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JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

FOR

Upper Canada.

Vol. I.

TORONTO, JUNE, 1848.

No. 6.

OBLIGATIONS OF EDUCATED MEN.

An Address delivered before the Senate and Students of Victoria College, May 2nd, 1848, by the Chief Superintendent of Schools for Upper Canada.

I am to address you on the OBLIGATIONS OF EDUCATED MEN. It is a subject which assumes the capacity of man for indefinite improvement—the adaptation of man for society—the relations of man to his fellow-man—the principles of social organization—the influence of one generation upon the character and destinies of another. It is a subject which involves the highest responsibility of individuals and classes, the deepest, widest interests of society at large.

Our first inquiry is,—on whom do these obligations rest? who are educated men? These are relative terms; they have been differently understood in different ages and countries; they are variously used in the same country, according as they are applied to different professions, trades and employments. Education in China and Persia means a different thing from education in England and America; the educated man of ancient Sparta was not the educated man of ancient Athens; nor is the educated man of the middle ages the educated man of modern ages. Nay, the history of government, of physical science, of the practical arts, shows that the educated man of even the last century is not the educated man of the present century. It would be interesting to inquire into the different and various applications of these terms in both ancient and modern ages, among Asiatics, Africans, Europeans, and Americans; but this would be on inquiry aside from our present design, and require time beyond the present hour. It is sufficient for our present purpose to remark, that by education we do not mean professional attainments; and by educated men we do not refer merely to gentlemen of the sacred, medical, legal, or military profession. By the term 'Education,' we mean the training and preparation requisite for the duties of life; and by the phrase 'educated man,' we mean, in the widest sense of the expression, every man who knows more than his next neighbour. He may be uneducated in comparison of those who know more than himself; but he is educated in respect to his less instructed neighbours. Thus the *triarrii* of a CÆSAR's legion would be but raw recruits in the army of a NAPOLEON or a WELLINGTON; and the venerable prelate of the middle ages could not obtain a Common School Master's certificate in the present age.

The boor of the Court may be the APOLLO or 'Squire of the country neighbourhood ; and the pupil of one school may be the teacher of another. By educated men, then, we mean the professional men who know more than the non-professional men ; the teachers who know more than the pupils ; the intelligent who know more than the ignorant ; the parent who knows more than the children. Society embraces them all as its members ; it claims the services of them all as its property. They are the guardians and mentors of the coming generation ; they should impress upon it the characteristics of virtue and patriotism. They are Trustees of the best inheritance for their country ; they should nobly fulfill their sacred trust. They are moral agents ; they should faithfully employ the powers, possessions, and advantages for which they are responsible. Such are the four grounds on which we propose to illustrate the *Obligations of Educated Men*.

I. They are members of Society, and, as such, are part and parcel of its property. "It is not good for man to be alone." Thus spoke the ALMIGHTY when he made man ; and thus speaks the very law of man's constitution, and the history of the human race. The law of Revelation and the law of nature are in harmony. In the conjugal relation, we see it in the numerical proportion of the sexes—in the courage, strength, enterprise of the one, and the fortitude, susceptibility, dependence of the other—in their mutual qualities, affections, and sympathies—in their adaptation to promote each other's happiness. Here is a law prior to, and stronger than all human law ; and in immediate connexion with it, we have the law of parental affection—another mysterious element of the human constitution—a wonderful provision of divine wisdom and goodness—and which is the fountain of social order, and the basis of social improvement. But families multiply into tribes and nations ; new wants multiply in a corresponding ratio ; and the social affections admit of a like expansion. Hence love of kindred, love of nation, love of country ; and hence institutions adapted to the national necessities. The basis of these institutions is the common safety, and the object of them is the common welfare. They are founded on the will of God, and are, as St. PAUL says, "the powers that be, which are ordained of God ;" and they approach the beneficent object of their primary establishment, just in proportion as they regard all their subjects as children of the same family, provide equally for them all security of person, liberty, and property, and diffuse among them all, like the dew of heaven, the advantages and blessings of the common association. Thus the *state* is the *principal* in the compact of which *government* is the *agent*—the means to an end ; and that end is, the safety, the prosperity, the happiness of the *state*—including alike each individual of which the state is composed.

It is true, the powerful agent or institution of government, like the marriage institution itself, has been and may be abused to the purposes of individual selfishness and ambition. It has been perverted into a fearful instrument of oppression and conquest ; and so has the sacred institution of the Christian Church. But "from the beginning it was not so." God himself designed that "the powers that be," whether civil or ecclesiastical, should be "an instrument of God for good," and not of evil to any man, much less to any people. Divine wisdom has not seen it good for "man to be alone" in families, any more than in celibacy ; and civil institutions are the appropriate sequel to the domestic. But under the one, no more than under the other, is man isolated from his fellow man. The state is a symbol of union, not of

isolation. The government is a bond of strength, a means of co-operation, and not an instrument of individual severance and selfishness. Indeed there is no such thing among men as independence, except in the conceptions of pride and ignorance. Even the rich cannot say to the poor, "we are independent of you," any more than can "the eye say to the hand I have no need of thee." The individual links in the chain of human society are mutually and equally depending upon each other; and this chain of dependence, in its remoter ramifications, encircles the entire globe; the four quarters of which are often laid under contribution for the furniture of a single house, and supply the provisions for a single table. Climates and zones are so many belts of unity for the human family; the oceans and seas are highways of unrestricted intercourse; and the arts of manufacture, commerce, and navigation are alike the developments and instruments of an universal *fraternity*. "God has made of one blood all nations of men to dwell on all the face of the earth." The actual wants and circumstances of man are in harmony with this revealed fact and purpose of his creation; the word of Revelation proclaims *one blood*, the law of man's condition acknowledges *one interest*; the voice of mankind instinctively testifies to both the benevolence and truth of this Revelation of God, and infidelity stands abashed in the face of the nations.

But if the relations of men of different nations to each other—technically termed *external*—are thus intimate, and involve so many obligations of mutual good will, friendship, and sympathy; how much more intimate are those relations which are termed *internal*—the relation of a government to its own constituents, the relations of the members of the same state to each other! The vital principle of these civil relations is—as expressed by PALEY—that "the interest of the whole society is binding upon every part of it. No rule, short of this, will provide for the stability of civil government, or for the peace and safety of social life."* The spirit of this rule is the soul of true patriotism, and involves the obligations which we desire to enforce upon educated men. It teaches each man that he is closely related to others; that he is a constituent part of a whole; that he is not "to live to himself;" that each is to live for the good of each and of all; that the obligations of each are in proportion to his ability. It is, in a word, the embodiment of that sublime sentiment of St. PAUL—(for we must go to the Book of God for the highest exemplification of every thing pure and noble)—"*every one members one of another.*" Legislation approaches perfection in as far as it embodies this principle; the administration of government is the agent of good just as it acts upon it; society realizes the great end of its association in exact proportion as each individual part of it exemplifies the spirit of sympathetic identity with every other part; the spirit of CINCINNATUS, who blended the noblest patriotism with industrious contentment on four acres of land—the spirit of ARISTIDES and EPAMINONDAS, who exercised the highest public virtues in the midst of great personal poverty: above all, the spirit of HIM "who went about doing good." And "no disciple is above his master, or servant above his lord."

The practical obligations of this principle thus pervade all ranks and classes

* Moral and Political Philosophy, chap. iii.

of society, and are no less imperative upon the peasant in his lowly obscurity than upon the Sovereign in the magnificence and responsibility of empire. The obligations of each private soldier of the allied army at Waterloo, were identical in principle, only differing in circumstances, with those of WELLINGTON and BLUCHER. But while none are exempt from the weight of these obligations, they rest with peculiar force upon those to whom Society has been more generous and God more bountiful than to others. Those who have received much are bound to act and give in proportion. This remark is especially applicable to the subject of education; which is pre-eminently, in all its degrees and phases, a *public interest*. It has been so recognized in various acts of the Legislature; and the extent of each man's pecuniary obligation to support and extend it, has been determined by parliamentary enactment. The last amended Common School Act for Upper Canada has exempted every parent and guardian in a City or Incorporated Town from paying a Trustee's Rate-bill for the School-teaching of his children, by providing that every man in each City and Town shall pay by assessment according to his property for the education of every child, and that every child shall have the right and facilities of being educated, whatever may be the poverty or destitution of his parents. But though civil law can regulate and prescribe the pecuniary responsibility of each man in the community for the education of youth, it cannot enforce his moral responsibility—it may reach his pocket, but it cannot penetrate his conscience. This is the province of morals, not of legislation; and this is the obligation which I wish to press upon educated men. Are their physical resources liable to contribution in proportion to their amount for the instruction of youth, and are they not subject to a corresponding moral obligation for their mental endowments? Are not intellectual powers more valuable than pounds and pence, and is not knowledge worth more than dollars and cents? Are they required to pay in proportion to the latter, and are they under no obligation to exercise the former?

Besides, the educated men to whom I refer are debtors to society, as well as constituent parts of it. To every one of our Colleges the State is a contributor; not one of them would be in existence but for such contribution; and all our Common Schools are likewise aided out of the public Treasury; and both Colleges and Schools exist under laws enacted by the State. For whatever advantages we have received at any one of these institutions, we are therefore, in no small degree, indebted to the State; that is, to those who provide its resources and are the arbiters of its laws. Have Colleges and Schools been thus aided by endowments or grants from the State for the individual benefit merely of those who may resort to them? Certainly not—but from the conviction that the superior or elementary education of every such individual would be a contribution to the general treasury of mental power and wealth—the creation of a new agent to diffuse useful knowledge throughout the country, and thus to provide for the development of its resources, the appreciation and efficient administration of its institutions, and the social progress and happiness of its entire population.

To leave higher considerations out of the question,—is that clergyman discharging his obligations of gratitude, much less of patriotism, to his country, who spends his life in ignoble inactivity? Or that lawyer, who employs all his time and powers in merely courting litigation and accumulating wealth?

Or that medical practitioner, who limits his thoughts and occupations to prescriptions of medicine, surgical operations, and collection of fees? Or that farmer, trader, or mechanic, whose world is self, and whose earthly existence is one long sigh for gain? Nay, such vultures are devourers of the public weal; such examples are a pestilence to the community; and superstitious ignorance itself is a less evil than educated selfishness. There may be some allowance for the untaught man aiming at nothing higher than present and personal comfort, heedless as to whether the world grows better or worse—satisfied himself with mere animal enjoyments; but for those to whom the state has extended the facilities of education, to requite its generosity by preying upon its vitals, is a double shame and a double crime. It is not supposed, indeed, that every clergyman can be a LUTHER, a FENELON, an USSHER, a WESLEY, or a CHALMERS, or an OBERLIN; but every clergyman can imbibe the spirit of those great and good men; and that spirit, aided by the peculiar facilities of his office, will find a thousand openings of practical and useful development. Nor do we expect that every physician will be a BOERHAAVE, a HALLER, or a MASON GOOD; but what a treasure of useful knowledge is embraced in the Physiology and Chemistry of his profession, which he might, in a variety of ways, impart and facilitate the communication of to others, without entrenching upon his professional engagements, or in the least interfering with his laborious studies of the structure of the human frame with a view to expel its diseases and prolong its life. Nor do we imagine that every lawyer can become a Lord BROUGHAM or a DANIEL WEBSTER—both distinguished benefactors of popular education and general knowledge in their respective countries;—but of all educated men in any country, it appears to me that the lawyer is under especial obligations to contribute to the general sum of its intellectual improvement. The history of all free governments shows that the highest prizes in a country's gift are usually awarded to the gentlemen of the bar; their professional studies involve the history of all human institutions; their professional practice makes them personally acquainted with most of the social evils that afflict society—among not the least of which is ignorance, with its unnumbered progeny of vices and crimes; and who, as a general rule, can be more competent than the lawyer, or under greater obligations than he, to be an active, animating, patriotic spirit in his neighbourhood, in unlocking the treasures of knowledge to the mass of the labouring people, and uplifting the lowest classes to a consciousness of intellectual existence and a taste for intellectual enjoyments! Here is a wide and a glorious field of usefulness, independent of the loftier and more imposing efforts to simplify the laws, to enlarge the commerce, and to advance the government of the country—efforts requiring mental qualities and qualifications which are not the common lot of professional men any more than of the generality of mankind. Finally we do not presume that every educated scholar, or merchant, or agriculturalist, or shopkeeper, or mechanic, may hope to be a PESTALOZZI, or a DE FELLEBERG, or a PRINSEN; but every man of these classes can assist by example, by effort, by influence, to confer upon others advantages which they have received themselves, and they can severally impart and perpetuate an impulse which will reach to every particle of the social mass.

Now were all these professions and classes to fulfil their natural, their legitimate, their grateful obligations as constituent members of society, what an intellectual, a moral, a social transformation would ensue! What an increase

of mental power and resources, what a multiplication of the elements of social enjoyment, what order and beauty from chaos and desolation, what new intellectual creations among the hitherto neglected portions of the community! And this noblest work for all, can only be achieved by the united exertions of all. "Any great moral or economical change in the state of a country, (says the eloquent Dr. CHALMERS,) is not the achievement of one single arm, but the achievement of many; and though a single man walking in the loftiness of his heart might like to engross the fame of it, it will remain an impotent speculation, unless thousands come forward to share, amongst them all, the fatigue of it. It was by successive strokes of the pickaxe and the chisel, that the pyramids of Egypt were reared; and great must be the company of workmen, and limited the task which each must occupy, ere there will be made to ascend the edifice of a nation's work and a nation's true greatness."*

Such is our first illustration of the *Obligations of Educated Men*, arising from the consideration that they are members of society, and, as such, are part and parcel of its property.

(To be continued.)

THE TRUE BASIS OF EDUCATION.

We are hoping to form men and women by literature and science; but all in vain. We shall learn in time that moral and religious culture is the foundation and strength of all true cultivation; that we are deforming human nature by the means relied on for its growth, and that the poor who receive a care which awakens their consciences and moral sentiments, start under happier auspices than the prosperous, who place supreme dependence on the education of the intellect and taste. It is the kind, not the extent of knowledge, by which the advancement of a human being must be measured; and that kind which alone exalts a man, is placed within the reach of all. Moral and Religious Truth,—this is the treasure of the intellect, and all are poor without it. This transcends physical truth as far as heaven is lifted above the earth.—*Dr. Channing.*

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION IN UPPER CANADA.

No. II.

BY H. Y. HIND, ESQ., MATHEMATICAL MASTER, ETC., NORMAL SCHOOL, U. C.

The introduction of any new subject of instruction, whether of science or art, as constituting a desirable element of Education in Common Schools, requires some illustration of the advantages which may result from such a proceeding, and of the mode in which that instruction may be conveniently and sufficiently given. Practical utility is, without doubt, the first and strongest inducement that could lead to a study of Agricultural Chemistry and Vegetable Physiology among that class of the community to which especial reference is

* *Advantages of Local Parish Schools*, p. 54.

made in entering upon the details of this subject, and were no other advantages included but those which bear directly upon the daily pursuits of the farmer, ample inducement would exist, to render an acquaintance with the theory of his occupation, a most desirable attainment.

A very cursory view however of the Irish series of school books, now being generally introduced into the Common Schools of Canada, will suffice to exhibit the importance which the compilers of those works placed upon a study of the vegetable world as a mental culture. Among popular descriptions of many sciences, that of Vegetable Physiology, and its dependant branches, occupies a considerable portion of the reading lessons, and is there introduced in such a manner as to excite not only a lively interest in its details, but also to create a strong desire to enter into a deeper and more comprehensive study of this branch of Natural Philosophy. We discover further, that a few of the more advanced pupils attending schools situated in towns, their immediate vicinity, or in well settled districts, are accustomed to engage in the study of some branch of Philosophy, such as Astronomy, Chemistry, &c., as a mental culture. Equally, therefore, to them do the varied phenomena of the vegetable world offer a most interesting field of useful enquiry, peculiarly adapted to the culture of the mind and taste, and possessing one powerful attraction which many other sciences do not ordinarily admit of, namely, the association of experimental investigation, with the study of the science, in the favourite and engaging pursuit of gardening and horticulture.

The great utility which a general acquaintance with the science of Agricultural Chemistry is capable of proving to the young farmers and mechanics of this country, cannot be more conveniently shown than by describing its general details, and the mode in which it will perhaps be found most advantageous to convey the necessary instruction in this important branch of Education.

A theoretical study of Agriculture implies an acquaintance, to a limited extent, with the science of Chemistry. A popular and very general view of the nature of some fourteen or fifteen elementary bodies is the first requisite. The primary laws of chemical composition and decomposition, together with the nature and properties of a few compound bodies, whether resulting from the decomposition of existing substances or the union of elementary ones, is the next important step immediately connected with chemistry.

The chemistry of vegetables, and the functions of their various parts, may then claim attention, leading the way to a comprehension of the sources from which they derive those substances which enter into their composition and are necessary or favourable to their development.

Having obtained an acquaintance with the foregoing details, the pupil is prepared to enter upon a study of the origin and composition of soils; the necessity of the presence of certain substances in the soil to induce a luxuriant vegetation; the rationale of the mechanical operations for ameliorating the condition of the soil; the use and action of manures; the reasons which compel a proper rotation of crops, and a judicious fallowing of the land.

The mode in which this information may be impressed upon the memory, will, perhaps, be sufficiently established by referring to the following tables, which were compiled from the Agricultural works of LIEBIG, JOHNSTON, and BOUSSINGAULT, expressly for the use of the Students attending the NORMAL SCHOOL :—

	Wheat Grain	Wheat Straw	Barley Grain	Barley Grain	Oats Grain	Oats Straw	Hay	Hay	Peas	Beans	Clover red	Vetch	Indian C. Grain	Indian C. Straw	Buckwheat Grain
Potash,	24.17	6.43	9.2	3.91	20.91	12.3	12.18	30.09	9.71	51.23	16.10	30.57	30.08	4.00	8.74
Soda,	10.34	27.79	0.3	16.79	13.01	...	15.60	...	40.71	9.56	17.0	10.57	20.10
Magnesia,	13.57	12.98	5.0	10.05	6.91	7.7	4.58	4.08	6.91	12.03	8.28	8.49	17.0	9.58	10.38
Lime,	3.01	3.91	8.5	3.36	1.67	3.7	7.29	9.12	7.30	6.07	21.91	4.79	1.3	9.68	6.66
Phosphoric Acid,	45.53	46.14	3.1	40.63	38.48	14.9	1.94	12.03	15.79	28.53	4.12	38.05	50.1	18.76	50.07
Sulphuric Acid,	0.27	1.0	0.26	...	1.0	2.15	3.79	3.02	1.36	1.06	4.10	...	0.68	2.16
Silica,	1.91	0.42	67.6	21.99	29.10	53.3	54.25	24.17	26.00	1.05	2.60	2.01	0.8	29.36	0.69
Peroxide of Iron,	0.52	0.59	1.0	1.93	2.10	1.3	1.55	2.23	1.94	...	0.46	0.75	...	0.61	1.05
Chloride of Sodium,	0.6	2.48	5.70	20.46	...	4.73	2.00	...	0.46	...
Chloride of Potassium	1.0	...	9.43	...	0.21
	100.00	100.00	100.0	100.00	100.00	100.0	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

TABLE OF MINERAL SUBSTANCES,

TAKEN UP FROM THE SOIL BY THE VARIOUS CROPS GROWN (AT BECHELBRONN) UPON ONE ACRE RESPECTIVELY.

Dry Crop	Ashes per cent	Ashes per Acre	Phos. Acid	Sulphuric Acid	Chlorine	Lime	Magnesia	Pot. and Soda	Silica	Oxide of Iron, Alumin., &c.
Potatoes,	4.0 lbs.	113 lbs.	13 lbs.	8. lbs.	3. lbs.	2. lbs.	6 lbs.	58 lbs.	6. lbs.	17. lbs.
Beet Roots,	6.3 "	183 "	11 "	3. "	9. "	13. "	8 "	82 "	15. "	4.75 "
Potato Tops,	6.0 "	303 "	33 "	7. "	4. "	7. "	5 "	135 "	39. "	16. "
Wheat,	2.4 "	25 "	12 "	0.3 "	— "	0.8 "	4 "	7 "	0.4 "	— "
Wheat Straw, ...	7.0 "	179 "	5 "	1.5 "	1. "	15. "	9 "	17 "	121. "	1.75 "
Oats,	4.0 "	39 "	6 "	0.4 "	0.2 "	12. "	3 "	5 "	21. "	0.6 "
Oat Straw,	5.1 "	60 "	1.5 "	2.5 "	3. "	5. "	15 "	17 "	24. "	1. "
Clover,	7.7 "	284 "	18 "	7. "	7. "	70. "	18 "	77 "	15. "	0.9 "
Peas,	3.1 "	28 "	8 "	1.2 "	0.3 "	3. "	3 "	10 "	0.6 "	— "
Beans,	3.0 "	53 "	20 "	0.75 "	0.5 "	3. "	5 "	26 "	0.3 "	— "

COMPOSITION OF A STABLE MANURE.

<i>Fresh Manure.</i>	<i>Dried at 212°.</i>	<i>I. Soluble Ashes in Water.</i> <small>One Hundred parts of the Ash contained:</small>	<i>II. Soluble in Hydrochloric Acid.</i>
Water,	64.96	Potash,	Silica,
Organic Matter, ...	24.71	Soda,	Phosphate of Lime,
Ashes,	10.33	Lime,	Do. Magnesia,
	100.00	Magnesia,	Do. Oxide of Iron,
		Sulphuric Acid,	Carbonate of Lime,
		Chlorine,	Do. Magnesia,
		Silica,	III. Insoluble Sand, &c.....
			27.01
			7.11
			2.26
			4.68
			9.34
			1.63
			34.96

U R E A.

Carbon,	20.0	Upon decomposition, Urea unites with water, and changes into Volatile Carbonate of Ammonia.
Hydrogen	6.6	
Oxygen,	46.7	
Nitrogen,	26.7	
	100.0	

M A R L.

Carbonate of Lime,	I.	II.
Carbonate of Magnesia,	12.275	36.066
Potash,	0.975	1.106
Clay, Sand, Oxide of Iron,	0.087	0.163
Ammonia,	84.525	60.065
	0.004	0.057

The table exhibiting a comparative view of the composition of certain soils, as examples of long celebrated arable, pasture, and almost hopelessly barren lands, may serve many useful purposes in the hands of the teacher. When compared with the second table, illustrating the chemical composition of a few of the most important vegetables, the pupil is at once made aware of the circumstance, that generally, almost all the substances which exist in appreciable quantity in fertile soils, are also found to enter into the composition of plants; that the absence of those necessary elements is the chief cause of the *barrenness* of soils.

The mechanical condition of the arable and pasture lands is also in some measure indicated by the presence of a very large quantity of sand, the physical properties of which, as well as those of Alumina, are supposed to have been previously explained by the teacher.

In the second table we find the exact constitution of many necessary vegetables, which plainly indicates the necessity of the presence in the soil of the various substances therein named, not merely with reference to actual quantity, but more particularly with regard to their condition, and the capability of their being immediately assimilated by plants. We observe, for instance, in the analysis of a fertile arable soil, a very large amount of silica and siliceous sand.

The third table shows us that about one hundred and twenty-one pounds weight of silica is abstracted from one acre of land in the straw of a crop of wheat; it would appear that so small a quantity annually taken from an extent of surface containing perhaps many hundred tons of siliceous matter would for centuries exercise no perceptible influence upon the quantity of silica contained in the stalks of cerealia grown upon it; but such is far from being the case, a very few years of successive cropping is sufficient to render that family of plants too weak to sustain even their own weight. The explanation is in part obvious: the silica existing in the soil, is not, save in small quantities, in a fit state for assimilation by plants—recourse must therefore be had either to fallowing, for the purpose of allowing the land *time*, under the action of moisture, warmth, and atmospheric influences, to admit of the decomposition of the necessary quantity of the so-called silicates, or to certain special manures, such as lime or marl, in order to accelerate the decomposition of the necessary substances, and present them in a convenient form for immediate assimilation by plants.

The pupil is at once led to comprehend the necessity of a proper rotation of crops, and having been previously made aware of the circumstance, that soils were produced originally by the disintegration of rocks, a tabular analysis of a few of the substances which chiefly constitute rocks of igneous formation exhibit to him their composition, and the source of those elements he finds upon inspection of the table to enter largely into the constitution of plants. The decomposition of felspar and mica, &c., he will immediately remark as constituting the grand source of the potash, soda, magnesia, and oxide of iron, he observes to be present in large quantities in the stem, seed, leaves, and roots of most vegetables.

The chief points, therefore, of the theory of rotation of crops, once so mysterious, and which has given rise to many ingenious but now exploded fancies, of ploughing, and sub-soil ploughing, and of the various modes practised of

following the land, are thus rendered perfectly comprehensible to the most ordinary capacity.

The third table exhibits the actual amount of the various mineral substances taken from the soil by crops of different vegetables, upon portions of land of uniform extent. The successive annual abstractions of greater or less quantities of most necessary ingredients, strongly inculcate the necessity of restoring them to the soil in the form of stable manure, which the table containing an accurate analysis of that compound, particularly distinguishes as affording the most effectual means of returning the abstracted mineral substances to the soil, besides offering a large amount of organic food to plants, in the carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen, which it is shown to contain in large proportions. The pupil, bearing in mind the sources from which plants derive those organic elements which constitute nine-tenths of their weight, will discover upon inspection of the table containing the analysis of urea, the admirable adaptation of that substance as a source of organic food; and he will thus be persuaded of the great advantages to be attained, by effectually diverting as much as possible, of the usually neglected portion of stable refuse to its proper application.

The table exemplifying the composition of two kinds of marl, will serve to exhibit the nature of those substances which result from the decomposition of that compound, when exposed to the influence of the atmospheric air on the surface of the field, and its admirable effect upon certain soils, are likewise partially explained by a reference to its composition.

The foregoing observations will perhaps afford a sufficiently correct idea of the mode in which the important subject of Agricultural Chemistry may be adapted to the circumstances of Common School tuition. The advantages which arise from a constant reference to the preceding tables, and others of a similar character, is materially increased by the circumstance of their presenting, in a very convenient form, a means of giving instruction according to the simultaneous method, and of refreshing, without labour, the memory of the student from time to time.

The preliminary information, the comprehension of their contents implies, is of a character both interesting and useful in many walks of life, and sufficiently simple as to present no difficulty which may not be easily overcome by a little perseverance and industry on the part of those whose province it is to instruct, and the exercise of ordinary diligence and attention by the pupil.

THE PRINCE EDWARD DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENT'S REPORT OF COMMON SCHOOLS—1847.

*To the Worshipful the Warden and Municipal Council of the District
of Prince Edward.*

GENTLEMEN,—Herewith I have the honour to lay before you a statement of my account current with the District School Fund for the year 1847, with the accompanying vouchers; which I trust will be found satisfactory. You will perceive that there is a balance remaining on hand amounting to £81

17s. 4d. : this arises in part from some schools not having complied with the requirements of the law, and partly from the lateness of the period at which the District Assessment for schools was received from some of the Collectors.

During the past year a severe and protracted illness prevented me from devoting as much time to the inspection of schools as I would otherwise have done; but I hope to be able to make up by an increased attention during the present.

Our schools, I am happy to be able to say, on the whole, are improving; some of them are in a highly satisfactory condition, and would, I think, suffer nothing from a comparison with the schools of any District in the Province: and though the number of such schools at present is small, I confidently anticipate an increase, as their good effects in the neighbourhoods in which they are established, cannot fail to be seen by even the most unobserving.

Of the whole number of schools in the District kept open during the past year, 28 might be considered 1st class schools; 40, 2nd class schools; 29, 3rd class; and the remainder of a class still lower. Of these 13 were kept open 12 months; 8, 11 months; 13, 10 months; 17, 9 months; 11, 8 months; 15, 7 months; 12, 6 months; 3 under 6 months; and the time the remaining schools were kept open was not reported.

The establishment of the Provincial Normal School is likely to be of great advantage to our District, as well as to the Province generally. Three or four of our young teachers attended during the first session, and several others are preparing to attend during the second, which will commence in a few days. But before the good effects of this institution can be fully realised, some hindrances that have for years obstructed the improvement of common schools must be removed.

One of these is, the smallness of school sections; this Gentlemen, it is not in your power to remedy, as far as our District is concerned; and though for a time it might be improper to make any great alterations in the present boundaries of our respective school sections, yet their enlargement would be a very great benefit, by enabling the people to support a better class of teachers, and to keep open the school throughout the year, and by putting it out of the power of any one or two individuals in a school section to break up the school when they see fit. Indeed the many disadvantages incident to small school sections are so obvious to any person taking pains to examine the subject, that I need not occupy your time in pointing them out; especially as I am convinced that you will resist every attempt to divide and lessen the sections now established.

Another is the parsimonious spirit exhibited in the remuneration of teachers: so long as this prevails, so long as the wages of the teacher are screwed down, far below those of any decent mechanic, so long will it be useless to expect a steady supply of qualified teachers. In vain may the Normal School send out supplies of competent and highly accomplished young men; in vain may the Legislature and the Municipal Councils make liberal grants of money; in vain may school visitors and superintendents raise the standard of qualification, so long as the people are indifferent about the acquirements of a teacher and anxious only concerning the amount of wages—so long shall we have poor teachers, and of necessity poor schools—so long will the talents of our children remain buried—so long will their time be wasted—so long will our sons grow

up unfitted to take that share in public life to which they are justly entitled—so long will our daughters grow up unfitted to exercise that beneficial influence on coming generations, which it is the province of women alone to exercise.

Allow me then, gentlemen, to urge you for the sake of our beautiful District, for the sake of its present welfare and future improvement, to use the influence you so deservedly possess in removing this error from the public mind.

I need not advert to other hindrances at present existing; such as irregular attendance of scholars, want of school books, uncomfortable school-houses, frequent changes of teachers, &c. &c. Nor need I point out the advantages derivable from the establishment of school libraries in connection with our common schools.

I have much pleasure in stating that the admirable series of Reading Books published by the Irish National Board are coming into extensive use in the District: wherever they have been introduced they have, I believe, given satisfaction. They are calculated to improve the heart as well as the mind; to render knowledge attractive to the scholar, and to facilitate the labour of the teacher. Many of the books, indeed, might be read with advantage by "children of a larger growth."

In conclusion, gentlemen, I wish to call your attention to another subject viz: the *Journal of Education* for U. C., a monthly periodical which ought to be in the hands of every Board of Trustees, as well as of all school visitors. Throughout the District the people frequently labour under disadvantages from want of acquaintance with the school law, its requirements, &c. This Journal, worthy of the talents of its highly gifted Editor, being the medium of all official communications, is exactly fitted to supply such a want. Will you therefore, allow me to suggest the propriety of supplying each School Section in the District with a copy at the public expense.

I have the honor to be,

Gentlemen,

Your most obedient servant,

THOMAS DONNELLY,

District Superintendent of C. S., P. E. D.

Bloomfield, May, 1848.

E R R A T A.

In the Report of the Rev. J. PADFIELD, Superintendent of Common Schools, Bathurst District, published in the April No. of this Journal (pp. 116-119), we desire to make the following corrections:—Second paragraph, fifth line, for "confident," read *competent*; paragraph No. 1, twenty-eighth line, for "larger" read *longer*; paragraph, No. 8, third line, for "19s.," read 16s.; fourth line, for "Dalhousie," read *Bathurst*; and for "4d.; and" read 5d., (*Legislative Grant for 1847, and balances received from Law Township Superintendents.*)

REPORT ON A SYSTEM OF PUBLIC ELEMENTARY EDUCATION FOR UPPER CANADA:

By Rev. EGERTON RYERSON, D. D., Chief Superintendent of Schools for Upper Canada. Printed by order of the Legislative Assembly. 1847.

We have read this report with much gratification. It is methodically arranged and well written, presenting a system of instruction matured by close observation and sound thought.

The Superintendent, after defining what is meant by education, proceeds to prove its importance as a preventive of pauperism and crime, and as a benefit to all the industrial pursuits of life. This established, he contends that the Provincial system of education should be universal and practical—that it should be founded in religion and morality, and that it should develop all the intellectual and physical powers. These points are ably presented by a variety of arguments and illustrations. The course of study suggested embraces the following branches:—Biblical History and Morality, Reading and Spelling, Writing, Arithmetic, Grammar, Geography, Linear Drawing, Vocal Music, History, Natural History, Natural Philosophy, Agriculture, Human Physiology, Civil Government, and Political Economy. In support of having each of these branches taught, we find many pertinent and useful remarks that indicate a high degree of competency and enlightened zeal for the great work of regenerating the Canadian School system.

Part *Second* relates to the machinery of the system, and evinces as much practical skill in the management of schools as part *First* does of correct sentiment on the subject of education and its importance. With this Report, of about 200 pages, we have also received a pamphlet, entitled "Remarks on the state of education in the Province of Canada; being a reprint of two articles which appeared in the *British American Journal of Medical and Physical Science*, for January and March, 1848;" and with the four first numbers of the *Journal of Education* for Upper Canada. From these valuable public documents we learn that a new educational spirit has been awakened in the Provinces, and that the most gratifying success attends the well-directed efforts now in progress to improve the means of education, and impress the importance of the subject upon the people. A Normal School has been established at Toronto under the most flattering auspices. The value of such an institution in Canada is greatly increased by the inhibitory laws in regard to Teachers and Text Books. The exclusion of American School Books is made, says the Superintendent, "not because they are foreign books simply, although it is patriotic to use our own in preference to foreign publications; but because they are, with very few exceptions, anti-British, in every sense of the word."

The intercourse between the contiguous portions of this State and the Canadas, occasions considerable dissatisfaction among the masses on account of this provision, as well as that by which schools taught by American Teachers are not allowed to participate in the public fund. On this subject there will be an increasing public sentiment in favour of using the *best books*, and employing the *best Teachers*, whether of British or American origin. We hope, ere long, to see this restrictive feeling give place to a more generous and liberal policy. If the Normal School in Canada can supply the schools of this State with better Teachers than those educated in our own institutions, they

will find employment here. Our aim is to obtain the *best* Teachers and the best appliances, and such should be that of our neighbours in Canada. While we have found much in the report to commend, we cannot but express our regret that such a restrictive policy should have been adopted. It will prevent that zeal and energy of action necessary to success.

The discussion of this subject is becoming more general and more interesting. The people, if they will read, think and observe, cannot fail to see the necessity of removing every bar to the improvement of their schools, and of employing the best agencies for accomplishing the great objects of a school system. Cost what it may, the thorough education of the masses is the cheapest and wisest policy for any nation—not an education that fears and inhibits freedom of sentiment, because not communicated in its own national channels; but that firm reliance upon truth and its teachings which liberalizes mind while it directs it to correct action. We hope this exclusive system will soon give way to one that shall invite a pleasant and profitable intercourse between the teachers and friends of education in Canada and in this State.—*Official Monthly District School Journal for the State of New-York, June, 1848.*

DIFFERENCE IN THE MINDS OF CHILDREN.

FIRST IMPRESSIONS.

I have no doubt there are original differences in the minds of children; some have more natural fondness for study than others; some minds devolve themselves in the most unfavourable circumstances; while others, with all the help that can be afforded, make very slow progress.

We are not to conclude that those who are at first exceedingly dull, will never make great proficiency in learning. The examples are numerous of persons who were very unpromising in childhood, but were distinguished in manhood for their great acquirements.

Adam Clarke, LL. D., was taught the alphabet with great difficulty. He was often chastised for his dulness; it was seriously feared by his parents that he never would learn; he was eight years old before he could spell words of three letters. He was distinguished for nothing but rolling large stones. At the age of eight, he was placed under a new Teacher, who, by the kindness of his manner, and by suitable encouragement, aroused the slumbering energies of his mind, and elicited a desire for improvement. It is well known that he became even more distinguished for his various and extensive acquirements, than he had ever been for rolling stones.

Isaac Barrow, D. D., for two or three years after he commenced going to school, was distinguished only for quarrelling, and rude sports. This seemed to be his ruling passion. His father considered his prospects for usefulness or respectability so dark, that he often said, if either child was to die, he hoped it would be Isaac. But Isaac afterwards became the pride of his father's family, and an honour to his country. He was appointed Master of Trinity College, at which time the King said, "he had given the office to the best scholar in England."

The Rev. Thos. Hallyburton, formerly Professor of Divinity at St. Andrews, had, until he was twelve years old, a great aversion to learning. I might mention many other examples to illustrate the same truth.

The emotions or passions of children are developed much sooner than their intellectual powers. They manifest desire and aversion before they exhibit a gleam of intellect. The development of intellect will depend somewhat on the kind and strength of the passions that gain the ascendancy. If the love of animal pleasures become very strong in early life, the intellect may be compelled to expend its energy in devising means to gratify a sordid appetite.

There seems to be two classes of children, that make eminent scholars. The first exhibit in early childhood a fondness for some particular study, as Ferguson for practical mechanics, Newton for mathematical science, or West for the fine arts. The second class are those who afford no indications of genius in childhood; their love for the arts or sciences seems to be awakened by a happy train of circumstances, often at a late period in their lives. There are, no doubt, many minds that lie dormant, or are employed in mischief, for the want of proper culture, or on account of the adverse influences that are brought to bear upon them, when first ushered into the district school.

“ Full many a gem of purest ray serene
The dark, unfathomed caves of ocean bear;
Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air.”

The school-house is not generally the most inviting place that ever was to a little child. There is nothing about it, that is so interesting as to awaken a child's mind to new and nobler thoughts. It is often located in the highway, and frequently on the top of a hill, exposed to the fierce wintry blast, or in some low, sunken spot, where, in wet weather, it is inaccessible except by wading. The inside looks dreary to a child; there is usually nothing to attract attention, but naked walls stained with smoke, uncomfortable, rickety benches, carved by unskilful hands, a three-legged table, and a broken chair. Each child, on going to school, goes through with a fit of home-sickness, about as regularly as the young seaman does with a fit of sea-sickness. I have heard of a child, who endured it till nearly noon the first day, and absconded. He went home crying, and said he did not want to stay there, for they did not hang on any pot; another assigned as a reason for not wishing to go again, that there was no pantry; another child, on returning home, was asked what he did at school. “Nothing but sit on a bench and say A, B.” These facts show that the first impressions made upon children on entering a school-house are unfavourable to their success in learning.

It is my opinion that the fondness of children for study, and the rapidity of their mental acquisitions, depend, in part, upon the manner in which they are first instructed. At the age of three or four years, children are placed in school, and commence with learning the alphabet. They are usually seated on the most uncomfortable seats in the school-room, and required to observe perfect silence. This is entirely contrary to the habits and inclinations of children. The dulness of the scene is varied only by being called into the floor, two or three times each day, to repeat the names of the letters. Of all this they cannot be expected to know the use, and, if told, it is difficult to make them feel that the benefit will ever compensate for the present inconvenience.

It is a duty, binding upon every school-teacher, to devise or use such a mode of teaching as shall interest little children. He should enter the school-room feeling that the future history of the children committed to his care, will depend very much upon the manner in which they are now taught. If the exercises of the school are so conducted that the child becomes interested, he will be likely to make great acquisitions in knowledge, and be more extensively useful. If the exercises of the school are dull and tedious, the child will go to school with reluctance, acquire a disrelish for books, grow up in comparative ignorance, and be less extensively useful.

How important then that Teachers feel the necessity of beginning aright, and of bending the twig as it ought to be inclined.

It is not uncommon for children to attend school three, or even six months, before they can name the letters of the alphabet. Little children, before they are one and a half years old, before they can speak five words so as to be understood, generally know the names of the members of the family, of the articles of furniture in the room, the names of various domestic animals, and of parts of the body. If a little child, without the labour of being taught, learns so many names, it would seem that one four years old ought to be able to call the names of twenty-five letters in less than three months. An intelligent child three years old, put into a family with twenty-five children, will learn the names of all in one day so perfectly as to retain them in memory. I will not ask whether little children cannot learn the names of all the letters in one day; but if the requisite pains were taken they can learn them in one week.—*The Teacher Taught.*

SHORT SELECTIONS FROM EUROPEAN AUTHORS.

Effects of a Neglected, or Improper Education.—Where education has been entirely neglected or improperly managed, we see the worst passions ruling with uncontrolled and incessant sway. Good sense degenerates into craft, and anger rankles into malignity. Restraint, which is thought most salutary, comes too late, and the most judicious admonitions are urged in vain.—*Parr's Discourse on Education.*

The Value of Time.—The proverbial oracles of our parsimonious ancestors have informed us, that the fatal waste of fortune is by small expenses, by the profusion of sums too little, singly to alarm our caution, and which we never suffer ourselves to consider together. Of the same kind is the prodigality of life; he that hopes to look back hereafter with satisfaction upon past years, must learn to know the present value of single minutes, and endeavour to let no particle of time fall useless to the ground.

An Italian philosopher expressed in his motto, that time was his estate; an estate indeed, that will produce nothing without cultivation, but will always abundantly repay the labours of industry, and satisfy the most extensive desires, if no part of it be suffered to lie waste by negligence, to be over-run by noxious plants, or laid out for show rather than for use.—*Johnson.*

Advice to Instructors of Youth.—The preceptors of youth, of either sex, ought, however, to be again and again admonished of the importance of the task which they have undertaken, and also of its difficulty. It is their duty to be patient with the dull, and steady with the froward—to encourage the timid, and repress the insolent—fully to employ the minds of their pupil, without overburdening them—to awaken their fear, without exciting their dislike—to communicate the store of knowledge according to the capacity of the learner, and to enforce obedience by the strictness of discipline. Above all, it is their bounden duty to be ever on the watch, and to check the first beginning of vice. For valuable as knowledge may be, virtue is infinitely more valuable; and worse than useless are those mental accomplishments, which are accompanied by depravity of heart.—*Shepherd and Joyce's Systematic Education.*

Man a Compound of Habits.—In one sense, indeed, and that a very important one, the process of education is perpetually going forward. Man, regarded as a moral agent, and an accountable being, is a compound of habits. According as his habits are good or bad, he is to be esteemed and qualified as virtuous or vicious. Now, it is a matter of common observation, that the habits of an individual are generally formed in consequence of the precepts with which he is imbued—and in a much greater degree, in consequence of the examples which are presented for his imitation. Whosoever, therefore, is under the influence either of the conduct, or of the principles of others (and who is not under such influence?) may be justly said to be so far educated by them to moral good or ill. Much is it to be wished, that those who are interested in the welfare of youth, would attend to this most important maxim. It would preserve them from many pernicious errors, and would convince them of the folly of entertaining unreasonable and inconsistent expectations.—*Shepherd and Joyce's Systematic Education.*

Excellencies of Knowledge.—There are in knowledge these two excellencies; first, that it offers to every man, the most selfish and the most exalted, his peculiar inducement to good. It says to the former, "Serve mankind, and you serve yourself;" to the latter, "In choosing the best means to secure your own happiness, you will have the sublime inducement of promoting the happiness of mankind." The second excellence of knowledge is that even the selfish man, when he has once begun to love virtue from little motives, loses the motives as he increases the love, and at last worships the deity, where before he only coveted the gold upon its altar.—*E. L. Bulwer.*

Education.—Education and instruction are the means, the one by use, the other by precept, to make our natural faculty of reason both the better and the sooner to judge rightly between truth and error, good and evil.—*Hooker.*

Education of the Young.—Children are possessed of powers and affections which are in process of time to be drawn into action; upon the right use of which depends their happiness or their misery, and in the cultivation of which, therefore, they are assisted at a time when they cannot look forward either to the end for which they are to act, or to the connexion of that end, with the means that are now taking to enable them to act well.—*White's Bampton Lectures.*

Influence of Education.—It is an undoubted fact that the mind of man is influenced by the mode of government, and certain it is that the Greeks with their independence, lost their superior vigour of genius.—*Anon.*

Real Knowledge.—There is no difference between knowledge and temperance; for he who knows what is good and embraces it, who knows what is bad and avoids it, is learned and temperate. But they who know very well what ought to be done, and yet do quite otherwise, are ignorant and stupid.—*Socrates.*

Materials for the Memory.—Orations, fables, and passages of poetry, are not materials for the memory; they injure instead of helping the power of invention; but every fact and circumstance which is to be known in the natural world, is a proper article for the memory; and reason or imagination may make use of it, according to the genius or purpose of the possessor.—*Williams on Education.*

Education Moulds and Elevates the Character.—Those are truly well bred not only whose understandings and discerning faculties are improved and enlarged, but especially whose natural rudeness and stubbornness is broken, and wild and unruly passions tamed; whose affections and desires are made governable and orderly; who are become manageable and flexible, calm and tractable, willing to endure restraints, and to live according to the best rules. By good education we are, as it were, *made over again*, the roughness of our natural tempers is filed off, and all their defects supplied; and by prudent discipline, good example, and wise counsel, our manners are so formed, that, by the benefit of an happy education, we come almost as much to excel other men, as they do the brute beasts that have no understanding.—*Dr. Calamy's Sermons.*

Business of Education.—It was an observation of Dr. Johnson, that the business of education had long been as well understood as ever it could be.

Now, we are disposed to think that the very reverse of this position would be something nearer the truth, and that there is, in fact no business in the world that has been carried on so long that is so ill understood; over which the experience of ages has done so little towards any improvement in our practice. In other things we know that we have advanced—in arts, in sciences, in learning, in war, in policy—but it is a proof that our education is wrong when it can be put as a question. Whether the moral progress of mankind has kept pace with their intellectual? The very question, we say, implies whenever it is asked, and however it may be answered, that our aim is a wrong one,—that we make the intellect rather than the heart the object of our care; and of a truth, is it not so?—*London University Magazine.*

True Virtue.—Whatever tends to the perfection of the mind and that leads it to the felicity suitable to its nature, is truly virtue, and the law of philosophy; and all things that tend only to a certain human decency are only shadows of virtue that hunt after popular applause, and whose utmost care is to appear virtuous to the world.—*Hierocles.*

SHORT SELECTIONS FROM AMERICAN AUTHORS.

The Kind of Schools which the Country wants.—In the education of our children we should be content with nothing short of the highest practicable excellence. We should not judge of what they now require, by what we, in less favoured days, received; but give them the very best the times can possibly afford, or our resources command. On this vitally-important subject of Common School education, there should be no blinding self-complacency in view of what is, but a continual openness to new light, a readiness to take advantage of others' wisdom and experience; to adopt those improvements which the great minds that are so devotedly at work in this cause shall from time to time suggest, or which shall have been fully tested by practical results. We want for our children that education which is demanded alike by the mind itself, and by the circumstances of the age and land in which they live: demanded for the duties and responsibilities which await them at the threshold of maturity, and press upon them from that time forth through life. We want schools that shall, in literal truth, *educate* the individual; that shall draw forth into self-sustaining life and activity the mental and moral powers; that shall not only furnish the mind with useful knowledge, but awaken it to independent thought; not only instruct in fundamental principles, but impart a readiness in their application to the condition and exigences of actual life; that shall not only lead the scholar through a prescribed course of studies in which memory may be the chief, if not the only, faculty exercised, but shall give an intelligent apprehension of the subjects studied, and comprehensive views and living ideas; that shall train to habits of investigation, of discrimination and reflection, and to an ability to express, clearly and forcibly, by speech or pen, the mind's ideas and conclusions. We want schools that shall regard with deepest reverence the *moral sentiments*, and seek, as the one great end of all instruction, their culture and expansion; where, at least, moral interests shall never be subordinated and sacrificed to intellectual advancement; where appeals shall never be made to mean and ignoble, but always to generous and lofty motives; where the goal of pursuit shall be no showy appearance, to meet an immediate end, but solid attainment, for its own great worth. We want schools where the discipline shall be *parental* in its character,—free from all harshness and asperity, from every shade and tinge of vindictiveness and passion; securing its ends by no offensive show of authority, but through the elevating, genial influence of goodness and love; where teacher and pupils shall work together in mutual friendliness and good will, as one united, affectionate and happy family.

Two Essentials of good Common Schools.—To carry out the design of our Common School system two things are necessary;—1. We must have teachers who are themselves not only outwardly moral, but who are also capable of illustrating, and impressing upon their pupils, those general principles of virtue required by the statute. And 2, parents must inculcate the same principles at home, and be willing that teachers should spend some time in the school in the performance of the same high duty. The teacher is not to introduce anything of a sectarian character, but to inspire his pupils with a love of moral excel-

lence, with those principles which, when acted out, make the best children and the happiest families—which make the truly honest and obliging neighbour, the disinterested, public spirited, and patriotic citizen—principles which every man must approve as honourable, and lovely, and of good report. And what, fellow-citizens, can promise better for your town, or for your neighbourhood; or what can make your fireside circles more happy, than to see your children with enlightened and quickened minds, in the possession also of those moral virtues which give the finishing stroke to education and are the glory of man?

Influence of Suitable Libraries.—Books adapted to the understanding of the young furnish profitable subjects for conversation and reflection, afford pure and chaste language for the expression of their thoughts, and would serve to elevate their minds above the disorganizing and petty strifes of seeing who should rule in school,—the master or scholars. The mind of man and child is so constituted, is of such a nature, that it is constantly drinking in, and appropriating to its use either for good or evil, whatever comes within its reach. Surround it with good principles, nourish it with wholesome, with moral and scientific food, and it will exhibit the products of such nourishment. But feed it with low and debasing thoughts, schemes and plans, and the legitimate fruit of such food will certainly show itself in the conduct and character of the future life.

Your committee consider the establishment of school libraries as one of the best provisions ever made for the improvement of the young. The books are much read, and their interesting and instructive character is too well known to need any comment; here the children of the poor and the rich are alike privileged, and will learn much that is useful and important to fit them for the active duties of life. For this they will honour the hand that bestowed it, and reward its liberality with their gratitude.

Proofs of a badly governed School.—Intimately connected with the no-government principle, is that of destructiveness. The existence of the former is indicated by marks of the latter. Where you see the shingles and boards torn from the walls of the schoolhouse, the door-panels shattered, the windows broken, the outhouse half demolished and loaded with stones, there is actual demonstration of the reign of anarchy and the subversion of family government. You need not enter the house, to witness the broken desks, the rocking seats, the mangled ceiling and defaced walls, in order to ascertain whether the teacher is allowed to govern the school. The dominant spirit of the district is written on the things without proclaiming to all who pass by, "Here ungoverned children bear rule, and parents submit to the commands of their illustrious progeny." "Here we disregard the council of Solomon, and, in our new patent wisdom, spare the rod."

Virtuous Education and Freedom.—An educated and virtuous people will be a free people. You may as well confine *Ætna* with bands of iron as subject them to a life of bondage, whether under one or many despots.

MISCELLANEOUS.

A Mother's Power and Responsibility.—Napoleon once said, 'The future destiny of the child is always the work of the mother.' "That this is true in most cases, (remarks the *Lawrence (Mass.) Messenger*) few will be inclined to deny. The character of those celebrated men who have so entirely won the hearts of their countrymen by their integrity of principle and noble patriotism, was formed at the fireside at home. These lessons were instilled into the young mind, and impressions made on the young heart, that the experience of a life-time would never obviate. It was those impressions which gave the heart strength to resist in the hours of temptation, and a never-failing courage in the many trial-hours that mark our pathway through this world of changes."

How to Reform a Bad Boy.—A young lady of my acquaintance, who had charge of one of the departments in a boys' school, in a neighbouring city, states, that a lady came to her school one morning with her son, about twelve years of age, who "had been suspended from every other school in that section of the city, for truancy and other bad conduct." The mother said to her, "He is a very bad boy. His father and I have whipped him and whipped him, but it does do good. You will be obliged to punish him, he is so very bad." The young lady, immediately after the mother left the school-room, said to the boy, in a very kind and affectionate manner, (she was a cheerful and pleasant young lady,) "Charles, I wish you to go to Mr. —'s, in — street, and take a letter for me; and, as a matter of some importance to me, I wish you to go and return as soon as you can, without injury to yourself, and bring me an answer." The boy then, said the young lady, "raised his head, (which up to that time, had been dropped down,) and smiled. He took the letter, and judging from the time he was absent, and from his appearance, when he returned, he must

have run all the way there and back. I complimented him," said the young lady, "for the promptness, expressed fears that he had injured himself in consequence of running so fast, and thanked him for his kindness in going for me; with all of which he seemed highly pleased. I then gave him a seat in a class, and for several days requested him to do errands for me; and," she concludes, "I never had a better boy in school than Charles was, during the eighteen months which he attended my school." This boy had most probably never received any encouragement to do well before.—*Lyman Cobb.*—*Com. School Journal.*

Effect of Free Schools on the value of Property.—At a meeting of the "North Western Educational Society," held at Milwaukee, on the 21st of July last, the President of the Society, Wm. B. Ogden, Esq., in some closing remarks, on leaving the chair, stated that he was entrusted with the sale and disposal of numerous lots in the city of Chicago, belonging to non-residents, and he found that he sold hundreds of lots more, and fifty per cent. higher, than he otherwise would have done, were it not for the existence of the Chicago Free Schools.

Mr. Kennedy said, that Common Schools as far excelled all other kinds of schools, as *common sense* was better than any other kind of sense; or, he would add, as *common people* were better than any other kind of people.

The best Estate.—"A parent may leave an estate to his son; but how soon may it be mortgaged! He may leave him money, but how soon it may be squandered! Better leave him a sound constitution, habits of industry, an unblemished reputation, a good education, and an inward abhorrence of vice in any shape or form; for these cannot be wrested from him, and are better than thousands of gold and silver."

EDITORIAL DEPARTMENT.

APPEAL TO THE PUBLIC IN BEHALF OF THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

Six numbers of the *Journal of Education* having been issued, the Public are now sufficiently apprised of its character and objects; and it now remains for all friendly to those objects to say, whether the undertaking shall entail a heavy pecuniary loss in addition to imposing much mental labour upon the conductors of it.

It is the first undertaking of the kind in Upper Canada to diffuse useful information on Educational subjects. The labour of the conductors of the *Journal of Education* is purely voluntary and gratuitous. Every shilling of subscription which has been, or may be received, has been and will be expended to defray the mechanical expenses of the work. Those expenses very considerably exceed the amount of subscriptions received. Without a greatly increased subscription, the issuing of each number inflicts a serious loss upon the Editors, in addition to their personal labours. At whatever sacrifice, however, and under any circumstances, their engagements with the public will be honorably fulfilled in continuing the publication through the year. At the close of the volume a copious alphabetical Index to the subjects of it will be furnished; so that it may serve as a convenient manual of reference on all the principal subjects of popular education, as applicable both to Canada and other countries.

Of the numerous Educational Periodicals which have been issued in the neighbouring United States, scarcely one has survived for any considerable time which has not received more or less of Legislative aid. The *District School Journal for the State of New-York* has been aided by a subscription from the Legislature to the amount of \$2,800 per annum, for several years. The Legislature subscribes a sufficient sum to supply every School Section throughout the whole State with a copy. Aware that there was but one instance in America, and none in England, as far as we know, of a purely Educational Journal having been sustained by individual subscription for any length of time, we ventured not upon assuming the liability of such an undertaking without the precaution of consulting the friends of Education at public meetings, and in private intercourse, in the several Districts of Upper Canada. On these occasions feelings were expressed, and assurances of co-operation given which appeared ample to warrant and encourage the undertaking. With two or three noble exceptions, we regret to be compelled to say, the promised co-operation has fallen very far short of what we had been led to expect.

A sufficiently large edition of the *Journal of Education* has been printed, to enable us to supply some hundreds of additional subscribers with copies from the commencement; and we put it to the readers of this *Journal*, and especially to School Superintendents, Visitors, Teachers and Trustees, whether they will not make an effort to extend its circulation? It is submitted whether *five shillings* can be more profitably applied than in procuring for one year a publication exclusively devoted to the all-important, but little understood and less appreciated subject of popular education? It is also suggested whether a Teacher who takes and circulates a copy of this *Journal* among his employers will not, (in addition to the information which he himself may derive from its perusal,) receive in return, in the course of the year, much more than the amount of his subscription in the increased support given to his school?

We have hitherto abstained from any remarks on this subject; but after the existence of the *Journal of Education* for six months, and the testimonials of approval which we have received from various quarters, we feel warranted in making the present appeal. The documents and expositions necessary to unfold a general system of public instruction having been given, we trust the subsequent numbers will be much more varied and directly practical than the earlier numbers.

To show how difficult experience has shown it to be to sustain an Educational *Journal*, and the necessity of extensive and active co-operation to do so, we will insert a summary account of the several School *Journals* which have been issued in the United States. The following account is taken from the last School Report of the State School Commissioner BARNARD, to whose noble and patriotic exertions the States of Connecticut and Rhode Island are indebted for an improved and admirable system of Common Schools:—

The American Journal of Education, Boston. Published monthly in numbers of sixty-four pages octavo. Commenced in 1826, and merged in the *Annals of Education* in 1831. The set consists of five volumes.

American Annals of Education and Instruction, Boston. Commenced in 1831, and discontinued at the close of 1839.—The set embraces nine volumes. It was edited at different periods by William Russell, W. C. Woodbridge, Dr. Alcott, and other able writers on Education.

The above works were the able pioneers in the cause of Educational improvement. Nearly all of that has been accomplished within the last fifteen years, was first suggested through the columns of the *Journal*

and *Annals of Education*. The above fourteen volumes constitute now a valuable series, which all who are interested in school improvement, can read with great advantage to themselves.

The Schoolmaster and Advocate of Education, published by W. Marshall & Co., Philadelphia, and edited by J. Frost.—Commenced in January, 1836, and discontinued at the close of the year.

The Monthly Journal of Education, Philadelphia, 1835, edited by E. C. Wines. Commenced January, 1835, and was discontinued in the course of the year.

The Common School Assistant, Albany and New-York, edited by J. Orville Taylor. Commenced in 1836, and discontinued in 1840.

This cheap periodical was widely and powerfully instrumental in waking up a lively interest in the subject of common school improvement.

The Educator, Easton, Pennsylvania, edited by Robert Cunningham; then a Professor in Lafayette College, Easton, and now the Principal or Rector of the Normal School of Glasgow, Scotland.

Prof. Cunningham came to this country with the view of establishing a Normal School on a liberal scale, but he found after years of trial, that his views were greatly in advance of public opinion and liberality on this subject.

The Educator was commenced in April, and discontinued in August, 1839.

The Ohio Common School Director, Columbus, Ohio, published by authority of the General Assembly of Ohio, and edited by Samuel Lewis, Superintendent of Common Schools.

The Director was commenced in March, 1838, and was discontinued in Nov., 1838.

It was the first periodical established under the State authority, and was highly useful in organizing the new system of Common Schools established in the winter of 1838.

The Michigan Journal of Education Detroit, Michigan, edited by John D. Pierce, Superintendent of Public Instruction. Commenced in March, 1838, and discontinued in February, 1840.

The District School Journal for the State of New-York, is published monthly under the patronage of the State, at Albany, and edited by Francis Dwight, Superintendent of Common Schools for the County of Albany.

This Journal was commenced by Mr. Dwight, at Geneva, in March, 1840, the Superintendent of Common Schools subscribed for a sufficient number of copies (ten thousand and eight hundred) to supply each organized School District in the State, and made it his official organ of communication with the officers and inhabitants of the several districts. The publication office was removed from Geneva to Albany in June, 1841, where it is now printed by C. Van Benthuysen.

The Connecticut Common School Journal, Hartford, Connecticut, published under the direction of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, and edited by Henry Barnard, Secretary of the Board.

This Journal was commenced in Aug., 1838, and discontinued in September, 1842.

The Common School Journal is published semi-monthly by Fowle & Capen, 184 Washington-street, Boston, and edited by Horace Mann, Secretary of the Board of Education for Massachusetts. Price \$1, payable in advance. Each number contains sixteen pages octavo.

This Journal was commenced in Nov., 1838, and embraces all the official documents of the Board of Education, and their Secretary.

Illinois Common School Advocate, Springfield, Illinois. Commenced May, 1841, and discontinued with the sixth number.

The Teacher's Advocate. E. Cooper, editor, and L. W. Hall, publisher, Syracuse, New-York. Price \$2 per annum.

The Advocate was started under the auspices of the State Convention of Teachers, in September, 1845, and is issued weekly.

ANSWERS TO INQUIRIES RESPECTING CERTAIN PROVISIONS OF THE COMMON SCHOOL ACT.

It may be useful to insert in the columns of this Journal the substance of answers which have been given in reply to complaints and inquiries respecting certain provisions of the School Act.

Question 1. To whom appertains the power of fixing the location of School-houses?

Answer. It depends upon the manner in which the means are provided for building them. The tenth Section of the Act authorises two modes of providing the means for the erection of School-houses; the one by voluntary subscription, the other by District Council assessment. When the inhabitants of a School Section adopt voluntary means to purchase or erect a School-house, they must determine the place of its location; they can do so by vote of a public meeting or in any other way they may think proper. But when the District Council provides the means by assessment for the erection of a School-house, it should prescribe where the money collected by its authority should be expended. The two modes authorised by law to erect School-houses, naturally suggest the two modes of determining their location.

Question 2. In a Section where there are two School-houses, or where a dispute arises as to the location of a School-house in which the Section School should be kept, who should decide?

Answer. The Municipal Council of the District concerned should decide on all such cases. The Council is authorised to organize School Sections; and no Section is completely organized without having the locality of the School-house determined. The Council is the most competent tribunal to decide such cases; and the Chief Superintendent of Schools has in all cases, decided that the School Fund apportioned to any Section ought not to be paid to the order of Trustees who should keep the School in a house against the decision of their Municipal Council.

Question 3. In what way is a Municipal Council authorised to form or alter School-sections?

Answer. In any manner such Council may judge best. The provision of the law is purposely general and indefinite; it authorises the act, but leaves the mode of performing it to the discretion of each Council, as circumstances may suggest. In prescribing, defining, or altering the boundaries of the School Sections of a Township, it might be advisable in most cases for the Council to appoint a Committee consisting of the Councillor or Councillors of such Township, and one or two other persons to prepare a plan of the contemplated Sections, with a proper description of them—the Council ratifying the recommendation of such Committee. The appointment of such local Committee might be desirable in any dispute as to the locality of a School-house. It might also be beneficial for each Council to lay down some general rule as the minimum and maximum extent of School Sections, in harmony with which its subsequent decisions and the recommendations of its Committees should be made. But on all these points each Council will, of course, exercise its own discretion.

Question 4. Have Trustees authority to levy by distress and sale of goods

and chattels of persons who refuse to pay the School-rate bill authorised by the Act, or is a Magistrate's warrant necessary for this purpose ?

Answer. The *fifth* and *sixth* divisions of the 27th section of the Act authorise the Trustees of each School-section to levy and fix the amount of School-rate bills ; and the *seventh* division of the same section authorises them "in default of payment of any person so rated, to levy the amount by distress and sale of goods and chattels of the person or persons so making default." The form of a Trustees' warrant to the Collector, as provided in the printed *Forms and Regulations*, ch. 3, section 8, has been prepared in harmony with this express provision of the Act ; and provided with this warrant, the Collector of School-rate bills has the same authority and should proceed in the same manner as a Collector of a District Tax would proceed under the authority of a Magistrate's warrant. The design of the School Act is to enable Trustees to perform all the duties essential to support their School and fulfil their engagements without the expense, or delay, or uncertainty arising from dependence upon a Magistrate ; nor does the Act give a Magistrate any authority to issue a warrant for the collection of a School-rate bill. The Act also authorises Trustees to resort to voluntary subscription to raise the Teacher's salary, or repair and furnish a School-house, if they prefer such a method to the imposition of a Rate-bill, and then empowers them to collect the subscription just as promptly and in the same manner as if the same amount had been imposed by Rate-bill.

Should the Trustees neglect in any case to collect a Rate-bill or subscription at the time of its becoming due, they do not thereby lose the power of doing so at any subsequent period. But the efficiency of the School system, no less than the comfort of Trustees and the Teachers, depends upon the promptness and punctuality with which all financial obligations are fulfilled from quarter to quarter.

Twelve Free Schools in the Niagara District have been established by the Municipal Council on the application of Trustees. We have been informed that in one of them the School closed upon the Rate-bill system with 18 pupils ; after a week's vacation, the same School was opened upon the Free System with 49 pupils.

Encouragement to attendance at the Normal School.—The Boston *Common School Journal* says, "Normal Teachers are obtaining higher wages than have ever before been given."

SCHOOL RELATIONS BETWEEN UPPER CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES.

In the preceding (175 and 176) pages of this number of the *Journal of Education* will be found some remarks of the Official Common School Journal for the State of New-York, on the *Report of a System of Public Instruction for Upper Canada*, and the exclusion of American School Books and Teachers from our Schools. In respect to the exclusion of Alien Teachers from our Schools, the Chief Superintendent, in his *Special Report* of June 1847, remarked as follows :—

“I think that less evil arises from the employment of American Teachers, than from the use of American School Books. Some unquestionable friends of British Government, and deeply interested in the cause of popular education, represent that the clause of the Act not allowing legal certificates of qualification as Teachers to Aliens, operates, in some places, injuriously to the interests of Common Schools, as Aliens are the best Teachers that can be procured in those places. The provision exhibiting the qualification of Aliens as Common School Teachers constituted the 37th Section of the School Act of 1843; but as it did not take effect until 1846, it has been erroneously identified

with the present Act in contradistinction to the late Act. Trustees and parents can employ Aliens or whom they please as Teachers; but both the late and present School Act confine the expenditure of the School Fund to the remuneration of Teachers possessing legal certificates of qualification. Whatever may be thought of the wisdom or expediency of the clause restricting legal certificates of qualification to natural-born or naturalized British subjects in the first instance, I believe the public sentiment is against its repeal, and in favour of having the youth of the country taught by our fellow-subjects, as well as out of our own books.”—(pp. 15, 16.)

From all the information that we have received, we are not less doubtful of the expediency of this alien clause of the School Act than we were twelve months ago. But it is worthy of remark, that a Canadian Teacher cannot look for employment in the Common Schools of the United States. We have been informed of Canadian applicants having been rejected upon the ground of their being *British* subjects, and that this was the general rule in the State of New-York. The Canadians are therefore not less national on this subject than our American neighbours. The reciprocity desired by the New-York State *District School Journal* would certainly be more honourable to both countries.

As to the indiscriminate use of American School Books in our Schools, the reasons for the law against it are given in the *Special Report* above referred to, in immediate connection with the sentence quoted by our American contemporary. We should have been glad to have been favoured with his answer to them. They are as follows :—

“In regard to the exclusion of American Books from our Schools, I have explained, as I have had opportunity, that it is not be-

cause they are foreign books simply that they are excluded, although it is patriotic to use our own in preference to foreign

publications; but because they are, with very few exceptions, anti-British, in every sense of the word.

"They are unlike the School Books of any other enlightened people, so far as I have the means of knowing. The School Books of Germany, France, and Great Britain, contain nothing hostile to the institutions or derogatory to the character of any other nation. I know not of a single English School Book in which there is an allusion to the United States not calculated to excite a feeling of respect for their inhabitants and government. It is not so with American School Books. With very few exceptions, they abound in statements

and allusions prejudicial to the institutions and character of the British nation. It may be said that such statements and allusions are 'few and far between,' and exert no injurious influence upon the minds of children and their parents. But surely no School Book would be tolerated which should contain statements and allusions 'few and far between,' against the character and institutions of our common Christianity. And why should books be authorized or used in our Schools inveighing against the character and institutions of our common country?"—(*Special Report,* &c., pp. 14, 15.)

Would the Conductor of the *District School Journal*, or his government, encourage or allow the use of Foreign Books in the Common Schools of the State of New-York, which reflected upon the Institutions and character of the American people? Would they patronise School-books which contained paragraphs, lessons, and orations, denouncing the government of the United States as a tyranny, its people as tyrants or slaves, its institutions as incompatible with human freedom? We are sure they would not. We are satisfied that the most enlightened Educationists in the United States will say that their Institutions do not require the support of this peculiarity in their School-books, and the removal of it will be honourable to themselves, and terminate the objection to the use of their books in the schools of other countries.

To show that the Board of Education for Upper Canada are not actuated by any narrow views on this subject, we may remark that the only American *School Geography*—MORSE'S—which has been written in a truly enlightened and liberal spirit, has been sanctioned and recommended to be used in Schools in Upper Canada.

When we advance a step farther in our School System, by providing for the establishment of Common School Libraries in Upper Canada, we doubt not but our Board of Education will readily adopt and recommend perhaps nineteen-twentieths of the admirable and cheap publications which constitute the Common School Libraries of the States of Massachusetts and New-York. Many of those publications are reprints of English books, or Translations from the French and German, and are as suitable to Canada as to the United States; as also many works written or compiled by American authors.

We acknowledge our great obligations to our American neighbours for their excellent System of Popular Education, of which our own is but an off-shoot. We have availed ourselves of their School experience and improvements, and hope to continue to do so; although we fear some of our Cities and Towns

may prove to be too far behind the age to profit at present by the noble example of the patriotic system of free Schools, which are regarded as a matter of course and an essential attribute of civilization in their Cities and Towns, where the whole population feel guilty and disgraced by the neglected ignorance of any one class, and where the means of a good English Education are regarded as the birth-right of every citizen.

We cordially reciprocate the courteous sentiments and friendly feelings of our able American fellow-labourer in the work of public instruction ; and we hope the only future rivalry between the two countries will be that of educating, elevating, and promoting the happiness of all classes of their respective populations, and blessing mankind by the example of their virtues and the exercise of their charities.

Free School System in the State of Massachusetts.—Governor BRIGGS concludes his Message, at the opening of the State Legislature in January last, in the following emphatic words :—

“ Before a Chief Magistrate of Massachusetts, standing in this high place, and addressing the assembled Representatives of the people, will propose to withdraw from the children of the poor the means of a Common School education, Plymouth

Rock and Bunker Hill must sink into the ocean, and the names of those illustrious and good men who laid deep in our hard soil the foundation of *Free Schools*, must be blotted from the records of history.”

We believe the citizens of Boston and the inhabitants of Massachusetts are not “*paupers* ;” but that they will advantageously compare with the opponents of *Free Schools* in other cities and countries. Whether the testimony of Governor Briggs and the experience and civilization of New-England, or the assertion of persons who have never examined the subject, are entitled to most respect on this subject, any reader can decide for himself. The principles of righteousness, the spirit of patriotism, and the lessons of experience, will ultimately prevail ; and the poor man, and the labouring man will not always be neglected and despised. Notwithstanding what has occurred, we are credibly informed that the attendance of children at the Common Schools in the City of Toronto is one-third larger than it was last year. In the Town of Belleville, we have been informed, the number of children attending the Common Schools last year was 170 ; this year it exceeds 350. Facts are a better test of a system than declamation.

The unavoidable absence of the principal Editor has delayed the publication of this number of the *Journal* for a few days.

PAMPHLETS RECEIVED.

We beg to acknowledge the receipt of the following pamphlets :—

Minutes of the Home District Council ; January, 1848.

Journal of the Proceedings of the Municipal Council of the District of Gore ; February, 1848.

Rapport de M. le Surintendant de l'Education du Bas Canada pour l'année Scolaire, 1846-7.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS—To 17th June, inclusive.

Supt. Niagara District, rem. for 180 copies *March No.*—Supt. Bathurst District, rem. and subs.—Supt. Simcoe District, rem. and subs.—Clerk Wellington District, rem. and subs.—Supt. Newcastle District, (many thanks)—Rem. from Levi Lewis, Esq., Jacob Brouse, Esq.; Messrs. Russell, W. Hatton, W. H. White, J. Middleton, T. Milne, A. McAuley, J. Flett, A. Weldon; Rev. Geo. Kennedy, Rev. J. Williams. Back numbers supplied.

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TORONTO :—Printed and Published by J. H. LAWRENCE : and Sold by H. Rowse, Scobie & Balfour, A. Green, Brewer, McPhail, & Co., King Street ; Eastwood & Co., Yonge Street ; Eastwood & Co. King Street, Hamilton ; and by D. M. Dewey, Rochester, N. Y., by whom Subscribers will also be received.

TERMS—5s. per annum, in advance ; or 7½d. for a single copy.