there are many Private Seminaries, both Male and Female, in which the rudiments of a sound literary education are being communicated to the youth of the town. There are Private Schools taught by Miss M'Kerris, Miss Kelly, Miss M'Clean, Miss Miller, and Miss Glass, and by Mrs. Campbell, Mrs. English, and Mrs. Drummond, in all of which young Ladies are sure to have their morals attended to, and their taste for literature, music, drawing, and polite accomplishments improved. In the school of Miss M'Kerris we observed some really elegant flowers and other specimens in wax, which are highly creditable to the young lady artists.—*Statesman*.

[The *Recorder*, of the 20th Dec., reports the examination of several of the foregoing schools as very gratifying and satisfactory. Several essays by pupils of the Common School were read, and elicited much interest and applause. *Ed. J. of Ed.*]

BRITISH AND FOREIGN.

Convention at Queen's College, Cork.—The interesting ceremony took place in the spacious and beautiful Examination Hall of the College, which was completely filled by a most respectable auditory, who manifested the liveliest interest in the proceedings. Every seat was occupied, whilst many who were unable to obtain any better accommodation stood around the room.

Thurles College, Ireland.—The Pope has conferred the diploma of D. D. on the Rev. P. Leahey, President of Thurles College, whence emanated the recent memorable Protest of the Roman Catholic Bishops against the Queen's Colleges.

At York £1,400 have been raised by a bazaar, for ragged schools.

UNITED STATES.

Items.—At the anniversary New England Dinner lately held in New York, the following toast was proposed and eloquently responded to. "The *Common School*—the tree of Knowledge originally planted in New England—its seeds are wafted over the continent."—Two gentlemen have recently made a donation of \$4,000 to the Wesleyan Wyoming Seminary.—At the recent convention for revising the Constitution of New Hampshire, the recommendation of the Committee on Education was adopted, providing "permanent provision for Free Schools throughout the State.—Jenny Lind gave a free concert to the children of the Public Schools at Baltimore, on the evening of the 13th ult.

Literary and Scientific Intelligence.

Items.—The distribution of Prizes of the American Art Union took place on the 20th of December. The Receipts for 1849 have been \$96,492. 1,000 works of art were distributed, many of them rare and beautiful pictures. But one prize reached Toronto, and that to the Honorary Secretary, Mr. Rowsell. Mr. Simmonds of Hamilton obtained another.—The *Christian Socialist*, the organ of the new liberal and reforming class of things spiritual and temporal, has appeared. In this journal will be found "clergymen and the friends of clergymen, openly avowing they will fight for the cause they hold as true, yea, even in the ranks of chartists and infidels; recognizing truth even when propounded by their antagonists, and resolved to merge differences in the broad union of agreement"—a heroic age we live in, truly!—Henry Mayhew's "Pictures of London Life," as Commissioner of the *Morning Chronicle*, are to be enlarged, and published in weekly numbers, with the title, "*London Labour and London Poor: a Cyclopaedia of the Social Condition and Economy of those who Will Work, those who Cannot Work, and those who Will Not Work.*"—Mr. D'Israeli is writing the life of Lord George Bentinck, late Leader of the Protectionists of England, at the request of the Duke of Portland, his father.—The original MS. of *Waverley* has been presented to the Advocates' Library, Edinburgh, by Mr. I. Hall, brother of Capt. Basil Hall, who had paid forty guineas for it in 1831.—Sir Jn. Herschell will succeed Mr. Shiel as Master of the Mint.—Her Majesty has granted a pension of £100 a-year to Mr. John Payne Collier, editor of *Shakespeare*, and author of the *History of the English Stage*.—According to the will of the poet, the collection famous in Germany, as the *Goethe Inheritance*, is to be sold. It is proposed to buy the house in which the collection is, but the heirs—his two grandsons—refuse to turn the old homestead into a show-room.—The Goldsmiths' Company of London offer a prize of £1,000 for the best samples of design and workmanship in gold and silver by British artists. Smaller prizes in other departments are given by other parties. The proprietors of the London Art-Journal offer a prize of 100 guineas for the best essay "On the best mode of rendering the Exhibition of 1851 practically useful to the British manufacturer." The Essay will be published in the *Art-Journal*, in July.—The crystal palace is to be enlarged to the extent of 45,000 superficial feet, to make room for extra exhibitions.—The *Pearl*, from Canada, has arrived in England, with ninety packages of the productions of Canada for the Exhibition.—Mr. A. A. Applegarth, the eminent machinist, has received a commission to erect a great printing machine, on his latest principle, for the Exhibition of 1851. It is intended to be used to throw off copies of the *Illustrated London News*, in three languages, before the visitors.—Mr. Funnell, of Brighton, is constructing a watch smaller in circumference than a threepenny piece, for the Exhibition of 1851; Mr. John Burton, of Bradford, is also constructing a beautiful little tea-kettle, made from a fourpenny piece. This curiosity is complete in every particular, possessing spout, hanger, and lid with a hinge on, the whole fitting compactly into a common Brazilian nut, mounted with a single hinge.—Germany has lost one of her most popular poets, Gustavus Schwab, at the age of only 58. Schwab was the friend of Uhland.—*La Nacion* says that the tomb of the "Cid" has just been found at Burgos, in an antechamber of the *ayuntamiento*. The remains of Don Rodrigue Campeador and Chimene his wife, immortalised by ancient legend and the poem Guilhon de Castro and Corneille, were deposited in an old trunk. On this trunk, placed as rubbish, was the chair on which the ancient counts of Castile, Diego, Pannelo, Nuno, Rasura, and Lain Calvo rendered justice. The history of the two lovers has been greatly embellished by romancers. Chimene was the daughter of Don Diego Alvoras, and not of a count of Gormas who was killed in a duel by the Cid.—A good translation of the late Rev. Henry Coleman's book on Agriculture in France, Belgium, Holland, and Switzerland, has just been published in Brussels. It is from the pen of the Baron Hector le Bailly de Tillegem Mortier, who has added a great variety of interesting and useful notes.—An exposition of the products of national industry is now going on at Madrid.—The London *Athenaeum* says, that all information from travellers in Africa affords reasonable grounds for believing that the interior of that continent consists of an immense table-land, extending from the mountains of Meridefy, south of Lake Tchad, as far as the Cape of Good Hope, and inhabited by nations less barbarous than the other Africans. It is more of a European than of a tropical country.

Canadian Antiquities.—A Quebec paper mentions that in laying bare the foundation of the old French Episcopal Palace, preparatory to the completion of the Legislative Assembly Buildings, the remains of human bones were discovered, as well as a tomb carefully built in masonry. More recently the workmen have come upon the corner stone of the Chapel attached to the palace, in which was found a leaden plate, bearing the inscription which appears below:—

ANNO DOMINI MDCXCIV INNOCENTII PAPAE XII ANNO III. LUDOVICI XIII FRANCORUM REGIS LI, PRIMUM PALATII SUI EPISCOPALIS LAPIDEM POSUIT JOANNES DE CRUCE DE ST. VALLIERE ECCLESIAE QUINQUEMONTIS EPISCOPUS, DELPARI ET DIVO LUDOVICO EIUSDEM ECCLESIAE PATRONIS, AUSPICIBUS.

OXYGEN MAGNETIC.—Mr. Faraday, at the last monthly meeting of the Royal Institution, announced to the members present his discovery (the subject of a paper sent in to the Royal Society) that oxygen is magnetic, that this property of the gas is affected by heat, and that he believed the diurnal variation of the magnetic needle to be due to the action of solar heat on this newly discovered characteristic of oxygen—the important constituent of the atmosphere. We do not mean to give the above as the terms of Faraday's announcement, or as the exact facts of the conclusion drawn from his last experimental researches, but only as a foreshadowing of the new result and views of one of our most eminent British philosophers. We must add, however, that Becquerel also has recently directed attention to a somewhat similar conclusion; he communicated to the Academy of Sciences at Paris, that oxygen is magnetic in relation to the other gases, as iron is to the rest of the metals, and inferred that it is probable or possible (we have not the paper by us to refer to) that the diurnal variation may be connected with this property of oxygen.—*Literary Gazette.*

Newspapers and Periodicals.—One hundred and fifty years ago there was not a single newspaper in England: and it is not two hundred years since the first idea of a regular newspaper was conceived in that island, to rouse the people to resist the Spanish Armada. Now in the United Kingdom there are 547 newspapers. In the year ending January 5th, 1849, 90,928,408 newspaper stamps were issued in the kingdom, of which 76,180,832 were in England alone. After full and careful examination, it is estimated that the aggregate yearly issue of newspapers, magazines, and reviews, from the City of New York alone, in the year 1849, was 72,810,257, of which between nine and ten millions were periodicals.

Editorial Notices, &c.

LOCAL SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS are required by the 10th clause of the 31st section of the School Act, to transmit their Annual Reports for 1850 to the Chief Superintendent, "on or before the 1st day of March." It is possible that the Legislature will meet in February. It is therefore important that those Reports should reach the Education Office with the least possible delay, as very little time will remain to prepare the Chief Superintendent's General Annual Report, to lay before the Legislature before it rises. The Session will probably be a short one. We earnestly request that the Superintendents will *add up* each column of their Report before transmitting it to the Educational Department.

PROGRESS OF FREE SCHOOLS.—We take the following resolution from the last number of the *Examiner*, illustrating, as it does, the progress of enlightened views upon the subject of Education in the rural School Sections. The resolution was passed at the annual school meeting of Union Section, No. 3, Mariposa and Cartwright:

"Resolved,—That this meeting regards the present School Act as an important improvement on former legislation for the support of Common Schools; and we are of opinion that it only requires the addition [of other funds] to the Common School fund to make it a blessing to the youth of our land; and to enable our patriotic Superintendent to realize what he so ardently hopes to see,—the light of a Free School emitting its splendour and imparting its blessings to every child of every school section in Upper Canada."

Our acknowledgments are due to JAMES W. DAWSON, Esquire, Superintendent of Education for the Province of Nova-Scotia, for a copy of his "Preliminary Report" on Schools; and also for a copy of his Tract on "SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE, abridged from Barnard's School Architecture, with notes" and wood cuts. A copy of this Tract has been furnished to each School District in Nova-Scotia.

THE SCHOOL REGISTERS are not quite ready. The orders already sent in to the Education Office will be executed on the completion of the stitching and binding.

FOURTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE BOARD OF REGENTS OF THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION.

To the Senate and House of Representatives, showing the Operations, Expenditures, and condition of the Institution during the year 1849. Washington, 1850. 8vo., pp. 64.

A most valuable official document, for which we beg to thank the Officers of the Smithsonian Institution. Of the Report of the Secretary (Professor HENRY) on the general operation of the Institution, and of the Assistant Secretary (Professor JEWETT) on Public Libraries

in the United States, we hope to be able to avail ourselves in a future number of the *Journal*. Monthly meteorological returns have been made to the Institution by various gentlemen in each of the American States, as well as from HER MAJESTY'S Magnetical Observatories in Canada, Nova-Scotia, and Newfoundland. From the explanatory synopsis given by the Secretary of the "memoirs" of the forthcoming second volume of "Smithsonian Contributions," we anticipate a deeply interesting and valuable work.

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE NEW-YORK CITY AND COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS:

To the Hon. CHRISTOPHER MORGAN, State Superintendent of Common Schools, for the year 1849. New-York, 1850. 8vo., pp. 24.

We beg to thank Mr. McKEEN for his Annual Report, from which we hope to select for our next number, some valuable and interesting facts and statistics relating to the progress of popular education and free schools in the City and County of New-York.

WATER CURE JOURNAL,

And Herald of Reforms. New-York: FOWLER and WELLS. 4to., pp. 24. \$1 per annum.

A very interesting looking publication. Upon its professional merits we can express no opinion, but it appears to be a valuable and spirited periodical. Several of the more important articles and reviews are illustrated with neatly engraved wood cuts.

METHODIST QUARTERLY REVIEW.

Rev. J. McCLINTOCK, D.D., Editor. Published by LANE and SCOTT, New-York. January, 1851. 8vo., pp. 186. \$2 per annum.

The literary papers in this number of the Quarterly are most interesting and valuable. They are: "Divine Agency in Material Phenomena;" "Present State of Astronomy;" "Campbell's Life and Letters," and "Neander." The papers on CAMPBELL and NEANDER are written with much genuine sympathy with the peculiarities and characters of these distinguished men. The "Literary Notices" and "Intelligence," &c., evince much industry and ability on the part of the Editor.

KUHNER'S LATIN GRAMMAR;

With Exercises, Latin Reader, and Vocabularies. Translated and Remodelled by Professor J. T. CHAMPLIN, of Waterville College. Boston, PHILLIPS & Co. 12mo., pp. 435.

This work seems to have been remodelled with great care. The arrangement and division of subjects are very good. The Grammar may be regarded as a production of Professor CHAMPLIN rather than of KUHNER, as it embodies Prof. C.'s own views and modes of teaching the rudiments of the Latin language. It will prove an admirable assistant to a student of the grand and stately language of CICERO and VIRGIL,

WANTED a qualified TEACHER for School Section No. 2, 4th Concession Scarborough. A liberal Salary will be given. Apply to JOHN ELLIOTT, JOHN TEADZEL, or M. MACKLEN, Trustees.—20th Jan., 1851.

WANTED a FEMALE TEACHER thoroughly qualified in all the usual branches of a plain English education. Salary \$50. Apply to WM. HEPBURN; Secretary, School Trustees, Chippewa.—20th Jan., 1851.

WANTED a TEACHER for School Section No. 1, Township of Erin. He must be competent to teach Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, Bookkeeping, Grammar, and the outlines of Geography. Salary \$50 per annum. Apply to JAS. TAYLOR, WM. McDONALD, and ALEXANDER LAIRD, Trustees, Erin.—18th January, 1851.

WANTED immediately for Section No. 8, Township of Stanley, County of Huron, a good TEACHER. None with less than 2nd class certificates need apply. Address the Trustees, Bayfield, Post Office.—16th January, 1851.

TORONTO: Printed and published by THOMAS HUGH BENTLEY.

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