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An Independent Meekly Rebiew of Politics, Literature, Science, and Art.

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If I might give a short hint to an impartial writer it would be to tell him his fate. If he resolves to venture upon the dangerous precipice of telling unbiassed truth, let him proclaim war with mankind-neither to give nor to take quarter. If he tells the crimes of great men, they fall upon him with the iron hands of the law; if he tells them of virtues, when they have any, then the mob atlacks him with slander. But if he regards truth, let him expect martyrdom on both sides, and then he may go on fearless.-DE FOE.

POLITICAL AND SOCIAL.

NOTES AND COMMENTS.

On Monday the Judicature Act comes into force, if indeed there is any force in a measure which tome lawyers of the old school pronounce a weak these-sion to popular demands. We hope that no one will regard this Act as the dernier mot of legislation on legal reform. It leaves intact the County Courts, and scarcely any of the reforms which the Judicature Commissioners proposed with respect to an increase of their jurisdiction have yet been carried out. It should also be borne in mind that the question of the form of the Final Court of Appeal is still in abeyance and must be disposed of hereafter. We need not remind lawyers that some portions of criminal procedure stand sadly in need of amendment, notably those summary powers possessed by magistrates. And when all questions of procedure are disposed of, there will be ample work. for jurists in preparing a code, the desirability of which appears to have been forgotten. There has always been a danger in regarding such useful measures as the Common Law Procedure Act as entirely final; and legal reformers ought to be on the look-out for a period of lethargy sure to succeed the activity of the past. There is no one in the House at present' of much weight who devotes his attention to legal reform. Sir William Vernon Harcourt has other subjects to think of, and Mr. Charley, with all his efforts to be useful, is but an indifferent representative of the spirit of law reform. It is perhaps impossible to induce the world at large to interest themselves in a question in many re-spects repulsive to the lay mind. But can we ever expect law reform to proceed rapidly so long as we merely ask the lawyers to reform themselves? If this expectation is well founded the legal mind must be much superior, morally, to ordinary human nature.

The absence of the German Emperor from the inauguration of the Stein monument at Berlin this

which more pliant ministers carried out. But he was in essentials a "people's man," and it is as well that his memory should be kept free from a hypocritical association with a school of politicians who are the lineal heirs of those who despised and persecuted the liberator of the Prussian peasant.

What may prove to be a very important crisis in Australian politics has occurred at Melbourne. In July last, Mr. Kerford's Ministry brought forward a Budget which included some slight advances in the direction of free trade. It was opposed both by the thoroughgoing free traders and the Protectionists, and though its vital proposals were carried, ministers had only a majority of one vote. They appealed to the Acting Governor, the Chief Justice of the Colony, for a dissolution; but he refused on the ground that there was no apparent likelihood of the Prime Minister's obtaining a majority by "going to the country." Mr. Kerford's Ministry resigned at once, and the Protectionist leader, Mr. Berry, was "called in" by the Acting Governor. Mr. Berry produced a Budget retaining all the protective duties that his predecessors have offered to abandon and imposing upon large landed estates an enormous special tax. For this extreme measure the Legislative Assembly was not prepared, and Mr. Berry's Budget was thrown out by five votes. Sir James McCulloch, who has apparently coalesced with Mr. Kerford, has formed a new Ministry, from which a free trade policy is expected. A dissolution, however, on the direct issue of "Free Trade v. Protection " is desirable before any change in existing arrangements is finally carried into effect.

The events of the week in France have been the Cabinet Council, where M. Buffet, it is believed, patched up a sort of truce with his dissatisfied colleagues, M. Léon Say and M. Dufaure, and M. Gambetta's manifesto. M. Buffet attempted, according to Parisian rumour, to bring his colleagues to book for the now famous article in the Débats, but he failed to extort from them either an approval or disavowal of the article. On the other hand, he could not decline the questions that had been raised by his own indiscretions, and especially the complicity in Bonapartist intrigues with which M. Rouher had ingeniously affiché the Vice-President of the Council. The Marshal President was very strong, it is alleged, in condemning the licence that had been given to the audacious operations of the Bonapartists, and M. Buffet finally gave in. He consented, according to the popular story, to disavow M. Rouher and all his works from the tribune as soon as the Assembly meets again. The Republicans have naturally taken heart again from M. Buffet's discomfiture, and M. Gambetta's manifesto has a genuine ring of triumph. It is a masterly and

caused some disappointment. But though it was due to an accidental indisposition which also prevented the Kaiser from opening in person the Session of the Reichstag, it was not devoid of congruity with the career and work of Stein. There can be no doubt that Stein's labours were essentially democratic in their effect, though the Prussian Minister, whose imagination was deeply impressed by the events of the French Revolution, would no doubt have shrunk with horror from the imputation. What Stein did for Germany he did in spite of royal obstructiveness, princely absolutism, and ministerial envy. He was a Prussian king's minister, and through his tenure of office he obtained the opportunity of initiating a great reforming work sober political statement, and confirms the opinion that

the fou furieux is the most truly sane statesman that France has produced since the death of Armand Carrel.

Two great people have been writing letters to the Times about Egypt this week. One is Sir Samuel Baker, the conqueror of Equatorial Africa, and the other Mr. John Fowler, the Khédive's consulting engineer, contractor for the Soudan Railway, &c. Both men have been in the service of the Khédive, and both love him much. Sir Samuel in particular glows, and is consumed with reverent regard for this great potentate, great builder, great merchant, and great financier. Both also speak much regarding Egyptian progress, but in their zeal they hurry over some few facts that do not quite agree with their rose-coloured story. The picture has been painted without any shade in fact, and we have pleasure in supplying one or two of the omissions. Sir Samuel omits to point out, for example, that the Khédive has improved Egypt for himself not for his people, and that it by no means follows that Egypt is as wealthy as her master. The people have not yet got possession of the soil, they still pay very heavy taxes, and live in wretched poverty. Mr. Fowler is equally oblivious. He forgot, in saying that all or almost all Egyptian improvements were paid for, to mention the fact that they were paid for with raised money for which very heavy interest has to be found at the cost of much money to the potentate and loss to his subjects. That was not within his knowledge perhaps, for doubtless his work is paid for promptly enough. Neither did he mention that the native labour by which the new railways are being constructed is forced labour. That would have looked unpleasant in a fair-day view of rich prosperous Egypt, but it is true for all that, and there is much more behind, so that these painters do not quite satisfy us. But perhaps they mean to give the shadows separately.

We learn that the Bavarian Government, contrary to an opinion at first held, do not intend to dissolve the Chamber at once, but to convoke it for January next, when a provisional quarter's Budget will be laid before it. Should the House refuse to pass that Budget, there will be a dissolution. Meanwhile a proposal is under consideration to get rid of the main difficulty by conferring a greater number of representatives upon some of the towns; the towns having in a large majority cast a Liberal and national German vote. Constitutional usage in Bavaria allows of such remodelling of the constituencies, previous to an election. It is urged that, in consequence of the increase of the urban population, as shown by the last census, several of the more important towns have a right to a new apportionment of representatives. In fact, that which is known in England as the theory of Equal Electoral Districts, is very much the practice on German soil; so that the number of deputies may be increased, in a particular constituency, with the growth of its population.

The fall of the Ristich Cabinet in Servia has led to some strange revelations. The Czechian leaders in Bohemia being dissatisfied with what they call the want of energetic initiative of Russia in the Servian Question, we now learn that M. Ristich, before assuming the Premiership at Belgrad, had expressed himself strongly in favour of a policy of action in presence of Messrs. Rieger, Skrejschowski, and other champions of the Slav cause at Prague. The Politik and the Pokrok, the organs of the Old Czech and the Young Czech party, speak out now very bitterly against those who deceived their hopes. It is mentioned on this occasion that four years ago M. Nowikoff, the Russian envoy at Vienna, dictated to the Czechian party the course they ought to pursue in the negotiations for a constitutional compromise which were then being carried on with the Hohenwart Ministry in Austria. This revelation of the double part played by an ambassador of the Czar is much commented upon,

as it shows that Russian envoys are in the habit of actively interfering in the party affairs of a country to which they are accredited.

The central ideas of a party can usually be learnt better from its rank and file than from its leaders. From a speech made by Sir C. Du Cane at a farmers' dinner in Essex the other day, it would appear that Mr. Disraeli's education of his party in moderate Liberalism is rapidly approaching completeness. Sir C. Du Cane went out some years ago to Australia as a Conservative, but he had followed party fortunes at home with much interest, giving three cheers all by himself whenever he heard of a party victory, and "he had returned to England more Conservative than ever," but, he added, remembering how policy had been changing, "he trusted at the present time not less progressive." The Conservative party "would tread firmly in Constitutional paths, and at the same time act in harmony with the thought and intelligence of the age." "A moderate Liberal might perhaps say that this was his policy also, and he would observe to such a politician that he hoped to see him at the next dinner of the Hinckford Club." It must be really galling to the moderate Whigs to have the authors of Household Suffrage denouncing them as "constantly straining after sensational effect," and "restlessly desiring organic change," while they have coolly appro-priated their principles to keep themselves in office. To invite the moderate Liberals to a friendly dinner under the circumstances shows a fine sense of humour, and we are not surprised that the Hinckford farmers received Sir C. Du Cane's sally with laughter.

Were the Apostle to ask in these days the doubting question, "When the Son of Man cometh, shall he find faith in the earth?" he would not require to pause long for an answer. Yes, there is faith still. If it has died out everywhere else, it yet lives in the glowing bosom of Mr. Bennoch, of the Council of Foreign Bondholders. He believes many things that are doubted by all the world beside, and if his faith does not save him it will not be because it is weak. Mr. Bennoch believes in Turkey, in her promises, her resources, her budgets, and her intentions. His speech is noble regarding her, and he winds up its long catalogue of figures "from Turkish sources" with this glowing tribute to that honourable Empire :-- "There is no need why the present turmoil about Turkey should not calm down, and she once more assume her position as one of the most honourable king-doms on the face of the globe." We cannot define, to please a theologian, what faith without works may mean, but Mr. Bennoch's faith is sublime enough not only to overlook good works, but all morals. According to his sublimated creed the Turk may be a liar, yet most honourable; he may borrow money on false pretences for years, and yet be most honourable; he may publish lying budgets, before whose figures the truthful mind of Mr. Bennoch bows in reverent belief, and yet be most honourable. It is a queer creed, and a queer state of mind, but it has its pathetic side, and faith has not yet at all events vanished from the earth.

Great things for Turkish bondholders are hoped from Sadyk Pasha, the new Turkish ambassador at Paris. He is to be the restorer of his country, and everybody is quite hopeful about it. A small crumb pleases those who have no bread assuredly. Sadyk Pasha, as the *République Française* puts it, is "the Turkish statesman who understands financial questions the least badly" perhaps, but there is nothing in his career to lead people to suppose that he will do Turkish creditors any good. He is noted for one great deed only—he is said to have screwed better terms out of the Jews last year when the latest Turkish loan was floated, and is supposed therefore to be good at inventing financial schemes, such as that by which before the loan came out the Imperial Ottoman Bank was made to appear Receiver-General, Finance Minister, and tax-farmer to the Porte. The

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success of that recent expedient is ominous for the fools who have money left to be persuaded out of, but it is not any comfort to those who have already lost theirs.

At the annual dinner of the Coleshill Farmers' Club last week, Mr. Newdegate passed the best commentary on the Agricultural Holdings Act which has yet been made. He had promised his constituency, he said, to do all in his power to "obtain a reversal of the principle of the law which ignored the right of tenants to compensation for their improvements;" and the Act "in principle corresponded exactly with his pledge." But, after criticising some of the details of the Act, Mr. Newdegate went on to say that, for his own part, he had decided to declare himself exempt from its operation. Evidently it is the permissive character of the Act which Mr. Newdegate most admires. His chief objection to it was that it prevented yearly tenants from being evicted without a year's notice, which many people regard as its only good feature. A year's notice from a fixed period might amount, Mr. Newdegate argued, to two years all but a day; and during that time the landlord had no security against dilapidation, or waste, or bad cultivation. Suppose, for example, that on the very morning after Lady Day the tenant should suddenly develop a monomania for the ruin of his farm, and should forthwith begin to undermine his barns, cut gaps in his hedges, fill up his drains, plant all his fields with potatoes, then sow them with thistles, and finally rise early on the day of his departure, and put the land in his pocket. Such a supposition would justify Mr. Newdegate's fears, and nothing short of it.

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It cannot be denied that Russia has been the first maritime power to build circular ironclads; but the question who invented them has been much discussed this week, and, as usual, it would seem that more than one person can claim the conception. Mr. E. J. Reed began the controversy on Monday by giving incidentally, in the course of some interesting notes on a recent visit to the Russian squadron in the Black Sea, Admiral Popoff's version of how he thought of building circular ironelads. Mr. Reed had been working as Chief Constructor in our navy to reduce the length of ironclads. He considered long ironclads blunders in almost every sense, involving comparatively thin armour, light guns, great size, great cost, great unwieldiness, and great exposure to every form of above-water and under-water attack, and the moment he entered upon office he had at once brought down the length of a first-class ironclad from 400 feet to 300 feet. Mr. Reed would have gone further in the way of reducing length, but he could not convince the Admiralty of the soundness of his views. Admiral Popoff, however, had been watching his experiments with approval, and carried them to their full development in the circular ironclad. His account of the origin of circular ironclads in the Russian service was confirmed on Friday in a letter from the Russian Naval Architect. Two other Englishmen, however, had conceived something like the same idea, and they naturally suspect the Russian Government of having borrowed their plans. The late Mr. John Elder, of Glasgow, had made drawings of such a vessel as far back as 1862, and a friend of his who wrote to the Times on Wednesday believes that, besides showing them to our own Admiralty, he took them to St. Petersburg and to Berlin, "with introductions to the highest personages." Mr. Elder's ironelad was even more terrible as an engine of destruction than the Russian one; its outer rim was to be serrated, and it was to be sent "spinning through a fleet like a monster circular saw." Mr. S. W. Baker, also, suggested a circular ironelad in 1866, which was brought under the notice of the Admiralty, but failed to obtain their approval. The story of eircular ironelads adds another to the many instances of the same idea being conceived independently about the same time by different persons.

thumb-serew for ruffians convicted of brutal assaults. It is not because these obsolete instruments "inflict pain" that the Pall Mall Gazette objects to them; the pain is good; but they "inflict permanent injury; they leave the sufferer maimed and weakened for life;" and permanent injury is bad. There is here the sort of affectation of logical precision in which the Gazette delights. A criminal should not be maimed and weakened for life; but we should not be prevented by sentimental considerations from inflicting any amount of pain. But why should not a criminal be maimed, if the fear of maiming would be likely to keep him from erime ; where does the Gazette find the authority for this first principle of its penal legislation? Such a principle can be founded only in sentiment. Has the Pall Mall Gazette struck at last on the sentimental depths of its Draconic nature? The shock of discovery that it is sentimental after all like the rest of us would seem to have been too much for its consistency. In answer to Sir H. James's argument that flogging is torture, and that to go back to the lash is to go back to torture, the Pall Mall Gazette argues that all punishment is torture to certain constitutions. "The treadmill is torture to the weak man. Oakum-picking is torture to the clumsy man. Mere imprisonment is torture to the active man." On the same method of reasoning, flogging means maining and weakening for life to many men, and consequently according to the Gazette's own principle, it is inadmissible as a punishment. In finding its sentiment, our contemporary has lost its head.

It would appear that we have all been wrong about the object of the Prince of Wales's visit to India. Mr. Disraeli and official persons in general maintain that the journey has been undertaken from the highest motives of public duty ; less credulous persons, on the other hand, regard it as a mere pleasure trip not in any way unbefitting the position of His Royal Highness. Some light is thrown upon the question by two announcements that have recently been made. A Bishop, speaking the other day at a clerical meeting, said that he could assert on the highest authority that the Prince's real object in going to India was to assist the cause of Christian Missions, in which both his Royal Mother and himself have always taken so great an interest. This is startling intelligence. So is the following, extracted from the business advertisement of a person calling himself Mr. Jolly John Nash :-- "Mr. Nash intimated to Sir Bartle Frere that he could not accept the flattering offer to accompany H.R.H. the Prince of Wales to India, in consequence of a prior engagement he made with Mr. Josh Hart, of the Theatre Comique, New York." There may at first sight appear to be some contradiction be-tween these two announcements, but all difficulties disappear when we remember that the gentleman through whom Mr. Nash communicates with the Prince is a very distinguished promoter of missionary enterprise. Not long ago Sir Bartle Frere proposed to the University of Oxford that the Colleges should devote their Fellowships to the relief of superannuated missionaries. Both the Bishop and the comie singer therefore are probably telling the truth. Sir Bartle Frere had, we suppose, been commissioned to engage the best Christian talent, and therefore invited the Jolly Nash to join the party of His Royal Highness-to help in converting the native,

The Pall Mall Gazette has condescended to explain why it does not advocate the use of the boot and the

of course.

County intrigues are seldom of much interest beyond the county, but the election of a Deputy-Chairman by the Cheshire Justices at the Knutsford Quarter Sessions last week may claim a wider importance. For many years the illness of Mr. Townshend, the chairman, and the continued ill-health of Sir Harry Mainwaring, the deputy, have prevented their attention to county business, either financial or judicial. In their absence the performance of these duties has devolved by common consent upon Mr. G. W. Latham; as he was admitted on all sides to be the most able lawyer and the most regular attendant on county business of the whole Cheshire Benck. On Mr. Townshend's death, a few years ago, the hono-

rary position of chairman was bestowed upon Lord Egerton, the Lord-Lieutenant of the county, but he declines to attend to any of the criminal functions of the office, making therefore the position of his deputy of all the more importance. Sir Harry Mainwaring having also died, the question of a successor came before the Court. Mr. G. W. Latham had been for more than twenty years a county magistrate, and had during the whole of that period devoted himself to every duty of the office with rare ability and persistence; but Mr. Latham had committed the crime of holding Liberal opinions. He had even had the audacity to solicit votes at a county election without asking leave of the Egertons or Leighs. In revenge, the Egertons and Leighs formed a cabal to exclude him from that position at the head of county business which he would naturally have assumed if his politics had been quiescent. A "whip" of Tory Justices was made, and though many of them, to their honour, declined to respond to the summons, enough were brought together to exclude Mr. Latham from the position which he had so long practically filled, and to elect in his place a man of three years' standing as a magistrate. Mr. Latham accepted his defeat as a hint to retire from the Bench. Of course the Cheshire Justices are entitled to elect whoever they please as their deputy-chairman, but outsiders may venture to suggest whether they do well to drive out of the unpaid magistracy the few men who are willing to devote themselves energetically to its duties.

The address presented to Sir Stafford Northcote by the Exeter District of the Ancient Order of Foresters must have rather surprised him after the speech with which it was introduced by the secretary of the Society, Mr. S. H. Culley. Mr. Culley, in effect, passed a strong condemnation on the measure by advising changes which amounted to an entire revolution of its character. "He suggested that examination of accounts by public auditors should be made compulsory instead of permissive; that registration of all Friendly Societies should be insisted on; that payment and benefits should be regulated by an authorised scale; and that there should be compulsory valuations by Government actuaries or other persons of acknowledged skill." Mr. Culley, in short, implied that Sir S. Northeote committed a mistake in making the Act permissive. But the address presented by Mr. Culley in the name of the Foresters, not only expressed a belief that the Act would influence Friendly Societies for good-very moderate praise, indeed, if not absolutely faint-but thanked Sir Stafford "above all" that "its provisions permit the members of the local Lodges to self-government, and to have the right of appointing their own auditors." It added -- "We sincerely hope that you may enjoy the blessings of health and prosperity for many years to come, and that you may be permitted by Divine Providence to see the good fruits that will in all probability result from your labours." The author of the Act very becomingly professed himself overcome by the beauty of the address, and took no notice of the irony of the wish that he might live to see the fruits of his labours. This elause of the address must have been framed by Mr. Culley.

THE PRINCE AND THE NIZAM.

seems, we have gone back again to the simpler methods of an earlier time. It is no doubt a difficult task to play the game of conciliation with Orientals, who are apt to mistake forbearance for weakness and to abuse concessions until they become impossible. It is necessary from time to time to show, or to make felt, "the grasp of steel under the glove of silk." But admitting these difficulties and necessities, we still hesitate to approve the change that has come over the Anglo-Indian policy of the present day, a change curiously contemporaneous with the administration of Lord Northbrook. It is easy, too easy, to bully where conciliation is difficult, to extort by menaces the outward signs of implicit obedience. while the spirit of the persons coerced remains unbroken. But plainly the advantages of this high-handed sort of government are only to be obtained by a continuous moral pressure, operating with the unswerving certainty of a natural law. When bullying is spasmodic, and menaces are interwoven with compliments or even apologies, the frame of mind in which the subject regards the ruler is likely to be dangerously compounded of hatred and contempt.

We do not think that any dispassionate observer of the policy of the Indian Government for the past two years can deny that it is open to the charges of weakness, violence, and vacillation. The whole story of the proceedings against the Guicowar discloses both infirmity of purpose and that sort of angry unreasonableness which the Romans used to call impotentia. The treatment of Scindia and the Jeypore Prince was apparently calculated to strike the precise point at which the maximum of irritation to Native feeling should be produced without a single perceptible fraction of advantage to the Government of India. But these blunders, however, bad as they were, left at least one great section of Indian feeling undisturbed, if, indeed, the rebuke to Mahratta arrogance and Rajpoot vanity did not fill the hereditary rival, the former conqueror of Mahratta and Rajpoot, with a secret satisfaction. But the Moslem population are more touchy, more fiery-tempered than any section of the Hindoos. They are nearer to the time of their greatness, when they ruled Hindustan as conquerors, and they have not forgotten the magnificence of the prize which we wrested from them. The Mahrattas, therefore, will more easily forgive the slight put upon Scindia, or the Rajpoot the slight put upon the Prince of Jeypore, than will the Mussulmans of India the appearance of ill-treatment applied to the boy-ruler of Hyderabad, who is known as the Nizam of the Deecan. The correspondence, however, which has been published between the British Resident at Hyderabad, backed by the Calcutta Government and Sir Salar Jung, the able and accomplished Minister of the Nizam, places it beyond doubt that a scandalous and unworthy attempt at dictation has been made against a Prince, or, more properly speaking, a State, which, in all its internal affairs, enjoys by treaty a complete independence; and that this attempt, after being carried far enough to entail all the most disastrous consequences, has broken down disreputably. The dictation attempted will naturally and justly exasperate the Mussulmans of India, who revere the ruler of Hyderabad as the last remaining one of the great Mahommedan Viceroys, and in some respects as the successor to the hegemony of the Mogul Emperors. But though the half-accomplished insult will irritate, the spontaneously acknowledged defeat of the insulters will breed bitter contempt. The facts of this unfortunate affair, to which we hope public attention will be drawn at once up on the meeting of Parliament, are very simple. The Government of India is, quite intelligibly, anxious to make the Prince of Wales's visit the oceasion of a great demonstration of the solidarity of the Empire. The principal Native Sovereigns have been invited to meet the Prince, really, though not ostensibly, to do homage in something like feudal fashion, and to accept formally the feudatory position to which facts have reduced them, but which they are not very willing to recognise in so many words.

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The relations of the Indian Government to the Native Princes of India seem lately to have entered upon a new and by no means a healthy phase. In the years immediately following the Mutiny it was the avowed policy of Lord Canning and Lord Canning's successors to conrt the rulers of the Native States and to attach them by the golden ties of interest to the system that had so nearly been shattered by the revolt of the Bengal Sepoy Army. The traditions of Lord Dalhousie's stern and strenuous government were repudiated in high places; Viceroys and Secretaries of State vied in doing honour to the Princes of the Native States which acknowledged allegiance to the "Empress of India," and the records of the Order of the Star of India embrace the history of this period of conciliation. But now, as it

From such a demonstration Lord Northbrook and his advisers conceived that the Nizam could not be omitted, that without his presence the imaginations of the Moslem in India would not be adequately impressed with the greatness of the English power as represented by His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. Accordingly Mr. Saunders, the British Resident at Hyderabad, was instructed to inquire of Sir Salar Jung whether it would be more convenient for the Nizam to meet the Prince at Bombay or at Calcutta. No other course was even left open as possible, though the Resident had been made aware that, in the opinion of the Nizam's ministers, of his female relatives and of his medical attendants, it would be perilous for the delicate boy of eight years old to undertake a fatiguing journey either to the western or the eastern capital of India. In answer to the Resident's formal request, Sir Salar Jung repeated the objections to the Nizam's journey, craving the indulgence of the Prince and the Viceroy, and suggesting that, instead of a personal visit from the "weakly and excitable" child, a deputation from the Hyderabad Government should be sent to Bombay. The Viceroy, however, refused to entertain this suggestion, and called upon Sir Salar Jung to reconsider the subject. Sir Salar Jung enclosed in answer a report from the Nizam's medical officers describing the young Prince's delicacy and the dangers of travelling, and added an expression of regret that the motives of the hesitation to meet the Viceroy's wishes had been misconstrued. To this appeal the Resident replies, and this is the most amazing fact in a very strange story, by enclosing a copy of a Bombay newspaper-the same that covered the Native judges of the Guicowar with gross abuse-in which the "refusal " of the Nizam to meet the Prince was denounced as arrogant and spiteful, and by declaring that there was an "absolute necessity" for the acceptance of the Viceroy's invitation "in the most graceful and appropriate terms." This scarcely veiled threat is repeated in several forms during the subsequent correspondence, Sir Salar Jung being evidently desirous to avoid doing or saying anything that could possibly give offence at Calcutta, and arguing over and over again simply from the state of the child's health and the disinclination of the boy himself, and of mother and grandmother from whom he could not safely be separated, to leaving the country. Mr. Saunders talks darkly and ominously of "a course of policy which might prove detrimental to the interests of his Highness the young Nizam," as if Lord Northbrook really entertained the notion that he could deprive this child of his rights because he did not like to pay the Prince of Wales a visit. The medical attendants, whose report Sir Salar Jung quoted, are slighted; and when at last the Minister yielded, saying that of course if the Viceroy insisted upon it the Nizam must go to Bombay, under any circumstances and at all "hazards," but that the Viceroy must relieve him of the responsibility, he was told that his attitude was "unbecoming," and was endangering his master's interests. Furthermore the Resident, in a threatening letter, insisted that the report of the Hyderabad doctor — to which he was pleased to say "no importance could be attached "should be submitted to "such a test as can alone satisfy the Government of India." Sir Salar Jung's patience was not exhausted; he suggested a report from the Residency doctor, but this proposal was at first declined. Finally, on Sir Salar Jung agreeing to send the Nizam unconditionally on his perilous journey, the Resident consented to place the Residency doctor in charge of the boy, and if he certified, after continued observation, that there was a real risk, Mr. Saunders cautiously promised to use his influence with the Viceroy to avert that risk. To this arrangement Sir Salar Jung was forced. A telegram this week informs us that, acting under medical advice, the Nizam will not visit Bombay. Thus it is proved that Sir Salar Jung's word has been unreasonably and discourteously distrusted, and that the Nizam was in fact a delicate child whom it would be simple cruelty to coerce into taking a long journey.

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The incident is at an end. But what shall we say of the policy of the Indian Government, which has certainly irritated the Moslem population, has probably alienated the ablest and hitherto the most loyal of Native Ministers, and has stirred all the feudatory Governments of the Empire with the fear that they may be dispossessed of their dominions—if threats have any meaning—not only for crimes like those alleged against Mulhar Rao, but for differences on points of etiquette with the Government at Calcutta.

NORWICH IN PURGATORY.

The time of the opening of the Law Courts is at hand, and the Norwich Election Commissioners have at last terminated, provisionally at least, their sittings in the guilty town. The unhappy electors were beginning to fear that this terrible visitation which has been sent upon them for their sins had become a permanent institution, and were crying out in the agonies of their remorse that the punishment of Sodom and Gomorrah was more tolerable. If, indeed, the opinion of Mr. McMahon, who seems to be willing to sacrifice the calls of his profession on the altar of public duty, had succeeded in controlling the proceedings of the Commission, and all the 2,000 "colourably employed" messengers had been summoned individually to tell all they knew, there was no reason why the labours of the Commission should ever have come to an end. The town might have had to pay for the public exposure of its sins till the local exchequer was as hopelessly bankrupt as the Porte. Human ingenuity could not have devised a more excruciating torment for a corrupt city. To be made a public example of, to have all its secret sins hunted out and held up day after day for ever as a warning, could not have been the most agreeable form of slow torture; and to have had to pay all the expenses of the operation, as long as its money lasted, and to have its municipal council imprisoned for contempt of court thereafter while the exposure was going on at the public expense, would have been a refinement of cruelty worthy of Beelzebub himself.

As it is, Norwich has suffered a good deal in its purse as well as in its feelings, and even the public, who have been edified by the spectacle, are very generally of opinion that the Commission has sat quite long enough for the ends of the most Rhadamanthine justice. Very few persons, we daresay, followed the daily proceedings of the Commission, but it was really becoming harder and harder every day to see what end was gained by bringing up witness after witness with precisely the same tale. Within limits, the object of establishing the same facts by a multitude of witnesses so as to show the extent of the corruption was apparent enough, but those limits the Commissioners undoubtedly seemed to exceed. That, however, was not the most curious circumstance about the Norwich inquiry. A meeting was held at Norwich the other day which affirmed that the town has more to complain of than the mere length of the proceedings. The charge insisted upon at that meeting may have been the wild outcome of the irritation of the townspeople smarting under the inflictions of justice, but it was of too serious a nature to be allowed to escape public attention. If it is true, the inquiry itself will have to be inquired into. The most casual reader of the newspaper reports must have been struck with the extraordinary difference in demeanour between Conservative and Liberal witnesses. Both parties had to confess to a preposterously large employment of voters as messengers. But it was remarkable that while the Liberal witnesses did everything in their power to justify the number of their messengers, the Conservative witnesses abandoned all effort at selfdefence. If a Liberal ward-manager was obliged to own that he had employed 80 messengers to act upon a voting strength of 1,180, or 89 messengers to 1,512 voters, he laboured stoutly and ingeniously to prove that he could not possibly have done his work with less. He had so many circulars to send

out in so short a time to so many uncertain addresses that he could not get on with less than two men to forty circulars. To prove his honesty he was ready to declare that he put men on his list of messengers without taking the least pains to find out whether they were voters or not. If he engaged three subcommittee rooms at public-houses, where apparently no sub-committee room was necessary, the Liberal wardmanager had no scruple in arguing that, to the best of his judgment, three sub-committee rooms were imperatively required for the district, and they could not be had at private houses. "Roughs" are a prominent feature in Norwich elections; but the Liberals maintain that there was very little, if any, free-fighting at the election of 1875. The "Stiff 'Un," the great leader of the roughs on the Liberal side, who admitted that he could raise a company of 400 in two or three days, although they had an awkward habit of deserting from mercenary motives to the enemy, represented himself as having acted at last election solely in the character of a peace preserver. He simply went about with a small body-guard of a dozen or a score of good men and true wherever he heard that bribery or intimidation was going on on the part of the enemy, and his presence was enough to keep order. Both the "Stiff 'Un" and other Liberal witnesses maintained that these bodies of volunteer police were absolutely necessary for the protection of candidates and voters from personal violence.

Whatever, when they are fairly considered, may be the value of these exculpatory allegations from the Liberal side, they offer a marked contrast to the course pursued by Conservative witnesses. The Conservative witnesses confess to bribery and intimidation with cynical frankness. One Conservative ward-manager confessed to employing twenty-six messengers where three would have been sufficient. Another admitted that he put on 130 where he had no need for more than five. A third engaged 100 to do the work of fifteen; and so forth. The Conservative managers treated with ridicule the idea that they could have had any object whatever except bribery in the engagement of so many messengers. They were equally outspoken about the hiring of subcommittee rooms in public-houses; they did so simply to purchase the influence of the publicans. As for free fighting, Conservative witnesses deposed that there was as much of that at last election as ever. They made a reservation only on one point: it was invariably the Liberal "roughs" who began. Peaceful Conservative committee-rooms were invaded by companies of these blackguards; one ward-manager received the honour of being seated on the fire in his own room, and another was jammed behind a door till his ribs were nearly broken. A Conservative publican gave evidence that he saw 100 roughs in free fight in the street before his door, and among them was the "Stiff 'Un" himself, whose authority did not make itself appreciably felt on the side of peace and order. When asked whether anything could be done to put down bribery and violence at Norwich elections, Conservative witnesses invariably shook their heads. The case was hopeless. There always had been corrupt practices at Norwich, and there always would be. They saw nothing for it but disfranchisement.

What is the meaning of this discrepancy between

1,200, they affirm they can prove from their registers : and they point in confirmation to the fact that Mr. Tillett's majority in last election was 797, and to the acknowledgment made by Mr. Bignold, a leader on the Conservative side, who said in evidence that "after the Wednesday (before the election) he came to the conclusion that the Conservatives had no earthly chance, and that no money would be of any use." Not content with charging their opponents with this conspiracy to deprive the town of its electoral rights because they have lost the ascendency, the Norwich Liberals, we understand, freely accuse the Commissioners of aiding and abetting the conspiracy. This is a more serious accusation, which looks like the mere madness of party suspicion; but if the report of the Commission is in favour of disfranchisement, and if the accusation is persisted in by men whose good faith is above suspicion, and who have on the spot means of forming an opinion which no outsider can have, a time may come for its investigation. We should be most unwilling to say anything in prejudgment of the question now under the consideration of the Commissioners, but the unanimity of the Norwich Conservatives in frank confession, and the unanimity of the Liberals in attempts at palliation, are too remarkable to be passed over, and cannot be too soon impressed upon public attention as a clue to what may follow. That there has been extensive bribery and intimidation on both sides at Norwich for several years back is but too apparent from the evidence collected by the Commissioners. There is evidently a class in Norwich who look upon election bribes as a periodical perquisite, and who regard an election as a high festival at which it is their privilege to receive donations of beer and beer-money. But whether the borough should be disfranchised on their account, under the present peculiar circumstances, is another question. The plea of the Liberals that they did not bribe half as much as their opponents, that on their side the election of 1875 was one of the purest that had been held in Norwich for many years, would appear to them in its true absurdity if they were less heated by party strife. Nobody can say that disfranchisement would not serve them right. But on the other hand, the conduct of the Conservatives is so very ugly that if the town were disfranchised by a Government composed of their own party, the disfranchisement could not be regarded except as a grave scandal and a dangerous precedent. We have their own confession that in full view of the hopelessness of their chances of success they went on in a reckless career of bribery. Foiled in that, they turn round, and shamelessly confess, their opponents say infamously and grossly exaggerate, their malpractices with a view to lose for the town the seat that they cannot gain for themselves. Of all corrupt election practices, none could be more scandalously corrupt than this. To encourage such a malpractice by deliberately allowing it to succeed would clearly be to foster the evil which has to be cured, to offer a direct incentive to electoral corruption. We are placed in this difficulty. Norwich deserves to be disfranchised, if disfranchisement is to be kept up as a penalty; but on the other hand, one of the great political parties has been working in the most open manner and with the most unblushing snamelessness to obtain disfranchisement. Disfranchisement ceases to be a penalty in such a case; it is a reward to the avowedly most corrupt of the two parties in the constituency. In any case, disfranchisement is a dangerous form of penalty for a country that is governed by parties, and in the case of Norwich it would clearly be a gross perversion of justice. The town has already suffered not a little from the Commission. The expenses must already amount to a sum little short of 6,000L, a heavy fine for a corrupt borough. It should be allowed to retain its franchise with this severe warning to keep it henceforth in the paths of electoral purity, and mean-while no time should be lost in strengthening the penalties of the law against those who bribe, those who are bribed, and, above all, those who furnish money which is used for purposes of bribery, without taking due precautions to know how their money is expended.

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Conservative and Liberal evidence? Is it simply that the corrupt Conservatives are the more penitent and candid of the two? It would appear from the meeting of Liberals held on Tuesday that they are prepared with a different answer. Electors, whether Liberal or Conservative, are not as a rule willing to part with their privilege so long as they are convinced of its value, however deeply they may feel their own unworthiness to exercise it; and the Norwich Liberals contend that the Conservatives have deliberately exaggerated their own corruption and conspired to blacken the character of the town, and secure its disfranchisement, because they know themselves to be in a hopeless minority if the election were conducted on pure principles. That the Conservatives are in a minority of

THE PEACEMAKERS AT OXFORD.

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The Oxford meeting will bring the Agricultural Labourers' Union before some persons who were in danger of forgetting its existence. It will also revive and confirm hopes which some well-wishers of the Union sadly thought of late that they might abandon. The Special Council will, one may fairly believe, put an end to some quarrels and bickerings which have divided and wasted the strength of the labourers' cause. A great many false and ridiculous charges, which wrought much mischief and sowed mutual suspicion, have been put to flight by the report signed by Mr. Hughes and Mr. Morley. They declare that there is no foundation for the charge of extravagance or malversation in regard to the administration of the funds; and we sincerely hope that we have heard the last of calumnies which only the foolish and credulous were ready to believe. The position of Mr. Arch and his fellowmembers of the Executive Committee is very delicate, and one might have anticipated that items of expenditure would be challenged by persons who judged of them without due knowledge of all the difficulties and circumstances of the Executive. Abuse and suspicion are sure to proceed from the busybodies which every movement collects, and from the malice and disappointment which courageous men must be sure to irritate. Internal differences and misrepresentations were all to be counted upon; but one must own that one's expectations, founded on the weakness of human nature, have been sadly surpassed, and that the history of the labourers' struggle has been stained by a somewhat surprising amount of quarrelling. At an early stage in the movement appeared differences between the two Unions, the Federal and the National; and the sympathisers with the cause of the labourers were at times scandalised by much mutual recrimination and charges of grave misstatements. When both the Unions were in receipt of public subscriptions, there were frequent public altercations as to the proper mode of distribution, and by-and-by one heard of ugly personal charges and quarrels over which the enemies of the Union must of course have made merry. It is needless to say that, if the Unionists had again to appeal for help from outsiders, the influence of these charges, even if not credited, might have been very serious; and even now we cannot be quite confident that the report of Mr. Morley and Mr. Hughes will receive as wide currency as the nasty envenomed stories. There will, at all events, be people who will say that the emancipated labourer is a rather quarrelsome person. In one of the first addresses penned by the Chairman of the Executive Committee, he said with much good sense, "Be united, and you will be free." It was good advice and much needed. But one cannot say that the labourers have uniformly acted upon it.

We trust, however, that the Oxford meeting will be a turning-point in the life of the Union, and that henceforth it will be troubled by no internal dissensions. It was gravely proposed by some accusers of the present executive to abandon the present Union and found another, and for a time the proposal—justly characterised by Messrs. Morley and Hughes as "an act of reckless and culpable folly"—seemed in a fair way to be carried out. But it is now dead, never to be revived. The Executive appear to be hopeful as to their future prospects. They have funds in hand to the amount of nearly 7,0001., and as there is every probability that the expenditure of the Union will diminish, lucrative prospects seem to be opening up. Why do we dwell on these facts in the history of the Agricultural Union? Because the failure on the part of the agricultural labourers to found and manage with success a Union-and failure more than once seemed imminent -would have been an argument more powerful than any adduced by Tory orators to prove that the labourers were not so fit to exercise the franchise as the urban artisans. Had the Union been broken up by rancorous disputes and ill-natured suspicions, and the incapacity of men of the same class to work harmoniously together, the hopes of the best friends of

the agricultural labourer would have been somewhat damped. We rejoice, therefore, that peace has been restored, and that we have in the almost unanimous reinstatement of the two secretaries proof of the existence of a healthy spirit of confidence.

The Oxford meeting would have done no small good if it had only killed some ugly rumours and healed some gaping wounds which it suited some people to keep open. But it has done a great deal more. It has enabled us to hear the opinions of the thinking labourers' on some political questions, and, notwithstanding the small attention given by the daily Press to the Oxford proceedings, we do not know that the labourer's platform is less worthy of study than the decorous resolutions of a Church Congress or a Diocesan Conference. The meeting ought to put an end to one common and injurious assertion. It is frequently said that the labourers are averse to compulsory education, and that in fact they do not at all appreciate the value of education. This may be true so far as the unthinking portion who hold aloof from the Union and believe all the fables which their masters tell of the consequences of the introduction of Board Schools. But as a universal proposition it is far from correct. At the Oxford meeting a resolution in favour of compulsory education was heartily supported and unanimously adopted. And, what is even of more consequence, none of the speakers, labourers though most of them were, indulged in that dull suspicion of education which is frequently imputed to the poor, and which one sometimes finds among them. All were anxious to see a sound useful education secured to their children. It was asserted by persons well qualified to speak in the name of their class that repugnance to send children to school on account of loss of earnings was far from common. The labourers, it was said, were desirous to see School Boards set up, and the real rural opponents of these institutions were the farmers and the clergymen. One labourer, whose sentiments are in accordance with those of Dr. Magee, and who, like the witty bishop, deprecates the needless multiplication of glib Bible scholars, explained his aversion to National Schools by saying that "the greater part of the children's time was taken up in learning the Catechism and singing amen." Mr. Clarke obviously thought that bird-scaring was much more useful than these monotonous devotions. It is noticeable that there was strong testimony that the Agricultural Children Act, which was to work wonders, is a dead letter in most districts, or, as one speaker said, "a farce, and known to be a farce by parson and squire." This was only to be anticipated. The Act was never meant by its framers to deprive the farmer of cheap juvenile labour. Its chief purpose was to take away from the advocates of Board Schools an argument too forcible to be altogether gainsaid.

The meeting fitly passed a resolution in favour of the extension of the franchise to the agricultural labourers. We may recommend without endorsing to the full extent, and with certain reservations, the sentiment expressed by a distinguished supporter of the Union, Mr. Collings, of Birmingham—"By political action alone can any permanent amelioration in the condition of the labourers be attained.". It was only right and proper that a meeting which demonstrated the power of the labourers to manage the affairs of their young Union in the face of many grave difficulties should conclude with an assertion of the claim of the agricultural population to political enfranchisement.

SIR HENRY JAMES ON SLAVES AND WHIGS.

There is something provokingly unfair in the blundering of the Tory Ministry. When other Ministries make mistakes they stick to them honestly, and thereby give their opponents a chance of turning them out. Has not some candid politician told us quite recently that the blunders of the Government are the opportunities of the Opposition? The future Tory leader, Sir Stafford Northcote, has said, if we mistake not, that the proper business of the Opposition is to watch the

administrative errors of their adversaries in office and turn them to practical account. Difference of principle or policy is a thing unknown in these latter days, and honest politicians know very well that party divisions now represent a mere game for office and nothing more. Such being the theory of public life held by our leaders, it is only natural that the Outs should expect the Ins to give them a chance now and again. It is not in mortals not to err occasionally, and it is on the chance, or rather on the certainty of official blunders that an Opposition continues to exist. What we complain of in the conduct of the present Ministry is not that they make no mistakes, but their mistakes are of such a character that they are of no use to the Opposition. How many eminent Liberals, in the Press and on the platform, have bewailed the fact that the Tory Ministry has survived several huge blunders, any one of which would have wrecked the Liberals? The fact is that the Ministry has escaped mainly through the incredible magnitude of its mistakes. Ministers have gone wrong so abjectly and so ignorantly that they had no alternative but to confess their fault and receive pardon. The Endowed Schools Bill, the Plimsoll Bill, and now the Fugitive Slave Circular, mark depths of error seldom sounded by the folly of an English Government. Yet all these, to say nothing of a host of minor follies, have been of no use to the Liberals as a party. Their opportunity has been snatched from between their teeth by the prompt confession and apology of the erring officials. Defence and defiance, in fact, were in the three instances we have named equally out of the question. The blunder was in each case so hopeless and irredeemable that it had to be withdrawn and disowned before the Liberals had time to prepare their harangues. Naturally the leaders are very much disgusted.

Sir Henry James gave expression to this feeling in his speech to the people of Taunton on Tuesday. know," he exclaims, speaking of the Slave Circular, " what would have been said if this blunder had been committed by the late Liberal Administration. We should have had Tory association meetings; there would have been dinners, and tea-drinkings, and deputations, and denunciations, and there would have been a Tory shriek throughout the land on behalf of the fugitive slave." It is a hard thing that the Liberals should have been deprived of these delights by the pusillanimous withdrawal of the Circular. Mr. Forster was only just in time to get his British speech fired off-indeed, the Circular was withdrawn before he had finished speaking. Sir Henry James is a good many weeks too late, and his learned oration, so far as its political effects are concerned, might as well never have been spoken. Sir Henry professes to be anxious to make no political capital out of the event, but that, we know, is the usual preface to the more ambitious attacks of public men upon the policy of opponents. If Sir Henry James has not desired to make political capital out of a blunder which has no parallel in the history of Whig errors, he is much more of an angel and much less of a Whig than we take him to be. Something more than zeal for accuracy in matters of law inspires his exhaustive exposure of the errors of the Admiralty Circular. We need not follow him minutely through his argument, which, apart from all other considerations, is valuable as an unhesitating declaration by a lawyer of high authority that the orders of the Circular are contrary to the Law of England, and could not be enforced by any commander except at the risk of civil or even criminal proceedings. We hardly think the country cares to hear anything more in support of a belief which it leaped to instinctively when the contents of the Circular were made known. Sir Henry James tried to adduce reasons why he, the Attorney-General of the Liberals, should refute the confessed and abandoned errors of their successors in office. Although the Circular is suspended, captains of ships, he is afraid, may act in accordance with it, and foreign nations may attempt to turn its princples against ourselves. We have no fear on either head. We should not be sorry to hear of a British captain surrendering a slave in the

belief that Mr. Ward Hunt is a good lawyer, because the condign punishment which would follow would be a wholesome lesson both to Mr. Ward Hunt and to the captain; and foreign nations are just as little enamoured of the principles of the Circular as ourselves. They strike at the independence of local jurisdiction which all nations are determined to claim for their own ships, and which no nation refuses to the ships of any other. Even slave-holding nations have no reason for maintaining the principles of the Circular, for in other circumstances they might be as hostile as they are now supposed to be favourable to the rights of slave-owners. Sir Henry James may make his mind easy about the Circular. It is as completely dead as if it had never been issued, and to keep up the agitation against it is, we are afraid, waste of time, unless indeed anybody thinks it worth while to drive poor Mr. Ward Hunt from office.

If Sir Henry James wishes to know why the blunders of the Tories do them so little harm we should advise him to read the report of the concluding portion of his own speech. It embraces a dismal description of the situation of his party:--"I see the ranks of our opponents, many in number, serried in discipline, devoted and bound together by party ties. I see in our own ranks disorganisation-some of it no doubt the result of honest difference of opinion ; but I regret to hear sometimes muttered words and even divided allegiance." The grudging admission that dissatisfied Liberals may possibly be honest is in the true spirit of the Whig official, but worse is to follow :-- "I also confess I see but little hope of strengthening the Liberal party if we listen to the advice of those restless men who now ask persons to accept some great and radical change which they don't require, and denounce those who don't agree with them." We know well enough what this kind of language means in the mouth of placemen like Sir Henry James. It is the policy of the Hartington section of the Liberal party. It condemns every suggestion of reform, from whatever side it may come. The Agricultural Labourers' Franchise and the Disestablishment of the Church are not to be named before these leaders of Liberalism, and we are not sure that the Judicature Act has not been too much for many of them, including Sir Henry James himself. Does it never occur to these cautious Liberals to ask themselves what reason any sensible men can have for preferring them to their opponents. If we are to keep silent about grievances because to redress them would involve great and radical change, why should we keep up the delusion of a Liberal party. Surely free discussion is the first principle of true Liberalism in polities, and no institution in the land, be its history and functions what they may, is to be set aside as above criticism. What on earth does Sir Henry James profess to believe in, or to do, that he and his friends should call upon us to organise ourselves under their banner. Here are Sir Henry's own words :--- "It has ever been our object that the popular voice should find full expression in the country, and that the institutions should be broadly based upon the people's will "-a pair of platitudes that commit the Whig who uses them to nothing. Sir Henry James has made himself an eloquent speaker apparently by the honest study of the models of eighteenth century eloquence and the feebler sort of nineteenth century poetry. A little tag from Mr. Pitt, or a piece of silliness from Mr. Tennyson, is neatly worked into his orations, and gives them a false air of scholarship and culture. Sir Henry, too, is clever and plucky, and is altogether admirably suited to fight next under the leader in such a commonplace assembly as the present House of Commons. We do not grudge him his position or his influence. But really, when he takes to lecturing the party on its disunion, we expect something more than these small accomplishmentssomething, in fact, of that gift of prophecy which he modestly disclaimed. If the Liberal party is to remain as Sir Henry describes it-a mere conspiracy for office, without courage, or principle, or the power or desire to conceive measures for the future of society-we see no

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reason why any honest citizen should trouble himself about its welfare. We are as well content to see Sir Richard Baggallay Attorney-General as Sir Henry James, for he calls himself by a name which fairly describes his political position. We hardly know what name is fittest for the politicians who decry reform when the country is not excited, hold aloof from the earliest agitations, and only come forward when "the popular will acquires full expression." Hitherto they have been called Whigs.

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THE AFRICAN MASSACRE.

Mr. Henry M. Stanley, the Special Commissioner by whom the New York Herald and the Daily Telegraph are at present jointly represented in Africa, is not by any means a gentleman who allows his light to hide itself under a bushel. He first burst upon the world as the discoverer of Livingstone. According to his own version of the facts, which was adroitly repeated in several skilfully written leading articles, Mr. James Gordon Bennett, the proprietor of the Herald, sent for him to Paris, and told him that he was at once to start for Central Africa, and there to find Livingstone, dead or alive. Now, if Mr. Stanley had had no notion whatever of Livingstone's whereabouts, the order in question would have been, as schoolboys say, a very "large" one. As a matter of fact, however, it was known, by the last letter of Livingstone's that had reached Europe, that it was his intention to make a sort of circular tour in the neighbourhood of Lake Taganyika and the Mountains of the Moon, returning at the conclusion of it to Ujiji, and so down to the coast. Ujiji, on the east shore of Taganyika, is a place almost as well known as Nishni-Novgorod, and of much the same kind. It is the furthest point inland for the Zanzibar caravans, and the principal depôt of the Banian ivory traders, while a tolerably good road runs from it directly down to the coast. Obviously, then, the first thing for Mr. Stanley was to make his way to Ujijia task by no means so difficult as might be supposed. As soon as he got to Ujiji, which did not take him a much shorter time than it has taken other Englishmen who have done the same thing, he found Livingstone alive and well, but unable to make his way down to the coast for want of funds. Such, in plain words, is the true story of 'How I Found Livingstone.' But so much was made of the exploit at the time that Mr. Stanley became quite a hero, and it was resolved that he should be sent out to Africa again, at the joint cost of the *Herald* and the *Telegraph*, to discover anything else that might still remain undiscovered, and to write home a series of stirring and graphic "special" letters. The Tele-graph, always true to its philanthropic sympathies, threw, it is true, a sort of halo over the matter by declaring that it was Mr. Stanley's mission to "explore the haunts of the slavetraders," and to expose the horrors of the accursed traffic in human flesh and blood. The Herald, however, with a somewhat more laudable frankness, admitted that its correspondent was sent to do pretty much as he pleased, and to write home as vigorous letters as he could. What Mr. Stanley actually has been doing we gather from a despatch, dated March 1 from the village of Kagehyi, on the Victoria Nyanza. This interesting document commences with an expression of "devout gratitude to Almighty God for preserving us amid mani-fold perils." By "us" Mr. Stanley would seem to chiefly refer to himself, as almost everybody else appears to have been either killed by dysentery or speared by the natives. "The Anglo-American Expedition," we are told, left the old route to Ujiji and Unyanyembe as soon as possible, and struck due north for the Nyanza Lake, and "in our adventurous journey north," Mr. Stanley writes, "I imperilled the expedition, and almost brought it to an untimely end, which, however, happily for me, for you, and for geographers, a kindly Providence averted." Nor is this piety altogether uncalled for. "During our travels through Ugogo Nature and man alike warred against us." This means, as we shall soon see, that it has been unhealthy weather, and that Mr. Stanley and his followers have been shooting down natives and burning their villages. Under our generally adverse fates my command seemed to melt away; men died from fatigue and famine, many were left behind ill, while many, again, deserted. Promises of reward, kindness, threats, punishments, had no effect. The expedition seemed doomed. The white men, though selected out of the ordinary class of Englishmen, did their work bravely-nay, I may say heroically. Though suffering from fever and dysentery, insulted by natives, marching under the heat and equatorial rainstorms, they at all times proved themselves of noble, manly natures, stout-hearted, brave, and-better than all-true Christians. Unrepining, they bore their hard fate and worse fare; resignedly they endured their arduous troubles, cheerfully performed their allotted duties, and at all times commended themselves to my good opinion.

No one of course supposes that African travelling is exactly easy work, and we are quite willing to believe that by the time he had reached Vinyata, a village of the Waturu tribe, in the Leewumbu Valley, Mr. Stanley had gone through a fair amount of toil and trouble. It was at Vinyata, however, that his difficulties appear really to have begun. Here he found the natives "surly and suspicious," and noticed that they greedily eyed his bales and goods which were drying in the sun. On the third day "the war-cry of the Waturu was heard resounding through each of the two hundred villages of the Leewumbu valley." There is a Homeric touch about these "two hundred" villages, and all that follows is in the same strain. "Suddenly we saw the outskirts of the camp darkened by about a hundred natives in full war costume. Feathers of the bustard, the eagle, and the kite waved above some of their heads; the mane of the zebra and the giraffe encircled other swarthy brows; in their left hands they held bows and arrows, while in their right they bore spears." A "palaver" followed, but without much effect, and Mr. Stanley, although still hoping "that war might be prevented by a little diplomacy," opened his ammunition boxes, stockaded his camp, and, "without ostentation," made all necessary prepara-tions to defend himself. Perhaps there was a little more ostentation than was a little more ammunition boxes. ostentation than was necessary. Opening ammunition boxes, serving out cartridges, and throwing up a stockade, are hardly proceedings of strict "diplomacy," and it is quite possible that the Waturu may have misunderstood their purpose. Anyhow they appear to have made some counter demonstrations of diplomacy on their own side. "A shower of arrows fell all round us." It does not seem that anybody was killed, or even wounded; and it may fairly be supposed that the Waturu intended nothing more than to show their strength. Mr. Stanley, however, thought otherwise. "Sixty soldiers, held in readiness, were at once ordered to deploy in front of the camp, fifty yards off; the Wanguana, or freemen of Zanzibar, obedient to the command, rushed out of the camp, and the battle commenced." While the sixty Wanguana were shooting down the Waturu outside the camp, Mr. Stanley and his other followers were toiling inside at the stockade, and throwing up lofty platforms for sharpshooters. When the Wanguana at last returned they "announced that fifteen of the enemy were killed, while a great many more were wounded and borne off by their friends. All my men had distinguished themselves—even 'Bull,' my British hull-dog, had seized one of the Waturu by the leg, and had given him a taste of the power of the sharp canines of his breed before the poor savage was mercifully despatched by a Sni-der bullet." So ended the first evening of the war. Next morning, not unnaturally, "the enemy appeared in greater force than ever," and Mr. Stanley, without so much as attempting a parley, at once commenced hostilities on his own account. "I selected," he tells us, "four experienced men to lead four several detachments, and gave orders that they should march in different directions through the valley, and meet at some high rocks distant five miles off; that they should seize upon all cattle, and burn every village as soon as taken. Obedient to the command they sallied forth from the camp, and thus began the second day's fight." Of these four detachments one, it is some slight satisfaction to know, was "slaughtered to a man," and a second would have shared the same fate had not reinforcements come up from behind, and poured a volley into the rear of the astonished enemy." Meantime the other two detachments were butchering away right and left.

Smoke was seen issuing from the south and south-east, informing us that the third and fourth detachments were pursuing their way victoriously; and soon a score or more villages were enwrapped in dense volumes of smoke. Even at a distance of eight miles we beheld burning villages, and shortly after the blazing settlements to the north and east announced our triumph on all sides. Towards evening the soldiers returned, bringing cattle aud an abundance of grain to the camp; but when the muster-roll was called I found I had lost twenty-one men, who had been killed, while thirty-five

deaths of the enemy were reported.

So ended the second day. On the morning of the third we do not even gather that the slightest hostile demonstration was offered. None the less, with a spirit worthy of his own bulldog, the Special Commissioner of the *New York Herald* pursued his bloody work.

We renewed the battle with sixty good men, who received instructions to proceed to the extreme length of the valley, and destroy what had been left on the previous day. These came to a strong and large village on the north-east, which, after a slight resistance, they entered, loading themselves with their grain, and afterwards setting the village on fire. Long before noon it was clearly seen that the savages had had enough of war, and were quite demoralised, so that our people returned through the now silent and blackened valley without molestation. Just before daybreak on the fourth day we quitted our camp and continued our journey north-west, with provisions sufficient to last us six days, leaving the people of Ituru to ponder on the harsh fate they had drawn on themselves by their greed, treachery, and wanton murderous attack on peaceful strangers.

This frank narrative hardly calls for comment. Even if fighting were necessary on the first day-which is more than doubtful - the butchery of the second and third days, the burning, the robbing, and the plundering, were entirely uncalled for and unprovoked. The best that is to be hoped is that the whole story may be somewhat more highly coloured than is strictly necessary. If it be true in its essential details, the discoverer of Livingstone presents himself in a light very little better than that of an itinerant bandit and cutthroat, with a special commission to write for the New York Herald. When the Daily Telegraph announced that Mr. Stanley was about to explore the haunts of the slave-traders with a view to exposing their infamous cruelties, it could hardly have foreseen the infamous cruelties he was going to perpetrate on his own account. The Waturu are not likely to forget the wicked and wanton havoc that has been done, and for years to come the neighbourhood of Iramba will be simply impassable for all white men. This is what comes of sending out Mr. Stanley to aid the cause of Christianity and civilisation by exploring the haunts of the slave-traders. Of the two we should say that the wretched Waturu would probably prefer an average slave-trader to the Special Commissioner of the New York Herald.

REFORM STRUGGLES.

V.-NATIONAL EDUCATION.

Thirty years ago the state of education in England was simply lamentable, although "friends of education" were nu-merous in every town, and though "educational foundations," rich, prosperous, and renowned, attested the piety and munificence of patrons who had lived in far-off times, and of persons who more recently had acted on the good old truth that "learning is better than house or lands." The Universities were splendid, their fame was in all the earth, but for the poor there was little hope of any large number ever finding their way from the lot of hewers of wood and drawers of water. The "hind" in charge of certain interests on a large estate signed his name with a black cross. The petty shopkeeper kept his accounts in strokes, perpendicular and horizontal, chalked up on the inside of a smoke-blackened cupboard-door. One such cash-book I remember well; a full down-stroke was a penny, a half horizontal one a halfpenny, a small stroke at an angle, say of forty-five, three farthings. When the amount reached shillings it was a very circumlocutory affair. When publicans kept books on this principle the popular belief was that their chalk was cut so that it had two prongs, and for every "glass" marked two. No wonder that landowners in search of overlookers, and manufacturers in search of foremen looked over the Tweed for what they sought, and pushed their own equally fine workmen to the background. Yet nothing was commoner than for men of the wealthy classes to express very strong opinions against teaching the poor. The National School, with its "benefaction" inscribed on the white washed wall, and its catechism and enforced church attendance, was repugnant to Dissenters and to men of what was known as "free thought." The British School was of comparatively limited power every-Then there was in some towns a kind of school where. between these, the gift of some man wise enough to provide, but of course for only a small number of boys-a purely secular school. I knew one such school, small and unpretentions, the gift of a Quaker; and I know, too, that many a man who occupies a good position among men to-day owed everything to that school. It was dreadfully hard for a lad in poor circumstances to find books to read. Religious tracts-silly maudin stuff, in the main—he could have in abundance from both church and chapel. Circulating libraries gave him, at a halfpenny a volume for so many days, 'The Children of the Abbey,' 'The Brigand Chief,' and literature of the same class, and he could stand at shop windows and commit ballads to memory without any cost whatever, or "tell stories" under the dim lamp at the street corner the winter evening through. Mechanics' Institutions altered all this so far as towns of above a certain number of inhabitants were concerned, and the cheap press has forced its way now into every village; the English lad has at last a chance in the battle of life of rising from the ranks, but thirty years ago his chance was a poor one, and fifty years ago he scarcely had any chance whatever. When Mr. Forster's Bill was before the House of Commons, many persons who remembered how the hateful bickerings of churches and chapels had for generations barred out the poor from education said (and the present writer pleads guilty to being with them), "Give us education, and leave the rest to

the nation. Do not stand on trifles, and in the end we shall beat all the churches and all the squires." And we shall. It may be very wrong to feel so, but it is hardly possible at times to escape the sin of an almost wild pleasure in the fact that those little ragged sons and daughters of masons and quarrymen, of shoemakers and rope-spinners, are at last likely to be put on a fair field without favour with the sons of the upper and middle-class people, to make their way to whatever their tastes and gifts may lead them. Let this go on for a few years, and we shall see what we shall see with respect to many social and political problems which at present seem too hard to be solved. The transformation effected during the last thirty years has been marvellous. We have seen the literary institution, the free library, springing up everywhere, and crowded with men, old and young, and with a fair proportion of young women, in many cases reading the best literature, and carrying away impressions which must bear fruit, and which in no case can be other than ennobling. The next great point of all is to honestly carry out the compulsory clauses of the Edu-cation Act, and beat the churches on their own ground, as they have already been beaten in several places, and notably in Bradford. Yet I heard, not so very long ago, a gentleman, now on the fore-front of educational operations, and very recently a speaker in its defence, winning much applause by asking a meeting of electors, subsequently his constituents, such questions as, "Would you allow a policeman to enter your house and take away your child to school?" It was an outdoor meeting, never, I believe, reported, but it must be difficult for more than the present writer to avoid thinking of those altogether disgraceful questions when this gen-tleman's glowing words appear in favour of what he then condemned. In fact, Dissenters must share with the Established Church the opprobrium of stopping the way to popular education. If they could have made up their minds sooner, as they at last made them up so decisively, to say, "Then let it be secular," we should at present have been far beyond the threshold of national education. That decision helped greatly to force the action of Parliament; and if we fail now to use the measure as it may be used, if we allow priests or preachers, or any other class of persons whatever, to divert the good into evil channels, the present generation will have a poor appearance in the eyes of posterity. We must wring for the nation

the justice that no Church ever voluntarily conceded. We need not, in bringing up the educational struggle to the present year, go farther back than the reign of the first George, and even there we shall find only very frail foundations for a future fabric firm and strong. It should not be forgotten that in earlier days the different classes of society were pretty much on a level in "neither reading nor writing." Education was not the rule, but the exception. The men who led and the men who followed in the early wars in France, or in the Wars of the Roses, were far more nearly together than the men who led and the men who followed at Waterloo. The name of at least one man who would have been promoted after the Balaclava Charge, "only he was no scholar," has come before the public in connection with the recent banquet. Three or four centuries ago that would have been a very slight impediment to his success. For successive generations-let us say, from the time that printing became a power-the rich and poor drifted apart, almost without knowing it perhaps in the main, and, before they knew rightly that the gulf was growing so wide, the former were so far on in the race that the latter never were able to overtake them in ordinarily fair running. Benevolent men left money to educate poor boys, but as the foundations of the bequests increased in value, wealthy people seized them till educational endowments became one of the greatest of social mockeries. Who does not know some "foundation" for the education of so many-six or twelve perhaps-poor boys becoming the means of educating a large number of the children of the wealthy, of establishing a grand boarding "establishment," in utter disregard of the intent of the testator? The Educational Commission appointed by the late Government had as one of its members one of the shrewdest and ablest of living educational workers, the Rev. Canon Robinson, but the Commission found such a mass of corruption, and every step was contested with such malevolent purpose, that comparatively little could be done. It was not a faultless Commission, but it was more earnest about its work in some fundamental particulars than any other of the kind this generation has known, and it touched a larger number of social sores than the public has yet perceived. One of the first works of a "reformed" Parlia-ment ought to have been a complete overhauling of "foundations" educational and otherwise, but the present Parliament has little taste for any such work. It would not be a bad course of study for young men to go carefully through the various histories of England, and note the large amount of space given to educational progress in the higher branches compared with the space given to what has come to be called national education. It would not be a bad subject for debating clubs. Even our best histories (be it said

with all respect) rarely descend to the back slums. We see how the nation comported itself in policy or war, in the face of other nations; how its revenue, its commerce, its manufacture, its accumulated wealth increased. When Princes laid foundation-stones of great buildings the event was marked as memorable. But rightly looked at there was something tenfold more memorable in those projects of Robert Owen's, to give property, education, and social freedom at the same time to poor men. What really was it to workmen-what is it to the workmen now-that Oxford had this great scholar or Cambridge that, so long as the class that had been left behind in the great race was being left farther and farther behind with every new victory of the Universities? The man cutting out with cunning hand those heads which all men stop to admire on the fronts of our fine buildings, or twisting upward on sound mathematical principles his hanging stairs, or bringing to perfection his hipped roof or trussed beam, or carving on wood and stone those graceful designs which adorn and give brightness to the palace, had neither part nor lot in the Universities. The poor girl at her straw bonnets, at her ball dresses, at her shoe-tops, what had she to do with Oxford ?-what cared she that somebody's son had been senior wrangler at Cambridge? The great masses of the people had seen religious sects start up as by magic the moment the education of the poor was so much as spoken of with a view to action, and at last the poor grew sick of educational "movements," and all other work de-signated by slang phrases, and drifted into purely working-class organisations, to win fair play at all risks against capital, against religious bodies, against Parliament, and against the Crown. That, wrap it up as we may in words, is what the issue came to, and many a stout effort has been needed that the issue should not be driven home.

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The reign of the first George is marked by historians as notable chiefly for the fact that the King was a foreigner, in a sense unknown in England since William the Conqueror. He knew nothing of English parties, cared nothing for English habits, was more than willing to let affairs take their course so long as they did not touch the throne. Threatened by the Pretender, and by a state of society in England ready to take fire at the least spark, he saw without a wince his Parliament prolong its own existence for four years beyond the time for which it had been elected—that is, pass the Septennial Bill, one of the most arbitrary acts in the annals of the House of Commons. Habeas Corpus was suspended, Riot Acts were passed and put in force with the utmost rigour for the most trivial offences, for what, indeed, in many cases came before many years to be looked upon as public virtues. Commerce began to take unexampled forms of wild and reckless speculation, at the same time that political prisoners were being transported in large bodies to the plantations. There is much involved in such a fact as that one "Thomas John had 1,000% for carrying 130 of the Preston prisoners" to their doom. Another such cargo of thirty mastered the crew of the transport vessel, and carried the vessel to France and sold her there. How curious it would be to trace the descendants of those men. No fewer than 100 bubble Companies were before the country at one time, and were by proclamation declared common nuisances, and penalties of 5001. decreed against all brokers who did business in the shares. Meanwhile, press prosecutions increased apace, and printers and writers were put in the pillory, and fined in amounts which made imprisonment perpetual. Society seemed, indeed, as if about to resolve itself into chaos. Immoral clubs-that is, organisations avowedly for immorality-were established. The "Mohawks" (those upper-class rowdies and cowards who attacked and illtreated unarmed men and women), were in all their glory, torturing poor old men and calling it fun, and in all respects proving themselves brave as lions against the weak and helpless. The education of the poor made one important mark. "Charity Schools," purely voluntary, begun in the reign of Anne, were multiplied greatly, especially in London, and became during the reign of George a marked feature of social life. Little more there is to say of popular education; a great deal more of high learning. Was it not the time of Newton, of Addison, of Burnet, of Flamstead, of South (with his "immortal "sermons), of Parnell, of Prior, of Fletcher of Saltoun? Indeed, the reader will find that it was so; it was the time of great learning, and the time of the first charity schools. George II. had the rebellion of '45 on his hands, and that most disagreeable of social facts, Methodism. What did poor George know of Arminianism and Calvinism, of Wesley as against Whitfield? He knew good plum pudding, it is said; was fond of seeing soldiers on parade, shared with mistresses the affection he owed to his wife, as his predecessor had done in the sight of England and of the sun; but of Wesley-nothing! He had a glimmering that there was something fine about Wolfe dying at Quebec, and the highest compliment that can be paid Wolfe is that his gracious Sovereign had the same opinion of "the butcher of Culloden." Never, people said, in ancient or modern times was there a hero like the Duke of Cum-

berland. Hannibal had talked of Julius Cæsar, of Alexander of Scipio, then of himself, and of what his victory over Scipio would have meant. But the Duke excelled them all. So said the parasites; and so said the King. Clive won Plassey in this reign; but that was a very simple matter, no royal duke being there. There were great men, too, in all departments of thought and action. Who that has waded through the histories in the British Museum ever passed without respect the big folio of Laurence Echard ? De Foe, too, died while George lived; so did Congreve, and Gay, and Edward Halley, and Dr. Samuel Clarke, and Bolingbroke, and Bishop Berkeley, and Butler of the 'Analogy,' and Philip Doderidge, and Jonathan Swift, and Pope, and Dr. Watts, and Allan Ramsay, and Thomson of the 'Seasons,' and Fielding the father of English fiction, and I do not know who besides. It was a glorious reign certainly. Then observe, our National Debt, which was 52,092,2357. in the year 1727, became rounded off to close upon 147,000,0007. at the peace of 1762, just after the death of this second George. No one can say there was not an increase of dignity here. Look, again, at the patriotism of the poor. An agricultural labourer at the end of this reign lived (six pennyworth of "flesh" is allowed in the estimate) on about seven and fourpence halfpenny a week. The taxes on this amounted to a large part of the whole. What a grand thing that was! When Cobbett was asked by a young man "What books ought I to read?" the reply is said to have been, "Read my books, sir." People called it egotism. Well, individuality is egotism, but we should like to echo the advice, and say to every young man, "Read Cobbett." He is not yet out of date. He throws the light of genius on these reigns. So indeed does Thackeray, in all respects one of the truest men over given to England, a man never likely to have been caressed by any Court; but then Thackeray never knew as Cobbett knew the wants and woes of the poor.

Turning, then, to the subject of our paper-how stood National Education when George died? Were the poor any the better for the lives of Swift, of Newton, of Addison, and others? They must have been better indirectly, for no such men ever lived in vain, take their influence in what light we may; but the fact of their influence on the masses of the nation is not apparent. The only other really noteworthy facts I find in this reign are in the efforts of the Wesleyans. They began "night schools," in many cases free. They did more Strange to say for such a body, they taught "reading, writing, and counting," even on Sundays. John Wesley had demurred to the "devil having all the best tunes." He had sense enough also to demur to the devil having all the Sunday for sanctimoniousness. It was strange, but it was the fact. Perhaps the Methodists were really the first religious body that reduced to practice the ignoble sentiment lately expressed by Mr. Spurgeon in words very like "I judge a man's religion by what he gives "-a very bad sentiment indeed, because it involves knowing the real position of the man who is expected to "give," and that would involve a new form of confession, which tantalises and torments people who think that religion and cash accounts might be kept in thorough accord, without the minister of the former being made acquainted with the items of the latter. But whatever fault the Methodists had, they had all the spirit of John Knox for raising the poor out of the mire, and that will be their glory for all time. They form the one sound educational fact on a large organised scale in the reign of George II.

George III. began to reign in 1760, and about four years later a little fellow, very memorable in educational matters, first saw daylight in an obscure street in Portsmouth. It was a right royal birth that, though they only called the child John Pounds, and at the proper time made him a shoemaker-nay, was it not merely a cobbler? When Dr. Carey, the Baptist missionary, attained to distinction, as a wise, good, and learned man, of dining with Governors-General, he was amused one day by hearing a lady, seated directly opposite to him at a dinner at Government House, Calcutta, asking her neighbour (all unconscious of who the person opposite was) "Was not he (Dr. Carey) a shoemaker?" The old man's eyes must have twinkled as he replied, "No, madam, only a cobbler." And he was strictly right. The Baptists lately exhibited at a meeting, with noble pride, his signboard-"William Carey, Cobbler. One wonders if Portsmouth preserves the signboard of John Pounds. One wonders farther when it will erect a monument to his memory in some leading thoroughfare, as Carlisle erected one to Mr. Steel, facing Lord Lonsdale, in its main street, and as Manchester, or Salford rather, erected one to Joseph Brotherton, with a terse inscription which I bardly dare to quote from memory, but of which the purport is __ " My wealth is not in the extent of my possessions, but in the fewness of my wants." I have seen little mill lads looking up to that monument of a true hero-a simple, unaffected, brave man, such a man as Manchester loves to honour-and learning great lessons. I know little of Portsmouth Mayors generally, but I chance to know, by repute, of one of its recent Mayors, who has public

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spirit enough for a great many things, and a great deal left for many more. Could not he who has done so much, put us up (Isay "us"—all England) a statue to John Pounds? Royal George had innumerable palaces from 1760 to 1775, and on the whole was a respectable man-not by any means a vulgarly licentious man, but one who believed that the universe had a living God. But he had the palaces all the same ; and the dignity too, for the debt grew to close upon 630,000,000%, and the interest to a little more than 27,000,0001. John Pounds had a room about six yards long and two yards wide. There was his throne-his shoemaker's stool. Shoemakers have always been noted for thinking. The "Figaros" of the Continent may talk; the dis-ciples of St. Crispin think. John Pounds thought (mind, there was no free press then to help him effectually to a decision), and the result of his thoughts was that those little ragamuffins making havoc of paving stones and other things outside his palace had souls as well as bodies, and that, even if they had had no souls, the bodies were interesting, and he bought slates and books (not many books, though), and called in one after another to the shoemaker's stool. There he dictated, set sums and copy-heads, talked common sense-was a grand professor, hammering shoes all the time-cobbling. What would the eloquence of Chatham, the bitterness of Junius, the wild (but useful) license of John Wilkes, the eloquence of Burke, the trenchant reasonings of Paine, or Priestley, or Bentham, or anybody whatever, have been if there had not been underlying all the work represented by John Pounds? He died in 1839, at the ripe old age of 72, about the time that Sir De Lacy Evans was defending the British Foreign Legion which had been fighting in Spain, while Lord Ashley was busied with factory hours, and trade-unions finding their way both to influence and power, and Chartists trying and failing in insurrection. Secret Committees; the "Six Points;" Frost, Williams, and Jones ; spies, informers, mass meetings, monster petitions, were features of the two or three last years of the life of John Pounds. Meanwhile captains of fine vessels, men successful in business and otherwise, were dropping in with grateful thanks to the old shoemaker, telling him that they traced all their success to his little room six yards long and two wide. George III. had been dead say 19 years, and the first gentleman in Europe was on the throne. Napoleon had been disposed of, America lost, a few months had gone since "Peterloo," the frightful massacre-onground upon which the Manchester Free-Trade Hall now stands-of the people of one of the most thoughtful, and at the same time gentle, of English counties, had passed into history. Let anyone who doubts this view of Lancashire watch the people of Manchester botanising, going away on their "cheap trips," reading in the noble free libraries, crowding round some itinerant harmonium-player in the streets. They have faults, I know, but a gentler, kindlier people do not e sist. No one who saw would ever forget one great meeting in the Free-Trade Hall-a meeting like a sea of human faces-where, amid laughter quite contagious, the people absolutely refused to hear a word from Mr. Beales, and called for Mr. Bright. Mr. Beales did not understand them. He ought to have laughed; he "looked daggers," and his chance was gone. Mr. Bright did not laugh, but then they knew him; he was of the family of the big meeting, and when he spoke you might, to use an old and expressive phrase, have heard a pin drop. I suppose that, if the world were taken through, no more intelligent towns than Manchester, Leeds, Birmingham, Brad-ford, and Glasgow could be found; of course, I am taking instances merely. You see lads in fustian clothes who are studying hard when the day's work is over. You see employers who encourage the studies with real loyalty to the professions which so often go for nought. One could easily pick out many such men in Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, Bradford, Glasgow, Newcastle, and elsewhere; men perhaps who may not be known to future times, but who will, at all events, have done their duty in their own.

Sunday Schools began about the year 1795 (the date is approximately definite). Charity Schools, as we have seen, date from about 1798; but about the same time two much more important efforts had been made. Dr. Bell began the National School, and Joseph Lancaster the British School. Here all the efforts of the century seemed to find centres. The ideas were Robert Owen's, as was also that of the infant school scheme, set on foot as a practical fact twenty years or so later. Robert Owen failed from causes which need not here be enumerated, but he originated the entire schemes, and even proved that they con-tained the germs of a great future. Brougham, Macaulay, Mill, Lord Lansdowne, and many othey people of mark, gave their support to the new efforts. The Church of England gave its sup-port to the National Schools which would have catechisms, Dissenters supported the British School where there would be reading of the Bible but no catechism. From that time a great antagonism began, and continued. The time was important in all respects to England. Public events of the first importance were transpiring. Men destined to take a high place in history were urging popular claims which once made never again could |

be lost. Johnson, Hume, Gibbon, Goldsmith, and names too numerous to mention, belong to that time. In science, in art, in literature, the general progress was most marked. Newspapers had increased in number, in size, in influence-had come to be spoken of as "the fourth estate." In 1821 England had 136, Scotland 56, Ireland 31, with 16 London dailies, 8 bi-weeklies, and 32 weeklies. Pamphleteering had almost died out. Manufacture had absolutely leaped into a new life. Even the interest on the National Debt had increased by more than five millions sterling from 1815 to 1818 in spite of sinking The population of the great towns had increased funds. enormously in the ten years ending 1831 and, above all, so far as this article is concerned, National and British Schools were growing into a great fact, but with that sad and fearful bitterness where sects and parties were concerned which will have a strange look in history. In towns, in counties, in Parliament itself, the sects blocked the way. Individual benevolence did much, but its efforts were limited, and national education was in the hands of a sect. This educational struggle we might now deem at an end if we could only be certain that the towns, and especially the country villages, would do their duty and make the education national in fact—would wring it from "the Church," from all churches, and make it national. Surely there can be no nobler ambition than to help in this work, which will level to the ground many a partition-wall now standing between rich and poor. "Equality" must have its foundations here or The educated man and the ignorant man never can nowhere. be equal. The rich man and the poor man educated will find all that has any meaning in equality. J. R.

CORRESPONDENCE.

PLANTS AS OBJECT-STUDIES FOR CHILDREN.

Sir,-I published, three or four years ago, in the United States, a little volume intended for the simple educational purpose of training the observing powers of young children by means of plants. The so-called object-teaching had failed there, as it aroused but little mental exertion and soon degene-rated into mechanical bumdrum. It seemed to me that the end sought might be much better gained by taking plants as the objects of observation, and adopting a method by which the child should be made to work his own way. My 'First Book of Botany' was intended for this distinctive purpose, and not as a common botanical text-book. Its plan and object were clearly stated in the preface; but the method was novel, and so opposed to the routine habits of the schools that its principles required to be fully explained and defended. So in all the earlier editions I inserted an elaborate essay on the cultivation of the observing powers of children, and the value of botanical study for the purpose. The 'First Book' was reprinted in this country, and the essay, which was thought worthy of separate publication here, was kindly edited by Mr. Joseph Payne. I mention this to show that there was no reason why any fair-minded critic should misapprehend the nature of my plan. Yet these volumes were recently reviewed in the Academy, by Professor A. W. Bennett, in such a way as to give a totally false idea of the character and object of the 'First Book.' I sent a reply to the Academy, which it declined to print. If it had been a mere question of rival school-books, the Editor might have had reason for his course; but as the issue raised by Professor Bennett concerns the proper method of primary science-teaching, and is of public importance, it is needful that his mistakes should be rectified. In the interest of education, therefore, as well as in that of fair-play, I respectfully ask the insertion in your columns of the following letter denied publication by the Academy.

I am, Sir, &c.,

ELIZA A. YOUMANS.

15 New Cavendish Street, October 25, 1875.

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To the Editor of the "Academy."

Sir,—In his article on "Botanical Text-books," in your issue of October 2, Professor Bennett so grossly misrepresents my little 'First Book of Botany,' deploring its adoption in the schools of this country, and contrasting it with other works commended as models, that I ask a small portion of your space for correction. If Professor Bennett had stated, as he had the abundant means of knowing, that my volume lays no claim to the character of a regular botanical text-book, I should not now trouble you, but by suppression, this fact he represents me to your readers as having perpetrated a kind of outrage on the educational world. He describes the took as made up "of two hundred pages, extending over seventy lessons (!), full of nothing but the very driest and most wearisome details of external morphology," to be "laboriously plodded through," by "loading the memory with an enormous number of technical terms."

These statements of Professor Bennett are the reverse of the truth. He speaks repeatedly of my "seventy lessons," when there is not a single lesson in the book, either by title, or in the sense in which that term is currently used. There are seventy short "exercises," but they are, all of them, exercises of observation upon living plants. It is stated upon the title-page that the book is "designed to cultiwate the observing powers of children," and to do this their minds are to be employed in a regular way in discriminating and comparing those characters of plants that are open to observation without a glass. The plan is moreover adapted to self-education. The child must find out the characters for himself; his course of observation being a work of discovery to which the book is simply a guide. To secure the constant and direct study of plants, I adopted and simplified the schedule system, by which the pupil is compelled to observe, compare, and describe the actual features of specimens. I submit that this is not lesson-learning in the current sense of that term. The book, in fact, grew out of my strong repugnance to the prevailing school-room routine of learning and reciting lessons from books. It was shaped throughout to thwart this inveterate tendency of teachers, and only by complete perversion of its entire method can it be put to any such use.

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As for the "dry and wearisome details," Professor Bennett might as well object to the "dry and wearisome details" of a guide to a picture gallery. Turned into school "lessons," it would no doubt be dry; but used as it is intended to be, such an objection is absurd. The external characters of plants are as interesting to young children as any of their characters, and I chose them because they were suited to the purpose I had in view. There was, in fact, no alternative. The inner structures of plants and their physiology are not adapted to train the observing faculties of children when they are set to find out things for themselves.

Professor Bennett alludes to the "laborious plodding" involved in the plan of my book. I can only say that he is, clearly, not speaking from experience of it. I happen to know that it has proved to be a peculiarly pleasure-giving book. It has alleviated the monotony of school-work; and it is a book that children voluntarily take with them in their rambles and wear out in their pockets and by out-of-school use.

The book is again arraigned as "loading the memory with an enormous number of technical terms." Perhaps that is the way Professor Bennett would use it; but I have heard of only one school in which it was employed as a "speller and definer." So far from loading the memory with technical terms, this is especially guarded against by introducing these terms only when they are wanted and cannot be dispensed with. The use of words to distinguish objects and mark mental discriminations cannot very well be avoided; and Professor Bennett bears witness that accurate terms are as easily learned as loose ones. The plan I have adopted of learning terms by actual use in applying them to the things they represent, is in truth the only method that does *not* load the memory. Besides, I have urgently insisted upon slowness of acquisition, constant repetition of observations and descriptions, and the book is full of warnings against haste.

And now let us glance at the botanical teaching that Professor Bennett approves. He "cordially recommends" 'A Year in Botany,' as "introducing the study in a rational and interesting way;" and the method is described as follows:—"At the commencement of the chapters, each of which may constitute a single lesson, is given a list of specimens required for its illustration; and these are then dissected, as it were, under the eye of the student, each point of structure being carefully pointed out and explained." I deny that this is a rational method. It is the old traditional and exploded method, in which the teacher does everything and the pupil nothing. The method of "careful explanation" by the teacher is the method of instruction, the pouring in of knowledge, and not the method of leading out the faculties by self-exertion, or the acquirement of mental power by overcoming difficulties. One discovery made by persevering application is worth a hundred facts "carefully pointed out and explained " by the instructor. Something is perhaps gained where the object explained is brought under the eye of the pupil, but the essential educational process is no more reached in this way than by explaining an absent object. Mental power is not acquired except through effort, and the method that does not habitually throw the pupil back upon himself to find out his own explanations, but carefully does this for him, is now so completely discredited that I am not a little surprised to find it commended in dealing with such a subject as botany. Your reviewer speaks in high praise of Professor Gray's botanical books, and certainly they are most interesting reading. But I could wish them less conformed to the state of the schools-less adapted to be crammed like literary studies. For twenty years I have heard one uniform strain of complaint from College and highschool students that they had been put through Gray's ' Botany' without ever having looked at a plant. Is this a satisfactory educational result? There are already too many subjects that have to be taken at second-hand. To study botany in this way, with plants everywhere around us, but never noticed, seems like a burlesque upon education. Professor Bennett thinks ita "healthy sign" that our great men—the Grays, Huxleys, Roscoes, and Olivers— are taking to text-book making! Certainly, if they use their in-fluence to promote right methods, but otherwise their greatness becomes a hindrance. A man may be great in his subject, but in-capable of either making a book fit to teach it, or of intelligently ELIZA A. YOUMANS. criticising those who do. October 9, 1875.

LITERATURE.

LONGFELLOW'S MASQUE OF PANDORA.

The Masque of Pandora; and other Poems. By Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. London: Routledge.

The rank occupied by Professor Longfellow in the world of letters is hardly one to satisfy a soaring ambition, and is nevertheless very useful and honourable. He stands as it were mid-way on the slopes of Parnassus, not so high as to be beyond the sight or hearing of the multitude on the plain, nor so low as to be in any danger of being confounded with them. It is his peculiar office to mediate between the dainty and exquisite culture, the art which ever refining upon itself has too far transcended popular taste and apprehension, and seems in jeopardy of surrendering the common heritage of mankind into the hands of a limited circle, and thus degenerating into mere conventionality and affectation, and the homeliness and platitude which naturally commend themselves to the Philistine majority. The narrow circulation and restricted influence of the highest class of contemporary poetry is undoubtedly a serious evil, a sensible deduction from the amount of force available for the propagation of refined intelligence and elevated feeling. We cannot, therefore, be too grateful to a writer, who, like Professor Longfellow, actually does succeed to a very considerable degree in familiarising the popular imagination with figures of ideal loveliness; and if these, alike in conception and execution, fall far short of the designs of consummate masters, it should be remembered that ancient art found a place for cheap and domestic representations-for terra-cotta, no less than for marble, images of Deity.

Professor Longfellow's method of popularising an ideal type is excellently illustrated by the poem which gives its name to his volume, which is further interesting by the contrast it affords to a more remarkable piece on the same subject, in which culture is carried to the length of pedantry. Few of Goethe's dramas are less read than his "Pandora," and yet it is a very ex-traordinary torso of what should have been a great work. There is hardly a more spirited lyric in any language than the song of Phileros, and the lays of the smiths and shepherds are wonderfully appropriate to these personified types of human industry. But the piece is overrun with symbolism, every speech has the air of being intended to convey more meaning than human, speech was ever capable of expressing, and the writer seems; to have abandoned his work in despair of making good the promise of so pompous a preamble. Professor Longfellow's treatment of the myth, on the other hand, is perfectly natural and almost commonplace. He has simply exhibited the course of the action, according to the legend, in a series of elegant but inartificial scenes. His "Pandora" is a classical "Paradise Lost," where the gods are the tempters, Pandora at once the Eve and the apple, Epimetheus a nobler Adam, who falls without a fault, and never dreams of reproaching the cause of his misfortunes. The part of Prometheus, as was almost inevitable, appears a mere excrescence on the main action. The piece is rather lamely concluded by a song from the Eumenides, who descant on the penalty of guilt in terms more appropriate to the offence of a Clytemnestra than of a Pandora, and declare in one breath inexpiable and in the next capable of atonement. On the whole it must be said that the significance of the antique myth has not been grasped; but indeed such an achievement would surpass the power of any but a poet of the first The reader who cares more for liveliness of rank. representation than for depth of insight, will nevertheless find divine and legendary figures brought before him, if not in their Titanic proportions, yet with vividness, and outlined with an easy and confident hand. The terse conciseness of the dialogue is most exemplary in an age of verbosity; the choral songs are always appropriate to the situation, and often highly melodious. Professor Longfellow's "crane" is not a bird but a

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hook inserted in the chimney, and "The Hanging of the Crane" symbolises the institution of a new human household, too grandiloquently compared to the launch-ing of a new star into space. This want of keeping in his similes is one of the most decisive marks of Professor Longfellow's inferiority to the consummate masters of song; the want of proportion between the members of the comparison is so frequent as to become positively annoying. "The Hanging of the Crane," nevertheless, contains many felicitous lines. As a whole it would have been improved by condensation; the substance of the visions of the family future which pass before the muser's prophetic gaze might have been conveyed in a few lines. There is no want of masculine terseness in the next poem, "Morituri Salutamus," one of the author's happiest efforts, and a brilliant example of the power and flexibility of the old heroic couplet in competent hands. Under the influence of genuine feeling this most truly national of our metrical forms becomes capable of appropriate modulation, and wholly parts with that conventional see-saw which has almost occasioned its disuse, except in narrative poetry. The piece was composed for public recitation upon the fiftieth anniversary of the 1825 class of Bowdoin College, who are of course the "morituri" in presence of their youthful successors, the present generation of students just entering upon active life. After a kindly and appropriate admonition to the latter, the poet turns to his contemporaries, veils his deeper meaning, too solemn for open utterance on so public an occasion underan apologue, and concludes by enforcing the moral of Tennyson's "Ulysses," so well illustrated by his own literary activity at the age of 68, in a strain of grave and manly eloquence :-

> As the barometer foretells the storm While still the skies are clear, the weather warm, So something in us, as old age draws near, Betrays the pressure of the atmosphere. The nimble mercury, ere we are aware, Descends the elastic ladder of the air; The telltale blood in artery and vein Sinks from its higher levels in the brain; Whatever poet, orator, or sage May say of it, old age is still old age. It is the waning, not the crescent moon, The dusk of evening, not the blaze of noon : It is not strength, but weakness; not desire, But its surcease; not the fierce heat of fire, The burning and consuming element, But that of ashes and of embers spent, In which some living sparks we still discern, Enough to warm, but not enough to burn.

What then? Shall we sit idly down and say The night has come, it is no longer day? The night hath not yet come; we are not quite Cut off from labor by the failing light; Something remains for us to do or dare; Even the oldest tree some fruit may bear ; Not Œdipus Coloneus, or Greek Ode, Or tales of pilgrims that one morning rode Out of the gateway of the Tabard Inn, But other something, would we but begin ; For age is opportunity no less Than youth itself, though in another dress, And as the evening twilight fades away The sky is filled with stars, invisible by day.

Tennyson is also recalled by one of the shorter pieces in this volume, but the graceful lines on Cadenabbia, compared with the fervid and picturesque reminiscence of northern travel in the English laureate's "Daisy," serve but to illustrate the inferiority of the American's lyre alike in compass and depth of notes. All the minor pieces are pleasing, but only one attains high merit-the memorial poem on Charles Sumner-the concluding stanzas of which are a fine example of Mr. Longfellow's meditative pathos, cheered and exalted by moral enthusiasm :-

Alike are life and death, When life in death survives, And the uninterrupted breath Inspires a thousand lives.

Were a star quenched on high, For ages would its light, Still travelling downward from the sky, Shine on our mortal sight.

So when a great man dies, For years beyond our ken, The light he leaves behind him lies Upon the paths of men.

The volume is concluded by 16 sonnets, two of which at least are above mediocrity, and with sonnets there is no mean between mediocrity and excellence :---

> River, that stealest with such silent pace Around the City of the Dead, where lies A friend who bore thy name, and whom these eyes Shall see no more in his accustomed place, Linger and fold him in thy soft embrace And say good night, for now the western skies Are red with sunset, and grey mists arise Like damps that gather on a dead man's face. Good night ! good night ! as we so oft have said Beneath this roof at midnight, in the days That are no more, and shall no more return. Thou hast but taken thy lamp and gone to bed ; I stay a little longer, as one stays To cover up the embers that still burn.

THE OLD BRIDGE AT FLORENCE.

Taddeo Gaddi built me. I am old, Five centuries old. I plant my foot of stone Upon the Arno, as St. Michael's own

- Was planted on the dragon. Fold by fold Beneath me as it struggles, I behold Its glistening scales. Twice hath it overthrown
- My kindred and companions. Me alone
- It moveth not, but is by me controlled. I can remember when the Medici Were driven from Florence; longer still ago
- The final wars of Ghibelline and Guelf. Florence adorns me with her jewelry; And when I think that Michael Angelo
- Hath leaned on me, I glory in myself.

MORE "CHIPS."

Chips from a German Workshop. By F. Max Müller, M.A., &c. Vol. IV. 'Essays chiefly on the Science of Language.' With Index to Vols. III. and IV. London: Longmans, Green, and Co. 1875.

Affection for an old title must excuse the incongruity of classifying lectures delivered before the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and Strassburg, and the International Congress of Orientalists, as 'Chips.' They were presumably carefully finished and polished works. The Rede Lecture, 1875, pp. 117-144, "On Curtius' Chronology of the Indo-Germanic Languages," is a fine specimen of careful and judicious criticism. Prof. Müller argues cogently against a sevenfold distinct chronological division of Aryan linguistic history before the separation, and against the comparative lateness assigned to the origin of declension. He objects with good reason to the assignment of a distinct period to the formation of secondary roots, and with less warrant inclines to the opinion that the so-called primary root was arrived at by a process of elimination. If such roots as mark, marg, mard, mardh, expressing different kinds of crushing, became fixed side by side, it can hardly be that their origin was simultaneous; and if not, the later must be regarded as modifications (uncompounded) of the older. Now, suppose mar to have been fixed side by side with mark, &c., and to be far the oldest, the problem is to account for the meaning of mar changing from a special to a general application. Until, say, mark was originated, mar would be used metaphorically to express what mark subsequently designated, and in other special senses. As the number of cognate terms for special kinds of crushing grew, mar would still be used from habit for the undesignated kinds until it lost its special sense and was retained only as a general designation. Probably all roots have undergone some generalisation, and it is a fair hypothesis that the pro-

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Death takes us by surprise, And stays our hurrying feet ; The great design unfinished lies, Our lives are incomplete.

But in the dark unknown Perfect their circles seem, Even as a bridge's arch of stone Is rounded in the stream.

cess would go furthest with the oldest roots. The problem of primary and secondary roots has hitherto been complicated by the needless assumption that the general meaning attached to the primary was the original meaning. The process of elimination is one for which there is no evidence at all. My assumption of change of meaning is justified by the history of language. It is impossible to do justice to such a question within my limits, but the suggestion of a fresh theory may perhaps be interesting to philologists.

General readers will probably find the 'Life of Colebrooke' and the essay 'On the Migration of Fables' most to their taste. In the course of the latter it is shown to be very probable that Buddha, under the name of St. Josaphat, has been canonised both in the Eastern and Western Churches. Professor Müller's eloquence and happy knack of felicitous illustration make any of his lectures or speeches pleasant reading, but one who has so often to treat the same subjects cannot avoid repetition; and those who are familiar with his former work will pay especial attention to the notes as embodying the result of the latest research. The note on the accent of the vocative (p. 243), and the following note on Aryan words, occurring in Zend but not in Sanskrit, are very acceptable.

The note on Sanskrit grammatical forms, corresponding to so-called infinitives in Greek and Latin, is also valuable, especially the explanation of the form σ - $\theta a \iota$ by comparison with the Vedie vayodhái=vayas-dhai, the first part being a "neuter base in -as, the second a dative of the auxiliary verb dhá, used as a substantive" (p. 58). There is a want of thoroughness about three of the specimens of etymological work. After a frank withdrawal of "a *caveat* against identifying Greek β with Sanskrit J," we are told (p. 64)—"As we never have $\pi = c$, we never have $\beta = J$ if J in Zend is z."

Now the number of Zend equivalents in the cases where Greek $\beta = \text{Skt. J}$ is very small, so that if all allowed by Professor Müller exhibit g or j he is not justified in generalising from such meagre particulars. He quotes Zd. jafra to support his opinion, though it can hardly be separated from zafra which goes against it. Again, there is at least an equal chance of Zd. zya, Skt. jyá, bowstring, being connected with $\beta_{i\delta c}$, so that the new caveat must be regarded as unsound. It is just so plausible that we can admire the ingenuity with which it is advanced to cover a retreat. As to the statement that "we never have $\pi = c$," it is at once confuted by $i\pi\pi o g = Skt.$ açva, Goth. tvalif = Skt. dvádaçan (Professor Müller's context makes Gothic to the point), not to mention the probable connection of πύανος, Samian for κύανος, with Sanskrit çyáma, μάρπτω, with Sanskrit root mrie, θεοπρόπος, with Latin procus, Sanskrit praçna, Zd. pareçaiti.

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The arguments for the connection of $\theta \epsilon \delta c$ with deus, and Sanskrit dêva (pp. 239, sqq.) are unsatisfactory. The change from $\pi i Fa\lambda \eta$ to $\phi i a \lambda \eta$, $\pi i Fa \rho o c$ to $\phi i a \rho o c$, have a very remote bearing on the change of a δ to a θ . Moreover, the ε of $\theta \varepsilon \delta c$ gives a strong reason against the derivation from the root div or dya. Professor Müller says the Greek forms "would have been dor Fog or derfor or defor," and that defor is near $\theta \in For$. But we have no evidence for the form $\theta \in Foc$, while the Greek forms would have been dor Fos or dros, there being little or no analogy in Greek for a noun of such a form having the guna-ed vowel. If Professor Müller had refreshed his memory by looking at the index of his second series of Lectures, he need not have said, "I never, so far as I remember, quote $\theta \epsilon \delta \varsigma$ as identical with deus, together with the other derivatives of the root div." He unmistakably does so (pp. 454, 455). In endeavouring (p. 229, sqq.) to separate crimen from xpireur, Professor Müller forgets to prove that a word meaning accusation cannot come from a root meaning to separate. He should have proved Corssen wrong in deriving calumnia, incilare, carinare, German schelten, from the root skal or skar, closely allied to skri, before pronouncing the relationship of crimen to spive or cerno to be impossible. If we find Professor Müller's work as a linguist open to adverse criticism, still graver exceptions

must be taken to his views on the origin of language, and on the science of religion. He shows little aptitude for dealing with problems which demand philosophic breadth of view as well as knowledge of minutiæ, and allows his preconceptions and prejudices to interfere seriously with scientific method. Though few men have been more effective opponents of ecclesiasticism than Professor Müller, he is equally hostile to materialism, and seems inclined to say to the tide of free thought, which he has undoubtedly helped to raise, "thus far shalt thou go and no further." In the volume before us he reiterates the fallacy that "the fathers of the Aryan race looked up in adoration to the sky as an emblem of what they yearned for-a father and a God." This is certainly an "inverted fugue." The real process was no doubt that the visible sky, in common with all other objects of sense, was conceived of as a conscious being; then the self of the sky was separated from the visible sky, and invested with human form, so that the sky came to be merely the abode and no longer the manifestation of the anthropomorphic being; and, lastly, the connection with the sky being forgotten or ignored, this being was either degraded by mythological accretions or exalted into an infinite godhead. The same spirit which prompts the perversion of the results of comparative mythology, which has been noticed, leads Professor Müller to attempt an interpretation of the evidence of language in a sense opposed to "Darwinism."

Professor Whitney, whose supremacy in the philosophy of language has been indicated in these columns, was last year quoted by Mr. Darwin, junior, as sup-porting his father. Whereupon Professor Müller porting his father. published in the *Contemporary Review* of last January, under the title of "My Reply to Mr. Darwin," a very angry and feeble attack on Professor Whitney. Not-withstanding the assertion (p. 461), "I never try to erush my adversaries by deputy," Professor Müller actually condescended to bespatter his American rival with second-hand abuse uttered by Steinthal, and to hurl the weight of Professor Carrière's authority at his head. Professor Müller's admirers generally regretted the publication of this paper, and they will be shoeked at its republication after an interval for reflection. The only new article in the book, "In Self-Defence," is another wild desultory attack on Professor Whitney, provoked by his answer to the former ebullition. Professor Müller's time, and that of his readers, would have been better occupied by a careful temperate review of Professor Whitney's excellent little book on 'The Nature and Origin of Language.' The best way of venting one's righteous indignation at Professor Müller's offence against good taste will be to give quotations from " My Reply to Mr. Darwin : "-

We see to-day that the lowest of savages—men whose language is said to be no better than the clucking of hens, or the twittering of birds, and who have been declared in many respects lower even than animals, possess this one specific characteristic, that if you take one of their babies, and bring it up in England, it will learn to speak as well as any English baby, while no amount of education will elicit any attempts at language from the highest animals, whether bipeds or quadrupeds. That disposition cannot have been formed by definite nervous structures, congenitally framed, for we are told by the best Agriologists that both father and mother clucked like hens. This fact, therefore, unless disproved by experiment, remains, whatever the explanation may be.

This is very weak. The savage baby inherited the disposition to use articulate or semi-articulate signs, together with articulating organs. The superior development of those organs needed for speaking English could be acquired by practice and education, as easily as any individual can develop the nerves and muscles of his legs or hands in a manner, and to an extent, that signally distinguishes him from his kindred and fellows.

Let us suppose, then, that myriads of years ago there was, out of myriads of animal beings, one, and one only, which made that step which in the end led to language, while the whole rest of the creation remained behind; what would follow? That one being then, like the savage baby now, must have possessed something of his own—a germ very imperfect, it may be, yet found nowhere else, and that germ, that capacity, that disposition—call it what you like—is, and always will remain the specific difference of himself and all his descendants. It makes no difference whether we say it came of itself, or it was due to environment, or it was the gift of a Being in whom we live and move. All these are but different expressions for the Unknown. If that germ of the Logos had to pass through thousands of forms, from the Protogenes to Adam, before it was fit to fulfil its purpose, what is that to us? It was there *potentiâ* from the beginning; it manifested itself where it was in the paulo-post-future man; it never manifested itself where it was not, in any of the creatures which were animals from the beginning, and remained so to the end.

Here we have the tacit assumption that what is potential must invariably become actual. Moreover, the germ which may be a "capacity"...."due to environment"...."was there potentia from the beginning." Obviously, germ is used in two different senses. Prof. Müller's argument breaks down utterly unless it is propped up by maintaining, in the face of facts, that the environment of all individual living organisms is identically the same and absolutely unchanging. Prof. Müller is open to conviction. He has given up Dingdongism, and is beginning to feel doubtful as to the necessarily monosyllabic form of all roots (p. 128). It is to be hoped that he will adopt broader and sounder views on the ultimate problems of the Sciences of Language and Religion.

C. A. M. FENNELL.

DEMONIALITY.

- De la Démonialité, et des Animaux Incubes et Succubes. Par le R. P. L. M. Sinistrari d'Ameno. Ouvrage inédit, publié d'après le manuscrit original et traduit du Latin par Isidore Liseux. Paris : Liseux. London : Williams and Norgate.
- La Conférence entre Luther et le Diable au sujet de la Messe. Traduction nouvelle en regard du texte Latin par Isidore Liseux. Paris: Liseux.

Few hunters after old books upon old bookstalls can promise themselves the good fortune of M. Isidore Liseux, who, in 1872, picked up, "chez M. Allen, respectable vieillard établi dans l'Euston Road," the MS., written under the author's inspection, of Father Ludovico Maria Sinistrari's suppressed and hitherto unknown treatise, 'De Dæmonialitate, et Incubis et Succubis.' Of the suppression of the treatise we shall speak anon; meanwhile it seems needful before all things to enlighten the reader respecting the precise nature of "demoniality." It denotes neither more nor less than illicit intercourse with an incubus or a succubus, i.e. a male or female imp. The offence, being wholly imaginary, was consistently esteemed by the Church as exceedingly grievous, and the original object of Father Sinistrari's investigations was to determine its relative enormity in comparison with other sexual aberrations. To follow him through his ingenious reasonings on this topic would tend more to amusement than edification. We shall therefore leave his arguments and conclusions as we find them, and confine our attention to the hypothesis which, after mature investigation, he was led to promulgate respecting the nature of the incubi and succubæ themselves. It is not a little startling to find these comprehended by him under the definition of angels. Father Sinistrari, however, bids us remark that his theory should not be rashly rejected, inasmuch as it affords the long-desiderated means of reconciling the otherwise contradictory decisions of two councils. The Second Council of Nice has distinctly pronounced angels to be corporeal and material; the Lateran Council has no less clearly defined them as immaterial and spiritual. Hence a perplexity and a scandal conveniently obviated by supposing the propositions of the councils to have been designed to apply to two different descriptions of angelic beings. Father Sinistrari next judiciously observes that the designation of angel, referring to a function and not to the nature of the individual discharging it, may with propriety be bestowed upon the devils or fallen angels themselves, much more upon mere incubi and succubæ. He next proceeds to undertake the rehabilitation of these latter calumniated personages, and to prove that, though hitherto erroneously classed with fiends, they constitute a distinct and highly respectable order of creation,

bearing a strong affinity to the elemental spirits of the Rosicrucians. An ounce of fact being worth a pound of theory, the Father clenches the matter by an accurate report of two remarkable cases, the first occurring in the spiritual practice of a friend, the latter in his own. A nun, long molested by the visits of a certain spirit, received relief from the prescription of an erudite theologian, who, observing the patient to be of a phlegmatic constitution, sagaciously inferred that the demon's temperament must be cold and watery as well. He therefore exhibited fumigations and amulets of ginger, musk, benzoin, and similar calorific substances, which had the effect of so thoroughly disgusting the spirit with the object of his affections that he entirely renounced her acquaintance. Instructed, as he supposed, by this occurrence, Father Sinistrari himself, when called on to prescribe for a young deacon similarly afflicted, administered brandy and scented snuff, which the patient absorbed, nothing loth. It soon appeared, however, that the Father had made an enormous mistake, for the spirit appreciated the brandy and snuff as highly as the deacon himself, and actually had the impudence to assume the semblance of his victim, and thus disguised, present himself before the ecclesiastical authorities to claim the rations of the latter. Upon this hint Father Sinistrari changed his tactics, locked up the stimulants, and dosed his patient "with herbs of a frigid nature, such as hepatica, cuphorbia, mandragora, and hyoscyamus," until the discomfited demon took himself off, or rather, as sceptics may suggest, the deacon thought proper to get well.

The material constitution of the goblins being thus experimentally demonstrated, a series of the most interesting inquiries naturally suggest themselves. In what respect do they differ from mankind? How did they come into existence? What is their shape? Are there distinctions of sex among them? Are they subject to decay and death? Father Sinistrari opines that they are born and die, are male and female, are endowed with human perceptions and passions, and receive nourishment like mankind, only from finer and more subtle diet, more particularly the smell of roast meat. For the rest, he sees no reason why they may not associate in societies, acknowledge degrees of rank and precedence, build cities, raise armies, hold public offices, and cultivate the sciences and arts. If the Father had confined himself to this description of speculation, he might probably have escaped ecclesiastical censure; but he goes further, and in his zeal for the spiritual welfare of his incubuses, moots such ticklish questions as whether they have souls to be saved, and, if so, whether they are capable of redemption. He is inclined to resolve these problems in the affirmative, pointing out the extreme probability of their original progenitor having sinned, in which case his descendants must be afflicted with original sin of course, and reminding the incredulous that the prayers of St. Anthony were requested by a satyr, a circumstance attested by two saints. On the whole, Father Sinistrari raises so many awkward questions, and his well-intentioned prolusion wears so much of the appearance of a burlesque upon orthodoxy, that it is no wonder that only about five pages of this discussion, 'De Dæmonialitate' should have been allowed to find their way into his more comprehensive treatise, "De Delictis et Pœnis," of which it was to have formed a part. Even this work, published at Venice in 1700, was placed in the Index Expurgatorius in 1709, and remained there until the appearance of a corrected edition at Rome in 1754. M. Liseux does not tell us in what respects these editions vary. We are exceedingly indebted to him for the recovery and preservation of Father Sinistrari's speculations, which would have little significance if merely an instance of individual aberration, but which are in fact a perfectly legitimate development from the Church's premisses regarding things invisible, and an example of the stage at which the European mind would have arrived if educated solely under the influence of the scholastic philosophy, without the antidotes of classical scholarship and experimental science.

Father Sinistrari was by no means an obscure person in his own day; he enjoyed general esteem, and filled many important offices. Born in 1622, he was for fifteen years Professor of Theology at Pavia, and subsequently became Vicar-General of the dioeese of Avignon, and theologian to the Archbishop of Milan, was attached to the tribunal of the Inquisition, and compiled a criminal code for the Franciscan Order, to which he himself belonged. He died in 1701.

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To Father Sinistrari's treatise may be added a more celebrated curiosity of diabolical literature, for the republication of which we are also indebted to M. Liseux. The ardent imagination of Luther, it is well known, led him to translate his spiritual conflicts into the language of material symbolism, and sometimes he did not accurately distinguish between the symbol and the reality. It is doubtful whether he may not have actually believed himself to have unsuccessfully defended the doetrine of the Mass against the fiend in the days of his orthodoxy; if this was not so, the disputation at least presented itself to his mind as an effective allegory, and he did not perceive that he was exposing himself to the reproach of having derived his arguments from the Devil. The weapon thus incautiously offered to opponents was grasped in the next century by the Abbé de Cordemoy, who republished Luther's dialogue with a commentary to prove that the Reformer, on his own showing, forsook the Church at the instigation of Satan. The point is a perfectly fair one, and though neither Luther's nor the Abbé's jeu d'esprit is likely to have much influence on opinion in our day, each is well worth preserving as a literary curiosity. M. Liseux has translated Luther's text into French, and the Abbé has involuntarily evineed his sense of the speciousness of the Devil's arguments by accompanying them with brief controversial notes.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL SYSTEM.

The Free School System of the United States. By Francis Adams, Secretary of the National Education League. London : Chapman and Hall.

As Mr. Adams's book stands, it is a most earefully compiled, thoroughly well-considered, and distinctly arranged work, and admirably suited to fulfil its purpose of laying before English readers, at a time when our minds are pre-eminently occupied with educational problems, the results of the experience of America in the direction in which we are tending. But the first section of it might have been still more attractive and effective, without any detriment to its value, if Mr. Adams, instead of giving his information in an exhaustive and formal manner, had devoted himself to giving elear answers to a few prominent questions which could not be answered without laying bare the heart of the subject. In describing the relations of the State and the Federation to the schools, Mr. Adams might have begun by telling straight off and almost categorieally, without any roundabout reference to general principles, how the American States have contrived to reconcile or compromise between the principles of local self-government and State control in educational matters. Ameriean localities are even more jealous of State interference than we are here in England, and it is of the greatest interest to know whether their universal provisions for education have been got by compulsion, and how far the State interferes in the management of the schools. Answers to these questions are to be had in Mr. Adams's book, but the hurried reader, and every reader is hurried in these days from the amount he has to get through, would be grateful if he could get at the answers with less trouble. This applies, however, as we shall see, only to the first section of the book, and even there Mr. Adams's arrangement, if it is not always lucid, is always eareful and distinct, and errs perhaps from striving too serupulously after technical formality of division.

districts to provide sufficient school accommodation. The difficulty has an origin that is very honourable to the American people; districts have very rarely required any compulsion to build schools. As a rule the excellence of the school is a subject of local pride. To such an extent is this earried that we had to review, the other week, a traveller who considered it his duty to reprove the City of Omaha for extravagance in its school expenditure. Mr. Adams has found only one State in which the provision of school accommodation is not compulsory. In Maryland, "the law puts it in the power of the citizens of every country to have a good school in every district; it gives them advice, encouragement, and substantial aid, but it does not use compulsion." In Massachusetts, also, the State would not seem to be over-peremptory; according to Bishop Fraser, "the law is imperative, but the penalty attached to failure to comply with it might be difficult of inflietion." The case of Pennsylvania, however, proves that eompulsion has been resorted to when found necessary in that State, previous to 1868, twenty-four districts had refused or neglected to provide public schools, and were reduced to obedience by "energetic measures." Concerning the extent to which States interfere in school management, Mr. Adams's information is not sufficiently definite. Of late the States have found it judicious to centralise more than was done at first by making provision for close inspection, and by establishing a central bureau of education. The value of this amount of centralisation, not merely in keeping teachers up to their duty, but also in bringing into comparison different methods, spreading information on the subject of teaching, and preventing the repetition of fruitless experiments and persistence in erroneous ways, is incalculable. We also of late years have discovered the importance of central inspection. But in what particulars of school management the State interferes Mr. Adams does not tell us, if he has been able to ascertain, with sufficient preciseness. "A School Board in England," he says, "may not build a school, "A School select a site, or prescribe the amount of a school fee, without the sanction of the Education Department." And he says that "the simple principle of the American school laws is that the people can be trusted to attend to their own business." But when we remember the amount of inspection that is practised we are inclined to think that this last sentence is too strongly expressed. And when we read the following account of the respective duties of State and local municipality we are puzzled to know in what respect the educational department in an American State is less powerful than the corresponding department at home :-

The State arranges the school system, and designates the various kinds of schools to be supported and managed by the public autho-rities, and sometimes prescribes more or less of the branches of knowledge to be taught; provides how districts may be created, divided, or consolidated with others, and how moneys may be raised by or for them; prescribes their organisation, officers and their by or for them; prescribes their organisation, oncers and their powers, and the time and manner of filling and vacating offices, and the functions of each officer; prescribes the school age and con-ditions of attendance, and provides, in some cases, for the invest-ment and application of the school funds derived from the General Government. The local municipalities organise school districts under State laws, elect school officers, and levy and collect taxes for school purposes. The local school officers examine, appoint, and fix the salaries of teachers, when not otherwise done, build school-houses, procure school supplies, arrange courses of study, prescribe

Mr. Adams has evidently found it difficult to make out how far States have assumed the right to compel the rules and regulations for the government of the schools, and administer the schools.

The real safeguard against central encroachment is to have central authority as well as local subject to public control. The National Education League has promised to publish eases in which our Education Department has abused its powers in the regulation of sites and fees. We have no doubt that the Leagne will make good its charge, but that does not prove that there is no advantage in this central supervision and co-operation ; it furnishes a reason for overthrowing the department at next election.

When we pass out of the abstract portion of Mr. Adams's book we find ourselves on more solid ground.

From State reports and other sources Mr. Adams has brought together on the questions of Free Schools, Compulsory Attendance, and the Religious Difficulty, a mass of luminously arranged facts which form a powerful support to the views advocated by the National Education League, and cannot be neglected by anyone who believes that we can receive guidance from abroad in the solution of our educational problems. The bearing of the results of American experience in those matters is in the same direction in which we are being carried at home. The Free School is an old institution in the New England States; it is now more than 200 years since the Massachusetts legislature en-joined upon its municipal anthorities "the duty of seeing that every child within their respective boundaries should be educated," and the municipal authorities all over the New England States soon adopted the free system as that best suited to their circumstances. The free system, however, by no means passes unchallenged in America. The same objections that are heard here when the subject is mooted are frequently heard there; notably the argument that eleemosynary education, like all other charity, must degrade the recipients, and this is an example of how the argument is met. The State Superintendent for Virginia, one of the States where the free system has but lately been introduced, maintains that free education is education for the public good-

Education by the people, of the people, for the people. In other words, it is education by the public for the public good; and this education is free as well as public. It does not mean charitable by free. To say that a community, in providing a benefit for itself, is doing an act of charity is a solecism. A public school is no more a provision of charity than a town pump. It is free as the public hydrant is free, or a street lamp is free. It is free to the individual, and to all individuals alike. The cost is borne by the community, like the cost of water, street lights, public roads, bridges, and such like public conveniences, all of which are free. Nobody stultifies himself by calling a free bridge a charity.

Whether we should do away altogether with the portion of our educational income which is at present raised by school fees, about one-fourth part of the whole, is a question which will doubtless be more closely discussed when education is made universally compulsory. Elementary education is already in two-thirds provided for out of public rates and taxes, and the degradation involved in making the whole a public matter will not be shrunk from when it appears otherwise advisable. It is a prevalent notion here that the free system in America is supported by lands set aside for the purpose when new territory is laid out. This is partly the case, but Mr. Adams shows that the whole school expenditure of America is very far from being dependent on this source; in most States, on the contrary, it is but a small fraction of the total school revenue, the greater part coming from local and general taxation, which is cheerfully borne by the taxpayer.

The Americans have found that the provision of free schools is not a complete solution of the educational problem; there still remains for them as for us the difficulty of getting the children into the schools. There, as here, parents, chiefly immigrants, show themselves insensible to the value of education, and alive to the profit of juvenile labour. On the point of attendance, Mr. Adams's statistics are as elaborate and complete as on other points. Indeed, compulsion has failed in the United States for the reason that has led to its failure at home; there is no proper machinery for seeing that the law is obeyed. To direct compulsion considerable opposition has been offered; it has been called "the wedge of despotism," and has been de-nounced as being "opposed to the genius of American institutions." Still, it has been tried in certain States, and the results have been satisfactory. The Truant officers, which every town in Massachusetts is obliged to appoint, have succeeded in keeping the streets clear of idle children, and it remains only for the State to take some means of enforcing the law more rigorously against the employers of juvenile labour. In Connecticut all children between eight and fourteen are required to receive not less than three months' schooling,

and the results have been very much the same as in Massachusetts. The following is the report of the State supervisor:—

I know from observation that boys cannot be found in the streets of New Haven in school hours; even the lads who were accus-tomed to wait at the depôt to "shine your boots" are missing. They have gone to school. Possibly children who have not attended school as the law requires are employed in factories, stores, or shops in New Haven; but in the largest manufacturing establishment which we visited in the city, no boys under fourteen years of age were found who had not certificates that they had attended school three months during the year. In Hartford the truant law is faithfully enforced by two officers detailed for that purpose. In New London the police, under direction of the school visitors, take charge of all boys at play or loitering in the streets in school hours, and in that city the laws relating to attendance at school are well enforced. The school visitors of the town of Windsor Locks have appointed one of their number to attend to the enforcing of these laws, and I was informed that this duty is faithfully discharged. and with good effect. Other places where the requirements of the law are systematically obeyed or enforced might be named, but these are sufficient to show that no part of the law need be considered a dead letter.

In some States the law simply addresses itself to parents and employers of labour, and leaves its enforcement to amateur detectives. Every taxpayer is expected to be a school-board officer. The consequence is that the law is virtually a dead letter. In nearly all States where our compulsory laws do not exist, there is a growing demand for compulsion.

The "religious difficulty" in the United States has not yet assumed the same bitter intensity as here, but it exists. Mr. Adams states the custom of the various States in regard to religious instruction. In most of them the custom prevails of reading the Bible without note or comment, but the custom is not universal, and its propriety is frequently challenged. The following defence of the morality of public schools may be commended to the Bishop of Lincoln :—

I have yet to learn that the pupils of private schools in which special moral and religious instruction is given are, on the whole, possessed of purer morals than those who rely upon the free common schools for their only instruction. I speak of this subject because I know that there are many Americans who decry our public school system, because they say it confines the pupil's development to his intellect, and leaves uncultivated that more important part of his nature upon which his value as a citizen and as a man depends, even more than it does upon his intellectual qualities. They say ours is a godless system ; that it increases the power to do evil by stimulating and invigorating one set of faculties while it fails to give tone and vigour to another set, whose action and power become even more necessary to the educated than the uneducated man. I deny the existence of the fact. I claim that in general our public schools are not second, as agencies of moral influence, to any other in use outside of the family and the Church; and I aver that the exceptions go not to prove the defects of the system, but the want of faithfulness on the part of those who have the appointment of teachers and the general supervision of the schools.

Mr. Adams deserves thanks for thus projecting the experience of America in a compact form into the arena of educational dispute. We may not derive much direct good from it; we shall probably work out the educational problem in our own way, and refuse, as is our manner, to be guided by any foreign light, whether it comes in the shape of precept or of example. But it marshals us the way that we are going of our own accord, and therefore it may be more useful than advice generally is. Mr. Adams has at least the satisfaction of having accomplished a very thorough and opportune piece of

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work.

WILD HYACINTH.

Wild Hyacinth. By Mrs. Randolph, Author of 'Gentianella, &c. London: Hurst and Blackett. 1875.

The author of this novel has a predilection for floricultural titles, and we wish we could say that more of the sweetness which pertains to the natural flowers pervaded her romances. With regard to most novels, it is an easy matter to decide whether they are good or bad, but in respect to Mrs. Randolph's we are generally left in that exasperating suspense indicated by the phrase, "halting between two opinions." Her books are by no means devoid of talent, but they are overlaid, as a

rule, with an immense quantity of irrelevant matter. The present story is a case in point; almost one-third of it is occupied with useless disquisitions upon the rights of women and their claim to the suffrage, and the subject is dealt with in the most flippant manner. In fact, if these passages were to be detached from the book, and issued as a pamphlet, we will venture to affirm that a great deal of amusement might be gained even by the most illiterate reader. There are those who think, when arguing upon the "woman question," that prejudice is argument, or that at any rate it is a very good substitute for it; and it is this lamentable error which has prevented the question from being considered in its noblest and broadest view by numbers of our countrymen and countrywomen. It is not a cheerful sign in any writer, when views which are held by some of the most enlightened and intellectual of her sex can only be combated by ridicule.

We do not know but that we should have pronounced this an excellent novel but for the useless discussion of topics which are best left to the impassioned orator or the dispassionate essayist. When such discussions are made the staple of the food offered by any fiction, a crowning sin has been committed; for it is not the novelist's art to attain skill in polemics, but to exhibit human nature. In proportion as the author falls away from the skilful reproduction of the latter and verges into the controversialist, precisely in that proportion does he or she lose her claim to our regard and recognition. We make these observations in no hostile spirit to Mrs. Randolph; but beg of her, if she desires to be convinced of their truth, to turn to the real masters of her art, and note the adroitness and unobtrusiveness with which controversial topics are treated when it is deemed necessary to discuss them in the pages of a novel.

'Wild Hyacinth' introduces us to Sir Loudoun Ettrick, widower, of Ettrick Hall, and his daughters Christian and Hyacinth. As usual, one of the daughters is ugly, and the other handsome; as usual, the former is drawn as prim, austere, and very hard, and the latter as handsome exceedingly; and, as usual, to the former fall all the good things of this life, and to the latter bitter trials and disappointments. To this extent we meet with the usual stereotyped characters. Christian, the elder daughter, is intended for Lindsay, her cousin (who shall keep up the family name and estates), but she declares she will never be the slave of any man, and Lindsay, who is disgusted with her ideas, falls head over ears in love with the sister Hyacinth. Meanwhile the latter is wooed by a Mr. Lambert, of Stanham, a broken-down gentleman, for whom she does not care, but to whom she makes a half promise that when he comes back from America, in a year's time, she may have something to say to him. Lindsay's mother is a calculating and very objectionable woman of the world, urging his engagement to the heiress of Sir Loudoun in order to get himself rehabilitated in society and his debts paid. The best episode in this extremely insipid young man's life is when he refuses to make love to Christian, and proposes to Hyacinth instead. Maternal rage follows, but it calms down when Mrs. Ettrick learns that her son will receive 100,000l. with the younger daughter. This Lindsay is one of the most contemptible of men to make a hero of, and yet we supose there is no other in the book. Having won the affections of Hyacinth he marries her, and leaves her a short period to her own devices, while he discovers an old flame in a Mrs. Marsfield, at whose beck and call he immediately places himself. Sir Loudoun dies, and Lindsay becomes Sir Lindsay Ettrick. He treats his wife with cruel neglect, and endeavours to stifle her natural affection for her sister. His continual absence from his wife leaves her to the attentions of other men, and though she keeps herself perfectly chaste and immaculate, this loathsome semi-imbecile is ready to believe any malignant stories told against her reputation. Her old lover returns and presses her to elope with him, but she refuses. This does not, however, prevent her husband from believing that all is not right,

though his own conduct with Mrs. Marsfield has been much more scandalous. At last he sends her to his sister, and leaves her there in order to be able to pursue his own course unmolested. He goes abroad, and when he is seized with scarlet fever Mrs. Marsfield flies from him. His injured wife, however, fulfils the lines of Scott upon woman, and returns to his side. The attack of scarlet fever operates upon Sir Lindsay in the same sense as the efforts of Mr. Moody, the Evangelist, operate upon other natures-it effects his regeneration, and he and Lady Ettrick live together happily ever after. The second current of the story is taken up with the fortunes of Christian, who, having imbibed many erroneous doctrines, is at length released from their bondage, and becomes the wife of one Mr. Courtray, an artist, who has taken the leading share in her enlightenment.

Such is the skeleton of this novel. Whether it was worth while clothing we leave our readers to decide. As we have already said, it is not without talent, and will certainly wile away an hour for those who have no sterner duties to perform. Mrs. Randolph is capable of better things than her last story, and we should be glad to welcome their appearance. G. B. S.

THE HUMAN RACE.

The Human Race. By Louis Figuier. Newly Edited and Revised by R. Wilson. With 242 Illustrations. London: Cassell, Petter, and Galpin.

Few foreign writers on popular science are better known by name in this country than M. Figuier. This is no doubt partly due to the numerous directions from which he has attracted readers; for in him the lovers of plants, insects, sea animals, reptiles, and birds have all found a guide and instructor, who if not always strictly accurate is never prosy, and who neither wearies nor humiliates by making any overstrained display of learning. In this respect he is consistent with his own that "to make science palatable to French theory, readers "---for whom, it must be remembered, he writes-"the edge of the cup must be coated with honey, and the preceptor must clearly comprehend what dose of the sweetened beverage he may administer, so as not to overtax the powers or passing humour of his patient." Englishmen do not, perhaps, as a rule, care to have any large amount of adventitious sweets mixed with their draughts of learning, but for the numerous class who take up the pursuit of one or more branches of natural science as means of relaxation from professional or other hard routine work, a little honey is not to be disdained, and with them a bright and original writer like M. Figuier is sure of finding favour. His various histories of organic life have from time to time been brought before the English public under the titles of 'The Ocean World,' 'The Vegetable World,' and 'The Insect World,' and these, together with the fanciful volume, entitled 'The World Before the Deluge,' after having passed through several editions, have now been followed by the 'History of the Human Race,' which, from the nature of the subject and its more ambitious aim of settling opinions in regard to many of the profoundest questions of physiology and anthropology, may be

accepted as the crowning point of the entire series. In this work the author has given the solids before the sweets, and has condensed all the learning of the entire volume in an introduction, consisting of less than forty pages. Having passed through this initiatory course of instruction-on man's first appearance on earth, his place in nature, the relative arguments which favour the monogenistic or polygenistic hypothesis of the origin of man, the theories of human evolution most favoured in the present day, and the general physiological, mental, and moral character of mankind-we are transported directly into the midst of the European branch of the human race. Here man makes his first appearance before us, as he is represented by the Scandinavian members of the Teutonic family in Iceland. Then after being carried round and over the world,

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amongst men of all colours, we are brought at the close of the volume to the Antipodes, and dismissed on the site of the vanished "groves of death," which, if we are to believe the report of travellers, savage Australians of a bygone age had selected for burial-places through an appreciative reverence for what was beautiful—a sense of which they appear to have given no other proof in their lives.

In a moderately-sized volume, comprising such extensive fields of observation, we cannot expect any great profundity or special information of much value, but we have to thank the author for the industry and care with which he has collected his materials from trustworthy authorities, chiefly French, as might be expected. In regard to some generally little known peoples—as the Yakuts, and other tribes of Siberia and Central Asia we meet with many interesting and novel particulars, for which we are indebted to the narratives of various Russian travellers and officials.

It cannot be denied, however, that the omission of the dates of the voyages, from whose reports copious extracts are made, materially detracts from the value of the information derived from them, and leads in some instances, as in the account of the Polynesians and the Malays generally, to great misconception in regard to the present condition of the people and the countries described.

The illustrations, of which we are informed there are as many as 242, are so prominent a feature of the volume, and are evidently intended to conduce so largely to its success, that we cannot let them pass without comment. We wish we could say anything in their favour, but, in the absence of any such possibility, we can only express a hope that the natives of the savage countries depicted here have been more faithfully represented than the men and women of lands nearer home which are better known to us. Anything more absurd than some of the illustrations given of civilised Europeans it would be difficult to find. We hardly know which nation has the most cause for complaint. Spain certainly is not flattered by the artist, who has selected vulgar uncouth female figures, in ungainly poses, to illustrate Spanish habits, by dancing the fandango and bolero before spectators who look like felons. The modern Frenchman is shown to us like a swaggering slovenly scarecrow, on which a pile of misfitting regimental garments have been loosely thrown; and, if we were to accept this as a faithful image of a soldier of France, we should not share the wonder which, according to M. Figuier, the Germans still entertain as to "how they could have gained the victory in 1870." The palm for absurdity and bad taste is due, however, to the picture illustrating the English people, in which a Druid in the background, sickle in hand, is looking with an air of rigid austerity on a mounted warrior with naked arms and legs and steel-covered breast, who is talking to two brawny-limbed soldiers armed with battleaxes, spears, and shields! How such a composition, entitled "Druid, Gaul and Frank," could be supposed to illustrate the somewhat diffuse characterisation of modern English men and women given in the text, we must leave to the author and publishers to explain. But we think in fairness to the public, who are expected to purchase the work for instruction as well as entertainment, that in future editions a large number of the illustrations, which now so flagrantly offend against good

man first appeared in the quaternary period, and this. according to his view, "was anterior to the geological phenomenon of the deluge, and previous to the glacial period, which preceded this great terrestrial cataclysm." M. Figuier accepts the unity of the human race and its origin in, and subsequent migrations from, Central Asia, as incontrovertible facts, but he honestly admits the difficulties which beset the solution of these and similar questions; and while he is always courteous in dissent. he has been careful, as far as his space permitted, to give his readers some idea of the opposite views held by the great leaders of modern science. Thus we meet with a fair recognition of the merits of Darwin, Huxley, Haeckel, and Vogt, although it is obvious that it required an effort on the part of the polite Frenchman to abstain from being sarcastic, when he referred to the theory advanced by the last-named naturalist, on the triple ape-origin of mankind. He, however, simply records that this savant believes "the quadrumana of the new world to have been the progenitors of the various tribes of red-skinned men in America, the Mongolian races to have been derived from the ourang, and the African peoples from the chimpanzee and the gorilla."

We have thus far assumed that M. Figuier is responsible for the merits and defects of the work which appears under the title of 'The Human Race.' But it must be admitted that certain remarks in the preface, which is signed by the editor and reviser, leave it a matter of doubt what amount of praise or blame is due to the French author. Mr. Wilson, in his prefatory notice, expresses himself in the following terms :--

It is to be regretted that so charming a writer as M. Louis Figuier should be often somewhat inaccurate in statements, especially in treating of scientific subjects. In none of his works are his failings and foibles more pronounced than in the one now offered to the public. . . . Some passages had to be written anew. . . . M. Figuier's opinions have been retained as far as possible, but where necessary the work has been harmonised with the accepted results of modern scientific generalisation and research.

And, lastly, Mr. Wilson informs us that the author's "opinions and statements have often been allowed to stand unaltered, even when doubtful." This announcement strikes us as eminently injudicious, and alike unfair to author and reader. If M. Figuier's work was unworthy of credit his name ought hardly to have been used to give circulation to a book in which we have apparently to credit him alone for the doubtful statements which it contains, and which have been left intact out of deference to him by the translator. Would not Mr. Wilson have done better had he dispensed with the probable popularity to be derived from the name of Figuier, and given us an original work on the Human Race? We should at any rate then have known who was to be accounted responsible for the statements which it set forth.

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taste, ought to be cancelled, and replaced by others more appropriate to the subjects which they are designed to represent.

For the guidance of those who desire to know the tendency of the views advanced in the work in regard to the much-vexed questions of man's nature, mode of development and affinities, it may be stated, generally, that M. Figuier is not an adherent of the evolution theory as applied to the human race. In his opinion "it can be shown that man is not derived by a process of organic transformation from any animal, and that he includes the ape not more than the whale among his ancestry." And furthermore he looks upon "man as the product of a special creation." He believes that

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MUSIC.

CHERUBINI.

The performance of Cherubini's Les Deux Journées, by Mr. Rosa's company is an event of more than ordinary importance. The neglect with which the works of that great master are treated at our Italian operas in London is but too characteristic of the tone of those fashionable institutions, equally discreditable to managers and audiences. It was, indeed, a sad sight to see the obtuse indifference with which the performance of the above-named work was received at Drury Lane some time ago; sad, but by no means unaccountable, for an audience cloyed with the vulgar effects of modern operal could hardly be expected to appreciate the simple grandeur of pure dramatic art. It is with the greater satisfaction that we record the brilliant success of Cherubini's music on the present occasion, and special commendation is due to Mr. Rosa, who has evidently solved the problem of combining popular success with artistic purpose and dignity.

The opportunity of speaking about one of Cherubini's works is of sufficiently rare occurrence to excuse a few general remarks as to the composer's position in the history of his art.

Considering the date of Cherubini's birth, one is astonished at the almost total absence in his works of anything obsolete both as regards style and substance. Yet he was Mozart's junior by only four years, and his operas were applauded at Florence and Leghorn when Idomenes was a novelty, and before Don Giovanni or Figaro were in existence. Like Mozart, Cherubini was a youth of astounding precocity, and like him he had a prehistoric period in which he wrote a number of Italian operas, now justly and totally forgotten. One of these, *Julio Sabino*, was first produced in London, and "murdered" by the critics, as a contemporary writer emphatically putsit. The great period of Cherubini's creativeness began when he settled in Paris, at the beginning of the Great Revolution. He may be cited as one of the most striking instances of that power of amalgamation inherent in the French type of national culture; Meyerbeer, Spontini, and to some extent Gluck, sub-mitted to the same spell. With the last-mentioned master Cherubini shows that grand declamatory pathos, that classic dignity, which characterises the Augustan age of French tragedy. A work like Cherubini's Medea is imbued with elevation of sentiment which in Corneille's greatest works makes us forget the stilted affectation of his heroes and heroines. But Cherubini was fortunate enough to see more modern and more natural developments of French genius. Nature prolonged his life beyond the ordinary limits, and at the same time granted him the undiminished use of his creative faculty to the last. At an age when most artists begin to rest on their laurels he entered a new field of creative labourthat of sacred music, and having witnessed and partly celebrated numberless revolutions in his adopted country, the more than septuagenarian retained sufficient vigour of mind to produce one of his most charming operas when Louis Philippe was king in France. It is a sign not only of Cherubini's versatility of powers, but also of his thorough entering into the French spirit, that he was able to combine with tragic pathos the grace and true gaieté de cœur which have made the comic opera of France so deservedly famous amongst civilised nations.

with Auber and Boieldieu. The last-mentioned composer owed his musical training to Cherubini, who, as far as workmanship is concerned, by far surpasses all his rivals. His reputation as a composer of comic opera is chiefly founded on Les Deux Journées, or, as the present English version is called, The Water-Carrier. It was written about the beginning of the present century, and the great and lasting success it has met with both in France and Germany is not a little due to the excellence of the libretto. The story is of great interest quite independently of the additional charm of music. Count Armard, a liberal member of the Paris Parliament, is flying from the wrath of Cardinal Mazarin, and saved by the noble efforts of a Savoyard water-carrier. The faithful wife of the Count-perhaps the prototype of Beethoven's Fidelio-accompanies her husband in disguise. The hairbreadth escapes of the Count, who is ultimately conveyed through a crowd of soldiers in the barrel of the water-carrier, are both exciting and amusing, and must have come home vividly to the Paris audience, but too familiar with domiciliary visits and similar incidents from the time of the Reign of Terror. The centre figure of the piece is Micheli, the water-carrier, who with self-sacrificing heroism combines an imperturbable spirit of good humour. The interest of the piece, both musically and dramatically, culminates in the finale of the second act, for male voices, beautifully constructed and full of vigour and melodious breadth. There is a considerable falling off in the third and last act, which, having the charming pastoral introductions, offers few opportunities for musical expressions. All through the opera these opportunities are by no means abundant, and the action is to a great extent carried on in spoken dialogue. All the greater cught to be our admiration for Cherubini's genius, who has succeeded in delineating with a few graphic touches the import of his characters and situations. It is surprising to see how the master accustomed to the accents of highest dramatic pathos has here adapted his creative power to the narrower limits of the comic opera. The peasant chorus in the third act, the Savoyard's song, and Micheli's couplets, are excellent specimens of their genre, equal in melodious beauty and grace to anything that French composers have produced in these forms of art.

The performance last Wednesday was upon the whole satisfactory. Mr. Santley, as Micheli the water-carrier, was in excellent voice, and his acting was by far superior to any of his former efforts in that direction. The genial humour of the honest Savoyard was rendered in the happiest manner, and altogether the impersonation of the character could not but satisfy the most fastidious lover of art. Mdlle. Ostava Torriani's (the Countess) voice showed to great advantage in the trio and finale of the first act, but she has much to learn as an actress, and in the spoken dialogue her foreign accent is much against her. Mr. Nordblom, the Count, left much to be desired. He wants fire and expression, and his movements are singularly ungraceful. Mr. C. Lyall spoiled the effect of his charming song in the first act by faulty intonation. Miss Rose Hersee deserves commendation for undertaking the subordinate part of Marcellina, which she rendered with grace and spirit. The chorus was excellent throughout, the soldier's song at the opening of the second act being given with excellent effect. The conducting of Mr. Carl Rosa was, as usual, careful and energetic, but his tempi were not always to our liking.

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