Public Instruction in Sardinia.

AN ACCOUNT
OF THE
SYSTEM OF EDUCATION,
AND OF THE
INSTITUTIONS OF SCIENCE AND ART,
IN THE
KINGDOM OF SARDINIA.

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The following article on Public Instruction in Sardinia was prepared by Prof. Botta, for publication in the American Journal of Education, at the request of the Editor, and appeared in the numbers for June, September and December, 1857.

The writer was formerly a member of the Parliament of Sardinia, and was long connected with the department of Public Instruction, as professor of Philosophy in the colleges of that country. In connection with another member of the House of Deputies, (Dr. Luigi Parola,) he published in 1851, in Turin, an elaborate treatise of 1020 pages, on "Public Education in Germany" which is regarded as one of the best works on that subject. The following account will be read with interest, by all those engaged in educational pursuits, as well as by those, who consider Sardinia as the representative of the national rights and interests of Italy.

H. B.

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EDUCATION
IN THE
KINGDOM OF SARDINIA.

The system of public instruction in Sardinia embraces three degrees or departments, viz.: I. Primary Instruction. II. Secondary Instruction. III. Superior Instruction.

I. PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

The department of primary instruction includes the infant asylums and the common schools, both inferior and superior, for boys and girls.

INFANT ASYLUMS.—The first infant asylum in Sardinia was founded in Turin in 1825, by private benevolence. Since 1841, these institutions have rapidly increased under the direction of private individuals and associations, and they now number eighty, and contain about ten thousand children of both sexes, who are gratuitously admitted, instructed and fed; they are brought to the school early in the morning, and taken home late in the evening. They are admitted at the age of two years, and can remain in the asylum until they reach the age of six or seven.

The programme of instruction consists of three parts, corresponding to the three classes into which the pupils are divided. In the first class they are taught to pronounce their own names, to recite the Lord’s Prayer, the Ave Maria, and the first part of the catechism. They are also taught numeration, with the simplest problems of mental arithmetic, with mechanical illustrations; the first nine numeral figures, the names of portions of the human body and of other objects adapted to their comprehension. They read the vowels and the simplest syllabic combinations. In the second class the teaching of prayers and of the catechism is continued, with sacred narratives; more advanced exercises in arithmetic, written and mental, are given, syllables are continued, entire words read, and names of various productions of nature and art are learned. In the third class the studies of the preceding classes are continued and amplified, with the addition of sacred history, rudiments of fractions, the tables of weights and measures, reading and composition of phrases, singing, and gymnastic exercises.

The infant asylums are sustained entirely by private subscriptions, by subsidies from the municipalities, or by donations from other charitable institutions. The government has the right of inspection and some degree of direction. The teachers, who for the most part are women, are required to have the certificate of capacity from the appointed authorities.

* Prof. Botta is the author, in connection with Dr. Parola, of an elaborate treatise on Public Instruction in Germany,—Del Publico Insegnamento in Germania. Turin, 1851. 1032 pp.
COMMON SCHOOLS.—In 1772, a decree was published establishing primary schools, but with the sole object of preparing boys for the Latin schools, and they were strictly confined to the study of the first elements of the Italian language. The occupation of Sardinia by the republican government of France, at the close of the last century, gave a decided impulse to popular instruction. Every township was compelled to establish a common school for boys, in order to give to them instruction in reading, writing, and in the first elements of Italian, Latin, and French grammar. But on the restoration of the former government in 1814, all the laws and provisions which had been made were abolished, and public education was again entirely neglected, and regarded as revolutionary and dangerous. After the revolution of 1821, an attempt was made to reestablish the public schools, and a decree was issued by which all the chief boroughs, and, as far as possible, all the townships were obliged to support free schools for teaching children reading, writing, arithmetic, Christian doctrine, and the elements of the Italian language; but owing to the suspicions of the government and to the inability of its officers, this decree was neutralized, and little progress was made.

Meanwhile in all the countries of Europe pedagogical questions had assumed a new importance, and were treated in their social and political aspects by men of the highest ability. In Sardinia the opposition of the Jesuits to the infant asylums and popular schools had united all the liberals, who considered the education of the people as the first step toward independence, and who labored for it with all the enthusiasm that love of country and love of freedom could inspire. Under their combined influence, the government was obliged to make many provisions for the improvement and the extension of popular schools, and in 1844, established at Turin the first normal school for the education of teachers, which was soon followed by others in different cities.

The constitution granted in 1848 to the Sardinian states by Charles Albert, began a new era in the progress of the country, and securing political freedom, produced a happy necessity of a new and better system of public education. It prepared the way for the law published in the same year, which again provided for a free school in every township, and furnished a new programme and better methods for popular instruction.

According to this organization the common schools are divided into the inferior and superior. Each township is obliged to establish and support at least one inferior school; and none can establish a Latin school if it has not provided for a superior common school.

The Inferior Common Schools are divided into two classes, each of which has a course of one year. In the first year the children are taught spelling, reading, exercises of nomenclature from the first reading book, vowels and syllables first copied from the slate; and afterward written from dictation; numeration and calculation on the numeral frame, figures as high as one hundred; geometrical definitions and the drawing of right and curved lines, circles, and polygons, the first part of the catechism, and narratives from sacred history. In the second year the pupils receive instruction in the Italian language, the
first parts of speech and the conjugation of the verbs; they pass to the second reading book, into exercises in Italian, and go through the simplest rules of arithmetic with numbers as high as ten thousand. They continue the study and drawing of geometrical figures, plain and solid, the measure of squares and rectangles, parallelograms and triangles; exercises in the catechism and sacred history.

The Sardinian states contain a population of about five millions. The Continental Kingdom is divided into 39 provinces, which are subdivided into 2730 townships. In these in 1848, there were 3829 inferior public schools; and in 1856, 5622. The island of Sardinia has a population of 448,112, with only 6325 pupils in the elementary schools.

The number of private inferior schools is four hundred and ninety; the cost of the public inferior schools exceeds two millions of francs, of which one million and a half is given by the townships for the support of their own schools, and the remainder by private donations or charitable institutions. The government gives about 125 thousand francs, to be divided among the poorer townships. The townships are obliged to tax themselves for the support of their schools, and if they fail in this, the government itself imposes upon them the necessary tax.

The teachers of these schools number about six thousand. They are appointed by the municipalities subject to the approbation of the scholastic authorities; from which they must receive the certificate of capacity. Their salaries are different according to the different townships in which they are appointed.

The Primary Superior Schools complete the system of popular instruction. They are divided also into two courses of one year each, so that a complete course occupies four years. These schools have all been organized since 1848. Though there is no obligation upon the townships to establish the superior schools, yet in 1856, we find 239 of these institutions sustained entirely by them.

In the first year of the superior school the pupils are instructed in the third part of the catechism, the continuation of sacred history, the analysis of propositions, definitions of analyzed objects, short compositions of narratives and letters, exercises in caligraphy, measures of cubes, parallelopipeds, prisms, and pyramids, the drawing of circles and of curves used in drawing solids, and the study of the map of the world; the division of the earth, a general knowledge of Europe, a particular knowledge of Italy, especially of Sardinia; calculation of decimal fractions, and the legal system of weights and measures. In the second year the instruction in the catechism is concluded; sacred history continued with the history of the church, syntax of phrases and periods, and grammatical rules applied to the works of some of the Italian classical writers, narratives from the history of Italy; the measure of spheres, cones and cylinders, the principal figures of geometry; the particular geography of Europe, the elements of physical science applied to the uses of life, to agriculture and industry, and to the explanation of the principal phenomena of nature.

Inferior and Superior Primary Schools for Girls.—Under the ab-
solute government the education of women was not only entirely neglected, but considered superfluous and even dangerous. Before 1848, there were no institutions of learning for the daughters of the people, and those of the aristocracy received in the nunneries only a limited degree of instruction, pernicious in its effects and immoral in many of its results. After that time, the schools for the education of girls rapidly multiplied, and in 1856 the number of inferior schools exceeded 2792, and the superior 65. Besides these, there were many private schools established to counteract the influence of the nunneries. Since 1848, all the schools and the nunneries regarded as schools, have been submitted to the control of the government, and the teachers obliged to pass an examination from its officers and to obtain their certificate.

In the inferior schools for girls they are taught reading, writing, the elements of arithmetic and of the Italian language, and the catechism. In the superior, writing, grammar, domestic book-keeping, composition, geography, ancient and modern history, and Christian doctrine.

The teachers are divided into three classes:—instructresses, teachers properly so called, and assistants. The two former are obliged to pass an examination before a committee appointed by the government. Since 1850, many municipalities and private associations have founded normal schools for the preparation of able teachers of the schools for girls. Custom, if not law, prescribes men for instructors of boys, and women for girls; the only exception to this rule is in the infant asylums.

There are also popular schools for adults supported by the municipalities or by private philanthropy. They are open for the day, the evening, or on Sunday, and are either elementary or superior. In the first they are taught reading, writing, Italian, arithmetic, and the system of weights and measures. We find these elementary schools in almost all the townships of the average population. The superior schools of this class are found in the larger towns and cities, and their course of instruction includes Italian grammar, constitutional rights and duties, civil laws most in practical use, geography and history, domestic and rural economy, public and private hygiene, arithmetic applied to industry and commerce, book-keeping, the principles of geometry applied to agriculture, arts and trades, linear drawing, and the elements of natural sciences.

In regard to the method of teaching in the primary schools, the teachers are desired to follow the laws of the development of the human mind. In the best schools the method of Pestalozzi is adopted, which rests on the following basis:—1st. Religion, the universal principle, and common to all the branches of education. 2d. Morals and logic, the prominent principle of method. 3d. Education of man considered in his totality, and harmonious nature. 4th. Full development of the faculties, peculiar dispositions and individualities of each pupil. 5th. Union and order of the faculties and of the different departments of learning. 6th. Method of education entirely positive. 7th. Intuition, principal basis and means of instruction. 8th. Gradation of all the branches of education. 9th.
Union of the elements of both domestic and public education. 10th. Human life considered as essential and universal means of education. It is also recommended to the teachers to lead their pupils to self-instruction, to avoid every thing which can overcharge and confuse their memory, and to aid them in the gradual development of their faculties. Internal perception and observation ought to precede the analysis of the objects which are to be taught; reading and writing ought to be considered as means, not as an object of instruction; language as expression of human thought, and arithmetic as expression of human reasoning; the passage from the simplest and easiest ideas to more complex and difficult ones is considered as the fundamental principle of pedagogy.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.—These are called schools of method, as their object is to teach the method of instruction. The first school of this class was founded in 1844, for those who were afterward to become professors of method and to preside over schools for teachers. This school belongs to the university of Turin, and we shall speak of it elsewhere. In 1845 special schools for teachers were established in the principal cities of the kingdom, and their course is limited to the three months of autumnal vacations. They are inferior and superior as they give instruction to the teachers of these different classes. In the inferior schools of method there are three courses given by a professor and by two assistants; the former teaches method, the latter the objects of primary instruction. The teachers who have not yet obtained the certificate of capacity are obliged to attend these schools, and after their course to pass an examination.—The superior schools were first opened in 1850; they last four months and give an instruction appropriate to their object. Since 1845 about 150 of these temporary schools have been opened. The professors are appointed by the government, under whose direction and control these schools are. They are supported however by the provinces and townships, the local authorities of which have desired their establishment in the districts.

We find also in many cities schools of method for instruction of the teachers of girls; they are entirely supported by the municipal authorities. Their programme is different in different cities, extending in some only through three or four months, in others during the year, and one in Turin has a course of three years.

The cost of all the primary instruction, inferior and superior, including the schools of method, was in the year 1856, of 3,557,212 francs. The whole number of pupils in the winter of the same year was 343,927 or 235,349 boys and 133,587 girls; and in the summer 120,520 boys, and 79,925 girls.

GOVERNMENT OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS.—All the schools which we have now described are directed, under the authority of the minister of public instruction, by a general Board of elementary education, by provincial Boards, inspectors and local superintendents. The general Board is presided over by the general inspector of the normal schools and of the primary instruction, and is composed of the following members, taken from the university of Turin. 1. Professor of method. 2. Professor of
philosophy. 3. Professor of belles-lettres. 4. Professor of mathematics. 5. Professor of natural sciences. 6. Professor of religion, in the national college of the same city. To this Board belongs the general direction of all the primary and normal schools of the kingdom, and under their authority, provincial boards are instituted in all the provinces. These are composed of the royal superintendent of the province, of the superintendent of education in the province, of the provincial inspector of the primary instruction, of two professors of the college of the city, of a normal teacher, and of two members of the provincial council. These provincial boards, the inspectors, and the local superintendents, who reside in all the central townships, form the connecting link between the schools of the townships, the provinces, and the central authority.

No one can teach in the primary schools, either public or private, without a certificate of competency from the government, given on the authority of a special committee appointed to examine the students of the normal schools. The government upon the nomination of the general board appoints the provincial inspectors, whose salary however is paid by the provinces. The municipalities nominate the teachers of their schools from among those who received the certificate of capacity; but the appointment to be valid must be confirmed by the provincial board.

It is unnecessary to enter into any criticism of the primary and normal schools of Sardinia; the system introduced in 1848 must be considered as a decided improvement upon the former institutions, and the country during the short period since its establishment has been greatly benefited. Yet experience has proved the system defective in some points, and the liberal party of the country is earnestly engaged in preparing new reforms, which are required by the conditions of the people. Among these reforms it is proposed:

1st. To reduce the administration to a more simple system; and the Parliament had recently under consideration a new bill to this effect.* 2d. To enforce the obligation of parents to send their children to school—as in the present system there is great negligence in this respect, and it is considered as a necessary step for securing the free institutions of the country, to provide by legal force for the education of the people. 3d. To establish better normal schools, with a course of two years for the teachers of the inferior school, and of three years for the teachers of the superior school. 4th. To declare teachers functionaries of the state, and after having taught for thirty years to be provided with a competent pension for the remainder of their lives. 5th. To increase the salaries of the teachers, so as to enable them to devote themselves entirely to their profession. 6th. To oblige the townships to establish not only inferior, but superior schools both for boys and girls; besides Sunday and evening schools for the adults.

II. SECONDARY INSTRUCTION.

The secondary schools are divided into the classical and techni-
cal. In the former the students are taught the ancient and modern languages and literatures, and the elements of philosophy and science, as a preparation for the studies of the university. In the latter the elementary course of instruction is continued, and the students prepared for the exercise of the different professions, for which the university makes no special provision.

Secondary Classical Schools.—To this department of instruction belong,—1st, The Public Latin Schools. 2d, The Royal Colleges. 3d, The National Colleges.

Public Latin Schools—are those in which, without being supported by the government, a part or the whole of the Latin course is given with the course of philosophy and science. They are also called municipal colleges, and are complete when their programme embraces besides the four classes of the primary school, three courses of Latin grammar, two of rhetoric, and two of philosophy. They are incomplete, if the courses of rhetoric, or even of philosophy are omitted. The municipal colleges, either complete or incomplete, are supported by the municipalities, but the professors and teachers are appointed by the government, which directs their instruction, inspects their schools, prescribes their programmes and text-books, and has the general control of them. These and especially the incomplete schools under the absolute government were multiplied in every township, and for a long time took the place of popular schools. They have always been of a very low standard and sustained only to keep alive the prejudices of the peasants, who believed that a knowledge of Latin was the highest attainment of wisdom, and by the interest of the clergy, who found in these schools the pupils for their seminaries. In 1850, there were yet 118 inferior Latin schools, of which only 14 gave a full course of grammar. There were besides 47 incomplete colleges, in which two courses of rhetoric were given, and in a few of them a partial course of philosophy. Since that time a great number of these incomplete schools were abolished, and primary superior schools substituted for them.

Royal Colleges.—In every principal city there is a royal college, supported by the government, with the exception of the Latin inferior classes, in which the salaries of the teachers are paid by the municipality. The constitution of 1848 found six of these royal colleges in the hands of the Jesuits, viz.: one of the colleges of Turin, one of Genoa, the colleges of Nice, of Novara, of Voghera, of Chambery. In that year the Jesuits having been expelled from the country, the government organized those colleges according to a new system, upon which afterward all the royal colleges were organized, and called them national.

National Colleges.—The improvements introduced by these institutions are felt in all branches of public instruction. They have prolonged the course of primary schools from two to four years, introduced into the system the superior course and improved the inferior. They have also improved the programme and the method of classical instruction, simplified the philosophical and scientific course, and organized a
new system of examination. While in the former colleges the instruction was given by eight or nine teachers, in the new ones the programme is carried out by fifteen or twenty professors, whose condition was bettered by the new organization.

The course of Latin Grammar is of three years, and it is divided into three parts, over each of which presides a professor. No one can enter into the first part of the course without having passed an examination on the subjects of the highest primary course. The promotion from a part of one course to another depends always on the result of the examination. The following is the programme of the grammatical course:

First year.—Continuation of the Italian grammar, the first elements of the Latin grammar. Sacred history and arithmetic.

Second year.—Italian grammar, grammatical rules applied to the explanation of some selected pieces of classic writers from the reader. Elements of Latin grammar continued. Sacred history and arithmetic.


Course of Rhetoric with two professors. First year.—Composition, explanation of the text-book of rhetoric, Greek grammar, religion, history, mathematics. Second year.—Different kinds of composition, both in prose and poetry, explanation of the text-book of rhetoric in connection with the compositions which are under examination. Greek grammar.—Its rules applied to the explanation of some selected pieces from the reader. Religion, history, mathematics, French language. Besides their own professors, the courses of grammar and rhetorics have four professors in common for the instruction of religion, history, and geography; mathematics; and modern languages.

Course of Philosophy with two professors. First year.—Logic and metaphysics, algebra, plane and solid geometry, religion, Italian and Latin literature. Second year.—Moral philosophy with the exposition of constitutional duties and rights, physical science, religion and natural history; viz.: the elements of mineralogy, zoology, botany and geology. This course has in common with the preceding, the professor of religion, and besides the two professors of philosophy, has a professor of natural history. The lectures on Italian and Latin literature prescribed for the first year of this course are delivered by one of the professors of rhetoric. No student is admitted to the course of philosophy before the age of fourteen years.

After having pursued all the collegiate courses and passed successfully the examination of the second year of the course of philosophy, the students are allowed to present themselves for examination preparatory to their admission to the university. This examination is conducted by various committees, composed of professors from the university itself, and is scientific and literary. The first scientific examination consists of oral questions on logic, metaphysics, arithmetic, algebra, and geometry; the second of questions on moral philosophy and physical science. The
literary examination is both written and oral. The written embraces a Latin and Italian composition. The oral runs through the examination of the written compositions, and of the questions suggested by them. It consists besides of interpretation of the Latin and Italian classics, according to the programme, and of questions drawn from ancient and modern history. The questions of history, logic, metaphysics, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, moral philosophy and physical science, to which the candidate is requested to answer, are drawn from the programmes, which are prescribed by the government as guides for the lectures, to be delivered by the professors on the said subjects. The committee which is to preside over the examination of each student is also drawn by lot.

An entire liberty is left to the professors in selecting the methods of their teaching. Yet the greatest care is recommended in order to regulate the secondary instruction according to the laws of a rational methodology. The instruction of languages and especially of Latin is considered as a most essential means of mental training. It is not the language in itself which is considered of so great importance, but it is its eminently logical construction, which renders the Latin the most powerful instrument of general education. The study of this language must be directed in such a way as to make of it the expression of the genius and development of human thought. The analysis of the classic writers must give the interpretation of the great ideas of the Roman ages; the explanation of the orators and poets must present the living image of the works of art, of war, of politics of the entire world, which has been under the dominion of Rome. This instruction is given in three degrees through the courses of grammar and of rhetoric, from etymology and syntax to the rules of different kinds of style. The former parts are taught in the course of grammar, the latter in the course of rhetoric, so that the great rule of method is observed through all that instruction, viz.: the passage from the known to the unknown, from the easy to the difficult, from the simple to the compound. The teachers are accustomed to unite the composition of easy and short sentences to the study of words in order to render more intellectual the etymological exercises. As soon as the pupils begin to learn how to compose those sentences, they are taught to translate from the Latin into Italian, and from Italian into Latin; in which exercises the teachers are requested to take particular care in showing to their classes the analogy of the two languages. Learning the etymology and syntax in the two first years of the grammatical course especially by practice and experience, in the third year the students are taught the science of those parts of the grammar, and learn how to apply the grammatical principles to the explanation and translation of the easiest Latin writers, like C. Nepos, Phaedrus, the letters of Caesar, Cicero, &c. Before leaving the course of grammar they begin to translate Ovid, and to study the first elements of poetry.

In the course of rhetoric the instruction of Latin becomes more scientific, or rather is transformed into a study of philology and rhetoric. Compositions of different kinds become the task of every day; Livy,
Sallust, Tacitus, the orations of Cicero, Virgil, Horace are taken for the daily reading, interpretation, and translation. The teachers are desired to dwell not so much on the beauties of the language, and on its character, as in showing the ways with which the writers unite together the different parts of speech, giving to their writings unity, order, and harmony.

To give more unity to this study, each professor of the grammatical course carries through all the course the full programme, so that the students passing from the first to the second part of their course, do not change their teacher, who follows them in their progress. The same thing must be said of the professors of rhetoric. While the school of Latin proposes to make Latin scholars, who are taught to speak and to write that language with purity and elegance, the school of Greek has a more limited object, viz.: of teaching the simple knowledge of the Greek writers. The method, however, of this instruction does not differ in its substance from that which is followed in teaching the Latin. The same method is applied to the Italian, which as the national language takes one of the most important parts in the programme of the secondary schools, in which the instruction of the primary course is continued and amplified. We might say that, in the course of rhetoric, the national literature is studied rather than the language, which finds a complete instruction in the primary, superior, and grammar schools. Besides these languages, in the colleges generally, the pupils are taught French, in a few German, and in some, the English language. The method is left entirely to the discrimination of the teachers.

Mathematics form another branch of study which is considered of the most vital importance in the secondary courses. The courses of grammar return to the experimental and theoretical arithmetic, which has been a subject of instruction in the primary schools. But it is rather than mere repetition of the same study, a complement and perfection of elementary arithmetic, which in this course is treated not only in its determined quantities, both integral and fractionaries, but also as an expression of undetermined quantities, giving in this way to the pupils the first and fundamental principles of algebra. This subject is more enlarged in the course of rhetoric, in which the students are taught a more direct application of the arithmetical principles to the ordinary uses of domestic and commercial economy, and it becomes one of the two main studies of the first part of the course of philosophy, in which the knowledge acquired in the preceding schools is revived and amplified on its philosophical grounds, and completed with a thorough study of algebra and of plain and solid geometry. The complete programme of mathematical study as it is developed in the secondary schools follows this order:—idea of quantity and of number; system of enumeration; the four arithmetical operations on integral numbers; their reduction, and philosophical grounds; application of the rules to solution of problems; the properties of divisibility of integral numbers; division of numbers; fractions, their theory and principles; nature and character of fractions;
reduction of fractions to their simplest expression; the greatest common divisor; reduction of fractions to the same denominator. The rules of the first operations applied to fractions; alone and with integral numbers. Decimal fractions; system of their construction and enunciation; their addition, subtraction, multiplication, division; reduction of an ordinary fraction to a decimal one; periodical simple, and periodical mixed; transformation of fractions into others of same value, etc. Complex numbers, their addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. The decimal metric system, which is the legal system of weights and measures of the country—its relation with the systems used in other countries. Difference between arithmetic and algebra; system of algebraical enumeration, main algebraical operations, rules, and their philosophical grounds. Powers of numbers, and their formation; extraction of square and cubic roots, both of integral and fractionary numbers—equations and their different degrees. Solution of equations of the first and the second degree, with one or more unknown quantities. Problems in relation with the theory of equations. Ratio and proportions. Properties of arithmetical and of geometrical proportions. Direct and inverted ratios. Rule of three and problems. Double rule of three. Rule of interest and its application to business, especially to loss and gain, to reduction of currencies, to fellowship, etc. Geometry is taught in the first year of the course of philosophy; but before that time the pupils received the fundamental ideas of that science, especially in the superior primary course. In the course of philosophy this teaching receives a complete development, in the following order. After having given the first and fundamental ideas, the professor of geometry considers in his lectures straight lines on one and the same plane, then he explains the theories, the theorems, and the problems on angles, perpendicular and oblique lines on triangles, on parallels, on polygons, on proportional lines, on similar polygons, and on the area of polygons; then proceeds to circles and straight lines on one and the same plane; and undertakes to develop the theorems and to solve the problems on the circumferences of the circles and the straight lines, which have some points in common; on the measure of angles, on the relations of straight lines which meet in and out of the circle; on regular polygons inscribed and circumscribed, and on the area of circle; after which he applies the theories to the solution both by analysis and synthesis to the most important geometrical problems. Then comes the study of planes, and of spaces ended by planes; of planes meeting straight lines; of dyhedron angles, of polyhedron angles, of polyhedrons in general, and especially of pyramid and prism, on volume of polyhedron on similar polyhedrons. Then cylinder, cone, sphere, their parts, properties, measure, volume of sphere, etc., and the application of the theories to practical problems.

History, not less than mathematics, takes an important place in the programme. The fundamental ideas of geography precede the teaching of this branch, and in the course of grammar the professor is desired to give to his pupils a clear knowledge of the earth and of its natural
divisions, using in their teaching maps and drawings. In the same time
with geography is given the instruction of history by ethnographical pro-
cess; the basis of the historical study is laid, however, in the history of
Rome and Greece, to which the histories of all other ancient peoples are
in some way connected. The history of Rome especially becomes one
of the most important objects of all the instruction, as it is the founda-
tion not only of modern civilization, but of all the history of Italy, to
which the attention of the pupils is directed, as to the history of their
own nation. This is divided into different periods, from the primitive
immigrations to modern times. After having examined the different im-
migrations the professor considers the foundation of Rome, and follows
its early development in religion, politics, and general civilization. Then
he examines the causes of the Roman greatness in the republic, describ-
ing its constitution with the modifications which were gradually intro-
duced in it, the conquests made through a century of war, the corrup-
tion, and the civil perturbations of the internal factions, pointing out the
Gracchi, the war of Jugurtha, Marius and Sylla, Pompeius, Crassus,
Cesar, Cicero, Catilina, the first triumvirate, Cesar’s dictatorship,
which brought the agony and death of the republic. The attention of
the pupils is next directed to the rise of the Roman empire, to its progress,
through the age of Augustus, to its decline under Tiberius, its various vic-
sesitudes under the sway of the three last scions of Cesar’s family,
and of the three Flavii, their successors. Then the best century of the
empire is considered in the times of Trajan and his successors, until the
commencement of its decline through many emperors from Commodus
to the successors of Diocletian, to be restored again by Constantine, for
some time, till it is destroyed. In perusing this period of the Roman
history, the professor is requested to mark the different characters of the
two civilizations, which he meets in that period, the one old and pa-
gan, the other new and christian. The invasion of the barbarians, the
restoration of the kingdom under the Longobards, the popes, and their
quarrel with the dukes and kings, the fall of the Longobards, the forma-
tion of a code of laws, which ruled for a long time all the civil nations,
Charlemagne, and the kings sent by the emperor to rule Italy. Their
successors form the subject of another period, and thus the period of the
Italian municipalities is opened, in which so many great historical facts
recur to the teachers. Here we find the age of Gregory VII., the first
municipal constitutions, the crusades, the quarrels between cities, em-
perors, and popes, the insolence of the feudal masters, the schism of the
west, the parties which divided the entire nation. Here the programme
takes great amplification on account of the history of Piedmont which as
an individual state properly begins from this period. (1100—1434.)
The professor of history is naturally called to dwell with preference on
this part of the history of Italy, and to endeavor to give to his pupils a
clear and thorough idea of its gradual development. He is requested
also to describe the ages and the facts of the Visconti, Medici, of the other
most influential families, the different schisms which occurred in this
period, and finally the civilization of this age, which in many respects surpassed not only the preceding but also the following periods. Next comes the history of the Spanish dominion over Italy, the ages of Emanuel Phillibert, Charles Emanuel I., Victor Amedeus II., the wars of the French revolution, the treaty of Campo Formio, the peace of Amiens, Napoleon consul and president of the Italian republic, and then emperor and king of Italy. The programme is closed with a view of the treaty of 1815, of the partial revolutions which have taken place in Italy since that time, and especially the great struggle for the national independence in 1848-49.

Logic, metaphysics, and geometry constitute the main studies of the first part of the course of philosophy. Having given before the programme of geometry, we will add here the order of the subjects of logic and metaphysics, on which the professor is required to deliver his daily lectures. As an introduction to that study, some lectures are delivered on the general idea of philosophy, on its definition, division, method, and history. Then the teaching goes through the fundamental principles of anthropology, as far as is necessary to prepare the minds of the pupils for the higher questions of logic and metaphysics. Thus a general description of the human faculties is given, grouping all in three great divisions, of animal, intellectual, and moral. The senses, sensual imagination, animal instinct, intellectual perception, attention, analysis and synthesis, abstraction, judgment, reasoning, memory, intellectual imagination, will, freedom, spiritual sentiment and instinct, present so many different subjects of instruction, and afford the occasion of refuting the doctrine of the sensualist school, after which the programme enters in logic properly so called. This is considered as the science of the art of reasoning. And as the object of reasoning is certitude, viz.: the certain knowledge of truth, so logic is divided in two parts; the first of which proposes to teach the essence of truth, to establish its existence, and to show that reasoning is the certain means to attain it; the second part teaches the method of reasoning to this end. Thus after having explained the nature of truth, the professor establishes its existence, refutes all scepticisms, inquiries into the supreme criterion of truth and certitude, distinguishes different species of certitude and settles their relative principles, draws the different theories of probability, and shows the nature of ignorance, doubt, and error, pointing out their causes and remedies. Entering afterward into the art of reasoning, viz.: into methodology, he distinguishes the different species of method, inquisitive, deductive, and inductive, establishes their different nature and laws, and takes this occasion for developing the theory of argumentation, its different forms, and faults; he concludes the first part of logic with the theory and rules of criticism and exegesis. In the second part are considered the principles of the didactic method, of which the laws are settled, and fixes the rules of division, definition, and demonstration; finally the pupils are directed to the method of polemics, by learning the rules which ought to preside over every kind of disputation, academic or Socratic.
Metaphysics are divided into three parts; psychology, cosmology, and theology. In the first is considered the nature of the human soul, and its simplicity and spirituality is demonstrated by its three fundamental faculties. The origin of the human soul, its connection with the body, and its immortality form the other subjects of psychology. Cosmology considers the world in its ultimate reasons, and treats of the nature of contingent beings and of their cause, of the general order of the world, and establishes the general cosmic laws, to which all created beings are submitted. Theology is preceded by an introduction, in which are laid down the principles of ontology; viz.: the science which considers the being in its unity of essence and in its trinity of forms. This leads the mind to theology, in which the existence of God is demonstrated, his attributes described, and especially the relation of the creating act, both with the act of the divine essence and of the creatures themselves, is considered.

In the second year of the course of philosophy the students are taught moral philosophy and physical science.

The professor of moral philosophy divides his teaching in two main parts; in the first of which he considers ethics in their general principles, in the second in their application. The general ethics are divided in three parts, viz.: pure nomology, i.e., the science of the supreme moral principle; moral psychology, viz.: the science of man considered as a subject of moral obligation; and moral logic, viz.: the science which teaches the art of applying moral law to man. Here we have the discussion on the essence of morality, of good and evil generally and especially, of moral law, of the supreme moral principle, and its consequences, of natural law, considered as innate, of its character and properties, of its promulgation, obligation and sanction. After having given a comparative history of the principal moral systems which occur in the history of philosophy, the professor enters upon the exposition of the moral faculties, and establishes the nature of human as distinguished from moral acts and of moral as distinguished from free acts, and gives the theory of moral responsibility. In moral logic he considers especially the nature and origin of moral conscience, its species and rules. Then coming to the application he considers the principal moral formulas, which are derived from the supreme moral Imperative, and dwells upon those, the objects of which are God and man. Here he discourses on religion, and religious duties and especially on the Christian religion, considered in itself above all sectarian doctrines. Then comes the discussion on duties toward ourselves and our neighbors, on the duties of our own moral, intellectual, and eudæmonologic perfection, on the criterion of our duties toward our neighbors, on duties of justice, and benevolence, where the complete theory is given of right, its different species, its derivation, transmission and modification. Then the discussion on duties arising from society,—on society itself, and on its different species, natural, domestic and civil. In speaking of civil society, the professor is required to give a complete exposition of the political constitution of the country,
and of duties, and rights arising from it. Finally the moral formulas are considered in the man, who executes them, in his moral habits; and here a complete theory is given of moral virtue and vice, and of their species.

The programme of physical science is the following: First part.—Object of the physical science, bodies, matter, atoms, simple and compound bodies, constitution of bodies, general properties of bodies, natural forces or agents.—Statics; equilibrium of a material point. Parallel forces. Simple machines. Dynamics. Simple movement. Compound and uniform movement. Reflexed movement. Elastic and not elastic bodies. Hydrostatics; Homogeneous liquids, pressure of liquids, floating or immersed bodies, specific gravity, heterogeneous liquids. Hydrodynamics; Torricelli's theorem, and its different applications. Pneumatics; gravity of the air, barometer, elasticity of the air, Mariotti's law, elasticity of a mixture of gases. Acoustics; velocity, intensity, echo, properties of sounds, vibrating cords, scale, harmonious sounds, the sense of hearing, and of voice. Astronomy; fundamental ideas of uranography, and geography. Sphere, celestial globes, terrestrial globes, and geographical maps. Apparent movement of the sun, moon, planets. Proofs of the truth of the system of Copernicus, Kepler's laws, precession of the equinoxes, the tides, general idea of the solar system, comets, peculiarities of the sun and planets; sidereal astronomy; fixed stars, distances, parallax, double stars, movement of the stars, nebulous stars, milky way, measures of time. Second part.—Molecular attraction; crystallization, theory of Hauy—relation between the crystalline form and the atomic constitution of bodies, isomorphism, and bimorphism, chemical laws, allotropy, capillary attraction, endosmosis, molecular constitution of bodies, mechanical qualities of bodies. Calorie; variation of volume and temperature, thermometer, common thermometer, differential thermometer, thermoscopeum of Rumford, pyrometers, changes, latent and sensible calorie, caloric of fusion, caloric of elasticity, specific caloric,—method of mixtures, Lavoisier's method, method of cooling. Specific caloric of gases, specific caloric with a constant pressure and a constant volume, radiant caloric, its intensity, reflexion of caloric, reflecting power, diffusion of caloric, power of emission and absorption, transmitted caloric, termocrosis, conducted caloric, its coefficient, safety lamp. Steams and gases, elasticity of steams, mixture of steams and gases, density, influence of pressure on evaporation, ebullition, Papin's digester, colipile, steam-engines, hygrometry, Saussure's hygrometer, other hygrometers, sources of caloric, caloric by mechanical action, molecular actions, chemical operations, animal heat, artificial cold, mixtures producing cold. Static electricity; sources of electricity, conductors and non-conductors, electrical machines, attractions and repulsions, hypothesis of two fluids, electrometers, electrical light, electrical induction, diffusion of electricity on the superficies of bodies, points, accumulated electricity, Leyden jar, magic table, condensed electrophorus, electrical battery, lightning, lightning-rods, hypothesis of Franklin. Galvanism; Experiments of Galvani and Volta, experiment of disks, Voltaic pile—Its theory according to Volta, chemical theory of the
piles, electrometers, effects of the electrical current, chemical, physic, and physiologic effects, electricity developed from heat, electricity in the crystal thermo-electrical currents, thermo-electrical piles, electricity of steam-engines, animal electricity. *Magnetism;* General phenomena, ancient hypotheses on magnetism, artificial magnetic, polarity, declination, inclination, and variations of the magnetic needle, compass, magnetic intensity. *Electro-magnetism;* Ampere's theory, electro-dynamic and electro-magnetic forces, analogies between electro-dynamic cylinders, magnet, and earth, electro-dynamical state of the earth, electro-magnetic and magneto-electric induction, electro-magnetic and magneto-electric currents, their chemical force, secondary currents of induction, Volta-electric induction, double induction, current inducted from the Leyden jar, hypothesis on the terrestrial magnetism. *Optics;* catoptrics, theories of light, its propagation, its intensity, law of reflection, images of plain mirrors, spherical mirrors, anaamorphosis; dioptrics, refraction, Descartes' law, prism, lens, amplifying force, optical instruments, sight, decomposition of light, property of the spectrum, achromatism, colors, defraction, colored images, reflection and refraction in the theory of undulations, constitutions of a ray, colors of polarized light, circular polarity, polarity of caloric and chemical rays. *Meteorology;* constitution of the atmosphere, terrestrial temperature, middle temperature, temperature of the ground in different depths, temperature of fountains, temperature of lakes and seas, atmospheric temperatures, perpetual snows. *Winds;* periodical winds, irregular winds, hurricanes, waterspouts, watery meteors, dew, white-frost, clouds and fog, rain, snow, wonderful rains, hail, electric and fire meteors, atmospheric electricity, phosphoric fires, meteoric stones, and falling stars, aurora borealis; light meteors, rainbow, parhelions, fata morgana, barometric variations, periodic and irregular.

The teaching on physical science is given by lectures, recitations, written composition; and it is explained by a series of experiments, which the pupils attend according to the order of the lectures. For these experiments the municipalities are requested to furnish the colleges of their own cities with apparatus and instruments, of which every college possesses a collection more or less complete.* The other parts of the course of philosophy are also taught by lectures, and by recitations, in which generally the Socratic method is followed. The teaching of the courses of grammar and of rhetoric proceeds by lectures, reading and explanation of classics, by translations and compositions, and by learning the theoretic rules of grammar and of rhetoric, which are previously explained by the professors from the text-books, and which are gradually applied to practical examples.

The discipline of the schools is kept by a stringent enforcement of all the regulations, which are sanctioned by the permanent committee for the direction of the secondary instruction. Yet every kind of corporal punishment is strictly prohibited not only in the secondary, but also in

* Besides these collections of scientific apparatus, almost every city possesses a public library for the use of its college and population.
the primary courses; and the only means allowed for the correction of the refractory pupils are the admonition given by the professor, by the director, or by the superintendent of the schools, according to the nature of the offense. Sometimes the admonition is given before the collegial council, and when this fails to bring the pupil to his duty, he is formally expelled from the college. In this case he can not be admitted into any other college of the State, before he obtains such an admission from the government.

The secondary instruction in the colleges of the State is almost free; as the pupils are only obliged to pay a small annual fee of fifteen francs. The teaching is given every day of the week, except Thursdays and Sundays; the scholastic year begins on the 15th of October, and ends for the course of philosophy in the last part of June, and for the other courses with the close of July.

In 1856, there were 39 royal and national colleges supported by the government. In the same year there were 47 municipal colleges more or less complete; the pupils reached a total number of 15,000, and the number of teachers and professors was about 1000. There were besides a few seminaries, belonging to bishops, in which the pupils were prepared for the ecclesiastical education to be given in the high seminaries, after they have completed the secondary course. The instruction given in these seminaries is not recognized by the government, and does not give any right to the pupils to be admitted to the university, unless the bishops obtain the permission of opening such seminaries, and unless the teachers and professors appointed by them have received their diploma from the university. In every case the government reserves to itself the right of inspection in these institutions. There are also a few private schools, to which are granted the privileges of the public institutions; viz.: of presenting their pupils for admission to the university. But to enjoy this privilege, the professors must have received their diploma from the university, must follow the programmes of the public schools, use the same text-books approved for the colleges, and pay the ordinary fees to the treasurer. Besides, a special decree of the minister of public instruction is required by which the establishment of such schools is granted. Parents, however, have a right to have their children educated in their own families; but for the validity of the course of philosophy they must give them this instruction through professors approved by the university. For any other course the certificate of a parent, by which it is testified that his child pursued the regular course of grammar and rhetoric in his own family, is sufficient to have him admitted to the examination for admission to the courses of the university.

Government of the Secondary Classical Schools.—The direction of these schools and colleges belongs to a permanent committee of five members of the council of the university. The number of these committees is equal to the number of the universities, and their jurisdiction is confined to the district embraced by the university, to which they belong. Under the dependence of these committees there are four inspectors, whose duty
it is to visit every year all the public and private secondary schools. Besides there is in every college a council, which is presided over by the royal superintendent of the schools of the province, and composed of the director of instruction, of the professor of religion, of one of the professors of philosophy, of one of rhetoric, of one of grammar, and of another of mathematics, or of any other scientific course. This council has the immediate direction of the college, and it is its duty to enforce the regulations published by the permanent committee, to which they send an annual report of the conditions of the schools. Should there be an establishment for boarding and lodging the pupils annexed to the colleges, as in some cases, a president is appointed to direct it in connection with a council of administration. In this case a censor of discipline and a few assistants are added to the other officers.

Technical Schools.—As primary schools are intended to give to all the citizens a general knowledge, such as is necessary to man without distinction of class or difference of calling, secondary instruction has for its object the education and development of more special intellectual capacities, and the preparation of its students for different scientific or artistic professions. The secondary classical schools prepare youth for the professions of the university, while the technical education proposes to direct the students through other courses which find no opening in the university. This instruction, considered as a general system, is of a recent origin; having been organized only since 1848. In that year, when the government founded the national colleges, there were annexed to these institutions technical courses, which were afterward established in connection with many other schools. The course of these schools is of five years, and the students are admitted to it after they have passed the full primary course. The programme taught in these courses, embraces religion, Italian literature, history and geography, elementary and superior mathematics, mechanics, physical science, chemistry, statistics, political economy, commercial law, commercial arithmetic, book-keeping, drawing, both ornamental and of machines, natural history, French, German, English languages, drawing of figures, singing and playing of pianoforte, declamatory art, gymnastics, military exercises, fencing, dancing, calligraphy. There are about fifteen of these schools more or less complete; the best of which are connected with some of the national or royal colleges. The number of the professors of the technical courses varies from ten to twenty, according to the less or greater development of the programme.

Besides these courses there exists in Turin a Royal Technical Institute, with the following classes: 1st, mechanics applied to arts and industry. 2d, chemistry, applied; 3d, geometry, applied; 4th, agricultural chemistry. 5th, agriculture. 6th, forestry. 7th, descriptive geometry and geometrical drawing. A professor of the institute is entrusted with the direction of the school, and he is assisted by a council of administration especially appointed by the government. The professors are requested to expound in their courses the theoretical principles of the science, over the teaching of which they preside, and to make the applications, the best adapted
to the objects. Besides this ordinary instruction, they are directed to deliver one or more special courses on some particular branch of application, and to organize practical exercises adapted to the nature of their lectures. Each professor is obliged to deliver at least two lectures a week, which must be illustrated by demonstrations and experiments. The institute possesses for this object a laboratory, and various collections of scientific apparatus, drawings, models, engines, and natural productions. The lectures are public and free, and no examination is required from the students, in order to be admitted to them. The students, however, after having completed the course of their instruction, have the right to present themselves for the examination, and to receive a certificate from the examiners. The course of the institute is opened in the middle of November, and ends with the month of June.

There are also in Turin three special courses, directed according to the programme of the national colleges, two Public Technical Commercial Schools, and a Free School of Drawing Applied to Arts and Industry. In the same city we find a School of Electric Telegraphing, a School of Gymnastics connected with the association for the progress of gymnastic exercises, and a Veterinary School supported by the government and directed by three professors and two assistants. The pupils are obliged to attend most of the lectures delivered in the Royal Technical Institute, in addition to the instruction which they receive in the veterinary school.

Genoa can boast of a Technical School in which are taught chemistry, mechanics, and geometry, applied to arts, geometry, arithmetic and trigonometry applied to navigation, navigation, naval construction, and design. There is also a technical course connected with its national college, and a School of Commerce; besides a Royal School of Marines, in which are given courses of mechanics, of astronomy and hydrography applied to navigation, of elementary, analytic and descriptive geometry, of infinitesimal calculus, algebra, plain and spherical trigonometry, navigation, chemical and physical sciences, naval construction, fortification, artillery and military art, history, physical and political statistics, and commercial geometry. The pupils are also taught Italian literature, the English and French languages, drawing, calligraphy, fencing, and dancing. In the summer of each year the pupils make a voyage of instruction in ships belonging to the State. The institution is conducted by sixteen officers and professors, and has about sixty pupils. In Genoa, there is in operation a Free and Municipal Institution of Music, for both sexes, with the following course of instruction: musical composition, singing, piano-forte, violin, double bass, violoncello, clarinet, flute, cornet, and other instruments. It is directed by thirteen professors.

Chambery has a special course connected with its national college, and Technical Schools of mechanics and chemistry applied to arts. Nice possesses also a special course in its national college, a School of Commerce supported by a private association and by subsidies from the government and the municipality, and a Free School of Navigation.
We find in the other principal cities technical schools, more or less extensive, according to their means and specialities, and which are all free and supported either by the government, or by the municipalities, or by private associations. Among those we may mention as the most prominent:

The School of Agriculture, of Motte-Servollex, in Savoy.

The School of Watchmaking, of Cluses, in Savoy.

The School of Commerce, of Bonneville, in Savoy.

The School of Arts and Trades, of Biella, connected with the Association for the advancement of arts, trade, and agriculture of that province.

The School of Ornament and Architecture of Chiavari, connected with the Ecclesiastical Association of that city.

Bellini's Institution of Arts and Trade, at Novara.

The School of Land Surveying and the School for Artisans, of Casale.

The School of Design, of Varallo.

The College for the Children of officers and soldiers, at Racconiggi.

The Military School of Cavalry, of Pinerolo.

The School of Pontoneers, at Casale.

The School of Navigation of Villafranca.

The Ecclesiastical Seminaries belong to the system of special instruction, as their object consists in training students of Divinity, and candidates for the priesthood. The pupils are boarded and lodged in these institutions, for which either they pay a moderate price, or are entirely exempted from any payment, according to the means of the seminaries, and the pleasure of the bishops. The entire course of the seminary lasts seven years, and embraces courses of philosophy, and of theology. The course of philosophy lasts two years, and does not differ from the collegiate course. Theology is divided into two main parts, dogmatic and moral. In the best institutions there is also a course of canon law, ecclesiastical history, liturgy and sacred oratory. They own property and support themselves. The government, however, pays a salary to one of the professors of theology, whenever the bishops submit the appointment to its approbation, admit in their establishments the treatises prescribed by the university, and allow them to be inspected by the official inspectors. There are about forty-four of these seminaries, most of which have of late refused to submit to any control from the government.

Schools of the Waldenses.—Though the Waldenses enjoy the full right of availing themselves of public instruction, under the direction of the government, yet in those places where they constitute the majority of the population, they have schools of their own. Such is Trinity College, established at Torre, where pupils are taught theology, philosophy, and belles-lettres, and with which three elementary schools are connected. We find also primary schools in all the parishes of the Waldenses in the valleys of Lucerne, Perosa, St. Martin, etc. They have also a Superior School for Girls, at Torre, and some Latin Schools—all of which are conducted according to the programme of the state.

The government of the Technical Courses and Schools, which are
supported by the government itself, belongs to the general Council of elementary instruction, the organization of which we have described elsewhere. The Royal Technical Institute, however, is directed by a special council of administration, under the immediate direction of the minister. In regard to the others, they are under special administrations, over which the government retains a right of control and inspection.

In connection with the public technical or special schools we may glance at a number of provident and reformatory institutions which, though they do not belong strictly to the system of public instruction, contribute largely to the education and general improvement of the capital.

Royal House of Virtue, (R. Albergo di Virtu,) founded in 1587, in which 120 poor boys are gratuitously lodged and supported, instructed and trained to some art, such as the manufacture of silk and woollen goods, ribbons, laces, stockings, or to some mechanical trade.

College of Young Artisans, (Collegio degli Artigianelli,) recently founded by private benevolence for the purpose of sheltering, educating and training poor and abandoned boys to some mechanical or agricultural pursuit.

Royal Mendicant Asylum, (R. Ricovero di Mendicità,) founded in 1840, for persons found begging in the streets, who are provided for, and set to work—they enjoy a part of the proceeds of their labor.

Royal College of Providence accommodates 140 respectable young ladies, and gives them instruction in every kind of feminine employment.

Houses of Refuge, (Il Soccorso e il Deposito,) where the daughters of respectable impoverished families have a home, and are educated and trained to different kinds of work.

Asylum of the Rosine, (Il Ritiro delle Rosine,) where 330 poor girls are boarded and lodged, and provided with instruction and employment.

Asylum of the Sapelline, founded in 1822, as a home for young girls who are morally endangered, where they are instructed and trained to feminine occupations.

Home for Orphan Girls, (Monasterio delle Povere Orfane,) founded in 1550.

Royal Asylum for daughters of military officers. This institution accommodates about seventy inmates, with a home education.

Institution for Vagrants, founded in 1776. It gives employment and instruction to the extreme poor and their children, and bestows a small dowry on the girls when they marry. The instruction is given by volunteers, gentlemen and ladies of high social standing.

The Little Home of Divine Providence, (Piccola Casa della Divina Providenza,) founded in 1829, as a home for infirm, sick, and poor people of every age. It has accommodations for 1200 inmates, who are classified according to their condition in the Orphan Asylum, the Infant Schools, (of which there are five,) School for the Deaf-mutes, the Hospital, &c. The workshops are well appointed and managed. The carpets, laces, and wool-tissues manufactured here are in great
SECONDARY INSTRUCTION IN SARDINIA.

demand, and have twice received the golden medal at the national industrial exhibition. There is also a School for Music, in which pupils are trained for the Royal Chapel.

Royal Normal School for Deaf-mutes, founded in 1834. It receives pupils of both sexes between the age of 10 and 16 years, who pay a small sum for their board and lodging. After they have received a sufficient instruction, the boys are trained to the practice of some trade in some workshops of the city, and board in the establishment during the five or six years of their apprenticeship,—the girls are instructed in all kinds of feminine occupation. Day pupils are also admitted to the school of the institution, without any charges. The city of Turin supports at its own expense some pupils in the institution. Other provinces follow this example. This institution trains teachers for similar schools in other parts of the kingdom.

Other cities of the kingdom abound in similar institutions. Many of them are under the care of religious sisterhoods and voluntary associations, and are supported by endowments and annual contributions.

Among the technical or special schools may be mentioned the Correctional and Reformatory School for young detenus, two miles out of Turin. It is organized and managed substantially after the plan of Parkhurst Prison in England, and the State Reform School at Westborough, Mass. There are over 300 inmates, divided into four sections, mostly employed in gardening and in mechanical trades closely associated with agriculture and common life, such as carpentering, tailoring, &c. The construction and internal management of this Reformatory has led to the improvement of the prisons and prison discipline of the kingdom generally. There is also at Turin a House of Correction, which is both a Prison and a Hospital, supported by the government for criminal and abandoned women; a House of Charitable Refuge, supported by private benevolence for the same class of women desirous of entering on a better life. Associated with these institutions there is a Patronage Society, to assist discharged inmates of the reformatory school in finding employment.

From this survey of institutions of secondary including special instruction, it is evident that the government of Sardinia is behind no European State in assisting the development of the industrial resources of the country, while it at the same time provides for universal elementary instruction, and the demands of higher learning and science. Quite recently the government has divided the technical or special schools into two classes:—the first having a course of three, and the second of two years; the last having two sections, one commercial and the other industrial, so as to meet the wants of different pupils, and different localities. The government also distributes an annual subsidy of seventy thousand francs among these schools, for the special benefit of the teachers.

The examination, which leads the pupils from the secondary schools to the university, is called the examination of Magistero, and constitutes the first degree on which the university bestows a diploma.

The diploma is given under the control and direction of the faculties
of letters and philosophy, and of physical and mathematical sciences; which are represented by special committees, each of which consists of three members, of whom one at least must be an ordinary professor of the faculty. The other members are annually appointed by the minister of public instruction, selected from the doctors of the same faculties. These committees in the university of Turin can not be less than three for each subject of examination. The examination consists of three different subjects; two scientific and one literary, which embrace all the subjects of the secondary instruction of the State colleges. The first scientific examination embraces questions in logic, metaphysics, arithmetic, algebra, and geometry; the second, questions in ethics, and physical science, which are drawn by lot from the prescribed programmes, and answered orally. The literary examination is written and oral. The written consists of a Latin and an Italian composition, on two themes drawn by lot from six, which have been proposed by the president of the faculty. For each of these compositions three hours are allowed to the pupils, and in this time they must write their exercises under the inspection of an assistant, and without aid of any books, except the dictionaries. The oral examination lasts one hour, and is on the compositions and on questions suggested by them, on the interpretation of Latin and Italian writers, and on questions on history, according to the programme. The oral examinations are made with open doors, and the public can attend them. These examinations take place twice during the year; viz.: forty days before the closing of the university, and in the day after its opening, for the succeeding twenty days. The programmes of the examinations are in their substance the same as of the instruction, but are so arranged as to embrace it in twenty-five numbers, each of which comprehends many questions. These programmes are upon the following subjects: 1, logic and metaphysics; 2, ethics; 3, arithmetic, algebra, and geometry; 4, physical science; 5, ancient history; 6, modern history; 7, geography.

The Latin authors studied in the Secondary Schools, and on which an examination is held for the degree of Magistero are,—


The Italian writers are:

III. SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION.

UNIVERSITIES.—There are in the Kingdom four universities; in Turin, Genoa, Cagliari and Sassari, the two latter in the island of Sardinia. We shall speak only of the university of Turin, that being the most complete in its organization, the highest in scope of instruction, the most important institution of the country, and the model of all the others. Indeed the university of Turin may claim a prominent place among the institutions of Europe, and in Italy takes rank with those of Pavia, Padua, Pisa, and Bologna.

The university of Turin was founded in 1405 by Louis of Savoy, Prince of Piedmont. In 1412 it obtained its rights and privileges from the Emperor Sigismond, and in 1424 Amedeus VIII. organized a Council of direction of the university, composed of the governor-general, and three other members, who were called Reformers, (Riformatori.) Some years after it was transferred to Chieri, on account of the wars of that time; then again, from Chieri to Savigliano, and in 1436 restored to Turin. Emmanuel Philibert in 1516 gave new life to the institution, reformed the council of direction, and established separate faculties. Still further improvements were made by Victor Amedeus II. to whom Piedmont owes in no small degree its present welfare and strength. He built the magnificent palace of the university, called to it the illustrious professors from other parts of Italy, from France and other countries, founded the college of the provinces for the support and education of poor and talented pupils, and established the botanic garden. Charles Emmanuel III. was not less eager in promoting the prosperity of the institution, promulgating a code of academic laws, which, for its time, was the most complete in Europe; and which was modified and improved by Charles Albert, who created many chairs, built the magnificent new anatomic theater, enriched the botanic garden and museums, and founded a new era of national independence, freedom, and of scientific glory in the annals of public instruction in Sardinia. His son, the present king Victor Emmanuel II. has shown himself a worthy successor of the founder of the free institutions of the country, by placing Sardinia at the head of the national party of Italy, sustaining before European diplomacy the rights and the independence of the nation, emancipating the country from the relics of ancient despotism, and maintaining with religious affection the political constitution of the country, and improving in every way the material as well as the educational condition of the people; and especially in increasing the splendor and raising the standing of the university of the capital of his kingdom.

Many celebrated scholars have from the beginning given honor to its name, among whom we may mention Cara, who lived in the 15th century, a lawyer, as well as a Latin scholar of great celebrity, who attracted to his lectures distinguished audiences, not only from every part of
Italy, but even from France, Spain, and Germany. In the 16th century Cujacius, that miracle of legal erudition, left Toulouse, his native country, and repaired to this university. In the same century and in the same institution, Argentieri taught medical science, and Benedetti mathematical astronomy. Thesauro in the 17th century was celebrated among Latin scholars; in the 18th, the university could boast of a Gerbili in moral philosophy, of Alcasso and Bono in jurisprudence, of Cigna in anatomy and physiology, of Bertrandi, Brugnone and Penchiatati in Surgery, of Donati, the botanist, who by his extensive travels in Asia, enriched the garden of the university with many precious treasures; of Allioni, who proposed a new classification of the vegetable kingdom, of Michiellotti, celebrated in hydraulics, and of Beccaria who divided with Franklin the laurels of the discoveries of electricity. In the present century, Bardi acquired an European fame for his high attainments in Hebrew literature and in sacred history; Alardi, Gridis, and Bessone were celebrated in jurisprudence; Giulio discovered muscles in plants; Rolando developed a new theory of the structure of the brain; Balei followed with devoted zeal the study of botany; Vasalli Eandi showed himself a worthy pupil of Beccaria; Bonelli and Borson enriched the zoologic and mineralogic museums; Bonvicino and Gioberti acquired great reputation in chemistry, and Bidone in mathematics; finally the names of Lagrange, Alfieri, Berardi, Charles Botta, Gioberti, Cesare Balbo, Scholla, Tarditi, Boucheron, &c., who either received their scientific education at the university, or presided over some branches of its instruction, would be sufficient to raise that institution to an equal standing with the most celebrated universities of Europe. We do not speak of the living professors, among whom are many names of great repute, in theology, jurisprudence, medical and surgical science, philosophy and letters, physics and mathematics.

The palace of the university built in 1714, according to the design of Ricca, stands on the widest and most beautiful thoroughfare of the city, the great street of the Po, which is adorned on both sides with wide and lofty arcades, ending at each extremity with a wide square, looking on one side toward the old castle, which stands alone in the middle of its square, and on the other to the picturesque hills, which overlook the city. The palace has within a court surrounded by arcades, divided by columns which support above another gallery of the same style, as the arcades below. In the walls of these are many Roman inscriptions, statues, and bas-reliefs, discovered in Piedmont, and which have been described by Scipione Maffei and other celebrated antiquaries. On the arcades above are a marble group representing fame chaining time, and four urns representing the seasons, which were presented to the university by Victor Emmanuel I. The imposing staircase is adorned with marble vases, and ornamented with sculpturing. All the interior of the University is grand and magnificent, and admirably fitted for its objects.

The University consists of five faculties,—Theology, Jurisprudence, Medicine and Surgery, Belles-Lettres and Philosophy, Physical and
Mathematical Sciences. Each faculty is composed of the professors, and of the Collegiate Doctors, and it is represented by a Council which is formed of the president of the faculty, of three professors, and of two doctors, all of whom are elected by ballot, by the members of the faculty itself. The faculty of belles-lettres and philosophy is divided into two classes, one of belles-lettres and one of philosophy. The faculty of physical and mathematical sciences is also divided into two classes, of physical and mathematical science.

The Councils of the faculties have the immediate direction of the instruction, which belongs to each of them; over these presided until lately a Council of the university, to which the general administration and direction of the institution belonged. This council was composed of eight members; the president was appointed by the government, of the other seven counselors, five were elected from five lists; each of three professors, which were made by ballot by each faculty, and the two others were selected by the government, among the most distinguished men either in the scientific or literary department. This council was entrusted with the execution of the scholastic laws and with the direction and advancement of the instruction of the university. A new law relating to the administration of public instruction, which was a few months ago adopted by the Parliament, modified this organization, and we shall speak of it hereafter. There is also a rector of the university appointed from among the professors by the government, for a term of three years.

The faculties have a determined number of Collegiate doctorships, and when one of these is vacant, an examination is opened in order to fill it. Doctors who received the diploma of the faculty can alone present themselves to this examination, but not before two years of doctorship. The examination consists of a written dissertation upon a subject drawn by lot, and of a public extemporary lecture; the candidate who in the contest, receives the approbation of the faculty, before being declared a Collegiate Doctor, is obliged to sustain a satisfactory public discussion on some of his positions, which he is required to publish as an exposition of the particular science. The Collegiate Doctors are, in connection with the professors, the examiners of the candidates for the memberships of the colleges, as well as of the students who apply for the diploma of their faculty. They are also the members of the committees appointed for the examination of students applying for admission to the university.

The professors are appointed by the government, after being proposed by the supreme council of instruction; as a general rule they are chosen among the Collegiate Doctors, though in some exceptional cases men of high scientific reputation, who do not belong to the university, may receive the appointment.

The colleges of the faculties at present contain as follows: 1st, College of theology, twenty-four doctors; 2d, of jurisprudence, twenty-two; 3d, of medicine and surgery, twenty-nine; 4th, of belles-lettres and philosophy, a, class of belles-lettres, ten, b, class of philosophy, seven; 5th,
of physical and mathematical sciences, a, class of physical sciences, ten, b, class of mathematical sciences, nine.

Some of these doctors are appointed by the government, as extraordinary professors of the faculty, whose duty is to take place of the ordinary professors, when prevented from lecturing or examining.

There are also attached to the university, private teachers who are called Ripetitori, from whom the students can receive private instruction on the course. These teachers are licensed by the council of the university, after being proposed by the councils of the faculties; the students, however, are not obliged to follow these courses, and should they choose to follow them, they are by no means exempted from the course of the university, which is the only one recognized as the necessary condition of admission to the examinations and to the doctorships. The private courses are paid by the students who wish to follow them, but the courses of the university, as well as of the colleges, are entirely free. The students, however, are obliged to pay to the public treasury a fee for their examination, which varies according to the different faculties. From the payment of these fees all pupils are exempted, who prove the inability of their parents to pay them.

In order to be admitted to the course of a faculty, it is necessary for the students to present the certificate of having completed all the secondary courses, including that of philosophy; another, of having passed satisfactory all the examinations of magisterio. They then declare the faculty, of which they intend to follow the courses; after which they are obliged to attend the lectures prescribed for those courses, to obtain every quarter a certificate of their attendance from each professor, and to pass an annual examination upon the subjects of the programme.

The following are the courses connected with each faculty; to each course is appointed a professor.

Faculty of Theology. 1st, Biblical theology; 2d, Bible and the elements of Hebrew; 3d, Ecclesiastical History; 4th, Dogmatic theology; 5th, Speculative theology; 6th, Sacraments; 7th, Moral theology; 8th, Art of preaching. The course continues through five years, and the subjects are arranged in the following order: 1st year, Biblical and Dogmatic theology; 2d and 3d years, Moral theology, Speculative theology, and Sacraments; 4th and 5th years, Moral theology, Speculative theology, Sacraments, and Bible. The students, who propose to contend for the three prizes established by the government for the best written solution of theological questions, attend the lectures of an additional course, which is of two years, and embraces ecclesiastical history, the art of preaching, elements of Hebrew, and exegesis of the Bible.

The bishops have the right to establish theological schools in their seminaries; but the instruction received in those seminaries can not give to the students the privilege of presenting themselves to the examination for receiving the Doctorship of Divinity from the university, unless the professors of theology have been appointed by the government, and unless these professors follow the programmes and the general regulations of the
university. In this case the professors of the seminaries receive their salary from the government. The diploma of doctorship in divinity is a necessary condition for obtaining the incumbency of many ecclesiastical benefices and employments, to which the government has the right of nomination, and as this diploma can be only granted by the university, it follows that a great part of the clergy are obliged to pass through this course in one of the universities of the state. During late years, however, the church having entered into an open opposition to the state, on account of some reforms introduced into the political institutions of the country, the bishops became reluctant to allow the students of divinity to follow the course of the university, so that from recent statistics this faculty appears almost deserted.

The following is the catalogue of the professors of the theological faculty of the university of Turin, with the subjects of their lectures for the scholastic year, 1856-7. (November—June.)

PARATO FELICE, member of the Council of the University, in Moral Theology, will lecture on human actions, on moral law and on the laws of the Decalogue and of the Church, at 9 o'clock, every day.

SERAFINO ANGELO, in Speculative Theology, will lecture on God and his attributes, at 10 o'clock, every day.

GHIRINGHELLO GIUSEPPE, member of the Supreme Council of public instruction, in the Holy Bible, will lecture on Acts of the Apostles, the Epistles, and Revelations, at 3 o'clock, until April; then at half past three, every day. He will also teach Hebrew and Biblical Exegesis, every day at 4 o'clock, until April, then at half past four.

BAUDUI CASIMIR, will teach Biblical Theology, at 10 o'clock, every day.

SAYO CARLO LUIGI will teach Dogmatical Theology, at 11 o'clock, every day.

BANONE FRANCESCO, in Ecclesiastical History, will lecture on the History of the Church from Constantine to Charlemagne, on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, at 12 o'clock.

N. N. will teach the Art of preaching, on Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays, at 12 o'clock.

N. N. in Speculative Theology; will lecture on Sacraments in general, and on Baptism and on Confirmation, at 11 o'clock, every day.

Faculty of Jurisprudence.—The course of this faculty extends through five years, and consists of the following thirteen chairs. 1st, History of Jurisprudence; 2d, Institutions of Roman Law; 3d, Ecclesiastical Law; 4th, Roman Law; 5th, Civil Law; 6th, Penal Law; 7th, Political Economy; 8th, Constitutional Law; 9th, Commercial Law; 10th, Judiciary Law and Theory of Evidences; 11th, Administrative Law; 12th, International Law; 13th, Philosophy of Jurisprudence. These subjects are divided through the course in this way: 1st year, History of Jurisprudence, Institutions of Roman Law, Ecclesiastical Law. 2d year, Ecclesiastical Law, Roman Law, Civil Law, Penal Law, Political Economy. 3d year, Roman Law, Civil Law, Penal Law, Political Economy, and Constitutional Law. 4th year, Roman Law, Civil Law, Constitutional Law, Commercial Law, Judiciary Law. 5th year, Commercial Law, Judiciary Law, Administrative Law, International Law, Philosophy of Jurisprudence.

No one can obtain the title of lawyer, or practice the legal profession or plead any cause before any court of the country, or be appointed in any place of the judiciary department, without having received the diploma of Doctorship in this faculty. This diploma opens also the most part of the official employments, both in the executive and in the administra-
tive departments, and gives a better chance for election to the legislative body.

In order to afford a better opportunity to the students of this faculty who reside in the most distant parts of the country, there is a school of jurisprudence in Chambéry and in Nice for the students born in those provinces. The programme, however, of these schools does not exceed the subjects which are taught in the first year of the course, after which it is required of the students to continue their course at the university. Thus three professors deliver lectures in each of those schools, according to the programme of the university and under the direction of the faculty of Turin, and of the council of that university. In every city, besides, which is at the head of a provincial department, there is a school of Civil and of Judiciary Law, which prepares its students for the professions of public notaries and advocates. This course extends through two years; in the first of which they are taught the elements of civil law, in the second the judiciary law, in causes both civil and criminal.

The professor of the history of jurisprudence, after having given to his students the fundamental ideas which are necessary to understand this part of their course, commences with the origin of the Roman law and follows it through its decline at the fall of the empire; and treats of the different laws promulgated by the succeeding rulers, of the most useful principles of the feudal system, of the canonical law, of the contests between the civil and ecclesiastical authority, and of the statutes of the ancient commons, and pursues the genesis and the changes of our legislation to the present time. In the course of his history the professor is required to point out the sources of law, and the causes of progress of justice, and of other phases of jurisprudence.

The professors of the institutions of Roman law, and of Roman law itself, expound copiously the parts of that law, which do not enter into Sardinian legislation, and dwell upon the other parts, which are the foundation of the law of the country.

In the first year of the course on ecclesiastical law, the lectures treat, 1st, of the church and its authority; 2d, of marriage. In the second year their subjects embrace the doctrine of ecclesiastical benefices. The study of penal code is divided into two parts, in the first of which the general theory is taught, in the second special applications to different offenses. In this last part the professor dwells especially upon offenses against public faith, and against the peace and property of families and individuals. The lectures on commercial law embrace all the parts of this law, and include the maritime law. The course of judiciary law is divided into two parts, accordingly as it refers to civil or criminal proceedings, and includes in both parts the theory of evidences.

We give here the catalogue of the professors of this faculty, and their programme for the present year:

Vacchino Francesco, in Commercial Law, will lecture on it, on Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays, at 10 o'clock.
Nuitz Giovanni Nepomuceno, member of the Council of the University, and Rector of the University, in Roman Law, will lecture on Obligations, Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays, at 8 o'clock.

Gaspardo Cesano, extraordinary member of the Supreme Council of instruction, in Civil Law, will lecture on the Contract of Marriage, on subsequent rights in both parties, and on the contract of partnership, Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, at 10 o'clock.

Patirti Ilario Filiberto, in Ecclesiastical Law, will lecture on the Church, and on its authority, and on Marriage, Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Saturdays, at 8 o'clock.

Albini Pietro, in the Philosophy of Jurisprudence; after having given the theory of juridical law, will lecture on the theory of juridical rational law, and on rational principles of family right, and of public right, Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays, at 10 o'clock.

Genina Luigi, in Penal Law; after having given the general ideas of offense, of imputation, and of punishment, will lecture on offenses against public faith, and on offenses against the peace and the order of families and of individuals, Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays, at 9 o'clock.

Pescatore Matteo, in Judicial Law, will expound the principal parts of criminal proceeding, and will give its theory of evidences, Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays, at 9 o'clock.

Meleagari Luigi Amedeo, in Constitutional Law, will give an historical introduction on representative institutions, after which he will lecture on the rights of citizens and on their guarantees, Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays, at 11 o'clock.

Buniya Giuseppe, in Civil Law, will lecture on Testamentary Successions, Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, at 9 o'clock.

Ferrara Francesco, in Political Economy; will deliver lectures on it, Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays, at 10 o'clock.

Lione Antonio, in Administrative Law, will lecture on it, Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, at 9 o'clock.

Mancini Pasquale Stanislao, in International Law; will lecture on the Elements of international, public, national and positive law, Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, at 11 o'clock.

Anselmi Giorgio, will lecture on the Institutions of Roman Law, every day, at 10 o'clock.

Demarcherita Alessandro, in the History of Jurisprudence; will lecture on it, every day, at 9 o'clock.

Avondo Carlo and Gastaldetti Celestino, extraordinary professors, will take the place of the above professors, in case of their being prevented from lecturing.

Faculty of Medicine and Surgery.—This faculty possesses nineteen chairs, and its course continues through six years. It is strictly prohibited by the law of the country to exercise the profession of medicine or surgery, without having obtained the diploma of doctorship from one of the universities of the state. This diploma is only bestowed upon the accomplishment of the full course of the faculty, and of passing the examinations which are prescribed by law. The same provision is enforced in all the faculties of the university for the exercise of the professions relative to them. 1st chair, Chemistry; 2d, theoretical and practical Pharmacy, and toxicologic Chemistry; 3d, Mineralogy; 4th, Botany; 5th, Zoology; 6th, Anatomy; 7th, Physiology; 8th, medical and surgical Institutions; 9th, Materia medica; 10th and 11th, theoretical and practical Medicine; 12th and 13th, theoretical and practical Surgery; 14th, theoretical Obstetrics and obstetrical Clinic; 15th, surgical Operations and operative Clinic with anatomical and surgical exercitations at the hospital; 16th, Hygiene and public health; 17th, Legal medicine and Toxicology; 18th, Clinic of mental diseases; 19th, pathological Anatomy. The order of the course is the following: 1st year, Chemistry, Mineralogy, Botany, Zoology, Anatomy. 2d year, Chemistry, Anatomy, Physiology, medical and surgical Institutions, theoretical and practical Pharmacy, and toxicologic Chemistry. 3d year, anatomical Exercitations, Anatomy, Materia medica, theoretical and practical Medicine, theoretical and practical Surgery. 4th year, anatomical Exercitations, Materia medica, theoretical
and practical Medicine, theoretical and practical Surgery, medical Clinic, Hygiene and public health. 5th year; theoretical and practical Medicine, theoretical and practical Surgery, theoretical Obstetrics and obstetrical Clinic, surgical Operations and operative Clinic, medical Clinic, pathological Anatomy, exercitations of operations and bandages. 6th year, surgical operations and operative Clinic, medical Clinic, Clinic of mental diseases, legal Medicine and Toxicology.

The first year of the course can be pursued in Chambery and in Nice, where four professors in the former city, and three in the latter deliver lectures on the prescribed subjects.

All the students are obliged to complete the entire course of the faculty, and to obtain the diploma of Doctorship, both in medicine and in surgery, whether they intend to practice the one or the other, or both. But those, who intend to devote themselves to the exercise of the obstetric art, are obliged to attend for six months the obstetric clinic at the maternity hospital, and to pass a practical examination on that art.

Women, who intend to follow the profession of midwives, are obliged to frequent the same clinic and to pass the same examination. In the cities of Novara, Vercelli, Voghera and Chambery, there is a free practical school of obstetrics for women; and the students of the school of Novara are supported by the municipalities of the townships, which send them to that school.

There is a class of students, who intend to limit their practice to bleeding. In order to obtain the approbation for this practice, they are obliged to pass through a course of two years, in the first of which they attend the lectures of anatomy, in the second of anatomy, physiology, and medical and surgical institutions. They must also spend a year in the practice of their art, under a licensed phlebotomist, after which they are allowed to present themselves for a final examination, which, if successful, gives them the right to have the diploma of phlebotomy, and to receive the license of its exercise.

The following is the catalogue of the faculty for the year 1856–57:

RiBERI ALESSANDRO, member of the supreme Council of instruction, in Operations, will lecture on the principal surgical Operations, at 8 o'clock, A. M., Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Fridays; besides, he will teach at the hospital of St. John the operative Clinic, at half past 6 every day.

PAVERO FRANCESCO, in theoretical and practical Surgery; will lecture on Diseases of the Mouth, in the first four months, and in the following on Diseases of the Eyes, at half past 10, Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays. Besides, he will teach at the hospital of St. John, surgical Clinic, at half past 2, every day.

BERUTTI SECONDO GIOVANNI, in Physiology, will deliver lectures on general and special physiology, and will occasionally perform experiments on living animals, at 9 o'clock, Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays.

GIROLA LORENZO, in theoretical and practical Medicine, will lecture on Neurosis, viz.: on Neuropathy and especially on organic Innervation of sensitiveness, and of mobility, Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, at half past 10; he will, also, at the hospital of St. John, teach medical Clinic, at half past 2, every day.

ALLIPRANDI MICHELE LUIGI, in Obstetrics, will lecture on womb, pregnancy, Otorlogy, Accouchment, the normal and abnormal state of new born children, at half past 8, Mondays, Wednesdays and Saturdays. He will also give practical lessons on Obstetrical Clinic, at the Maternity Hospital, on days and hours to be fixed according to the occasions.

* Since dead.
Vigilietti Giovanni Antonio, in Hygiene and Public Health, will lecture on it, at 8 o'clock, Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays.

Carmagnola Paolo Andrea, in theoretical and practical Medicine, will lecture on Inflammation generally, and afterward on Inflammations of the bowels, at 8 o'clock, Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays; he will also teach medical clinic, at the hospital of St. John, at half past 2, every day.

Fiorito Gioachino, in medical and surgical Institutions, will lecture on Methodology and History of medicine, and afterward on general, medical and surgical Pathology, at half past 8, Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays.

Malinverni Sisto Germano, in pathologic Anatomy, will lecture on it, at the hospital of St. John, at three-quarters past 9, Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays.

Demaria Carlo, in legal Medicine, will lecture on it, and especially on Toxicology, at three-quarters past 9, Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays.

Majoli Giacomo, in theoretical and practical Surgery, will lecture on Inflammations and on their consequences, in regard to surgery, on Tumors generally, on organic, dynamic diseases of the bones and articulations, at a quarter past 9, Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays; he will also, at 8 o'clock at the Charity Hospital teach the Clinic of syphilitic diseases, Mondays, Wednesdays, and Saturdays.

Demicheli Giuseppe, in materia Medica, after having given the General Principles, will lecture on purgative, anthelmintic, secretive and hypothetic Medicaments, at half past 9, Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays.

Bonacossia Giovanni, principal physician of the Royal Lunatic Asylum, in the Clinic of mental diseases, will teach this Clinic in the said asylum, at half past 9, Tuesdays and Saturdays.

N. N. in anatomy, in the first five months after having given an Introduction, he will teach descriptive Anatomy on the subject, at the amphitheatre of the hospital of St. John, and in the three last months he will lecture on the general Anatomy of tissues of the human system, at three-quarters past 11, every day.

Conti Matteo, the dissector of the anatomical theatre, will take the place of the above professors, when prevented from lecturing.

The students of medical and surgical science are trained in the practice of the profession in the hospitals of the Capital, of which we shall give here a short sketch:

The Hospital of St. John the Baptist was founded in the fourteenth century. It receives all medical and surgical patients, with the exception of those suffering from contagious diseases. It has 418 beds, of which 213 are occupied by those affected internally, 109 by external, and 96 by chronic diseases. There are also private rooms for individuals, who can afford to pay moderate charges. The number of patients annually received at the hospital is between five and six thousand. The two professors of the medical clinic have 14 beds each, for the instruction of the students, and the professor of surgical clinic has 6 in the hall of men, and as many in the hall of women for the same purpose. Twenty-one students of the faculty are selected among the best, who assist the ordinary physicians, and in return receive either free board or an annual pecuniary allowance.

The Hospital of Saints Maurice and Lazarus was founded in 1572, with the object of treating those acute diseases which are not contagious. It receives every year about a thousand patients; eight students of the university are appointed for the service of the hospital and the assistance of the ordinary physicians, and enjoy the same privileges of those of the hospital of St. John.

The Military Hospital of the Division of Turin.—Its object is to receive the sick soldiers and officers, whose station is in the Division of Turin. It has 430 beds, and affords the occasion of practical instruction to those students, who wish to become physicians and surgeons of the army.
For their assistance to the hospital they receive also free board, and are obliged to follow the courses of the university.

The Institution and the Hospital of St. Louis Gonzaga.—It was founded in 1794, with the object of aiding and nursing the sick who could not be admitted to other hospitals, on account of the nature of their diseases. The institution provides also with medical advice, visits, remedies, and comforts at their own home those, who do not wish to be brought to the hospital. This has 200 beds, and receives by preference patients affected by consumption, cancer, chronic dropsy, scurvy, and leprosy.

The Maternity Hospital, in which the obstetric clinic is established, receives about six hundred patients a year. There is also in this hospital the school for midwives, with eight or ten pupils.

The Royal General Charity House, of which we spoke above, is the seat of the school for the clinic of syphilitic diseases; four students of the university are appointed to assist the physicians of the hospital, and they receive the same allowances as in the other institutions.

The Royal Lunatic Asylum affords the pupils the occasion of studying mental diseases, the clinic of which is here practiced. The asylum contains two hundred and fifty patients, of both sexes, and supports four students for their assistance.

The Ophthalmic Dispensary affords free advice, remedies, and cure to the poor; patients who can afford it pay a small sum for their board and lodging. It contains two hundred patients.

The Orthopedic Establishment was founded in 1823, with the object of curing the crippled, maimed, and deformed, etc. It has acquired a great reputation, and it is considered as one of the first establishments of the kind in Europe.

Faculty of Belles-lettres and Rational Philosophy. This faculty prepares doctors and professors of rhetoric and philosophy. No one can be appointed professor of these departments, or allowed to teach either in public or private schools, if he has not completed the established courses and obtained the diploma of Doctorship from the faculty.*

The Course of Belles-lettres, is given by seven professors, and embraces the following subjects: 1st, Greek grammar and general Grammar; 2d, Italian literature; 3d, Latin Literature; 4th, Greek Literature; 5th, ancient History; 6th, modern History; 7th, Roman and Greek Archeology. This course is divided into four years; in the first year, the students are taught Greek and general grammar, Italian and Latin literature, and Roman Archeology; in the second year, Italian, Latin and Greek literature, ancient history, and Greek archeology. In the third and fourth years, Italian, Latin and Greek literature, ancient and modern history.

The Course of Rational Philosophy possesses three chairs: 1st,
Metaphysics; 2d, Moral Philosophy; 3d, History of the ancient Philosophy. The students are obliged also to attend the lectures on Italian and Latin literature, on general Methodology, on the higher Geometry, and natural Sciences, which are delivered by the professors of other faculties. The subjects are divided as follows:

In the first year, Metaphysics, higher Geometry, Latin literature, Chemistry; second year, Metaphysics, History of ancient Philosophy, physical Science, and Italian literature; third year, Metaphysics, Moral Philosophy, History of Philosophy, Mineralogy, Zoology; fourth year, Metaphysics, Moral Philosophy, History of Philosophy, and general Methodology.

The course of Method, which is connected with this faculty, does not intend to give any diploma of Doctorship, but only to prepare professors for the provincial schools of method. From these professors the provincial inspectors of elementary instruction are generally selected. The course is completed in two years; in the first, the students learn general Chemistry, Mineralogy, Botany and Zoology; attending the lectures of the professors of these sciences, and prepare themselves for an examination on all the subjects, which enter into the programme of the four elementary classes. In the second, they attend the lectures on Pedagogy, and on Method, both general and special, applicable to the elementary schools.

With this faculty a normal school is also connected, for the preparation of the professors of Latin grammar. The course is also completed in two years; in the first, the students attend the courses of institutions of belles-lettres, of Greek and general grammar, of ancient History, and Archaeology. In the second, they attend the lectures on Italian and Latin literature, on method applied to the instruction of the Latin and Italian languages, on ancient History, and Archaeology.

The doctors in belles-lettres and on philosophy, who come from this faculty, are appointed by the government to the chairs of those departments in the royal or national colleges. Their salaries are paid by the government, and after thirty years of employment, they are entitled to retire with a pension equal to their full salary. Their widows and children under age are also entitled to a pension. This provision is applied to all the officers of the government, and thus to all the professors of the colleges and of the universities.

The following is the catalogue of the faculty for the year 1856–7:

PARAVIA ALESSANDRO,* in Italian Literature, will lecture on the Pleasure of Poetry, and on differences between a didactic Poem, and a Treatise; he will also continue the critical history of the tragic Theatre, from Trissino to Affreti, at 12 o'clock, Mondays and Wednesdays; on Fridays the Students will read their compositions in verse and prose, on which he will make his critical observations; and on Thursdays, at 3 o'clock, he will continue his lectures on the History of the country, from Count Amedeus VII.

BARUCCI FRANCESCO, member of the supreme Council of instruction, in History and Archaeology, will lecture on Roman History and Archaeology, on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays, at 10 o'clock.

PRIERI BARTOLOMEO, member of the Council of the University, in Greek literature, will explain in the first three months some historical passages of Xenophon and Herodotus; then two Philippics of Demosthenes, and at the end of the year some passages of Homer, on Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays, at 12 o'clock.

VALLAURI TOMMASO, in Latin Literature, will lecture on the critical History of Latin

* Since dead.
Literature, from the death of Augustus to the Emperor Adrian; he will also comment on some passages from the Histories of Tacitus, from the Satires of Juvenal, and from the Roman history of C. Valerius Paternus; besides, on one day of the week he will give his criticism on the compositions of the Students, on Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays, at 11 o'clock.

DANNA CASIMIRO, member of the general Council of the elementary schools, will lecture on the Institutions of Belles-lettres, Tuesdays, Wednesdays, Fridays, and Saturdays, at 3 o'clock.

BONA BARTOLOMEO, in Greek and general Grammar, will explain the critical Grammar of Greek, and will develop the theories of the most accomplished modern philologists; he will also exercise the Students on the interpretation of Greek writers, on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays, at 9 o'clock. He will lecture, on Saturdays, at 9 o'clock, on the Philosophy of language, and will apply the general principles to the classical languages.

Ricotti Ercole, in modern History, after having pointed out the most important changes which have occurred in Europe, from 1492 to 1700, will lecture on the History of Europe, from 1700 to 1789, and more particularly on the History of France and of Italy, on Mondays and Fridays, at 11 o'clock. On Wednesdays he will exercise the Students on the knowledge of the historical writers, and on historical teaching.

Bertini Giovanni Maria, member of the general Council of the elementary schools, and an extraordinary member of the supreme Council of public instruction, on the history of ancient Philosophy, will lecture on the History of Philosophy, from Descartes to our times, on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays, at 10 o'clock.

BERTI DOMENICO, in Moral Philosophy, will lecture on the comparative History of the principal systems of Moral Philosophy, on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, at 12 o'clock.

Pizzetti Giovanni Battista, in Metaphysics, will lecture on Theological Metaphysics, on Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays, at 10 o'clock.

Flechia Giovanni, on Sanscrit, will lecture on the Grammar of Sanscrit, and will interpret Visvanatha, an Episode of the Ramayana; he will also explain some fables from the Hitopadesa, and two hymns of the Rigveda, on Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays, at 11 o'clock.

Schilpafelli Luigi, will take place of the professor of History and Archaeology. Bertinaria Francesco will take place of the professors of Philosophy. Richetti Carlo and Bachialoni Carlo will take place of professor of Method, when prevented from lecturing.

Faculty of Physical Sciences and Mathematics.—This faculty embraces the following courses: 1st, Physical Science and Geometry; 2d, Natural History; 3d, Chemistry; 4th, Mathematics; 5th, Architecture.

The course of Physical Science and Geometry is attended by the students who intend to become professors of these sciences in the secondary schools. It comprehends the lectures of the following chairs: 1st, Finite and Infinitesimal Analysis; 2d, Descriptive Geometry; 3d, Experimental Physical Science; 4th, Superior Physical Science; 5th, Chemistry; 6th, Mineralogy; 7th, Zoology; 8th, Botany. The lectures are divided in the following order, through four years: 1st year, Experimental Physical Science, Finite analysis, Linear Drawing; 2d year, Experimental Physical Science, Differential and Integral Calculation, Chemistry; 3d year, superior Physical Science, Mineralogy, Zoology, and Descriptive Geometry; 4th year, Superior Physical Science, Botany, practical experiments of Physical Science and Chemistry.

The courses of Natural History and Chemistry intend to prepare professors of these sciences for the secondary schools. They embrace the following subjects: 1st, Algebra and higher Geometry; 2d, Physical experimental Science; 3d, Chemistry; 4th, Mineralogy; 5th, Zoology; 6th, Botany. The subjects prescribed for the course of natural history are divided through four years, as follows: In the first year, the students attend the lectures on experimental Physical Science, Chemistry, Algebra
and superior Geometry; in the second year, on Chemistry, Mineralogy, Zoology and Botany; in the third year, Mineralogy, Zoology, and Botany; in the fourth year, Mineralogy, Zoology, and Botany. The subjects for the course of Chemistry follow this order: first year, experimental Physical Science, Botany, Algebra, and superior Geometry; second year, experimental Physical Science, Chemistry, Zoology, and practical experiments in Chemistry; third year, Chemistry, Mineralogy, technical Chemistry, and practical experiments in Chemistry; fourth year, attendance at the laboratory of Chemistry, and the lectures on agricultural Chemistry.

The course of Mathematics proposes to prepare hydraulic engineers. They are requested to attend the lectures, 1st, on Algebra; 2d, on plain and spherical Trigonometry; 3d, on analytic Geometry; 4th, on infinitesimal Analysis, differential and integral Calculus; 5th, on descriptive Geometry; 6th, on rational Mechanics, and on Machines; 7th, on practical Geometry; 8th, on Hydraulics; 9th, on Architecture; 10th, on Buildings, and on Chemistry applied to the art of building. The order is as follows; 1st year, Algebra, plain and spherical Trigonometry, analytical Geometry, architectural Drawing; 2d year, infinitesimal Analysis, differential and integral Calculus, descriptive Geometry, Architecture; 3d year, rational Mechanics, Machines, practical Geometry, Architecture; 4th year, Hydraulics, Buildings, and Chemistry applied to the art of building. Should the students of this course intend to obtain also the diploma of civil architects, besides the diploma of hydraulic engineers, they are obliged to attend, in the fourth year of their course, the lectures on Civil Architecture.

The course of Civil Architecture proceeds through four years, on the following subjects: 1st, algebraical Analysis; 2d, descriptive Geometry; 3d, practical Geometry; 4th, rational Mechanics; 5th, Architecture; 6th, Buildings, and Chemistry applied to the art of building. The lectures follow this order: 1st year, Architecture, algebraical Analysis; 2d year, Architecture, descriptive Geometry; 3d year, Architecture, practical Geometry, rational Mechanics; 4th year, Architecture, Building, experiments on Chemistry applied to the art of building.

Besides the preceding courses, a course for the education of Apothecaries is connected partially with this faculty, and partially with the faculty of medicine and surgery. This course is of two years, and embraces the following subjects: 1st, Mineralogy; 2d, Botany; 3d, organic and inorganic Chemistry; 4th, Pharmacy, Toxicology, Chemistry, History of drugs; 5th, Exercises in preparations. The students are obliged to attend the lectures of all these subjects in both the years of their course. Besides this course and the relative examinations, the candidates are obliged to spend two years as assistants in a licensed pharmacy, to pass an examination in this practice, and to sustain a public disputation on Mineralogy, Botany, Chemistry, and theoretical and practical Pharmacy.

For the profession of Land Surveyors, there is no public course prescribed, but the students are obliged to file their names in the register of the university, declaring their intention of studying for that profes-
sion. After this, they are obliged to study and to practice for three years under the direction of an engineer, architect or land surveyor, to be chosen by themselves, and to pass afterward a private and a public examination, at the university, on the subject of their courses.

The catalogue of the faculty for the year 1856–7 is as follows:

PLANA GIOVANNI, vice-president of the supreme Council of public instruction, in Analysis, will lecture on the introduction to the Infinitesimal Analysis, and on the Elements of differential and integral Calculus, at half past 11 o'clock, every day.

MORRIS GIUSEPPE, member of the supreme Council of public instruction, in Botany, will lecture on Organography, Glossology, vegetable Physiology, and Taxonomy; he will also undertake excursions in the neighborhood of the city, in which he will exercise his Students in determining Species; he will point out the natural families, (3d series,) and the medicinal, economical, and industrial plants in the botanic garden; finally, he will lecture on the distribution of vegetables on the superficies of the globe, at half past 10, on Mondays and Fridays, till April, then every day, at half past 9.

SISMONDA ANGELO, member of the Council of the university, in Mineralogy, after having given the general principles of Mineralogy, will lecture on Flint Stone and its compounds, and on fossil combustibles, every day, at a quarter past 8.

POLLONE IGNAZIO, extraordinary member of the supreme Council of public instruction, and member of the general Council for the elementary schools, in Analysis, will lecture on algebraic Analysis, on Trigonometry, and on analytical Geometry, at half past 11, every day.

F. CARLO, in civil Architecture, will lecture on it, at half past 9, every day.

MENABREA LUIGI FEDERICO, in Construction, will give the Theory of construction, on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays, at half past 10; and on Thursdays will apply the theory to special cases.

DEPILIPPI FILIPPO, in Zoology, after having given the general Ideas of the Structure and functions of animals, will lecture on molths, etc., and at the close of the year, will give a course of lectures on parts of the human body, at half past 8, every day.

ABBENE ANGELO, in Pharmaceutic Chemistry, after an Introduction, will lecture on Galenic Medicaments, and then on Medicaments taken from the inorganic kingdom, on Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays, at half past 10. In the two last months he will lecture on chemical Toxicology.

RICHELI PROSPERO, in Hydraulics, will lecture on this subject, every day, at half past 8; at the close of the year he will make hydraulic experiments at the Royal Hydraulic Tower, during the mornings.

ERDA GIUSEPPE BARTOLOMEO, in Algebra and superior Geometry, will lecture on these subjects, every day, at a quarter past 8.

FERRATI CAMILLO, in practical Geometry, will lecture on it every day, at half past 11; on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays, he will lecture on descriptive Geometry, at 3 o'clock.

CHIO FELICE, in Superior Physical Science, will lecture on it, at half past 2, on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays.

PIRRA RAFAELLE, in general Chemistry, after having given the general principles and laws of Chemistry, will lecture on Inorganic and Organic Bodies, at half past 9; he will make occasionally practical experiments.

N. IN general and experimental Physical Science, will lecture on it, making occasionally public experiments, at 2 o'clock, on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays.

DELPOENTE GIO BATTIA will take place of the professor of Botany.

SISMONDA EUGENIO will take place of the professor of Mineralogy.

SORRERO ASCANIO, in Chemistry applied to arts and industry, will lecture on Chemistry applied to the Art of construction.

BRUN GIUSEPPE will take place of the professors of Mathematics.

CIMA ANTONIO will take place of the professor of Physical Science.

BORSARELLI PIETRO will take place of the professor of Pharmaceutic Chemistry, when prevented from lecturing.

The method of teaching is by lectures and by experiments in the experimental branches. Most of the professors publish elementary treatises on the subjects of their lectures, which are valuable both to the students and professors. These are also required to point out in their lectures and treatises the principal writers to be consulted by the students on the subjects of their study.

The discipline of the students is maintained by the same system, which is followed in the secondary schools. Indeed we should say, that expulsion
from the university is the only punishment, which can be applied by the scholastic authorities; we must also say, that the occasion very seldom arises of applying such a punishment. The Rector of the university is especially charged with the discipline of the institution.

Connected with the university, and under the direction of the government, there is a Royal College of the Provinces, founded and endowed by the munificence of the kings of Sardinia and enriched by legacies of private benevolence. This is an establishment, in which the students are furnished with free board and lodging through all the course of the university, and with every aid in their studies and education. The royal college of the provinces disposes of about one hundred and fifty free places, which are given as a reward to those students, who have passed the most successful examinations. These examinations are opened whenever a vacancy occurs, and those students only can present themselves who have completed the secondary courses, and who are born in that province, to which belongs the vacant place. The students of the royal college of the provinces are also exempted from the examination fees.

After having completed the full course of the faculty, and having passed successfully all the annual examinations prescribed by law, the students are requested to enter upon a public disputation for obtaining the Doctorship. This disputation is upon subjects selected from those of the course, and published by the candidate. The discussion is sustained before the faculty, in which the collegiate doctors fill the office of examiners and opponents. The faculty afterward decides by ballot upon the merit of the candidate, bestowing upon him the Doctorship or rejecting his application.

The names of the students, who distinguished themselves in the examinations, are published at the close of the year, in the official paper.

From the colleges under the direction of the university of Turin, 740 students presented themselves in the year 1855-56 for examination preparatory to admission to the courses of the university, of which 607 were admitted, and 133 rejected. In the year 1856-7 there are in the university 1433 students, of which 2 belong to the faculty of theology, 709 to the faculty of jurisprudence, 264 to the faculty of medicine and surgery, 11 to the course of obstetric clinic, 17 to phlebotomy, 182 to pharmacy, 86 to the course of physical science and geometry, 7 to natural history, 16 to rational philosophy, 138 to the course of mathematics, 4 to the course of architecture, 82 to belles-lettres, 7 to methodology, 8 to the course of Latin grammar. Adding to this number the students, who pursued some part of their course in some provincial city, we have the total number of students 1858.

In the university of Genoa there were, according to the latest statistics, 556 students, of which 6 belonged to the faculty of theology, 282 to jurisprudence, 182 to medicine, surgery, and pharmacy, 86 to mathematics and architecture. The number of the students of the university of Cagliari was 325, of which 53 of theology, 125 of jurisprudence, 130 of medicine, surgery, and pharmacy, 11 of architecture, 6 of geodesy. Th
The number of the university of Sassari was 245, of which 43 of theology, 128 of jurisprudence, 76 of medicine, surgery, and pharmacy. From the colleges which depend upon the university of Genoa, there pass annually to the classes of the university an average of 201 students, from that of Cagliari 120, from Sassari 94, and the students who obtain annually the doctorships in the university of Turin reach an average of 525, in that of Genoa 140, in that of Cagliari 74, in that of Sassari 49.

The number of the professors in the university of Turin, including those of the cities of Chambery and Nice is 89, of Genoa 46, of Cagliari 34, of Sassari 29. Their salary is not uniform, being greater in Turin than in the other universities.

The university of Turin possesses for the aid of the intellectual education of its students the following institutions, the free use of which belongs to the professors, as well as to the scholars and the people at large.

1. A Public Library, which was founded by Emanuel Philibert, endowed by other kings, especially by Victor Amedeus II, and enriched by private donations. The library contains more than one hundred and ten thousand volumes, among which the collection of works on theology, jurisprudence, politics, medicine, and surgery, is the most complete. The principal treasures of the library are the Arabic, Greek, Latin, Italian, and French MSS. It possesses also many rare editions of the century in which the press was discovered, not a few of which are on parchments, among these the Polyglot of Antwerp, which was presented to the Duke Emanuel Philibert by Philip II. of Spain. There are also over one hundred MSS., of the remotest antiquity, on parchment, and a very rich collection of books on the fine arts, of ancient and modern prints, and drawings. The collection of Floras is complete, and there are many choice and rare editions of Arabic, Persian, Chaldaic and Hindoo books.

2. Anatomical Theatre.—The new anatomical theatre was founded by Charles Albert. Its architecture is simple and elegant in its construction, and it is surmounted by a roof of glass. Within are pipes, spouts, washing tubes, polished floors, and marble tables. The spacious hall destined to dissections is provided with all the improvements, which health and cleanliness require in anatomical operations. Under the main amphitheatre there is a spacious vault, where the subjects are deposited, and from which they are raised by means of a machine to a room above, where they are washed and laid on a marble table, and at the hour for the lecture, elevated by the same means to the floor of the amphitheatre, and placed in their position before the professor and the students. By other mechanical contrivances the subject approaches or withdraws from the professor. The light of the hall is so regulated, as to modify it according to the occasions. The walls of this hall are plastered with calcareous stucco, and are adorned with four great medallions, representing Bertrand, Cigna, Malacarne, and Rolando. Near the amphitheatre, there is a room appropriated for the use of the dissector, provided with all the contrivances for experiments. Between the yard of the anatomical theatre
and that of the great hospital of St. John, there is a subterranean communication, which facilitate the transportation of the subjects.

3. **Anatomical Pathological Museum.**—This museum contains many preparations of the systems and parts of the human body, embryos at different periods, pathological sections in an abnormal state. Among the most remarkable collections of this museum we may mention the collection of bones decomposed by syphilitic diseases, and by the use of mercury; the general osteomalacy, in which bones are light and spongy; the osteosarcoma of an elbow, which is larger than the head of a man; and the specimens of aneurism.

4. **Chemical Laboratories and Amphitheatre.**—There are six spacious rooms for the use of the laboratories, in which we find admirably arranged stoves and ovens, scales, and other instruments, and chemical and pharmaceutic preparations. The amphitheatre is designed for public lectures, and will seat five hundred pupils so advantageously, that the most minute experiments can be observed.

5. **Botanic Garden.**—The botanic garden was founded by Victor Amedeus II., and endowed and improved by his successors. Under Charles Albert the limits were enlarged, new canals made, and new pipes added in order to facilitate the irrigation of the plants; the trees and shrubs, which will grow in the open air, were planted and arranged, according to their natural classification in a suitable grove, in which we find also the officinal and economic species, methodically arranged. The same king purchased for the garden the rich collection of American plants brought to Piedmont by the botanist Bertero, and the plants of the islands of Sardinia and Capraja were added. The number of the cultivated species is about eleven thousand, including many of great rarity.

The species of the herbarium exceed forty thousand. There is also a collection of indigenous mushrooms, arranged in three hundred and fifty groups, cast in wax according to nature. The king has recently presented to the garden a beautiful collection of living plants, seeds, and woods brought from Brazil by the Prince of Carignano, and a not less interesting collection of dry species, seeds and fruits, for the study of carpology, gathered by Dr. Casaretto, in his excursion to the same country.

As early as 1782, the plants which blossom in the garden were painted, and that work having been continued to this time, the institution has a most complete botanic iconography, which contains more than five thousand plates *in folio*.

6. **Cabinet of Physical Apparatus.**—This collection began to be formed in 1721, was enriched by Charles Emmanuel III., and increased by Beccaria. Charles Felix sent Professor Botto to France and England, to purchase all the modern apparatus required by the cabinet, and many fine instruments, especially relating to optics, were added to it by him.

7. **Astronomic Observatory.**—The observatory was located in the year 1820 on the northern tower of the four, which arise at the angle of the ancient palace of the Royal Castle, now used for the meetings of the Senate. The hall of the observatory is beautifully arranged, and its walls
adorned with many medallions, representing Lagrange, Galileo, Tycho Brahe, Newton, Kepler, and Cassini. The meridian circle is erected between two marble columns in the centre of the hall, and can be turned east or west, at the pleasure of the observer. This instrument was constructed in Munich by Reichenbach, and has a diameter of three feet, divided on silver into arcs of a sixtieth, and reads to two seconds. The clear aperture of the telescope is of 12 centimeters, and its focal length of a meter and six hundred millimeters. Among the other instruments, we may mention a pendulum, which gives the sidereal time, constructed by Martin of Paris, two other telescopes by Dollond, one with an aperture of 65 millimeters, and of a focal length of a meter, the other of an aperture of a decimeter, and with a focal length of a meter, and 50 centimeters.

There is a fourth telescope, by Fraunhofer of Munich, mounted on a brass tripod, with an aperture of 75 millimeters, and a focal length of a meter. There is also a reflector-sextant, by Troughton of London, with a diameter of two decimeters, divided on silver, which reads to five seconds. Ascending to the turning roof on the east, we find a Refractor circle of a diameter of 50 centimeters, divided on silver, which reads to four seconds, the work of Reichenbach. On the west side of the roof is an Equatorial, which has a circle of declination of a diameter of 62 centimeters, divided in silver, and reads to five seconds. The clock has a diameter of 45 centimeters, divided on silver, and marks minutes.

8. Hydraulie Building.—This building is erected at a distance of two miles from the city. It consists of a large tower, with three floors, and it can be filled with water from a conduct above. Two large reservoirs receive the water from the tower and measure it; there are besides many aqueducts with different declivities and directions, and a collection of hydrometric apparatus and instruments.

9. Zoologic Museum.—Founded during the reign of Charles Emmanuel III., it received many donations from private sources, and was greatly increased by professors Borson and Bonelli; at present it is one of the best museums in Italy. The different classes of animals are arranged in two large halls, in a long gallery, and in many other rooms. The vertebrates, cephalopods, molluscs, and zoophyts occupy large convenient shelves; the living and fossil shells are disposed in elegant cases; the crustacea and insects fill a great number of cases. The invertebrates and testacea are abundant, as well as the shells both living and fossil. Among the living shells is worthy of being mentioned an *articulamargaritifera*, in which a pearl can be seen, wonderful for its volume and for its form. The fossils embrace a collection of shells discovered in the tertiaria of Italy, and especially of Piedmont. Finally, a series of skeletons of rare animals well kept and arranged.

10. Mineralogic Museum.—This collection embraces many specimens of minerals, rocks and earth of different countries, and especially of Piedmont, and of the island of Sardinia. It occupies two great halls, where the objects are exhibited either in shelves, on tables, or in cases enclosed by glasses.
11. Museum of Antiquities.—Among these, the coins take the first and most important part, and number fifteen thousand, Egyptian, Greek, Etruscan and Roman, of gold, silver and copper. The collection of marble statues, busts and heads is not large; there is a Cupid sleeping on a lion’s skin; a head of Antinous crowned with a garland of vine leaves, like a Bacchante; here is also a mosaic work, which was discovered in the island of Sardinia, and represents Orpheus playing the lyre, surrounded by different animals. Among the statuettes of bronze, Etruscan, Greek, Roman, and Sardinian, may be mentioned a Pallas, a Faunus, many tablets of bronze with Roman inscriptions, a collection of ancient vases either of bronze or of silver, and a collection of Etruscan vases, many of which were discovered in Piedmont.

12. Egyptian Museum.—It is perhaps the most complete in Europe. It was enriched by Charles Felix, who bought a great quantity of these monuments from Chevalier Dravetti, a Piedmontese, who occupied the place of French consul in Egypt. Here are statues of the ancient Pharaohs, many colossal, and all made of one piece, either of spotless granite, or of green and black basalt, or of calcareous stone. There are many statues of ancient kings, or representing gods and goddesses, sacred animals, and mythic emblems; they are of different sizes from the colossal downward. More than two hundred square boards, either carved or painted, represent persons offering food, flowers or fruits. One of them, the other half of which is preserved in the Vatican Museum, represents Sesonchi, the chief of the 22nd dynasty, who lived ten centuries before Christ; then we meet a collection of objects of worship: such are two altars of black granite, many marble and stone tables for the offering and the libation, sacred vases of different material and size, perfume vases of stone and of terra-cotta, loaves, grapes, grains, fruits—the specimens of scarabs, a symbol most venerated by the Egyptians, amount to two thousand. There are a great number of mummies;—their linen or cotton wrappers, and wooden cases, as well as the mummmies themselves, are admirably kept and preserved. Here are also many cases containing the mummies of animals, cats, fishes, hawks, reptiles, crocodiles, &c. In the museum are also exhibited more than two hundred rolls, or volumes of papyrus, which belong to the epoch in which Egypt was under the sway of Persia, and thence forward to the times of the Ptolemies and of Rome. Some are written on linen, some on parchment, wood, stone, or terra-cotta, in the Egyptian, Greek, or Coptic language, in hieroglyphic, hieratic or demotic signs. There are likewise linen, clothes, leather stockings, intertwined with palm leaves, vases of copper, of alabaster, etc.

IV. General Direction and Supervision of Public Instruction.

Before the year 1847, the general direction of public education belonged to the secretary of the Interior; but in reality it was in the hands of a council of instruction, called Magistrato della Riforma agli Studi, the members of which were appointed by the king, and which exercised full jurisdiction, and had an absolute power over all the scholastic institutions
of the country. In that year this Board was abolished, and a special department of public instruction created with a minister at its head, who takes an equal rank* with the other seven secretaries of state, who compose the cabinet of the administration. It belongs to this department to diffuse and to promote through all the country scientific and literary education, and to aid the progress of the fine arts. It has the supreme direction of all the universities of the state and all the other scientific or educational establishments, of the national, royal, and municipal colleges and schools, whether classic, technical or primary, either public or private, whether for boys, girls, or adults. The appointments of all professors, teachers, inspectors, superintendents, and officers of the instruction supported by the state come under the jurisdiction of this department, and to its approbation the appointments made by municipalities or other corporations for their own institutions must be submitted. It determines to what pupils free board is to be granted in the institutions of the state, and presides over the administration of legacies bestowed upon educational establishments. It promulgates regulations for their management, programmes of instruction, and methods of teaching, approves text-books, and establishes the rules of discipline. All other scholastic authorities, councils of universities and councils of faculties, permanent committees for the secondary schools, inspectors, both of secondary and of primary instruction, general councils for elementary instruction, provincial and collegial councils, royal, provincial, and local superintendents, presidents of boarding schools, directors of instruction, and all similar officers depend on the ministry of public instruction, and are referred to it, as to the central power and the highest authority.

Soon after, in 1848, a SUPREME COUNCIL OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION was created, (Consiglio superiore della istruzione pubblica,) and attached to the ministry, with the object of aiding and assisting it in the administration of the department. The council is presided over by the minister himself, and is composed of a vice-president, seven ordinary and five extraordinary members, appointed by the government, the former during life, the latter for three years. Five of the ordinary members must be chosen from among the professors of each faculty of some of the universities, while the two others can not belong to any university, but must be elected from among persons of high, scientific or literary repute; the extraordinary members may be either professors or collegiate doctors. Thus the general administration of public instruction was organized in 1848, and coordinated with all the other scholastic authorities, which were established over its different branches. Though a decided improvement on the former system, this organization has been proved by an experience of eight years to be too complicated in its structure, and too weak in its operation. By creating so many councils of different branches of instruction, as separate bodies, independent of each other, the law of 1848

* C. Alfieri, C. Boncompagni, V. Gioberti, F. Merlo, L. Cibrario, and P. Gioja, are the most prominent men, who have held this office. Dr. G. Lanza is the present incumbent; his noble character and large educational views place him high among the statesmen of Sardinia.
tributed the scholastic government among too many centers, and the administration, losing its unity, became perplexed, confused, and powerless. Besides, the supreme council in its first organization was filled with permanent members, who though of a high standing in the scientific world, yet, belonging to a past age, did not represent the necessities and conditions of the new era, and were entirely unable to direct the national education of the country conformably to its new institutions. Then, the council being mainly composed of one member from each faculty, it formed a body in its majority not qualified for making and enforcing provisions relative to any branches of learning, which were either imperfectly or not at all represented in that board. A like defect of organization was found in the subordinate authorities, where the power was too often entrusted to men lacking sufficient knowledge of the condition of the scholastic system of the country. Add to this, that political questions since that time have absorbed all the activities of the country, and it will be easily understood why the new system of administration proved a signal failure, and the necessity of a reform frequently arrested the attention of Parliament.

It was not, however, until February, 1857, that the House of Deputies passed a bill establishing a new system of administration, which was afterward approved by the Senate, and promulgated by the King. As it changes the organization of the educational authorities of the country, and constitutes a new basis, on which henceforth its administration will rest, we subjoin the bill in full, leaving to time to decide, whether the system recently enacted can be considered a reform, and while the bill contains provisions sufficient to ensure the unity of the directive power, it gives at the same time adequate guarantees of a liberal administration.

V. BUDGET OF THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The expenses authorized by the Parliament for the support of education, under the direction of the department of public instruction, during the year 1857, amount to the sum of 2,081,989 francs, viz.:

For the executive department of public instruction, ........................................... 98,750 francs.
  supreme council of public instruction, ....................................................... 16,500 "
  general council of elementary and teachers' schools, ............................ 9,000 "
  university councils and offices of the four universities, .................... 91,221 "
  royal scholastic superintendents, .............................................................. 49,059 "
  inspectors of secondary schools, ................................................................. 14,500 "
  instruction in the universities, ................................................................. 492,962 "
  university teaching in the provinces, ......................................................... 31,330 "
  national, royal and municipal colleges, .................................................. 600,580 "
  technical schools, ......................................................................................... 77,540 "
  veterinary school, ......................................................................................... 81,800 "

The balance of the appropriation is devoted to the scientific establishments, museums, library, subsidies to elementary schools, &c. Adding to this sum the amount raised and expended by the townships and provinces, for the support of public instruction, which reaches 3,557,229 francs, we have a total expenditure of 5,589,216 francs.

To enable our readers to institute a comparison between the other departments and that of public instruction, we give the expenditures of the different branches of the central administration, from the budget of 1856.
Department of finances, ................................................. 73,44,753 francs.
  "  grace and justice, .............................................. 4,328,351 "
  "  foreign affairs, ................................................ 3,431,745 "
  "  public instruction, ............................................. 2,045,254 "
  "  the interior, .................................................... 7,601,846 "
  "  public works, .................................................... 11,783,714 "
  "  war, ................................................................. 32,247,526 "
  "  navy, ................................................................. 4,355,061 "

In the same year the revenues of the state amounted to 132,529,833 francs. The estimated expenditure of the department of public instruction, as submitted to the Parliament for the year 1858, is 2,100,709 francs.

VI. SCIENTIFIC AND ARTISTIC ESTABLISHMENTS.

To complete our exposition, we add a short account of some of the principal scientific and artistic establishments, which though not dependent on the Department of Instruction, yet greatly conduce to the general culture of the people, to the advancement of science, and are the standard of the intellectual development of the country.

ROYAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.—This academy was founded by private individuals, such as the Counts of Saluzzo, Lagrange and Cigna, who were soon joined by other celebrated men, as Alioni, Foncenex and Morozzo. In 1783, this private association was transformed into a public institution by a special privilege bestowed upon it by the Duke of Savoy, Victor Amedeus III., and very soon was illustrated by the names of Dantoni, Robilante, Debutet, Napione, Prospero Balbo and many others of great scientific or literary reputation. In more recent times the greatest men of the country have belonged to this academy, as the great chemist Giobert, Bidone the mathematician, Diodata Saluzzo the poetess, Provana, Lasca- ris, Bessone, Boucheron, and Rosmini.

The Academy is divided into two classes, one of mathematical and physical sciences, the other of moral, historical and philological sciences. When complete it numbers forty resident members, twenty for each class; its officers are a President, Vice President, and a treasurer. Moreover, each class is presided over by a Director and a Secretary. Besides these forty members who must be residents of Turin, the classes are allowed to elect ten other national members, either within or without the State. There are also twenty foreign members, ten for each class, among whom we find the most celebrated men of Europe. The number of corresponding members is not determined by the by-laws, and can be increased at the will of the academy. Each class offers, every year, a reward of a certain sum to the best work on some specified subject: twenty-four annual pensions of six hundred francs each are secured to the eldest members of the academy.

In 1759 the first volume of the Academy was published under the title of Miscellanea philosophico-mathematica societatis privatae Taurinensis, which was received with great favor by all the scientific bodies of Europe. From 1759 to 1773 four other volumes were published, under
the title of Mélanges de philosophie et de mathematique de la Societe Royale de Turin. Since 1783 the transactions of the Academy are published under the title of Memorie della R. Accademia delle Scienze di Torino, the first series of which embraces forty volumes. The second series of the publications, which first made its appearance in 1839, now numbers fourteen volumes.

The hall of the meetings of the Academy is adorned with the busts of its three founders, of King Victor Amedeus III., Denina, Vernazza and Gerdil. The Academy possesses a very rich collection of medals and coins, Greek, Latin, and modern, of which a catalogue was published some years ago; this collection was presented to the academy by one of its members, M. Lavy, who gave also to the institution eighteen marble busts of ancient Romans, which adorn the great Hall of the public meetings of the academy. It possesses besides a choice and rich library, which contains the acts of all the principal scientific Associations of the world, and a hundred and thirty-five Mexican volumes, seven hundred and seventy-eight from the United States, seventy from the Philippine Islands, a hundred from China, forty-eight from the East Indies, and thirty-two Arabic and Syriac. In the palace of the academy, which was built according to the design of Guarini, we find also a Hall containing specimens of industrial works, models, drawings and lithographies, which is called the Hall of Arts and Mechanical Professions.

Royal Military Academy.—This institution was designed for the children of the officers of the army, and is located in a large building, near the palace of the king. It was built by Charles Emmanuel II., after the design of Amedeus of Castellamonte, and was finished by Mary John Baptist, his widow, while Regent of the kingdom. During the minority of Victor Amedeus II., the original object of this academy was to receive the pages of the court and young men belonging to the nobility, and to instruct them in the use of all kinds of weapons, in horsemanship, dancing, mathematics, and belles-lettres. Though from the accounts of Alfieri, who was a pupil of that academy, we can not say that the instruction given at that time by the institution had any claim to high scientific excellence, still it had even then acquired great reputation for the accomplishments of the pupils, so that even at that time many Russian and English noblemen placed their children under its direction. In the course of time the academy passed through many successive improvements and reforms, and as it now stands, has for its object the instruction in the art of war of young men intending to become officers in the army. There are two courses in the academy, one of five years for the ordinary departments, and the other of six for the learned departments. The first graduates non-commissioned officers, and the second lieutenants; who, however, must remain two years more in the institution, for the school of application, serving at the same time in some regiment. The various branches of instruction are intrusted to twenty professors, viz.: of Analysis and Mechanics, of descriptive Geometry, of Mathematics, of physical Science,
Chemistry and Statics, of Fortification, of Topography and Geodesy, of military Art and History, of Design, of Italian Literature, of French Language, Dancing, Fencing, Gymnastics, and Swimming. There are besides two Directors of instruction, eight tutors, and a machinist, for keeping in order the philosophical apparatus, and aiding the professors of physical and chemical Sciences in their experiments. The pupils of the academy number about 200, part of whom receive free board, lodging and instruction, and part pay a moderate price for it.

First General Corps of the Army, (Stato Maggiore Generale.)—This corps is composed of Officers of different ranks, of Engineers, Topographic Designers and Engravers. It was created in the middle of the last century; it has since been reformed and improved at different times. The subordinate officers are selected generally from the Royal Military Academy, who follow the "learned" course, in which they are taught the special theories in relation to the different corps. Though members of this corps, they are required to continue their instructions in the academy, in order to acquire the practice of theories previously learned. In field-works, both trigonometric and topographic, which are annually undertaken, in order to survey the country and to draw its maps, young officers are employed under the direction of the older, so as to give them practice, to accustom their eyes to the measure of distances, to the knowledge of the physical forms of ground, to the appreciation of its strategic value and to the use of drawings and maps.

The officers of this corps, in time of war, are obliged to reconnoitre the enemy, to observe their forces, their composition, dispositions and movements, to determine points to be fortified, and the nature and extent of the fortifications; to open roads, to build bridges and other communications, and to select quarters for the army. They also draw the maps for the use of the army, direct the administration of its provisions, preside over the discipline of the soldiers, the service of the guides, safeguards and explorers, the treatment of prisoners and of deserters. They keep the journal of all the operations of the army, and have the direction of the administrative department of war. In time of peace, they are destined especially to examine every part of the kingdom, and to draw the most remarkable places for military purposes, to gather the statistics and historical facts relative to the same subject, to compose the regulations of the army, to draw from all military works whatever can be useful to the improvement of the national forces, and to direct the different works of topography and engraving, which are undertaken by the corps.

The duties of the first general corps are relative to the service either of arms, or of the offices. The former is divided into three sections: 1st, of infantry and cavalry; 2d, of artillery and engineering; 3d, of general superior office. The latter embraces: 1st, the office of the general quarter-master, the archives and the library; 2d, the office of topography and of engraving; 3d, the general office.

Many valuable geodetic and topographic works have been executed by this corps, among which we may mention the measure of an arc of
parallel of latitude, included between the tower of Cordouan near Bordeaux, in France, and that of Fiume, in Italy; which measure had been brought in France so far as the Roanne, and toward Italy so far as Ticino, but had been interrupted by the Alps. All the scientific operations made for this measure, as well as the operations instituted by the same corps, in order to verify the measure both geodetic and astronomical of the arc of the meridian, formerly determined by Beccaria, were published in Milan, in two volumes in 4to, with diagrams. The corps undertook also a general primary and secondary triangulation of all the continental kingdom so as to form a map, on a scale of a fifty-thousandth, divided into ninety-six sheets. This general atlas was afterward reduced to a scale of a two hundred and fifty-thousandth, which was published some years ago. Another work of great value has also been undertaken on the ancient and modern, physical, political and military conditions of Northern Italy, which is divided into five parts, two descriptive, two historical, and one graphic.

School of Artillery in the Arsenal.—Men, who are destined to work in the arsenal, receive here practical instruction in their art. The arsenal contains: 1st, a chemical and metallurgical Laboratory, in which analysis, &c., are performed; 2d, a mineralogical collection, containing 1100 specimens of minerals, and many models of crystallization, besides a complete collection of specimens from the territory of Genoa; 3d, a collection of Philosophical Apparatus, containing 600 different machines and instruments, partly from Puxy and Dumotier of Paris and partly from Zest and Brabante of Turin; 4th, a library containing the best books on Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, Astronomy, Geology, Geography, &c.; 5th, a foundry of cannon, which includes the foundry properly so called, the atelier of modelers, the Hall of models, the ateliers of trepans and of engravers; 6th, the lithographic establishment; 7th, the machine shop; 8th, a manufacture of all kinds of arms for the army and navy; 9th, the atelier of bombardiers; 10th, the manufacture of gunpowder, and refinary of saltpetre; 11th, a forge for gun-barrels.

Royal Corps of the Military Engineers.—This is another scientific corps of the army, and has three divisions: 1st, the engineers and officers; 2d, the sappers and miners; 3d, the office of the archives,—all under the command of a Major-General. It is their duty to prepare the designs for new military buildings, and to keep in order the existing establishments.

Royal Armory, (Arméria Reale.)—Among the establishments in relation with military instruction we mention the Royal Armory, which is an extensive collection of ancient and modern arms, and especially of those used in the middle ages. It is a treasure of history, of military science and of the mechanical fine arts, enriched with a great quantity of specimens remarkable both for their structure and ornaments, embellished with historical designs and sculptures, reliefs and bas-reliefs, carved and gilded. There are arms of all ages, shields, helmets, cuirasses, coats of mail, steel waistcoats, iron armlets and greaves, lances, daggers, clubs,
bows, swords, and guns of all kinds and ages, highly interesting to military students. There is a rich collection of Indian weapons, gathered by Vidua in his travels through Central Asia, which was increased by the Prince of Carignano, with many implements from the new world. The flags which are unfolded in the Armory are precious monuments, which recall the ancient and modern glories of the Sardinian army. Here also is a valuable collection of medals and coins, in which is written the history of Sardinian kings, of others which are historical monuments of the provinces of the kingdom, and finally of coins and medals of Italy, from the fall of the Empire to our own times.

King's Library, (Biblioteca del Re)—This contains thirty thousand volumes of the best editions of ancient and modern works on history, travels, arts, economy, etc. Among these some are printed on parchment and painted in miniature. The selections of military works is complete, and the collection of manuscripts rich. We may mention, among these, a collection of fifty-three volumes of Atlases containing designs for the history of artillery of Europe, by Col. Rouvroy; all the materials which Frederick the Great communicated to Algarotti for the history of the seven years' war, with many letters of that king to its author; the only complete copy of the history of the Arabs from their origin to the Caliph of Moawiyah, by Elm-Kaldm; and finally, many codices both in parchment and papyrus, Arabic, Persian, &c. There are many letters of Emmanuel Philibert, of Prince Eugene of Savoy, of Redi, autographs of Napoleon, and of some of his generals. There we find a collection of two thousand ancient designs, among which twenty by Leonardo da Vinci, some by Raphael, Correggio, Titian, etc. The library possesses moreover a beautiful collection of Chinese insects, designed and painted in miniature on silk paper by Chinese artists, with the Chinese names of every insect; and a collection of many Chinese miniatures, birds, flowers, plants, dresses, &c.

Archives of the State, (Archivi di Stato)—They contain treasures relative to the history of the country. The great quantity of its papers are inclosed in beautifully carved cases, classified in fine order, and registered in excellent catalogues. To the Archives there is united a library for the use of the executive departments, which is enriched by many precious manuscripts, many of which on parchment, and especially three missals of a remote antiquity, which are considered of great value for the excellence of the designs and beauty of the coloring of their miniatures. They belong to the age of Raphael. There are in the library many books and editions of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.

The Royal Academy of Medicine and Surgery was founded in Turin some years ago by the most prominent physicians of the country, for promoting the progress of medicine, surgery, and relative sciences. It is composed of ordinary, honorary, and corresponding members, the first of which are obliged to present a paper every year. The Academy meets, twice a month, to hear the reading of papers and to discuss theoretical and practical subjects. It offers annual prizes for the best works on medical
and surgical questions, and publishes a monthly paper and yearly volumes of its acts, which are highly esteemed by all medical societies of Europe. Connected with the Academy is an association of mutual aid of all the physicians of the country, who, by paying an annual moderate fee, have right to a pecuniary allowance in case of their sickness, or of other embarrassing circumstances. The Academy and the association are in a flourishing state, and in the way to more extensive operations.

The Royal Albert Academy of Fine Arts was founded in 1824 by Charles Felix, reformed and enriched by Charles Albert, who gave his name to the institution. Its object is to give free instruction to young men in the art of design, and especially in the arts of painting, sculpture, architecture and engraving. Its officers are a director and president, a secretary, the first painter to the king, ten honorary members, fourteen resident professors, foreign professors, and honorary fellows. The schools are preparatory and special: the preparatory embraces, 1st, the first and second class of drawing; 2d, the school of anatomy; 3d, of statuary; 4th, of nude figures; 5th, of drapery; 6th, of perspective; 7th, of history and poetry. The special school, in which the pupils enter when they have given satisfactory proofs of their sufficient progress in the preparatory school, and have chosen the branch of art to which they prefer to devote themselves, comprehends 1st, the school of painting; 2d, of architecture; 3d, of sculpture; 4th, of engraving; 5th, of ornament.

Examinations and rewards promote the love and the progress of the arts. The exhibitions for the rewards of the first class, which consist of golden medals and a sum of money, take place every three years, and the works of all artists are admitted. The rewards of the second class consist of silver medals, with a smaller sum, and are bestowed every six months on the pupil, who has exhibited the most meritorious work in that time. Besides, the government grants three pensions to the three best pupils of the Academy, to enable them to reside and to study in Rome. These pensions are granted to a pupil of each of the three arts of painting, sculpture and architecture. For the two former the examination is open every three years, for the latter every six years. The pupils so privileged are obliged to send a work of their own to the Academy, every year. The Royal Gallery of Paintings, containing many masterpieces of all the principal schools, affords to the pupils a continuous means of improvement. This gallery is remarkable especially for the excellent collection of paintings by Piedmontese artists of great fame, as Caravoglia, Macrino, Giovenone, Molineri, Caccia, Olivieri and Gaudenzio Ferrari, all of whom stand side by side with Raphael, Guido Reni, Guercino, Gentileschi, Carlo Dolce, Crespi and Cigagni. It possesses also originals by Titian, Palma, a Magdalene by Paul Veronese, and many works of Jacopo da Bassano and of Canaletto. The foreign schools are represented by Mignard and Poussin of France, by Holbein and Albert Durer of Germany, by Velasquez and Murillo of Spain, by Paul Potter and Teniers, Wouwermans and Van Dyke of Holland and Flanders. The Academy, besides an excellent collection of drawings and models,
possesses of its own a fine gallery of paintings, among which are twenty-four by Gaudenzio Ferrari.

Philharmonic Academy of Turin.—This conservatorium, or school of music, was founded in 1815 by a few young men with a modest beginning, but was soon after increased and enriched by some wealthy benefactors and by the generosity of the kings. Its object is to promote the study of music by every means, especially by concerts and evening parties, and by the free teaching of music. Its members are divided into two classes, ordinary and aggregate fellows. The ordinary can not be more than one hundred and fifty in number, and fill their vacancies by ballot. They pay an entrance and an annual fee. The aggregate fellows are either honorary or resident. The free school of singing is directed by the Academy by the medium of a director and professors. The course occupies six years, and is divided into as many classes. Monthly, quarterly and annual examinations afford the pupils frequent occasions of showing their improvement, and of gaining honorary medals. Over the school for girls presides a committee of ladies, who visit it daily, and educate those who are from the lower classes in the politeness and elegance of manners, which are so necessary to candidates for the stage. To diffuse a taste for music, the Academy not only gives free instruction, but often opens its splendid halls for concerts and evening parties.

Philodramatic Academy.—It was founded in 1828, and proposes not only to prepare good actors for the stage, but more to educate the young of both sexes in the art of delivering public speeches, and of reading. Its ordinary members are thirty-five in number, while the number of honorary members is undetermined.

Caccia's College.—A beneficent man, by the name of Caccia, created this college and endowed it with a large property. It was in Pavia until 1820, and was transferred in that year to Turin. It supports four pupils, who learn the principles of design at the Royal Academy of the Fine Arts. It also supports in Rome three pupils; two for sculpture, one for painting, and another in Milan, in engraving. It, moreover, gives free board and lodging to sixteen young men from the province of Novara, during the whole of their studies at the university.

Royal Committees for the Progress of Sciences, Letters and Arts.—Charles Albert created in 1832 a committee of antiquities and fine arts, and intrusted to it the office of suggesting means of the discovery and preservation of all objects of antiquity and fine arts. Another committee, created in 1833, is called the Royal Deputation for researches into the history of the country. It is its duty to publish a collection of inedited or rare works in connection with the history of the country, and a diplomatic code of the kingdom. This committee has, since the time of its institution, published nine huge and most valuable volumes, folio, with the title of Historia patriæ monumenta edita jussu Regis Caroli Alberti. The work is to be continued.

A third committee of statistics, created in 1836, is intrusted with the collection and publication of all statistics of the kingdom, with the aid of
sub-committees instituted in every city. This committee has already published many volumes on the subject, and next year will undertake a general new census of the country.

The Royal Academy of Agriculture of Turin promotes the interests and the development of this important source of public welfare, discusses in its regular meetings subjects relating to it, and receives papers and specimens of agricultural productions and implements. It opens yearly two public exhibitions, one of flowers, fruits, and every kind of horticultural productions, the other of agricultural implements, and gives honorary prizes for the best specimens. The Academy publishes every year its transactions, which contain valuable papers, and really substantially form the contemporaneous history of Sardinian agriculture. The attention of the Academy is particularly directed to the cultivation of the vine and the mulberry tree, and to the best method of making wines and of raising silk-worms, which constitute two of the most important staples of the agricultural industry of the country.

The Agricultural Association has for its object the promotion of agriculture and arts connected with it. The Association holds meetings, where appropriate subjects are publicly discussed, and publishes agricultural tracts in order to diffuse among the people a knowledge of the soundest principles, and the best systems and implements of cultivation, and gives prizes for the best specimens of agricultural productions and instruments. It possesses a good museum and an experimental garden, and publishes a monthly agricultural review and yearly volumes of its annals.

The Chamber of Agriculture and Commerce of Turin is composed of fifteen members, of whom four must be landed proprietors, two bankers, two silk manufacturers, two in other manufacturing business and five merchants. Its duty is to watch over the progress of agriculture, industry and commerce, to examine the obstacles which may prevent their development, and to suggest remedies. The Chamber supports free public courses of Commercial Jurisprudence and Political Economy, which are attended by merchants, clerks, &c. To the Chamber is attached the Technical Institute, of which we have elsewhere spoken. It presides over the national exhibitions of industry, which take place in Turin every three years. The constitution and objects of the Chambers of Commerce and Agriculture of Genoa, Chambery and Nice are similar to those of the Chamber of Turin.

The following institutions have more or less relation to those, of which we have already given an account:

The Royal Academy of Sciences of Savoy, in Chambery.
The Academy of Sciences and Arts of Alexandria.
The Economical Association of Chiavari.
The Academy of Philosophy of Genoa.
The Association for the Progress of Education, established in Turin, and ramified throughout the kingdom.
The Academy of Painting, Architecture, Ornament and Engraving.
of Genoa, to which courses of lectures on the fine arts are attached. It supports also two pupils in Rome and in Florence, for instruction in painting and sculpture.

The Philharmonic Association of Genoa.

The Philharmonic Dramatic Literary Academy of Cuneo.

The Philharmonic Poetic Literary Academy of Alba.

The Royal Association of Agriculture and Economy of Cagliari.

The Association of Workmen and Mechanics for their mutual instruction and aid, which is to be found in almost every city.

The Royal Council of the Administration of Mines, and the Royal Corps of Engineers connected with that Council.

The Royal Corps of Civil Engineers for the Superintendence of Waters and Roads.

The Association for the Promotion of the Fine Arts of Turin.

The Association for the Promotion of Gunnery and Small-arm Practice of Turin, intended especially for the instruction of the National Guard.

VII. THE PRESS.—Though, before 1848, a civil and ecclesiastical censorship exerted a most severe and absurd control over all kinds of publications, and no political newspaper was allowed in the country, yet even at that time many valuable works were issued from the Piedmontese press, both scientific and literary, which have given to the typographical mechanics of Sardinia a high reputation through all Italy. The constitution of 1848, having insured to the country absolute freedom of the press, made it a powerful instrument of education, as well as of a general control over all acts of the administration. Indeed, the freedom of the press is one of the most important of the real benefits derived to the country from the constitution. All citizens have the right to publish whatever they may choose on whatever subject, and the government has no power of control over any publication; writers, as well as publishers, being only responsible before the courts of justice, which have to pronounce their sentences after the verdict of a jury, in the causes concerning their offenses against the laws of the country. Indeed, editors of political papers can even throw this responsibility on any person, whom they choose to appoint as a responsible trustee of their paper. The freedom of the press is so unlimited, that papers are to be found which not only stand in strong and systematic opposition to the administration, but which propose, as their object, the propagation of the most radical doctrines against the established government; some proposing to return to an absolute monarchy under the guardianship of the church, and others to supersede the present constitution by establishing republican institutions in the country. We must say, however, that these papers do not receive great encouragement from the people, who, being of a nature especially practical and positive, have no taste for political theories beyond all possibility of realization in the present condition of Europe, and much less for the anachronism of the middle ages, which ignorant or interested parties would substitute for the institutions born of present civilization. The following are the principal daily papers published in Turin:
The Gazzetta Piedmontese is the official paper of the government, valuable for its publication of all the documents relative to the administration, and of the full debates of the Parliament.

The Opinione, a paper representing the majority of the House of Deputies, and supporting the politics of the administration. It supports also, with great skill and strength, the emancipation of Italy from the dominion of Austria, and its correspondences from Lombardy and Venice give the most reliable accounts of those provinces. Among its contributors we mention G. Dina, a learned and talented young man, who has the main direction of the paper.

The Diritto is the exponent of the most advanced and liberal party of Sardinia; it expresses the liberal opposition of the Lower House, and while accepting and supporting the present monarchical representative government, struggles for a broader interpretation and more liberal construction of the political constitution. Independent of the government, to which it is in a certain sense opposed, it pleads with dignity and power the cause of freedom and nationality. The Diritto is directed by a few of the members of the liberal party of the House, among whom we may instance the most important and active, L. Valerio, whose life has been long since devoted to the moral progress of the country, and engaged by every means in promoting the independence of Italy. Few men in Sardinia have such claims, as M. Valerio, to the esteem and affection of his countrymen.

The Unione, without being connected with any political party, is the organ of the general feeling of the country on the subject of the emancipation of Italy from Austria, as well as from Papal dominion. Bianchi Giovini, an able and learned politician, who may indeed be considered as the best qualified writer on ecclesiastical matters relative to civil power, edits the Unione; which holds a high standing among other papers for its sound and positive doctrines, and for its calm and scientific handling of its subjects. Substantially, freedom and independence are the principles of which the Unione is the faithful exponent.

The Gazzetta del Popolo, the smallest and the cheapest of all the newspapers, exerts the greatest and most extensive influence on the less educated classes of people, for which it is particularly published. Its objects, which do not differ substantially from those of the Diritto and Unione, are pursued with remarkable shrewdness and power. The Gazzetta, enjoying a larger circulation than any other paper in the country, does good service to the cause of civilization, in its endeavors to excite in the masses the feeling of their dignity and the necessity of their emancipation from the grasp of superstition, as well as the necessity of insuring independence of their country. Govean, Borella and Bottero, the bold and able editors of the Gazzetta, may be called true missionaries of freedom in Sardinia, and of national independence throughout Italy.

Besides these, there are published in Turin many other daily papers, which are more or less conducted in the same spirit as the above; such
are the Indipendente, the Espero, the Staffetta and the Fischietto, which very successfully maintains a humorous character, and for its wit as well as for its caricatures, may compare with Punch and Charivari. The Armonia supports the interests of the church, and it is natural enough, that it longs for the restoration of the influence of the clergy on the government, as the only ark for the safety of its party.

In Genoa there is published an official and daily paper, (Gazzetta di Genova,) and besides the Corriere Mercantile, which represents the political party of the government and the interests of that city and province, and the Italia del Popolo, the organ of the Republican party, which in its way pleads the cause of freedom and independence. In all the other principal cities of the Kingdom, there is published at least one paper, more or less devoted to the same principles held by the great majority of the press of Turin. Such are the Gazzette de Savoie of Chambery, the Gazzetta Popolare of Cagliari, the Gazzetta delle Alpi of Cuneo, the Tempo of Casale, the Vessillo della Libertà of Vercelli, the Pensiero of Oneglia, the Cittadino of Asti, &c.

Some branches of arts, industry and commerce, scientific and literary departments, are represented by papers and reviews; like the Gazzetta dei Tribunali, the Giornale delle arti e industrie, the Gazetta medica, the Bollettino delle strade ferrate, the Pirata, the Rivista militare, the Secolo XIX, and above all the Rivista contemporanea, a monthly scientific and literary Review of the highest character not only in Sardinia, but in all Italy, and which is supported by contributions of the best writers of the country.

VIII. Educational Press and Scholastic Books.

The educational movement, which began in Sardinia about fifteen years ago, was produced and directed by some pedagogical works of great merit, published both in Piedmont, and in other parts of the Peninsula. Among the writers who have contributed most to this educational progress of Italy, we may mention Rosmini, Lambruschini, Mayer, Thouar, Sacchi, Parravicini, Cantu, Aporti, Fontana, Rosi, and Taverna, all of whom belonged to other States of Italy, except Rosmini, who lived in Sardinia. In Piedmont, however, as early as in 1840, Vincenzo Troja, under the direction of the Magistrato della Riforma agli Studi, prepared a manual for teachers, and a new programme for elementary schools, both of which were published under the title of Istruzione ai maestri delle scuole elementari. In this manual the principles of pedagogic art were laid down, the object of primary schools defined, a new system of reading introducted, and above all, instruction graduated according to different classes of pupils, and corporeal punishments abolished. Prof. Troja prepared afterward two Reading Books, which were approved by the Magistrato, and prescribed for all primary schools. Though imperfect works, these books changed entirely the method of teaching, aroused in the minds of teachers a feeling of the necessity of further and deeper investigation on didactic method, and brought into the schools the educational systems, which had already obtained favor in Germany and
Switzerland, through the works of Pestalozzi and Girard. It is just to add, that this educational movement was greatly aided by the labors of some high minded citizens, who, though entangled at every step by a petty censorship, and troubled in their efforts by a suspicious government, strenuously fought on behalf of human civilization, by promoting by every means the educational progress of the country. Among these we will mention C. Boncompagni, afterward minister of public instruction, and more particularly Lorenzo Valerio, above named, who well supported that liberal movement in his highly philanthropic paper, Letture Popolari. This journal, which was soon after abolished by the government, sprang up more powerful, under the name of Letture di famiglia, continuing most efficiently the noble work of its predecessor.

After the common efforts of the liberal party had been somewhat successful, after public opinion grew so strong in favor of educational reform, as to obtain from the government the establishment of schools for teachers, and the official acknowledgment of the necessity of that reform, works on methodic art, and other educational subjects, appeared from every quarter in such number, that it became quite difficult to select the few of real merit from the mass of the indifferent or paltry. In this condition of things, the government in order to prevent a general confusion which would have inevitably succeeded in the schools of the country, and to prevent useless expenditures by parents, renewed the former ordinance, by which no book should be introduced into the schools, before approved by the supreme council of instruction. The prescribed list of the textbooks for primary and secondary studies is the following:

Elementary Course.—Silabario graduato di V. Troia, Primo libro di lettura; Secondo libro di lettura; Catechismo della Diocesi; Schmidt, Racconti della storia sacra; Grammatica elementare Italiana di A. P.; Compendio di aritmetica per un fratello delle Scuole Cristiane; Nozioni compendiose di geografia; Metodo e quaderni di Scrittura di Delpino e Trossi. Course of Grammar—Classics: Epitome Historiae sacrae; Epitome historiae Graecae; Epitome historiae Romanae, seu de viribus illustribus urbis Romae; Cornellii Nepotis opera; Phaedri Fabulae; Ciceronis Epistolae ad familiares; Ciceronis Laelius sive de amicitia; Nova anthologia Latina, sect. prima; Nuova antologia Italiana, sect. prima; Text-books: Compendio del nuovo metodo, oppure della grammatica Latina; Corticelli regole ed osservazioni della lingua Toscanana; Storia sacra dell'A. e N. Testamento del P. Secco; Compendio della Storia della R. Casa Savoja Nozioni compendiose di geografia; Course of Rhetoric—Classics: Caesaris Commentarii &c.; Ciceronis Orations Selectae; Virgili Georgicon and Aeneidos; Horatii carmina selecta and Ars poetica; Nova anthologia Latina sect. seconda; Anthologia Graeca; Tasso Gerusalemme Liberata; Alfieri Sauli; Casa Galateo ed orazioni; Nuova antologia Italiana, sec. seconda; Text-books: Grammatica Greca di Burnouf—Trattato dell'arte poetica—Cellarii Breviarium antiqu. Rom. cum appendice Juvenecii de Dis; Marta, trattat di Aritemtica. For the lectures on History and Belles-Lettres, the prescribed programmes are followed. Course of Philosophy—Classics: Ciceronis De Officis, St. Augustini Soliloquy, Nova Anthologia Latina, (sect. tertia,) Nuova Antologia Italiana, (Sezione terza;) Text-books: Marta, Elementi di Algebra e Geometria; Botto, Elementi di Fisica Sperimentale. For the lectures on Logic, Metaphysics, Moral Philosophy, and Natural History, see the programmes.

We do not venture to say, that Sardinia possesses excellent books for its schools, nor that the selections of the Government could not be better. On the contrary, we admit that there is a decided lack in this branch of literature, especially for elementary schools. There are, however, some books which are of a superior character, as Feccia's elementary books, and the Elementi di Logica e Metaphysica, by Pier Antonio Corre, and the Elementi di Etica, by the same writer, which are rightly considered
as the best text-books of the philosophical course, and as such adopted by the best colleges. Philosophy is greatly indebted for its progress in Sardinia to Professor Corte, who, in connection with a few others, undertook many years ago to reform this study, and succeeded in delivering the university of Turin and its colleges from the influence of the sensualist doctrine, which for a long time had prevailed. Prof. Corte is also author of a valuable Latin philosophical Reader: *Anthologia ex M. T. Cicerone, et L. Annaeo Seneca, cura et studio Petri Antonii Corte, in usum Philosophiae Studiosorum Cincinnati.*

Political papers often treat ably the subject of educational reform, and thus many valuable ideas find their way into the public mind. As for special educational papers, the monthly *Journal of the Association for the advancement of Education*, which was for many years published in Turin, contained valuable writings in all branches of pedagogic and didactic science. But it having some years ago closed its publications, it was resumed, under the name of the *Institutore*, a semi-monthly Review, edited for the benefit of teachers by Professor Berti, to whose labors the cause of public education is much indebted. Prof. D. Berti is one of the youngest and ablest members of the Parliament, and many important improvements in the educational system, we doubt not, will be achieved by his talents and devotion to the country. With him is associated G. A. Rayneri, professor of Methodology in the University of Turin, whose public lectures on pedagogy are of high standing and of great value to the students of this course. Prof. Rayneri is the author of an excellent book, *Principii della Metodica*.

XI. **Antonio Rosmini considered as the Philosopher of Pedagogy, and as an Educator.**—All the most important works or writings, all the most effectual lectures which have been published or delivered in Italy, and especially in Piedmont, during the last twelve years, whether on methodic science or on didactic art, either derived their foundations or their doctrines from the scientific principles, which were laid down in the immortal works of one of the greatest men of our age, **Antonio Rosmini**. It may be allowed to the writer of this paper to introduce to the acquaintance of American readers the venerated name of this great philosopher, a name which recalls to his mind the sweetest recollections of his life, and excites in his heart the deepest grief for his untimely death, which deprived Italy of one of her noblest sons, and science of one of its most gifted devotees. Devoted as a priest, refined as a scholar, sound as a statesman, sublime as a thinker, humble as a Christian, and bold as a philosopher, Rosmini united in himself in a high degree many qualities, any of which would be sufficient to convey to posterity the name of its possessor. The acuteness and breadth of his mind were only equalled by the extent of his learning, and by the refinement of his taste. With the synthetic power of Dante and with the analytical faculties of Thomas Aquinas, his mind embraced all human knowledge in its unity and universality, with the view of erecting a philosophical Encyclopædia, which was to be derived from one principle and divided into different branches,
according to their logical order. Of this Encyclopædia he had published some twenty volumes, in which science is founded on a new and immovable basis, and developed with such a deep, broad, and original survey, that few philosophers, either in ancient or modern times, can be compared to him in this respect. In his religious feelings, though a sincere believer and enlightened apostle of the Catholic church, in which he was born and educated, yet he did not approve, nay openly condemned the excesses of the clergy, and whatever abuses he might have found in the church. Hence the severe trials to which he was submitted under the influence of extreme parties of both sides. But the strictness of Rosmini's life and the holy charity with which he was endowed secured him the blessedness, which arises from the contemplation of truth, and the practice of benevolence. Tolerant of all opinions, and respectful to all men, though dissenting from him, despising all honors which the world could bestow upon him, giving up to charitable objects the large fortune which he had inherited from his family, Rosmini showed himself a true follower of him, in the faith of whom he lived and died. He ended his life in 1855, at Stresa, on the Lago Maggiore, at the age of fifty-eight years.

Considering Rosmini in connection with the subject of education, we shall not enter into any account of his immortal works on Ideology, Logic, moral and political Sciences, Anthropology, Psychology, Philosophy of Jurisprudence, &c. We will only mention his book "On Christian Education," his essay "On Unity of Education," and his Catechism arranged in accordance with the ideological order, with a valuable preface on general method of teaching. He had commenced a great work on Pedagogy, of which there were to be three volumes, when death interrupted his labors. The first part of this work, which is almost finished, is, "On the fundamental principle of Methodology, and on some of its applications to Human Education." The philosopher establishes here a principle, which he expresses in the following formula: "Those objects must be first presented to human mind, which belong to the first order of intellectual acts: then the objects of the second order, then those of the third, and so on successively, so that you shall never lead the child to an act of the second order, before he is master of those of the first, and so on in regard to the acts of the third, and other superior degrees." This principle is derived from the doctrines of Rosmini on Ideology and Logic, and is founded on the very nature of the human mind, which develops itself gradually, so that a law of gradation constitutes the principle of methodic and didactic art. This gradation depends on the gradation of mental acts and objects, viz.: of ideas, which are presented to the mind, and which are naturally classified according to a necessary and unfailing order.

Then applying this principle to the education of children, Rosmini undertook to classify and to analyze their intellectual acts, showing the method of training them in each order of these acts, as well as of their faculties and objects. In this view he distinguished many ages of childhood, of which he follows the gradual development and examines the
different laws, which ought to preside over their education. We will not attempt any analysis of this work, which, though unfinished, will be a great addition to pedagogical science, whenever it shall be published. We may add, however, that Rosmini, though he could not perfect his greatest work on Pedagogy, yet he gave a decided impulse to educational researches by his psychologic and anthropologic discoveries, in which the human faculties were more sagaciously than ever before described in their nature and origin, their offices declared, their acts defined, their natural order pointed out, the laws of their development fixed, their stimuli classified, and the conditions of their working established. Thus Rosmini revealed to educators the organization and the structure of the subject, the faculties of which they are called to develop in their natural order and harmony, and, by his ideologic theories, cast a new light on the nature of truth, beauty and virtue, which constitute the objects at which all education must aim.

But Rosmini rendered great service to the cause of education, not only as the philosopher of pedagogy, but yet more as one of the most effectual educators of the country. With this object he founded and supported by his own means an institution of clergymen and laymen, (The Charity Association,) who are bound to devote themselves to all kinds of charitable works, and, above all, to the education of youth. Thus he was able to open many elementary schools, asylums, evening and Sunday schools, not only in Piedmont, but in Switzerland and in England, which were managed by teachers under his direction and control,—all of which he was able to see flourishing at the time of his death. To provide his schools with good teachers, he founded in his institution normal colleges, with the object of giving a thorough instruction in method to those, who intended to devote themselves to elementary schools. The students of these colleges are divided into two classes, in one of which teachers of common schools are prepared, in the other professors of method are trained. The elementary schools, within a certain limit, depend on a central college, and their teachers are obliged to repair to it during their vacations, in order to confer with their companions on the management and improvements relating to their schools. To each normal college is annexed a boarding establishment for the pupils of the elementary school, in which the students of the college learn the practice of didactic art.

He showed a similar interest in the education of girls, which he believed of no less importance than that of boys. With the object of promoting it, he founded also an institution of young ladies, whom he called Sisters of Providence, whom he educated in the art of teaching and appointed to elementary schools for girls, and to the many infant asylums intrusted to his care in Piedmont, in Switzerland and England.

No man indeed in Italy has done so much for the progress of education, as well as of philosophical sciences, as Rosmini. His doctrines may be discussed and disputed, but his life commands the admiration of all, who feel an interest in the cause of human civilization. He felt that the life of
thought, which was so active within him, was not a perfect life; thence he
endeavored to unite in himself the highest contemplation to the most
extensive action, and this he directed to the education of clergymen,
whom he tried to bring to that spirituality of religion, which too often
is lost in the formalities of their profession, and to the education of
children, in whom he was able to read more simply and purely the
history of human nature.

To enable our readers to avail themselves of the philosophical researches
of Rosmini, we add a catalogue of his principal works, which contain
treasures of philosophical truth and analytical observations, and present
one of the best expositions of the principles of pedagogic and didactic
sciences.

LIST OF THE WORKS OF ANTONIO ROSMINI.

1. Introduction to Philosophy, 1 vol.
3. The Restoration of Philosophy in Italy, 1 vol.
4. Logic, 1 vol.
5. Theodicy, 1 vol.
   Systems, 1 vol.
11. Philosophy of Politics, 1 vol. Containing, 1st. A work on the principal
    causes of the preservation and ruin of Human Societies. 2d. A work on Society
    and its Objects.
12. Miscellanea, 6 vols.

INEDITED WORKS.

2. Pedagogy, 1 vol.
4. Philosophy of Literature, 1 vol.
5. Philosophy of Politics, 2 vols.
7. A Philosophical Commentary on the Gospel of St. John.
AN ACT ORGANIZING THE ADMINISTRATION OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION AND ITS AUTHORITIES, PASSED IN FEBRUARY, 1857.

CHAPTER I.—General Provisions.

1. Instruction is either public or private. The minister of public instruction directs the former, and promotes its progress; while he watches over the latter in its relations to morals, hygiene, political institutions, and public order.

2. Public instruction is divided into three branches; elementary, secondary, and superior.

3. The existing laws, determining the characteristics of public and private schools, shall be still enforced. (1.)

4. The public institutions and schools of learning and education, (with the exception of military, as well as nautical institutions and schools, which depend on the minister of war,) and all the authorities, to whom is intrusted the direction and inspection of the same, according to the enactments of the present bill, shall depend on the ministry of public instruction.

5. In public schools intrusted to religious corporations, legally admitted into the state, the appointments of directors, professors, and teachers, either male or female, shall be made by the authorities of the state, on the nomination of the same corporations. But the candidates must prove themselves competent to occupy the places for which they will be proposed; therefore they shall pass the examinations, and conform themselves to the other rules and duties prescribed by the by-laws.

6. It shall belong exclusively to the authorities of public instruction to enforce the discipline of public schools, to collate the academic degrees, to install collegiate doctors of the faculties, and directors, professors and teachers in the schools, which depend upon the minister of public instruction. (2.)

7. The special acts relative to superior, secondary and elementary instruction, shall determine the public regulations for private schools, and the rules according to which the government shall supervise them. The same law shall contain provisions, according to which, provincial and municipal corporations shall have an effective share in the direction of their own schools and institutions. Meanwhile, citizens, who shall have fulfilled all conditions enacted by law, in order to be eligible to the office of professors or teachers in the public institutions of secondary and elementary instruction, shall be allowed hencethrough to open and conduct private institutions of the branch and degree for which they have obtained their certificate.

8. Till said special acts shall be enacted, all private schools and institutions of learning and education, either for boys or girls, directed either by laymen or clergy-men, shall conform themselves to existing laws. The minister of public instruction shall continue to supervise them by means of his officers; and, should the directors of those institutions refuse to conform, or, in fact, should not conform themselves to said laws, the minister shall have the power of closing them by a special decree, after having obtained the consent of the Supreme Council, and heard the defendant director. In urgent cases, after having heard the Council, he shall have the power of suspending, by his own authority, the director from his office, and also of closing the school or institution, till a definite provision shall be made as above.

9. Those courses followed in seminaries, or in ecclesiastical or religious colleges, of whatever denomination, not exclusively for ecclesiastical education, shall be considered invalid for admission to courses, examinations, and academic degrees of public schools, unless they conform themselves to the by-laws enacted for public schools. In every case, these establishments shall always be submitted to the supervision of the government. (3.)

10. Religious instruction and education in public institutions and schools shall be founded on the Catholic religion. Special acts and by-laws shall determine the rules to be followed in the religious training of Catholic pupils. The religious training and instruction of dissenting pupils shall be left to their parents. (4.)

CHAPTER II.—Authorities, which preside over Public Instruction.

11. Under the presidency of the minister, a Supreme Council of public instruction is instituted; a legal counselor, a general inspector of secondary schools, a general inspector of elementary and normal schools, and two more inspectors of secondary schools, of whom one for scientific, the other for literary branches, are attached to the ministry. The minister shall provide the technical schools with a special inspection. In the principal provincial cities, there shall reside a provincial scholastic deputation, a royal scholastic superintendent, (Regio Proveditore agli studi,) and a provincial inspector of elementary schools. Every district of the province, (amendamenti,) or several districts together, shall have a district superintendent, (Proveditore mandatario.) (5.)

B. Supreme Council of Public Instruction.

12. The Supreme Council is composed of fifteen members, ten ordinary and five extraordinary. The former shall be appointed by the King, and two of these, at least, shall be elected from among persons not belonging to public instruction. The last shall also
be appointed by the King, and selected from five lists of three candidates, which shall be presented by each of the five faculties of the university of Turin. The ordinary members only shall receive a salary. (6.)

13. A fifth of the members shall be renewed every year, so that two of the ordinaries and one of the extraordinaries shall leave annually. In the first four years after the first election, it shall be decided by lot which members shall vacate the office; afterward, the three members who have been longest in the office shall annually leave their place. These may be appointed again.

14. The vice-president is annually elected by the King from among the members; for the validity of decisions a quorum of eight members is required.

15. Whenever a member or the Council shall order it, the counselor and the general inspectors shall join its meetings, but shall have no power of voting; the presidents of the faculties may also be called to the meetings, and they shall have the power of voting on questions relative to the courses and programmes of their own faculty.

16. Both the minister and the Council have power to call to the meetings whomever they may think convenient to hear in any particular discussion. These persons, however, shall have no power of voting.

17. The Council, on the request of the minister, shall compose and examine the bills, decrees and by-laws concerning instruction, and shall give its opinion on every other subject relative to teaching and scholastic administration.

18. It shall examine and propose to the minister for his approbation text-books, treatises, and programmes.

19. It shall examine the applications, and their merits for the vacant chairs of all the universities of the kingdom.

20. It shall give its opinion, a, on doubts as to the right interpretation and application of laws relative to public instruction; b, on contests between the different scholastic authorities; c, on by-laws relative to examinations, the establishment of new colleges and boarding scholastic establishments, and on whatever relates to general scholastic administration, and to distribution of the subjects among the different chairs and branches of instruction.

21. It shall give its opinion on neglects and offenses, of which Directors and Professors of secondary and normal schools, after three years of their service, may be accused, whenever such offenses may deserve a degradation or suspension for more than three months. The defendants have always right to be heard, either orally or in writing, as they may choose. (7.)

22. The Council has always power to propose to the minister those provisions which it may believe useful to the progress of instruction.

23. The Council shall judge those Professors of the universities, and Collegiate Doctors, who may be accused of neglect or offense, whenever this offense can be followed by degradation or suspension; the defendant shall always be heard, as above. A special act shall determine neglects and offenses, which shall be followed by those punishments, and also their effects.

24. In urgent cases, the minister shall have the power of suspending, by his own authority, Professors of the universities, till the definite judgment shall be given by the Council.

25. The Council shall judge, in causes of appeal, relative to expulsion or temporary exclusion from the courses, inflicted by subordinate authorities on students of the universities, and of secondary and normal schools.

26. Every year, the Council shall present to the minister a general report on the condition of all branches of instruction, which shall be published, with the observations and propositions of the Council.

27. The Counselor receives his appointment from the King.

28. He shall give his legal advice on applications made by students for exceptional admission to courses and examinations, for exemptions from examinations, and from the payment of their fees, and generally on all questions about interpretation and application of laws and rules.

29. Whenever especially charged by the minister, he shall report to the Council the neglects and offenses, for which Professors of the universities, or Collegiate Doctors, may be suspended or degraded. He shall join the meetings of the Council, whenever defendants may plead before it.

30. He shall be heard by the Council in the causes brought before it by students condemned to expulsion or temporary exclusion from schools.

31. He shall refer to the minister the offenses committed against the laws and discipline of the universities.

32. The General Inspectors receive their appointment from the King.
33. They shall watch over the proceedings of public instruction, each in connection with the branch intrusted to him, in the name and under the orders of the minister. They shall give to the Royal Superintendents such directions, as they may believe useful, according to law.

34. They shall propose to the minister the committees of examination, advancement and appointments of teachers, honors to be bestowed upon them, and punishments which they may deserve.

35. Whenever especially charged by the minister, they shall bring before the Council the accusations against directors and professors of secondary and normal schools, when they are of such a nature as to render defendants liable to degradation or suspension for more than two months.

36. Each of them, personally or by means of their subordinate inspectors, shall provide for the department in charge of each of them, and to the inspection of all schools and institutions, either public or private.

37. The General Inspectors, availing themselves of the annual reports of their subordinate officers shall annually report on the conditions of the branch of instruction placed under their care. They also shall collect materials for annual statistical tables of instruction, which shall be published within the first six months following the year to which they refer.

E. Provincial Scholastic Deputations.

38. The Provincial Scholastic Deputation consists of the Royal Civil Superintendent of the Province, who presides over it; of the Royal Scholastic Superintendent, who is Vice-President; of three Deputies from the Council of the Provincial Civil Administration, elected by the Council itself, either from among its members or from persons of scientific and literary culture; a Deputy from the Municipal Council of the city; the Provincial Inspector of Elementary Schools; the Director of Secondary Instruction in the Provincial College; the Professor of Religion; and a Professor of the Normal School, (8,) or a teacher of Elementary Schools, who shall be annually appointed by the minister. The members of the Deputation shall not receive any salary.

39. The Scholastic Deputation shall meet every month, on the day determined by its President or Vice-President; and whenever those officers shall require.

40. It shall enforce the laws and rules relative to the secondary, elementary and normal schools of the Province.

41. It shall order extraordinary inspections on the institutions of the Province, for which it shall delegate one or more of its members, whenever occasion shall require. It shall decide on necessary provisions which are not beyond its power, and it shall refer to the minister, whenever questions arise beyond its jurisdiction. In urgent cases, it shall have the power of taking necessary measures, even of ordering the closing of institutions; but it shall refer immediately to the minister.

42. It shall approve the appointments of elementary teachers made by Municipal Councils of the Province. It shall suggest to the same Councils increase of salaries, the opening of new schools, the purchase of apparatus, and whatever can improve the condition of schools and of their teachers. It shall also suggest to the Provincial Civil Superintendent the expenses which should be imposed upon the Municipal Corporations, whenever it shall deem it necessary.

43. It shall decide disputes between municipal authorities and teachers, relative to the fulfillment of scholastic duties.

44. It shall decide on admission to the courses and examinations of secondary, elementary and normal schools, should any doubt arise on the interpretation of by-laws.

45. Parties alluded to in the preceding two paragraphs shall always have an appeal to the minister.

46. The Deputation shall institute the necessary proceedings upon offenses of which elementary teachers may be accused; and, after having heard the defendants, it shall refer to the minister, suggesting suitable action.

47. It shall decide on the application of teachers and professors for furlough; it shall propose to the minister such advancements, pecuniary allowances, and honors which they may deserve.

48. It shall refer to the minister accusations against Provincial Inspectors, and professors of secondary and normal schools, whenever they may be liable to suspension or degradation.

49. It shall examine materials for statistics of private and public instruction in the Province, and shall annually send them, with its comments, to the minister.

F. Royal Scholastic Superintendents of Provinces.

50. These are appointed by the King.

51. They shall have supervision of the official conduct of those who preside over the instruction or direction of scholastic establishments in their provinces. They shall execute the orders and decisions of the Provincial Deputation. They shall correspond
directly with the minister, shall watch over all the public and private schools, enforce the laws and rules, and suggest, both to the Deputation and to the minister, the necessary provisions.

52. At least once a year, they shall visit all the secondary schools of their province, and shall provide, personally or by some members of the Deputation, that all other institutions be visited.

53. It shall be their duty to enforce on the Provincial Inspectors of elementary schools their obligations relative to their inspections, and shall give to them and to the local superintendents the necessary orders.

54. They shall grant to public teachers, regularly appointed, their certificate of license.

55. They shall watch over the correct disposition of legacies bequeathed to scholastic institutions of the Province; and, in case of any transgression, they shall refer to the minister.

G. Local Scholastic Superintendents.

56. These are appointed by the minister, on the nomination of the Royal Scholastic Superintendent of the Province. They receive no salary.

57. They shall watch over the exact enforcement of laws and rules in the schools of their district. They shall visit them at least once a year, and whenever it is ordered by the Royal Superintendent, to whom they shall report. They shall correspond with the Royal Superintendent of the Province, and execute all his orders and directions. They shall aid the Provincial Inspector in forming statistical tables of the schools and institutions of the district.

H. Provincial Inspectors of Elementary Schools.

58. In every Province there shall be an Inspector of Elementary Schools. He shall be appointed by the minister, who may appoint only one for two provinces, whenever it shall be required by their Provincial Councils.

59. No one can be appointed Inspector, who has not taught at least five years.

60. Provincial Inspectors shall inspect all the public and private institutions of elementary instruction. Their annual visitation shall last not less than seven months in the year.

61. They shall, besides, attend to all extraordinary inspections ordered either by the minister, by the Royal Superintendent, or by the Provincial Deputation.

62. They shall make an annual report of their inspections, which, through the Royal Superintendent, shall be presented to the Provincial Deputation for its observations, with which it shall be sent to the minister. They shall also present a report of all extraordinary inspections to the authority by whose order they were made.

63. They shall prepare every year tables on the conditions of all the elementary schools of the Province, whether for boys or girls, and of all the Infant Asylums, which shall be presented to the Provincial Deputation.

64. The Inspectors may be allowed to fill other offices relative to education. But every other employ or profession is strictly forbidden to them.

CHAPTER III.—Special Provisions.

65. The salaries of the ordinary members of the Supreme Council, of the Counselor, of the two General Inspectors, of the two Inspectors of Secondary Schools, and of the Royal Scholastic Superintendents, are paid by the State. The salaries are as following:

Vice-President of the Supreme Council ........................................ 2500 francs.
Each of the ordinary members of the Council ................................ 2000 ✴
Counselor .................................................................................. 1800 ✴
General Inspector of Secondary Schools ....................................... 4000 ✴
General Inspector of Elementary and Teachers’ Schools .................. 4000 ✴
Each of the two Inspectors of Secondary Schools ............................ 2000 ✴
Each of the Royal Scholastic Superintendents ................................. 600 ✴
Rector of the University of Turin ............................................... 4000 ✴
Vice-Rector ............................................................................... 3000 ✴
Rector of the University of Genoa ............................................. 600 ✴
Vice-Rector ............................................................................... 600 ✴
Each of the Rectors of the two Universities of the Island of Sardinia 2000 ✴
Each of the two Vice-Rectors ................................................... 300 ✴

66. The salary, including the travelling expenses, of the Provincial Inspector shall be paid by each Province. It shall be 2400 francs.

CHAPTER IV.—Transitory Dispositions.

By which it provides a temporary administration, till the new organization shall be installed; in which interval the greatest part of the old administration shall continue to preside over the public instruction of the country.

(1.) According to the existing laws of Sardinia, public schools are those, which are established or supported by the state, by the provinces, townships, religious institutions or associations, or by private legacies intrusted to public administrators. Those, which are established or supported by private individuals, under a license granted by the Government, are called private schools. For the laws respecting private schools, see ante pages 14 and 15. Though the Infant Asylums might be in some respects classified under the head of private schools, yet they are more properly considered as public institutions, on account of the official intervention, both of the government and of the municipalities, in their management and control. These institutions are founded, generally speaking, by private subscriptions and controlled by a central board of eight or nine members, among whom we find always the mayor, the judge, and the pastor of the town or township. The immediate direction of the Asylums is however intrusted to a permanent committee of ladies, some of whom visit the school every day, aiding the teachers in their duties, directing the institution according to its object, and promoting, by an assiduous care, its general progress and welfare. Thus the Asylums have essentially a domestic character, founded on maternal feeling, which directs the movement of the central board. This maternal character attached to the Infant Asylums has proved the most effectual characteristic of the direction, to which these institutions are intrusted.

(2.) This clause establishes the exclusive authority of the State in the direction of public instruction, denying any right or authority of the church in the control or management of the scholastic institutions of the country. Before 1848, the church had the control of all the public instruction, and even the academic degrees were bestowed by its authority, the archbishops being always the chancellors of the universities of the State. Since that time, that authority has been entirely restored to the state, and confirmed by this clause of the new bill.

(3.) For the understanding of the provisions enacted in clauses 7, 8, and 9 of the chapter respecting private instruction, we submit an account of the question on "Freedom of Instruction," which was brought before the Parliament at the opening of the general discussion of this bill. American readers, who live in a country where the widest and most unbounded freedom in opening all kind of schools is an undisputed right of the people, and where no governmental education is established by the State, may find it no easy matter to form an idea of the system enforced for centuries in a country, where the government is not only the teacher, but the only lawful teacher of the people. The laws enacted in Sardinia on this subject before the Constitution of 1848 were of the most stringent character, forbidding any individual, association or municipality to open a school of any kind whatever, except by special license from the government, which, if it granted such license, prescribed with it the rules on which private establishments should be directed, and managed, and reserved to itself an absolute right of inspecting and examining licensed institutions, and closing them at pleasure. It is evident that, in this condition, private education could not prosper, and the entire people was obliged to depend on the State for its educational and scientific training.

The constitution granted by Charles Albert, while it insured to the country free institutions, freedom of the press and of association, did not recall formally the previous legislation relating to this subject; on the contrary, the former
provisions were confirmed by a law of 1848, enacted soon after the granting of the constitution. But the question soon arose, whether this state of things was in accordance with free government; whether citizens had not acquired from the very nature of the constitution itself full power of establishing schools as they might desire, and parents an absolute right of educating their children as they might choose, independently of any interference of the government, without losing the privileges or rather the rights attached to official instruction. There was no question, whether a free instruction, supported on their own responsibility by individuals or associations, should take the place of the existing system, neither of abolishing any of the official schools, or preventing the government from establishing new ones, under their own direction and control. It was only the question of planting side by side the two systems, so as to recognize the right of every citizen to teach, independently of the government, and to erect schools and educational establishments on their own responsibility; to extend the privileges bestowed on the students of the official establishments to the pupils of private schools. Thus presented, the question had in itself its solution. Free instruction, as well as a free press and free association, is a logical consequence of a free government, and indeed the principle itself was not met by any opposition in Sardinia.

Yet particular conditions of the country suggested a prudent course in this matter, and did not allow an immediate acknowledgment of so universal and absolute a right of teaching. It is known, that Sardinia, until 1848, was under the sway of an absolute monarchical government, controlled and directed by the Catholic clergy, which was its main supporter and adviser. Education especially, though supported by the state, was entirely managed by the Catholic party, which availed themselves of all means in their hands in order to strengthen their own position, and extend their dominion over the whole of public and private life. But, as soon as a new era of freedom appeared in Sardinia, it was natural that its government should cut short the former encroachments of the clergy, abolish their privileges and usurpations, and free itself forever from their influence. Hence the opposition of the ecclesiastical body to the political institutions of the state; hence the danger of allowing this party to open schools, and to constitute themselves the teachers of the country. In America, where no state religion is to be found, where no religious denomination can exert any great influence on political subjects, where freedom has no enemies, where absolute separation of church and state is a fundamental principle of the constitution of the states, no danger can arise from this boundless freedom of teaching. It is not so with the old countries, and it is not so with Sardinia. There, the Catholic church is the church of the state; there, the clergy is a powerful association, not counterbalanced by any other, with branches scattered all over the country, with representatives in every township and village, all acting in one spirit, directed by one mind, and exerting a strong influence on the great mass of people. The church, moreover, possesses large means of action,—about fifteen millions of francs a year,—of which a great part could be used in supporting schools all over the country, in accordance with its objects. Now, whether it is a necessary consequence of the religious principles of that sect, or a mistake of its clergy, we will not decide, but it is a fact that the clergy in Sardinia have ever shown a deep and open hatred of civil reforms and of all aspirations of nationality, to the cause of which so many noble hearts in the country are devoted. Add to this, that the clergy openly acknowledge their
unfailing duty to abide by the Pope, an open enemy himself of free institutions in Italy, and a friend of the oppressors of his nation. The danger is evident, that the State would encounter, should it recognize in this party an unmodified right of teaching, and of opening educational establishments; the exercise of this right would not fail to act powerfully against the free institutions, and the dearest aspirations of the country. This, we believe, is the only danger which would arise from a system of boundless freedom of instruction, and the strongest reason for delaying a reform, which otherwise all parties would unite to enact.

The Parliament, in closing the general discussion of the bill, passed a resolution, by which the Minister, in presenting to the House bills organizing the three branches of education, will be obliged to endorse in some way the principle of freedom. We believe, however, that should this principle be enforced in future provisions, it will be surrounded with so many restrictions as to destroy it in its substance. The fact is, that while the government does not enact the principle of an absolute separation of the state from the church, while it does not carry it through all its legislation and administration, no freedom of instruction is possible, for the only reason that it will be monopolized by the clergy.

But, let the government disclaim any connection with the church, let it consider this as a private association subject to the laws of the state, let it open the gates of the kingdom to all religious denominations, and put these on an equality with the Catholic clergy, let it discontinue all acts which should include an acknowledgment of any civil power in the church, let it render stronger, more extensive and more liberal the official system, then, and not till then, "free instruction" will mean a practicable and useful reform. Before that time, we firmly believe, that any provision on this subject will either be so restricted as not to deserve the name of reform, or so wide as to be monopolized by a party, which openly professes to depend on a foreign sovereign, which claims for itself the exclusive possession of truth, so as to deny to any other denominations the right of teaching and public worship, which considers the State as a subject of the Church, and without any power of reforming those parts of legislation, which the Church defines to be beyond the power of the State itself.

Ardently devoted to freedom, we wish to our beloved country an entire system of civil reforms, which, if united, will be of mutual aid and support; but separated, will be of short duration, and of little advantage, if not of danger, to the country. We wish an entire freedom of the church, as well as of other religious and civil associations; we wish the great bodies, together with their doctrines, which may enter into the educational contest, placed on an equal footing, and, above all, we wish to establish the absolute supremacy of the civil power over all the associations existing in the state; and when these rights shall have been conquered, when the State shall have acquired such an independence as to not be prevented from carrying its reforms by the opposition of a foreign party, cheerfully we will join those of our friends, who are engaged in promoting in Sardinia freedom of instruction, and tender to them, if not the feeble support of our words, at least the best wishes of our heart.

(4.) Religious instruction is the necessary complement of a thorough system of education. As to this necessity no doubt has been manifested by any party of the Parliament, in all the discussion to which this clause has given occasion. The liberal party, however, opposed strongly this provision, not because they denied in any way the necessity of such an instruction, but because they considered it to be contrary both to the rights and duties of the state. Can a state,
like Sardinia, which acknowledges the catholic religion as its own, preside over
the religious training of its people? Does not the catholic church claim for her-
selv, as a fundamental tenet of her doctrine, the desire and exclusive right of
teaching religion? Moreover, can a state, like Sardinia, in which all citizens, of
whatever denomination, enjoy equal rights, provide a portion of its population
with a free religious instruction, leaving the other portion without any, or to
provide it from its own resources? The fundamental principle of political
economy which prevails in the United States, and which has proved so benefi-
cial to this country, the absolute separation of the state from the church, alone
affords a satisfactory solution of this problem. There is no country, in which
religious instruction is more extensive and more efficient, than in the United
States, though such instruction is not given in the schools supported by the
community at large. The absolute freedom of conscience and teaching, which
this country enjoys, has proved not only a source of social progress and of pub-
lic welfare, but also the only true means of assuring to the people a sound and
efficient religious training. The institution of Sunday Schools, supported so lib-
erally both by the different protestant denominations and the catholics, has far
more promoted the religious education of this country, than it could be by any
interference of the state. Indeed, after the trial given to this system in this
country, the freedom of worship and proselytism secured to all denominations,
should meet the favor not only of those in Sardinia who contend for the triumph
of human rights, but also of all, who feel an interest in the cause of religion.
Let the different forms of religious feeling have their full development in the
country, let all sects meet together in a noble rivalry for the propagation of their
doctrines; religious instruction will thus flow from its natural source, and soon
produce that public sentiment, which is so admirable in the United States.
By the sanction of this system only will the state be able to free itself from the
embarrassments and difficulties, to which it is too often exposed by its unnatural
union with the ecclesiastical body. Sardinia will also thus take the lead of moral and civil reform in Italy, on which, we sincerely believe, the great cause
of Italian nationality depends.

(5.) For the understanding of this organization of the scholastic authorities
of Sardinia, we submit a few remarks on the political administration of the
country. The kingdom of Sardinia, which extends over more than seventy-five
thousand square kilometres, embraces under its civil and political government,
that group of different provinces and territories, which were either confirmed or
assigned to it by the treaty of Vienna in 1815. The kingdom is divided into
fourteen departments, (Divisioni,) each of which is subdivided into different
provinces, which again are divided into many districts, which are called manda-
menti, each of these containing a determined number of townships, (comuni.)
The provinces are fifty in number, eleven of which belong to the Island of Sar-
dinia. A royal civil superintendent, (Intendente,) presides over the administra-
tion of each province, as the representative of the central government, while
the interests of its population are represented by a provincial council elected by
the people at large. The affairs of the cities and townships are administered by
a municipal council elected by the people, and presided over by a syndic.
Since 1848 the form of government is of a constitutional monarchy, in many
respects similar to the government of England. The legislative power is
exerted by a Senate and a House of Deputies, the former consisting of members
elected for life by the King, and chosen from determined classes of high
functionaries in the church, in the army, in the scientific establishments, in diplomacy, in the judiciary, or in the civil administration. The House of Deputies is composed of two hundred and four members, elected by the people, divided into as many electoral districts. But to enjoy the right of electing the members of the House, it is necessary to have reached the age of twenty-five years, to know how to read and write, and to be a tax-payer in a sum varying in different provinces from twenty to forty francs. Professions, however, which suppose some degree of intellectual culture, are exempted from this last condition, they being admitted to the right of suffrage without the necessity of paying any tax whatever. Every citizen, of the age of thirty years, can be elected member of the House, with the exception of a few classes of functionaries. Bills approved by both the Houses require the sanction of the King, which can be granted or refused. The executive power is intrusted to seven ministers appointed by the King in the different departments of the administration. Equality of rights before the law in all citizens, personal freedom, freedom of the press and of association, inviolability of the residence and of property, independence of the judiciary power from the executive, are among the important benefits secured to the people by the constitution.

Whoever has followed the course of European events for the last nine years, can judge if the new political organization of Sardinia has proved a successful trial of free institutions. Among difficulties and dangers of every kind, between the menaces of its real enemies and the more dangerous influence of its pretended friends, under the sway of an honest King, the only King in Italy who knew how to keep his word to his people, and with a population of a sound and practical sense, that little country, from a comparatively insignificant condition, rose in a short time to a state of no small political importance, and of a great moral power among the other parts of the Peninsula. Sardinia, avoiding both anarchy and despotism, has showed to the despotic governments of Europe, that political freedom of a country is yet the best condition of its social order and of its general welfare. Setting a noble example of a free and strong government, it became the moral centre of all the states of Italy, which, in their general wreck, regard that portion of the country as the beacon of their safety. Freeing itself from the influence of Austria, at the head of the national party, and struggling for the national independence of all Italy, Sardinia is recognized by the great bulk of the Italian people as the true representative and the faithful exponent of that noble cause. The new and elevated position which that country has acquired among the nations of Europe, the important reforms which found their way in Sardinia through the new constitution, free trade and its extraordinary results, the wonderful development of its financial and commercial resources, the extension of its railways and telegraphs, and, above all, the progressive increase of its popular education, are among the benefits which Sardinia has derived from its free institutions. We refer to the following statistics, which speak conclusively in favor of the new political organization of Sardinia, considered in connection with public education, showing its progress through the last four years, compared with the year 1850:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1850</th>
<th>1853</th>
<th>1854</th>
<th>1855</th>
<th>1856</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Schools for boys,</td>
<td>4,326</td>
<td>5,138</td>
<td>5,197</td>
<td>5,436</td>
<td>5,827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools for girls,</td>
<td>1,276</td>
<td>2,938</td>
<td>2,459</td>
<td>2,674</td>
<td>2,837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average of boys attending school,</td>
<td>175,309</td>
<td>177,222</td>
<td>175,714</td>
<td>180,145</td>
<td>187,130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average of girls, etc.,</td>
<td>42,278</td>
<td>56,365</td>
<td>51,051</td>
<td>100,564</td>
<td>106,365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Townships without any schools for boys,</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>397</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; &quot; &quot; &quot; girls,</td>
<td>2,372</td>
<td>1,591</td>
<td>1,415</td>
<td>1,292</td>
<td>1,154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount in francs expended for the elementary instruction,</td>
<td>1,663,604</td>
<td>2,856,717</td>
<td>3,012,145</td>
<td>3,339,573</td>
<td>3,557,212</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Though page that who They ries and secondary nity, Directors the right to the Board, as from Council, all more ample than evident, if, to this Board, not popular education but the direction of all the branches of scientific teaching should be intrusted. We believe, however, that the system adopted by the Sardinian Parliament could be improved by extending the privilege of election granted to the faculties of Turin to all the teachers of the State. No better source could be assigned to the Supreme Council, than to place its constitution in the hands of the teachers at large, so as to divide them into three different electoral colleges, according to the three different departments of instruction. Should "free teaching" become a right of the country, the teachers belonging to this class of instruction should also have right to elect their own representatives in the Supreme Council. In this system the action of the Government should confine itself to choose the members of the Board from the lists so proposed by the electors. It would seem that this system better than any other else would secure to the Council the elements of stability and progress, together with the ability and the independence of the members from the executive and political influence, without which an efficient direction of public education can not be conceived.

(7.) By this clause the legislation of 1848 is changed, according to which Directors and Professors of secondary and normal schools, after three years of public service could not be removed from their chairs, without a previous formal judgment of the Supreme Council. It appears that henceforth these functionaries will be at the mercy of the executive, the minister not being bound to follow the opinion of the Council in respect to their offenses and neglects. It is just, however, to add that the dangers which could result from this arbitrary power granted to the minister of public instruction would be checked by the weight of public opinion, which in fact has the supreme sway in a free country. Yet, we confess that the present provision will not prove the most apt to bestow dignity, or improve, in any way, the condition either of these teachers or of the secondary and normal schools.

(8.) The normal schools are also called Teachers' Schools, (Scuole Magistrali,) and they correspond, in some respects, to the Teachers' Institutes of America. They were established with the special object of improving the teachers of elementary schools, who had previously obtained the certificate of qualification. Afterward, it was ordered that no candidate should receive this certificate, who had not frequented the normal schools, and passed a successful examination on the matters of their course. For the organization of these schools see ante page 13. Though the Teachers' Schools of Sardinia have not as yet reached that degree of perfection which might be desired, yet, even in their imperfect state, they must be considered of great value for the progress of the popular education of the country. Public opinion is greatly in favor of promoting the extension of these schools, and of rendering them more and more efficient by raising them to the highest possible standard.