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The Eighth Annual Report of the Educational Institute of Otago.

1884-85.

OFFICERS OF THE INSTITUTE:

President. W. Milne, Esq., M.A.

Vice Presidents. W. Darley, Esq. (Oamaru) W. Duncan, Esq. (Green Island) James McNeue, Esq. (Stirling)

Secretary. Mr. D. White, M.A.

Treasurer. Mr. W. J. Moore.

Librarian. Mr. J. R. Wilkinson, M.A.

Representatives of Branch Associations. Dunedin Mr. R. S. Gardner. Oamaru Mr. D. A. McNicoll. Balclutha Mr.

A. Grigor. Lawrence Mr. W. MacAndrew. Milton Mr. James Reid.

Representatives of Institute on the Committee Management. Dr. W. MacDonald Mr. A. Stewart Mr. J. B. Park

Mr. W. S. Fitzgerald

Report of the Educational Institute of Otago

1884-85

THE Committee of Management have much pleasure in laying before Members the Eighth Annual Report of the Institute. The various recommendations and proposals adopted at the Annual Meeting and submitted to the Committee have been fully considered.

Outside this business nothing of importance has been under consideration during the year. The Committee have to report on the resolutions concerning

The New Zealand Educational Institute.

Messrs. W. S. Fitzgerald, W. Milne, J. Reid, and D. White were nominated to attend the Auckland Council. Mr. J. Reid was, unfortunately unable to attend, and Mr. Hislop was elected to take his place. All the Otago delegates were present, and report that the Auckland meeting was very successful. The resolutions sent by the Otago District Institute were carried, and have since been forwarded to the Hon. the Minister for Education, who states that they are receiving careful consideration. The resolutions with respect to Teachers' Certificates have been before the Senate of the New Zealand University, but final consideration of the subject has been deferred until next meeting of the Senate. A full account of the proceedings of the Institute Meeting at Auckland will be laid before the Annual Meeting.

Resolution Respecting Teachers on the Goldfields.

The resolutions asking for a special allowance to Teachers on the Goldfields was sent to the Education Board, and the Committee were informed that the Board could not see its way to make any alterations in the present system of payment.

Time of Teachers' Examinations.

At the suggestion of the Institute, the Education Department has arranged that the Annual Examination for Classes D and E be held towards the middle or end of December, instead of in the month of February as heretofore.

The Instruction of Pupil Teachers.

The resolutions bearing on this subject were sent to the local Associations, and their replies will be found in the reports of the Branch Institutes.

Illustrative Teaching.

The Committee made inquiry of the head masters of the City schools as to the assistance they could give in carrying out the recommendation of the Institute. None of them were disposed to keep their schools open during the Conference week, and thus, so far as the large schools were concerned, the scheme was found to be impracticable. The Committee thought, however, that keeping the Model School open whilst the Institute is sitting would probably meet the case, and give country teachers an opportunity of seeing the organization and

working of the School. With this view application was made to the Secretary of the Education Board, who states that under present circumstances it would be inexpedient to keep the School open during the time mentioned. No other course being open to the Committee, the idea of giving practical effect to the resolution had to be abandoned.

Branch Reports.

The Branch Reports show, on the whole, an increase of Membership The Tapanui Branch has ceased to exist, and a few Teachers in that District have attached themselves to the Institute without being connected with any Branch.

Roll of Membership.

In accordance with the resolution of the last year, a list of Members has been prepared, and will be laid before the Annual Meeting. This does not by any means include all who are in connection with the Institute, but represents those only who have paid their subscriptions up to date.

The Treasurer reports a balance of £20 10s.

Educational Institute of Otago.

Balance Sheet for Year 1884-85.

Receipts. 1884.£ S.d.June 16.—To Balance14610July 1., Tapanui Branch for year ending June, 18840176, Members unconnected with any Branch ...100, Proceeds of Conversazione81661885.May 7.—To Tapanui Branch for year ending 18850100May 13. To Milton Branch for year ending 18852100May 30. To Lawrence Branch for year ending 18852100June 8. To Balclutha Branch for year ending 18852100June 13. To Dunedin Branch for year ending 1885II150June 13 To Oamaru Branch for year ending 18850120£457 10
1884.Expenditure.£s.d.June 21.—By Coulls, Culling & Co.. printing 250 circulars0140July 5.—ByMorning Herald Advertising0120 July 5—ByStar Herald Advertising 090 July 5—ByOtago Daily Times Advertising 0150 July 5—ByRent Stuart-st Hall, 3 days0150 July 5—ByScoullar & Co., Rent of chairs ...z00 July 5—ByIncidental Expenses Rent of Hall, Rattray-st.0176 July 19—By 4100Aug. 2—ByCoulls, Culling & Co., printing Reports, &c.590 Aug. 2—ByHorsburgh's Account Stamps ...226 Aug. 2—BySecretary, stationery, stamps, &c.1310 1885. June—By 14. Horsburgh, stamps, Sec. 2159 June 14.—BySecretary, stamps, &c.0143 June 15—ByPayment to the Council of the N.Z. Institute for three Representatives for year 1883-4, at 1 os. Payment to the Council for three Representatives for year 1884-5, at 10s. ...1100 June 15—By 1100 June 15—ByBalance20100£45710

Rules and Regulations.

The Rules and Regulations of the Institute have been revised and are printed along with the general report.

Minutes of Proceedings.

The Committee did not consider it advisable to print the minutes of proceedings as directed by the Institute, as most of the business transacted at the Annual Meeting usually re-appears in the Report of the succeeding year.

The Annual Meeting.

The Railway arrangements are as hitherto. Members in attendance at the Conference will receive tickets, and on these being presented at the Education Office, half of the travelling fares will be refunded. The Committee of Management have to thank Mr. Pryde for his kindness in assisting to make the meeting of the Institute a success.

D. White, *Secretary*

W. J. Moore, *Treasurer.*

Annual Report of the Tuapeka Branch.

Office-Bearers, 1884-85.

PRESIDENT : MR. W. MACANDREW.

SECRETARY AND TREASURER : MR. R. NEILL.

In submitting this our Annual Report for the year ending May, 1885, I have but little of interest to communicate.

Owing to the many changes which have taken place in this district during the year, we are not able to show a large financial membership. Last year I returned eleven members, but this year I can return only ten, as three or four have left.

We have held seven meetings during the year just ended, at which, in addition to interesting conversations on matters pertaining to our profession, we had able papers on "The Present Position," by Mr. Macandrew; and "Order and Attention." by Mr. Allnutt.

We also had a discussion on the massing of Pupil-teachers for purposes of instruction, and resolved "that while recognising the utility of massing Pupil-teachers for instruction, it is not at all practicable in country districts such as this."

Robert Neill, *Secretary*.

Annual Report of the Balclutha Branch.

Office-Bearers, 1884-5.

PRESIDENT : MR. J. G. CLOSS.

SECRETARY AND TREASURER: MR. W. RENTON.

This Branch has held six meetings during the year, but on account of several changes of teachers taking place in the district, and also the fact that some of the schools have their holidays at Christmas, while others have theirs during the Harvest, the attendance has been interfered with, although on the whole it has been very fair.

The number of papers read during the year has been less than previously, there being only one, by Mr John Nicholson, on "Are the Requirements of the Syllabus Excessive, and Calculated to Overstrain the Mental Faculties of Children?" Suggestions from the General Committee of Management of the Otago Educational Institute, and various subjects of educational importance have, however, been discussed at our meetings.

Three members have left the district during the year, but as two have only recently gone, their successors have hardly had an opportunity of attending.

William Renton, *Secretary*.

Annual Report of the Milton Branch.

Office-Bearers, 1884-5.

PRESIDENT : MR. J. L. BONNIN.

SECRETARY AND TREASURER : MR W. MCELREA.

President : Mr. J. L. Bonn in. Secretary and Treasurer : Mr W. McElrea.

I have the honour to submit the following report of the Milton Branch for the year ending May, 1885 :—

Four meetings were held during the year, and were fairly attended.

Mr. Mahoney was appointed to read a paper in August. His subject was "Fifth and Sixth Standard Work." The attendance at this meeting being small, it was decided to have the paper published in the *Educational and Literary Monthly*. In October a discussion was held on the Pupil-teacher system; and in April, "Are there Inducements to Cramming Offered by the New Zealand System of Education?" was the subject of a paper by Mr. McElrea. At the last meeting Mr. J. E Brown read an essay, his subject being "The Old System of Education Compared with the New."

The following resolution was passed, with reference to the Pupil-teacher system:—"That this Branch considers the massing of Pupil-teachers for instruction worthy of a fair trial in centres where they can be massed."

The Annual Picnic was held in February at Balclutha, the Teachers of that district having invited our Branch to a trip round the Island. The weather was splendid, and the Picnic proved a complete success.

The Branch has now ten financial members.

W. MCELREA, *Secretary*.

Annual Report of the Waitaki Branch.

Office-Bearers, 1884-85.

PRESIDENT : MRS. MCLYMONT.

SECRETARY : MR. W. DARLEY.

TREASURER : MR. R. PEATTIE, M.A.

During the past year this Branch has met eleven times. On the whole the attendance has been satisfactory, although the hour for meeting, which has been changed from 1 p.m. to 1.30 p.m., does not seem so suitable as was at first expected.

Only one paper has been read during the year, but at each occasion of meeting subjects of more or less importance from a professional point of view, have been fully discussed.

Two papers were contributed by members of the Branch to the midwinter meeting of the parent Institute, one by Mrs. McLymont, President of the Branch, the other by Mr. Tyndall.

A picnic was held by the Branch at Elderslie, by the kind permission of Mr. Reid, which was much enjoyed by those who were present.

WM. PARLEY, *Secretary*.

Annual Report of the Dunedin Branch.

Office-Bearers, 1884-5.

PRESIDENT : MR. J. R. WILKINSON, M.A.

SECRETARY : MR. JAMES JEFFERY.

TREASURER : MR. W. HISLOP, B.A.

During the past year eight meetings have been held—two being evening meetings. Six meetings were taken up in considering the Pupil-teacher Regulations, Massing of Pupil-teachers for Instruction, and the Rules and Regulations forming the Constitution of the N. Z. Educational Institute. At the March meeting, a discussion took place on the work of the six standards, and it was proved by the Educational Reports that no Province had been able to overtake the work in six years. The Branch came to the conclusion that it is desirable to re-arrange the work for seven standards.

The following members have given papers or introduced, discussions during the year:—Messrs. Wilkinson (President), Fitzgerald, Earle, and A. Barrett.

Mr. Wilkinson had promised to read a paper at the Annual Meeting on behalf of the Branch, but has since had imperative orders from his medical adviser to abstain from all mental work.

There has been a slight increase of membership during the past year. Appended are the names of those who have handed in their subscriptions. Many others would doubtless have paid had they the same opportunities.

J. Jeffery, *Secretary*.

Rules & Regulations of the Educational Institute of Otago.

I.—Constitution of the Institute.

The Institute shall consist of teachers in the Government schools. Other persons may be admitted to membership in accordance with the provisions of Rule VI.

II.—Officers of the Institute.

The officers of the Institute shall consist of a President, three Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, and a Librarian who shall be elected at the annual meeting of the Institute, and shall hold office for one year. Vacancies shall be filled by the Committee of Management. All elections shall be determined by ballot.

III.—The Committee of Management.

The Committee of Management shall consist of (1) the officers, a representative of each of the Branch Associations, and five members chosen at the annual meeting of the Institute. (2) The Committee shall conduct the business of the Institute, and shall prepare and submit to the annual meeting a report of the proceedings, and abstract of accounts for the year. These shall be printed and circulated amongst members at least one week before the annual meeting. (3) The Committee shall meet quarterly, in the months of February, May, August, and November. Special meetings may be called by the Secretary. Six members shall form a quorum.

IV.—The Annual Meeting.

The annual meeting shall be held at such time and place as the Institute shall determine.

V.—Terms and Conditions of Members.

(1) Candidates for membership, not being teachers, must be nominated by two members, either at a regular meeting of any local association or annual meeting of the Institute, on receiving a vote by ballot of at least two-thirds of the members present. (2) Members shall not be permitted to exercise the privilege of membership until they have paid the annual subscription. (3) Members shall pay to the Treasurer of their Branch, or in the case of those not attached to any Branch, to the Treasurer of the Institute, the sum of 5s. per annum.

VI.—The Library.

The library shall be under the control of the Committee of Management.

VII.—Branch Associations.

Branch Associations shall be formed throughout the Education District. The following are the Branches of the Institute :—Dunedin, Oamaru, Milton, Balclutha, Lawrence, and Tapanui. (1) The Committee of Management may sanction the establishment of other Branches. (2) Officers of Branch Associations—The officers of Branch Associations shall consist of a President, a Secretary, Treasurer, and Librarian. (3) Meetings—Branch Associations shall meet monthly on the first Saturday of the month; hold their annual meetings one month before the annual meeting of the Institute, and prepare and send to the Secretary of the Institute their annual report and abstract of accounts. (4) The annual subscription of 5s. per annum per member paid to the Branch Association shall be remitted to the Treasurer of the Institute. (5) Branch Associations may, in order to defray local expenses, impose an additional subscription beyond the amount payable to the Treasurer of the Institute.

VIII.—Relation of Branch Associations to the Institute.

(1) Members of the Institute shall be regarded as belonging to the Branch in the District where they reside, and shall pay the annual subscription to the Treasurer of that Branch, but a teacher residing at an inconvenient distance from a Branch centre may become a member of the Institute on payment of the annual subscription to the Treasurer of the Institute. (2) A member of one Branch Association may attend and take part in, but shall not necessarily have the privilege of voting at the meetings of another Association.

IX.—Conduct and Order of Business.

All debates and proceedings of meetings of the Institute and its Branches shall be conducted according to the rules and regulations usually recognised by deliberative bodies.

X.—Additional Bye-Laws.

Branch Associations may adopt other bye-laws for the conduct of business, provided they contain nothing contrary to the general rules of the Institute.

Overpressure in Education an Inevitable Consequence of Payment by Results:

A Protest and a Warning to Parents.

By Alfred J. Taylor,

Librarian Tasmanian Public Library, and Honorary and Corresponding Member of the Howard Association,

London.

Mr. Girling, at a recent meeting of the Executive of the National Union of Elementary Teachers, referred to the case of a child who had then just died of brain-fever, whose continual cry in his last delirium was "I can't get it right! I can't get it right!"

Hobart Printed At "The Mercury" Office, Macquarie Street. 1885.

Overpressure in Education an Inevitable Consequence of Payment by Results.

As the whole question of education will be dealt with by the Government during next session of Parliament, and as it is whispered in more than one quarter that an attempt will be made to introduce the system known as payment by results, I desire, as one deeply interested in the welfare of the rising generation, to protest against any interference with our Education Act, which would be calculated to lead to over-pressure in education. As to whether the claims now being made for separate grants and separate denominational schools should be entertained I do not wish to express an opinion. In the remarks which follow I intend to deal only with the one question of overpressure, which I regard as being an inevitable consequence of any system which necessarily makes a portion of the teacher's income dependent upon the number of scholars he can bring up to any fixed standard of education.

When Mr. Robert Lowe, who has been described as "the first great apostle of the modern educational movement" in the home country propounded his scheme, he based it upon a principle best described in his own words, viz., "Once place a man's ear within the ring of pounds, shillings and pence, and his conduct can be counted on with the greatest nicety." In an article written for the *Nineteenth Century* he publicly expressed the opinion that when the money-motive comes in men's "deviations from a line of conduct which can be seen and predicted, are so slight that they may practically be considered as non-existent." That he correctly gauged human nature in this matter is, I think, sufficiently shown by an official letter of the National Union of Elementary Teachers to the Education department (November, 1883), which states that "the teachers are of opinion that so long as high grants can be obtained by over-pressure, and in many cases in no other way, so long as human nature remains what it is, managers will demand, and teachers will be compelled to obtain, high grants." As an illustration of how a system based upon such a principle induces "cram," the following may be given as an example :—(I take it from a thoughtful article, written by Mr. Richard A. Armstrong, which appeared in the *Model's Review* for April, 1883):—"Mr. _____, head master of St. _____ School, felt very dissatisfied with the results of his arithmetical teaching, although his school passed very creditable examinations. The whole work seemed to him too mechanical, and consequently little helpful in developing the intelligence of his scholars. He changed his methods. He taught next on first principles. He was delighted to see the ingenuity shown by the children in inventing processes. The answers certainly were not always correct, but that was owing to mechanical drill having given place to rational methods, which might be a little less reliable for answers, but which were more fruitful of thought-life. The well-known book of Sonnenschein and Nesbitt was his *vade mecum*. The examination came round at last. If the 'intelligence' of his school should be now tested he was sanguine. But intelligence could not be tested by a dumb card with one or two arithmetical puzzles on it. The 'results' of the examination were bad. The grant was poor. Next year Mr. L_____ turned Sonnenschein out, and returned to the old and profitable plan, getting a good grant for his reward."

"Under the stimulus of this system of 'payment by results'" writes Mr. Armstrong "the average teacher has, for the past 20 years, been pressing his scholars for more and more remunerative response to his instruction. The motive appealed to by Mr. Lowe has been successfully brought into full and constant play, till in the minds of many it has outdone all others. Exceptionally able and ambitious teachers have driven their schools even harder than their neighbours, and have obtained results from which golden grants have flowed in."

In a speech delivered last year Canon Daniel, of the Battersea Training College, said "the ultimate causes of over-pressure are to be mainly sought for in the abuse of the principle of payment by results; a very good principle so long as we are dealing with results embodied in brute matter, but a most dangerous principle when indiscriminately applied to results produced in living children for the benefit of others than children themselves. Pay a brickmaker for his tale of bricks, and you will not do much harm; bricks have no organisations, physical or mental to ignore. Pay a body of managers or a teacher for a tale of passes, and there is a risk that in the process some of the children operated upon may suffer irreparable injury in body and mind."

Attempts have been made to show that the over-pressure argument has been grossly exaggerated, and that the charges of overstrain in education under the working of the payment by results system cannot be sustained. I ask those who hold these views to consider the facts which I am now about to place before them.

The system known as payment by results first came into force at home under the Vice-Presidentship of Mr. Lowe in 1862, since which year two alterations have been made in the code with a view to reducing the temptation to over cramming. This in itself affords a very strong argument in support of the position which I am now contending for—that the working of the system has been attended with evil results.

Quite recently Dr. Chrichton Browne, a medical gentleman, who achieved much reputation as superintendent of one of the largest lunatic asylums in the home country, and who afterwards held the position of Chief Lord Chancellor's visitor to Lunatic Asylums, was asked to speak at Bradford upon the question I am now discussing. Dr. Browne was unable to attend, but wrote a letter which contained the statement that he "would have been glad to have joined in the protest against the grinding tyranny of education with which we are now threatened." He also said in that letter, "It seems to me that it is high time for a declaration of rights on behalf of helpless children, and on behalf of future generations also, whom, if we are not careful, we shall load with a burden more grievous than the National debt; a burden of disintegration and disease." Shortly after this letter appeared in print Mr. Mundella, the vice-president of the Education department in London, had an interview with Dr. Browne and requested him to visit some of the elementary schools, and report as to the effect of the work done in them upon the health of the children. Dr. Browne in terms of the request forwarded a report of his labours to the vice-president of the council, and some attempt appears to have been made to bury it in the waste-paper basket for the obvious reason that it was not in conformity with Mr. Mundella's views. But the Parliament of England called for the production and publication of the document, and, of course, the call had to be complied with. Mr. Mundella then instructed Mr. Fitch, the principal inspector, to prepare a criticism of Dr. Browne's report. Such an order could only mean one thing, and Mr. Fitch dealt adversely with the report in a document anything but courteous in its tone. Dr. Browne wrote his answer through the columns of *The Times*, and referring to this controversy the *Westminster Review* of January last writes (and this is the point which I wish to make clear)—"We cannot but admit that, on the whole, Dr. Chrichton Browne's observations go to establish the fact that there is overpressure in the elementary schools in London, and we cannot see that Mr. Fitch's unhandsome, and in some respects (as appears from Dr. Chrichton Browne's letter in *The Times* of the 18th September), misleading criticism has done anything to shake the substance of these observations. That over-pressure of the backward and nervous and stupid children is productive of much nervous disease, that headaches and sleeplessness and somnambulism and shortsightedness are more or less caused by the overwork to which these children are subjected, seems to be made out past the paltry cavil of the chief inspector, that Dr. Browne only examined 6,000 children, while there are some 4,000,000 children in elementary schools, and that Dr. Browne's method of enquiry was not scientific." I have only room for one quotation from Dr. Browne's report, "The schoolmasters of to-day," he writes, "have an uneasy time of it owing to payment by results. To all moderate men it will seem that the system of payment by results, that is to say by proximate or partial results, must be very cautiously applied, and surrounded by many safeguards if it is not to prove injurious to the masters and children. Every child that the teacher fails to pass is so much money out of pocket. It is unfortunately possible under the present system that the teacher who deserves best of his country might receive least from it, while he who is most damaging it might be most richly rewarded. It is possible that a cruel tyrant, who is ruthlessly overdriving teams of miserable children, and sowing broadcast the seeds of disease, might receive the merit grant, to be classed 'excellent,' while a humane and wise master, who is gently leading his flock along the path of progress, infusing strength and happiness into many lives, might be damned with faint praise, and cut down as regards his emoluments to the lowest point." Commenting further upon the report the *Westminster Review* writes:—"Now let us say at once, to sum up, that Dr. Chrichton Browne has proved what no one with any knowledge of human nature and red-tape system as bearing upon it could for an instant have doubted. There must with a hard and-fast system be overpressure. You must when you have standards have them for the average child. These standards must necessarily be too easy for the clever children and too severe for the stupid ones. If you have to get all the flock in at a door in a certain time, those which run fast require no herding, those that are lame must be hurried. This we say ought to have been obvious. What Dr. Browne has done is not only to show that that is the case, but to some extent to point out the results of the over-pressure. The most startling result, which he brings under the notice of the public, is the curious prevalence of headaches amongst children. He found that out of 6,580 children examined, 3,034 suffered from headaches, or a percentage of 46 1." I ask my readers to take this statement in connection with the statistics relating to Scotland, which I quote further on. "It must be remembered," continues the writer of the article I am now quoting, "that Dr. Chrichton Browne is not alone in the views which he has advocated or illustrated in his report. A large number of medical men have come to the conclusion that schoolwork in elementary schools is causing disease in the children who are subject to this strain. ... It is sometimes said, in answer to these complaints, that there are very few cases on record where overwork has resulted in the actual breakdown of the pupils. That may be true, but to anyone who has any knowledge of the subject, it is obvious that you may be producing a vast amount of mental and nervous disease amongst children without causing many deaths."

Speaking of the dangers of overwork in schools, as a consequence of the payment by result system, before the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science, Dr. Alexander Keiller said, "There are (and I know the best of them are of these opinions in this matter) 'commissioners of lunacy,' whose duty it is to see that facts are ascertained, and wisely and prudently met in regard to those who are brought under their special commissional scrutiny. The said commissioners in lunacy, and lunatic asylum superintendents, are entirely with us in the views now expressed; they do not hesitate to report against the maddening influence of undue educational efforts, especially in regard to the transmission of hereditarily acquired or more immediately aroused mental disturbance. It is indeed not too much to say of this educational disturber of required mental repose, that it is the crying evil of the age."

Mr. Brodie, an inspector of schools, defends the test by percentages of passes. "They attest," he says, "when high, to at least much solid hard work, dogged labour, and persistent every-day drudgery! "Alas for the children, when the system of education now in vogue can be defended upoa such grounds. What does such teaching amount to? Mr. Barrington-Ward gives his experience as follows :—"Too many elementary teachers, men and women alike, still fancy that it is sufficient to aim at mere mechanical excellence, to the exclusion of the development of those rational faculties which raise man to his noble rank above the brute creation. With some teachers whom I could name a parrot or a monkey would almost form as apt a pupil as his present charges."

Mr. Alderson, one of the best of inspectors, complains that he finds in too many of the schools "reading which does not expand the mind; grammar which does not leaven speech and writing; arithmetic, which does not form a habit of exact thinking; geography which does not interest the imagination; literature that does not improve the taste; physiology that has no bearing on the simple laws of health; domestic economy that does not contribute to the comfort of homes."

How far can the charge of over-pressure as a consequence of payment by results be supported by an appeal to statistics?

In a debate on the present education code, which took place in the House of Commons on 13th April last, Sir I. Playfair said, "In Scotland, where national education had been much longer established, and was of a higher kind than in England, and where there was also much more pressure, who ever heard of over-pressure?"

Well, let us take the statistics relating to Scotland, and what do we find? At one of the recent annual meetings of the Scotch Educational Institute Dr. Robert Beveridge, physician to the Aberdeen Royal Infirmary, gave statistics of the increase of deaths from diseases of the brain among children of school age in eight of the towns of Scotland for the years 1872—81, when the Education Act was in force, compared with the years 1859—68. The comparison gives the following results:—

Mr. R. A. Armstrong has pointed out that as these figures cover about a third of the population of Scotland, and compare whole decades, they are on a scale large enough to exclude casual sources of fallacy. He also calls attention to the fact that the significancy of the figures above quoted is more apparent when converted into the following form :—

The returns of the Registrar-General, from which Dr. Beveridge takes his figures for the periods named, show that the chief disease of the brain or nervous system among persons between 5 and 20 to be cephalitis, or inflammation of the brain proper. Thus, out of 969 who died of brain diseases between the age 0—5, 350 died of cephalitis—(of the balance 453 died of convulsions). Out of 267 who died of brain diseases between the ages of 5—20, 110 died of cephalitis.

The figures I have quoted speak for themselves, bat it may be as well to see how far the evidence they afford as bearing upon the question of over-pressure in education is borne out by a reference to individual cases, which may be taken as typical of others of the same class.

Dr. Alexander Keiller, in the address above referred to, mentioned a case in which he was earnestly requested by their parents to visit at their school two young ladies about 14 years of age, who had been for some time suffering from sleeplessness and loss of appetite. He had no difficulty in deciding that they were suffering from over-pressure. "In the evening of the same day," he said, "I met a well-known teacher whose very large experience of education lei to his being selected to fill one of the best educational appointments going, and I could not help asking him the question 'Are you not un-usually busy at this time of the year, and ii it not proving too much of a good thing to work on so very hard, as I suspect you and your staff are now doing? . . . The answer I got was in these unequivocal words, 4 Unusually busy. We are all at it now, working at killing pace; the examinations and prize competitions are right ahead, and there is now no rest for us until all is over.

Mr. R. A. Armstrong, whose name I have mentioned more than once, made it his business to acquaint himself by correspondence or conversation with the experience of a large number of head teachers of wide experience, and of these 75 per cent, reported that they themselves, or members of their staff, had suffered from the pressure of Code requirements. "Some of the statements which have reached me," writes Mr. Armstrong, "deserve a more special reference. The headmaster of a brilliantly successful school in Liverpool writes to me

that, though he is enthusiastically fond of his work he is, at 39, prematurely grey, and has undergone a surgical operation for a disease brought on by overwork. . . He adds that the master of a neighbouring school died of disease of the heart at the age of 42, brought on, in the words of his physician, 'by the worries and anxieties of school work.' 'Only those,' says the head master of one of the largest board schools in the East of London, 'who know the anxiety of the teacher for a few weeks before the inspection can fully enter into the strain upon the mind, the excessive nervousness, and even sometimes irritability caused by the desire to do well on inspection day.' The teacher of a church school in a thriving midland town tells me—'two years ago I had to exercise the greatest care, or the doctor said the mind would collapse.' The late headmaster of Lower Mosely-street schools, Manchester mentions two teachers of his acquaintance, both of whom were paralysed, and says that they always attributed their breakdown to the harassing and unyielding conditions of the code regulations, combined perhaps with the constant inhalation of vitiated air. My medical adviser, says a Bristol teacher, has distinctly warned me of the result of this pressure, going so far as to assert that, if not stopped, I should materially shorten my days. A friend of my own whose school stands foremost in its town has been at the pains to place in my hands a statement which derives great weight from his long and wide experience. In the course of a review of the effects of the system on the physique of teachers he says the nervous power of the digestive organs fail first generally. Head affections prevail. Paralysis, apoplexy, dementia supervene. Were it possible to get at the vital statistics of the great body of certificated teachers during the last 25 years, a sad history would be revealed. I judge of the mass from my actual knowledge of seven teachers whom I knew best during my college life. Of the seven only two survive, and these have had since passing their fortieth year very severe and protracted illnesses. Their lives are no longer such as a careful insurance office would accept at ordinary rates.' A few days since a successful mistress told me of one after another of her successful pupil teachers who had found their way to the asylum or otherwise utterly collapsed. She herself suffers acutely from chronic nervous strain, and describes how at night, not sleeping, but awake, she will enter into some explanation to her pupil teacher to find after many minutes that there is no pupil teacher there, and that it is the walls of her chamber not those of the schoolroom that surround her. An accomplished headmistress in Suffolk reports :—'After the honest work of nine months, and the overstrain of the three in which the examination falls, I often feel as if I had been put upon the rack—bruised and sore in body as well as mind. About five years ago I had a complete breakdown, when I became very deaf, and my memory seemed suddenly to have failed me. A long rest restored the hearing, but the memory has never regained the old power. . . . When I go to bed there is still the array of children to torment me in my sleep.'"

Many such experiences as those above mentioned might be quoted, but I will merely add as regards teachers that, according to the *Schoolmaster*, the mortality among school teachers amounts to 2 per cent, per annum, as against $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, among police and sailors.

With regard to the effects of over-pressure on children, Mr. Armstrong says, "The most common symptoms of the injurious consequence is the talking of lessons in sleep, to which a chorus of inspectors, teachers, and parents bear united witness. 'Dozens of instances,' says Mr. Quayle, of Liverpool, head master of St. Thomas' and St. Matthew's, 'of complaints from parents concerning their children :—loss of appetite, talking in sleep, languor, nervous state, indifference to childish sports, etc. No robustness or energy.' Mr. John Steedman, of Nottingham, says that, in his former school, where much hard work was done continuously, and where the population was settled, the regular boys were very small.' 'The children would be better,' writes a mistress, 'both in body and mind, if their school life was happier; the strain of the code prevents this.' 'The children's health is placed, unfortunately,' writes a master, 'in competition with the schoolmaster's means of living.' 'About a week ago,' said a Lancashire mother, 'they began to cram my little one, and she not seven years old, for examination. It was lessons morning, afternoon, and night, and you never saw her without her books. I don't understand all this learning, but at last I saw that they were killing her. So I went to the school, and said that I could not let her work so hard. But they would not let her stop. They said she would do grandly. But I wanted to keep my child. So at last, with no end of difficulty, I got a medical certificate, and now I mean to keep her at home till the inspector's been and gone, I do.' In Nottingham not long since the parents of a little girl, seeing her overdone and talking of lessons in her sleep, gave notice that they would keep her from school for a time. The teacher promptly called and offered a present if the child attended regularly ! A mistress in Yorkshire was called before a committee of her board for unmercifully beating a girl 8 years old on the head, because she failed to work a problem in arithmetic (Standard III.) When the mother complained the answer was that the child was clever enough, and could do the sum if she chose. The parents pleaded that she was delicate, and that they would much rather she did not pass the examination till the next year if any severity had to be used. To which answered the teacher, 'But I want my money and I'll make her pass.' That teacher put the whole system of payment by results in a nutshell. Mr. Sykes, the president of the Teachers' Union, says, 'The pale faces, lack-lustre eyes, aching brains of the little children, and the repeated complaints of brain fever, loss of eyesight, and bodily depression and weakness plainly evince the cruelty as well as senselessness of the system.' 'Some

two years ago,' says a Liverpool master, 'a very intelligent but delicate boy entered the school anxious to compete for one of the scholarships established by the Liverpool Council of Education. After being in the school less than six months he died, the immediate cause of death being rheumatism of the heart; but during the delirium of the last few days he moaned sadly about his school work.'" A lady teacher relates to Mr. Armstrong the case of a parent objecting to her having put forward one of her children on the ground that "last year but one my other girl was served the same, and the very week after the examination she was taken ill and died." A Bradford master writes : "I have heard of many instances in town of permanent breakdown or death resulting from the strain of school work. A few years ago a girl committed suicide owing to depression of spirits caused by her inability to do the home work prescribed at school."

A suicide as a result of overpressure also occurred in April Last.—A.J.T.

Mr. Girling at a recent meeting of the executive of the National Union of Elementary Teachers, referred to the case of a child who had then just died of brain fever whose continual cry, in his last delirium was, "I can't get it right ! I can't get it right!"

And now, sir, to bring the matter more closely home to those for whose benefit I have written this paper, let me refer briefly to our own experience of the system of "payment by results," for we have had some experience of that system in the working of our so-called higher education. Of the number of lads who have taken the scholarship more than one has been consigned to the lunatic asylum. I could point to quite a number who have suffered in body and mind from over-pressure. One candidate for the scholarship broke down before the day appointed for the examination and for a time I was his close companion. I shall never forget how much he suffered, and the poor, moping, helpless object the bright boy of former years had become. By entire cessation from mental work and careful treatment, he was sufficiently restored to go up and win the prize he had worked so hard to gain. In another case a lad, after complaining that his head was bad, fell senseless upon the floor and remained unconscious and hovering between life and death for several days—another victim to over-pressure.

If all the boys who have to study did the work allotted to them fairly, fewer would ass, or more would break down, go mad, or ie. But, instead of doing this, they come down to the Public Library and make use of the translations, from which they copy page after page.

A gentleman told me only the other day that when he came to Tasmania and saw the curriculum which boys have to go through in order to win the prizes to be gained under our system of higher education, he resolved that none of his sons should risk the loss of bodily and mental health by competing.

The competition between our present private educational establishments is doing more harm in our community than many are aware of, and I have ample proof of this fact. I will only relate one instance as an illustration of the way in which children are subjected—in many cases through gross ignorance on the part of the teacher of the simplest laws of physiology—to over-pressure even in our private schools. A lady said to me the other day, "A short time ago I sent my grandchild to school. She is only 8 years old. For a time her lessons were a pleasure to her. I never had to press her to learn them. She is a bright intelligent child and after a very short time was advanced to the next class. Then I often noticed that her cheeks were stained with tears. She often complained of headache. One day she came to me and said, "Grandma, I can't do it." I took the book from her hand, and to my horror found that my darling was expected to learn for the next morning a page of statistics, which would puzzle an adult brain to remember. Next morning I sent for the teacher, and when she came, told her that I wished my child to be educated, and not crammed. I should be obliged if she would put her back to her first class again." Would that every mother would follow such an example.

"On entering the Dome Saloon of the New Capitoline Museum at Rome," writes Mr. Armstrong, "the visitor may see on his left-hand side the tombstone of one Q. Sulpicius Maximus. The subject of this monument was no hero of the camp or the Senate, but a little fellow not 12 years old, whose title to fame was the defeat of 52 competitors in the improvisation of Greek verses. Specimens of his pretty skill are graven on the marble. But the pathetic epitaph relates that death was the price of the over-stimulation of the boyish brain. Such, as far as I know, outside of China, was the first case of death from competitive examination. When will be the last?"

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Address

Delivered in the Theatre Royal, Auckland, on April 14th, by the Hon. Robert Stout, Premier of New Zealand.

Subject: "Technical Education."

[New Zealand Herald, Tuesday, April 14, 1885].

THE announcement that the Hon. the Premier (Mr. R. Stout) would address a meeting of the citizens of Auckland at the Theatre Royal last night, at the request of the Liberal Association, was sufficient to bring together almost as large an audience as ever assembled within its walls. The body of the hall was a dense mass of humanity, and the dress circle, which was reserved for ladies, and gentlemen who accompanied them, and for admission to which a charge was made, was well filled. The stage was also filled with a large number of leading citizens, members of the City Council, Harbour Board, and other public bodies. Amongst them were the

Hon. Sir Fredk. Whitaker, the Hon. W. Swanson, Messrs. Thompson, Peacock, Hamlin, and Dargaville, M.H.R.'s.

When the Hon. the Premier entered, accompanied by His Worship the Mayor, he was greeted with prolonged applause, which was continued as he advanced to the front and took his seat.

His Worship the MAYOR (Mr. W. R. Waddel) opened the proceedings by reading the advertisement and briefly introducing the speaker.

MR. STOUT, who, on rising to speak, was received with renewed cheers, said : Mr. Mayor, Ladies and Gentlemen,—Before I begin to address you on the subject that I have chosen to-night, I wish to say a few words as to my position here. Some time ago the Auckland Liberal Association sent a request to me that if I came to Auckland I should address a meeting under its auspices, and I at once assented, because I call myself a Liberal—(cheers),—and I am exceedingly glad to see that in Auckland there is still political life and still anxiety for liberal principles. (Hear.) I have not forgotten that in years gone by—in 1875—I was fighting on the same side as the majority of the Auckland people, fighting in favour of Provincialism, and I felt sure that the people who then had fought so nobly for local self-government were actuated by some high political principles, and had not forgotten them. I felt, however, in a difficulty in choosing a subject on which to speak. My colleague, Sir J. Vogel, had spoken to you on general politics. Your own representatives have no doubt, and others will no doubt, give you an account of what took place in the House of Representatives, and I do not desire in a meeting of this kind to enter upon any question of party politics.

Political Ideals.

I thought I would be doing myself the better justice and paying you a higher compliment by seeing if I could point out some political ideals that I believe every true colonist should have ever before him, and perhaps help you to see how we might attain them. (Cheers.) To-night, therefore, I have chosen this subject for my address. Before I begin to speak upon it I want to show you why I think it is an exceedingly practical subject.

Technical Education.

We have heard, and I am glad to think that in Auckland the subject is popular, the need of technical education. (Cheers.) Now what does that imply? It does not mean teaching a boy to be a carpenter or an engineer or a mason. We have various kinds of education. We have a literary education, an education that will acquaint the boy with, perhaps, many languages and the literature of many tongues. We have also scientific education, an education that will give a boy or a lad a bias towards scientific pursuits. These two different kinds of education have their advantages. A literary education is a noble end in itself. It teaches culture, and it is perhaps one of the best mental gymnastics to which any boy or lad can be put. And so with scientific education. It has a useful end in itself. A boy by it becomes acquainted with nature, with its many marvels, and he becomes also mentally or intellectually trained. What, then, it may be asked, is a technical education? What does a technical education imply? It implies that there is in the most practical work that a man can do, that there is even in carpentering, engineering, and I could mention a hundred other works that mechanics are employed on, that there is lying underneath them all a principle or law, and that though you may have in a technical school a carpenter's bench or a turning lathe, that is really not technical education alone. A boy must learn the law of mechanics. He must see that in the most practical things of life there is an ideal behind by which, if he is to be a practical man, he must shape his work. That is what is meant by technical education; and by proper technical education also we hope to see our youth having a bias towards industry, and not being ashamed of work, and of hard work too. (Cheers.) If then there is in this most practical thing of life,—labour, hard labour, mechanical labour, some law to be learned, some idea to be set before the man who is to become a skilled mechanic—is there such a thing in politics?

Practical Politics and Technical Education.

We hear people say, "Oh, politics is a practical thing; we must have what are called practical politicians." I admit there must be practical politicians, but I say the true politicians must recognise that there are laws in the political world with which he must become acquainted, just as there are laws in mechanics and laws to be discovered by the scientific man; and, as if we wish to get a skilled mechanic, we must have him not merely taught the use of the plane or saw, but taught in the laws of mechanics, and given what is called technical

training if he is to become a great mechanic, so in politics. The politician must have an ideal before him; and if we are practical politicians we must see there is a law, and that after all politics is not what is termed mere muddledom, having nothing to guide the politician through his political career. Let me give you another example. Suppose you want to become an expert miner,—how do you think a man can become a true miner, a scientific miner, by merely delving in the earth? Of course there are geniuses everywhere, even amongst the miners, where you have a man almost of no education who becomes a most skilled workman, just as you have geniuses in portrait painting, or music—some one who is known, we will say, as a born musician. He does not require, it may be, any technical training whatever. No doubt there are some such men amongst miners, but if we want to see a thoroughly skilled miner, who will not make blunders in carrying on his work, he requires to have technical training. In order to develop the great mineral wealth on the Continent schools of mines have been established, where the miner has to learn the science of mineralogy and engineering, &c., before he can get a proper certificate, that is, in fact, before he can be regarded as a qualified miner. Now what does that recognise? It recognises what I have said about technical education, that there are laws to be learnt, or in other words there are ideals to be set forth. If then, in these matters, in practical things like carpentry and mining, there are laws to be learnt, ideals to be set up by the mechanic and miner, so there are laws which guide us in all our practical actions, and it is the duty of the man who wishes to perform his duties of citizenship, to try and discover those laws, and to conform his political views and conduct with the ideal he sets before him.

Ideals to be Sought After.

I therefore propose to show that there are some ideals to be discovered which would ennoble us as colonists in our political action. I go further, and say unless your practical politician has got clear ideals before him, the laws of political and social life to be remembered and kept, you will find his political action like a mariner without a compass. He will be driven hither and thither with every wind, and you electors will be accusing him perhaps of insincerity, perhaps of "ratting" (laughter), accusing him of all sorts of political crimes, while after all the blame is not so much in him. He may be sincere enough, but has not perhaps set before him a true ideal, to which he is ever striving; and you perhaps for the same reason may have been as wayward as he, and changed hither and thither by the political winds which we know exist, even in colonies. (Laughter.) Let me say before I go further one or two words about the nature of this kind of political education. We hear a great deal of science nowadays. Scientific education, as it is termed, is more popular than classical education. Well, what is political science; what is social science? Isay political science or social science, using the latter to express something more than is ordinarily meant by it, is the grandest of all sciences. (Cheers.)

The Aim of Politics.

What is the aim of all politics? Do you think the aim of politics is solely to get a road here, a bridge there, and a railway in another place? If any constituency or colony has only that political ideal before it, it is not fulfilling its duties as a constituency of true citizens. You have in this town a Free Library, free schools, and other institutions. What is the aim of all these? It is to strive to have a more perfect man than we have yet had, in order that we may have a more perfect State than we have yet had. And if such be our ideals and aim in life, to have a more perfect man and more perfect State, you will find that the constituency which has this ideal before it, and has this aim before it, will not only be conferring a favour upon itself, but a favour upon those who are to come after us, which will in after years be inestimable to them. Let me draw your attention to some ideals we must keep before us if we wish to have a perfect State—ideals which, though they may be termed theoretical and idealistic, are just as practical as technical education for our mechanics, just as practical as anything in politics can be. (Cheers). We may start with two tilings. We have got what is termed the individual, and we have got the State. It has its organisation, its functions, its limitations, its rights, and its duties. Let me approach one ideal we must keep in mind as a State. A State must exist. It has to look after its own existence, and also to look after, as part of its duties, the maintenance of individual liberty, for I don't believe in Socialism. I believe if the race is to be saved and elevated, it will have to be by individual salvation. Here comes in perhaps the most difficult question in the whole range of social science—the rights and duties of the State as compared with the rights and duties of the individual. I have not time to-night to even sketch to you the views of some of our great philosophers on this question. Some of you have no doubt seen recent articles of Herbert Spencer and others dealing with this question. But I come to one question, a practical question to us, and one, in fact, I intend mainly to deal with—

The Land Question

That is the question of the land. (Cheers). Let us see if we can discover the individual rights and the State's rights and duties in reference to this question of land, and let us see if we can agree amongst ourselves to have some ideal set before us in reference to the State dealing with this subject. We have still in our possession as a colony millions of acres of land. There is no question more practical to us than to lay down some rule for ourselves as to how the lands we have shall be dealt with. As to the lands which have passed from us and been sold, that is at present out of the range of our practical politics. ("No, no"). I will tell you why. No State can afford to enter upon a career of repudiation, or shake public credit. (Cheers). A State that is unjust will have its members unjust, and injustice in the end never succeeds. (Cheers). It is misleading to those who call themselves Liberals, by setting before them an ideal out of the range of their practical grasp, when there is a question within their own hands which needs all their energy and attention to carry out. (Cheers).

The Land a Monopoly.

I look upon the land as a monopoly—(cheers)—and a monopoly the State has a right to control. (Cheers). I recognise in the land 110 individual rights unless subject to the rights of the whole community. I look upon land as in one respect like the air it must be free—it is needed for our use in a State, and no generation has a right to partition the land, or to say to the generation following, "We have decided for you how the earth's surface is to be." In fact, if some people's views were carried out to their logical conclusion, there would happen what a Maori representative in the Assembly pictured was going to happen in reference to native lands. He said the land was taken from them here and there until in time all that would be left to the Maoris would be in the main roads. (Laughter). And so with some people's ideas of the land. I say the State has a right to look after its own existence. What is meant by allowing the full right of private property in land? Suppose some person were to buy up the whole of Newton, if private property in land is to be everything, he might say to the people of Newton, "Be kind enough to clear off here; I want Newton for myself." Don't think that it is an absurd proposition to put. You hear of evictions. I have seen one. I have seen a valley where men were living in the homes where their ancestors had lived in for nearly 500 years, and I have seen it cleared of every living inhabitant, on a six months' notice to quit, and the houses torn down. ("Shame"). We have, therefore, a right to take care that in our legislation regarding land we have left the ills of the past, and that the wrongs done the people in other countries shall not be exacted here. (Cheers).

Before Henry George.

I am not stating anything new by saying that. I believe I was the first in New Zealand to bring forward in our Provincial Council a resolution that no more lands should be sold. I was the first to bring forward that proposition in the House of Representatives in 1875, and if you take the trouble to refer to the speech which I made on that occasion you will find succinctly stated the reasons for such a step. Long before Henry George had written any of his books I advocated those views, and I say still to all Liberal politicians the State should still control the land, and have large ownership over it. That ought to be the ideal of every Liberal politician.

The State and the Land.

How can we set about that? Well, I think that with your assistance, and the assistance of the colonists, we may yet accomplish that with a large portion of the territory of your colony. If you are only active in this question, and support it with deep enthusiasm, you and others would not only react on your members and the House, but you would create such a feeling as would say that a State should benefit by its land.

The Unearned Increment.

I have pointed out to you what might happen if you allow private property in land to go to its full length. You may have men to control the lives of the citizens, or perhaps destroy the State, for after all what makes a State but the people. (Hear, hear.) Another thing in reference to land, which I suppose you are not altogether

unacquainted with. We find land is not only a monopoly—in that respect different from other kinds of property, but that it increases in value without, perhaps, the landlord doing anything to make it increase. That is not unknown even in Auckland. (Hear, hear.) A man may have a block of land. He may do nothing with it, but his neighbours may improve their land all around him, and their improvements may double and treble the value of his land, and that goes on as the place increases in population and as your industries increase. Why, I may say every industrious man is doing what he can to add to the value of the land of his neighbour. It is not so in other things. It is not so with money. I remember when 174 per cent, was the ordinary rate of interest. It then went down to 15, then to 12, then to 10, and is now, I suppose, from 8 to 65. The man, therefore, who had his thousand pounds in money would derive less revenue now, although the colony has increased in wealth and enterprise. But what has happened to the man who has land near a settlement? Instead of his land being worth less, it may have increased in value a hundredfold.

State Leasing of Land.

Now, what would have happened if we had had a large portion of our lands leased! What will prevent your city from being overburdened with rates? You have city endowments leased. Had this colony begun a policy of State leasing we would have had just as prosperous colonists, less taxation, and far better chances of bearing additional burdens cast upon us if the progress of this colony is not to be stayed. What an advantage it would have been if we had been able to go to the money lender or capitalist in London and say, "You need not depend upon our Customs revenue or taxation, here we have millions of acres bringing in a certain rental per year. That is the best security in the world, and I hope as we have this leasing system in force to a very limited extent—only so far as goldfields and education reserves are concerned—we will have it extended. (Cheers).

The Industrious Man and the Lazy Man.

There is another matter in connection with this land agitation. Emerson beautifully expresses it in the words "Corn won't grow without protection." He did not mean fences, but that unless a man shall be sure of reaping the reward of his industry he will not be industrious. And that what I say is the worst point in our socialistic schemes. I don't believe in the lazy man having as many good things as the active man. If a man was lazy and drunken then he ought to suffer for it. (Cheers). I warn you, in dealing with this question, to have this before you : that anything that tends to discourage thrift or to weaken the industrial tendencies of the race will inevitably endanger you. The ideal before you ought to be able to stand the most severe criticism of the most severe political economists. The people who till the land require to have certain tenure. You are not going to have a man improve land if he is not going to reap the reward of his industry. We must keep that in mind, and not mix land and capital together.

Land and Property.

I much regret that the people of this colony do not see a distinction between land and other property. You in Auckland were all in favour of a property tax as compared with a land tax. ("No, no"). If you count by the members from the Auckland provincial district you will find I am not far wrong—(laughter)—and it would be paying you a poor compliment and them to think they for one moment that they misrepresent you. (Laughter.) The State ought to do its utmost to protect the savings of the industrious man and to encourage him, while as regards the lazy and thriftless man the whole community, to use a common phrase, should have a "down" upon him. And in dealing with this question of course it touches on the question of taxation.

Land Tax.

You remember that as member of Sir George Grey's Ministry I supported the land tax, and I believe it was right. (Cheers.) I felt sorry, however, for this, that the farmers throughout the country, I don't know by what process of logic or reason they arrived at it, thought that if their houses and improvements, their furniture and stock, and their corn, were exempted from taxation, and only their lands taxed, they were worse off than if their land and stock and furniture were all taxed together. (Cheers.) I don't know by what logic they arrived at it, but that was the decision of a majority of the farmers. If you wish to obtain this position—that land is not like other

property—you will have to modify your property tax, and I will say incidence of taxation, and you will have to meet your members and explain to them that you think land is not like other property, and they will perhaps remember that in the next session of Parliament. (Cheers). Now, I have dealt with land as a peculiar kind of property, as one ideal you can have before you, and that as we have millions of acres in this colony undisposed of, we as colonists shall so dispose of them that while we provide the means for colonists to improve themselves, and to reap the reward of their own industry, the State shall have sole control of the land. (Cheers.)

Forest Conservation.

You have—I have seen some of them in the distance—immense tracts of the most magnificent timber in the world, and I am sorry to hear from the Auckland people I meet that this one wants a railway, and that one wants a railway, so that this kauri in these blocks—extending, I am told, from 200,000 to 300,000 acres—may be cut and taken off the face of the earth. If Auckland is to retain its prosperity, the State must look after the conservation of your forest lands. If you are to look to a future with all your kauri gone, you will look to a future with less prosperity than you now possess. (Hear, hear.) See then how this land question affects you practically. I should say I was pained to see what I saw often in the short travels I made through part of your district—magnificent young kauris utterly destroyed by fire which, if they had remained for 50 or 100 years, would have furnished magnificent timber. The State cannot afford to see its great wealth destroyed in this way.

The State.

Turning to another question. The State has the right to look after its own existence. Of course I admit that the State is not to interfere with individual liberty. (Cheers.) We must remember how the State has grown, and remember that it is not yet firmly planted, and that we cannot afford to do anything that would weaken its hands. Don't think that because in an English colony we have great liberty that all is plain sailing. There are dangers which threaten a democracy,—just as many as threaten despotism. (Cheers.) Just let me say that I am laying down for you some principles which the State must keep in view if it intends to retain its own existence. They have been summarised by a very able American—Mr. Abbot. He says this: A State has a right to exist and perpetuate its own existence, and that the individual is the social unit. What does this admission mean that the individual is a social unit? It admits that the child has rights as well as the parent, and that the child has a right to have its rights preserved by the State as much as the parent. (Cheers.) And again, he says that the State has a right, in order to perpetuate its own existence, to establish universal suffrage. (Cheers.) And that it has a right to establish universal intelligence and social morality as a necessary condition of universal suffrage. I ask you to follow me carefully in the enunciation of these principles, because one hangs on the other. Next, he says, it has a right to establish universal education, as a necessary condition of universal intelligence, of social morality, and of universal suffrage. (Hear.) And it has a right to establish a system of public schools, in order that there may be established a system of universal intelligence, and that it has a right to see that use is made of its schools, or that children are otherwise educated. It is on these principles that the rights of State education exist, because I admit at once that if you carry out individualism to what I might term an extreme, you would sweep away State education, and you would sweep away something more, that practically hangs perhaps on the same principles, you would sweep away hospitals. You would have the State giving no aid to hospitals, and I will show you that there are, from one point of view, stronger reasons against the State giving aid to hospitals than to schools. Now, you may think that strange. Let us see about hospitals. If you go to a doctor who looks—I am not speaking of a typical doctor—who looks simply at the perfection of physical man, who has no other conception of a man than as a living man, as a physical man, a strong physical man—he will tell you that hospitals injure the race, he will tell you that all the medical scientific education has had this effect, that it is tending to preserve weak lives, and tending to produce weak lives; and if we look simply at the physical man, if the physical man was to be the only perfect type of humanity, we would have no hospitals. But we look at something different from that. We have to look at the emotional side of man's nature, at the moral side of man's nature, and we see it would be injuring his emotional nature, and his moral nature, if the State or the community were to allow the sick to die without aid and assistance. Hence it is the State says this, although the physical man is injured, greater injury would result to the race to at once cease all aid, and to allow the sick and helpless to die. (Cheers.) A greater moral injury would be inflicted on the race than any permanent physical advantage to be gained. Let me apply this to the schools. I say that if this colony is to make any advance on the past we must have universal education. (Hear, hear.) We must recognise that it is a huge disgrace to have one of our fellow-colonists unacquainted with our literature, and even of some of our scientific facts.

Higher Education.

And I now come to a subject on which, I know, there is some difference of opinion. I come now to the question of aiding higher education. I find throughout the colony—and I suppose it will be the same here—that people will say, "Oh, by all means maintain the primary schools, but as for grammar schools and high schools, those who want that kind of education should pay for it." (Hear, hear.) I am glad to hear that u hear, hear"—(laughter),—because it shows me that there are some people in this room to be convinced, and I am going to try to do so. (Cheers and laughter). First, I ask you, what would be involved if there were no high schools and no universities in this colony. I do not need to prove to you that no university could exist without Government assistance in different ways. No university in the world perhaps has ever been created without either through the beneficence of some exceedingly wealthy men or State aid. We have not an exceeding number of wealthy men, who either can afford or perhaps are willing to found universities in our midst, and if, therefore, the State is to stop aid to our higher education, New Zealand would be without high schools, and without a university. Now, what would happen? So far as your wealthy people are concerned, they do not even make use of your universities when you have them here. They can afford to send their children to England or Scotland or Germany for their education. You take up the list of students in Oxford, Cambridge, and Edinburgh, and you will see the names of colonial lads whose fathers have been able to send them there to obtain a higher education.. So far as the wealthy people in this colony are concerned, they don't need your assistance, and some of them do not take advantage of it. But I ask you what is to happen to your youth, who, perhaps endowed with genius, endowed with great intelligence, is yet poor and unable to obtain a higher education? What is to happen to him? Is he to be condemned to this lower plane and to this lower level? What is to happen to him? Are you to have no high school, no high education, and no chance for him? Do not think I am picturing something that is not likely to happen. I have been a fellow-student with lads whose fathers were poor, aye, poorer than the poorest labouring man in Auckland, who through our Scotch system of having higher education were attended to. (How little many of my fellow-colonists realise what the State is doing for them in this respect). I have known poor places where the labouring man was content perhaps with Is. a day, and never exceeding Is. 2d., where he had to pay fees out of his earnings, and where there were school rates also, to keep up some higher education, not, to keep up merely primary schools. The school I was brought up at was a school for the poor, not a school for the rich. If it had been a school for the rich I should not have had a chance of being educated. (Cheers). We were taught Latin, Greek, French, mathematics, and through these means what happened? I can point even to one fellow-student of myself dimply the son of a bootmaker whose earnings were not equal to the earnings of any bootmaker in Auckland, and whose son finished his education at Tubingen University through getting proper education at the parish school and getting a bursary, and getting into the University. You do not know, some of you, what some Scotch boys have to do in order to get higher education. In England until lately there was very little chance given to poorer English boys. I have seen the students of Edinburgh bringing their barrels of meal, dried fish, and perhaps cheese, and having to live on that, and having to go and work to herd cows during the summer in order to maintain themselves. I say we have not been driven to that here, but if you sweep away all aid from higher education, you are condemning the sons of the poor amongst you to have no chance of rising in life, and to become distinguished. I say hold fast to the high schools. If I had my way I should make the high schools as free as primary schools here. (Cheers.) I would say there should be no limit to the bright boy, the boy of genius, getting the best education the world can give him. (Cheers.) What are some of those who condemn higher education. I would like to ask them if they should (I do not think they would) place themselves in the position of a poor boy anxious to obtain a higher education, and to be turned round on and told if you want a higher education pay for it. What mockery that would be. Why, some of the most brilliant students I have known have been the sons of poor men, who have had nothing but hard work and a determined spirit to bring them on. (Loud cheers.) Why even take our able Professor of Chemistry in the Otago University. What had he to do earn his living—he who obtained the high distinction of Doctor of Science of the Edinburgh University? He had during the summer months, in order to obtain a little money to attend the University, he had to herd cows. If we are—if this nation is to be raised higher in the social and intellectual scale, we will have to give opportunity to every poor boy to obtain the highest possible education that can be given. (Cheers.) I ask you to remember also, looking at that from another point of view, what is it that makes a nation great? Do you think it is wealth alone? (A voice: No.) What is it makes a nation great? After all, a nation's greatness depends on its great men. If you read history, what do you find? The nation reckoned great is the nation which produces great men. When we look at the pages of Grecian history, what is it that recalls to us the greatness of Athens, or those noble Grecians in the past? It was its great men. And so it is always. It is the man of genius that elevates the nation more than the nation elevates the man of genius. And as one writer has said—I will quote it to you,

because I thoroughly agree with it—perhaps he puts it in better language than I could put it in. He says: "But as the value of a nation to the human race does not depend on its wealth or numbers, so it does not depend even upon the distribution of elementary knowledge, but upon the high water mark of its educated mind. Before the permanent tribunal copyists, and popularisers count for nothing, and even the statistics of common schools are of secondary value." I say now, if you in Auckland are to say, Down with the higher education, down with the high schools, it simply means this, that you are con- I remember coming to this one passage in the life of Abraham Lincoln on this very question—(cheers)—one, I believe, of the grandest men of our race. He was twitted by some Northern men who were really in favour of Southern slavery. "Oh," they said, "why did not Abraham Lincoln, if he was really sincere in abolition, at once publish a proclamation when he assumed office freeing the slaves? Why wait until many years after, when so much blood had been spilt, and when it was practically forced upon him?" Well, his biographer gives a reason for that, and he says this, and I say it has a practical application in New Zealand at the present. "Doubtless he had an ideal, but it was the ideal of a practical statesman—to aim at the best, and to take the next best if he is lucky enough to get even that. (Laughter). It is loyalty to great ends, even though forced to combine the small and opposing motives of selfish men to accomplish them. It is the anchored cling to solid principles of duty and action which knows how to swing with the tide, but is never carried away by it—that we demand in public men, and not sameness of policy, a conscientious persistence in what is practicable. For the impracticable, however theoretically enticing, is always politically unwise, sound statesmanship being the application of that prudence to the public business which is the safest guide in that of private life. Well, then, that is a guide for you and for me. It is a maxim we have to keep in mind—that if we cannot get the ideally best we may get the next best, and if we cannot get the next best, we must strive to get as near it as possible. So I say you must remember this, that these statesmen, the politicians of our colony, are what you as constituents make them, and if they are not carrying out these high ideals, if they are not able to accomplish this end, who is to blame? If each elector would hold his high ideal before him, and so act by his vote, you would find your politicians and members of the Government so acting that you would have no fault to find with their action. If you send men to the House and do not aid them and cheer them in their arduous work, and if you seem to pay no attention to them, and to think they have nothing of troubles and trials, if you do not give them your enthusiastic support, if you are not fired with enthusiasm to help them to carry out their work, do not grumble if they fail. Their failure is caused by you. If, however, as colonists, all of us were fired by this enthusiasm to carry out these political ideas, so that our nation would be grander than any nation in the past, so that our own children rising up amongst us should have cause to say that their parents acted nobly, and had a noble national life, and loved the State, then you would have no fault to find. I often think we are not half educated to love the State. I find all over the colony that people have an idea that the Government is a great dispenser of favours. I say that tends to destroy the State. You ought to look to the State as the representative of you. I would like to see you so fired with enthusiasm about your schools that in a district where there is no school you would say: We will give half a day to help to build it, and give some of our means to assist, because we know this school would benefit our race and our young people. And if anything should threaten the State—though I need hardly mention this to an Auckland audience, remembering how nobly you acted in the past—if war comes amongst us, instead of arguing with the Government for capitation allowances, I hope to see you act as your fathers did before you, and show a true national feeling and love of the State. I say if you are inspired with this national life and enthusiasm about politics, then you will be doing some of your duty in the world; and do not think because you may not even be electors, because you are not representatives, or because you are not members of the Government, that therefore you have not high duties and responsibilities. Why, it has been said—some scientific man has said—that each atom has an effect on all atoms around it; that if you throw a stone in a pool the eddies will be felt on the outer edges, however large the pool is. What do you think would be the effect of a sincere and honest man in the midst of a dozen working with him. What is the effect of one single honest enthusiastic man in any cause? I say the effect is electrical, and is such as one cannot even define; and if you, as electors of this colony, having these ideals before you, were to act them out in your daily life, thinking it your duty to make the race and the State better than they have been, you would be doing, each in his own sphere, an incalculable benefit; at all events, it would be said about you when the time came when you will be no more that you had done your duty as a citizen. I do not know any grander epitaph that could be ascribed to any man's memory than this: He loved his family, he loved his children, and he was always helpful to those around him with kindness, though he may not have had any money, and that as a citizen, carrying out a citizen's duty, he had a single eye to the future, a single ideal to see a more perfect type of humanity and of a State. I say I do not know any grander epitaph than that. If we were only all of us, I do not leave out myself, fired with this enthusiasm having before us this ideal, we would be doing our duty in the world, and when we leave it, we should leave it better than we found it. (Cheers.) Now, let me end by giving you one or two verses, which you perhaps may remember—I am sorry I cannot quote the whole poem—from a poet whom I do not think is half appreciated amongst us—a poet who

has written many noble and many good things. I mean Robert Buchanan. Let us give you two or three verses from his poem what he pictured to be a perfect State :—

*Where is the perfect State
Early most blest and late,
Perfect and bright
Tis where no palace stands
Trembling on shifting sands
Morning and night.
'Tis where the soil is free
Where, far as eye may see
Scattered o'er hill and lea
Homesteads abound.
Where clean and broad and sweet
Market-square, land and street
Belted by leagues of wheat
Cities are found.*

*Where is the perfect State,
Early, most blest and late,
Gentle and good?
'Tis where no lives are seen
Huddling in lanes unseen,
Crying for food.
'Tis where the home is pure,*

*'Tis where the bread is sure,
'Tis where the wants are fewer
And each want fed.
Where plenty and peace abide,
Where health dwells heavenly-eyed,
Where in nooks beautified
Slumber the dead.*

*Where is the perfect State,
Unvexed by wrath and hate
Quiet and just?
Where to no form of creed
Fettered are thought and deed,
Reason and trust.
'Tis where the great free mart
Broadens, while from its heart
Forth the great ships depart,
Blown by the wind.
'Tis where the wise men's eyes,
Fixed on the earth and skies,
Seeking for signs, devise
Good for mankind.*

MR. STOUT resumed his seat amidst loud and prolonged cheers.

MR. SHERA proposed that a hearty vote of thanks be given to the lion, the Premier for the admirable

address which he had just delivered. He was sure that the Hon. Mr. Stout was not received by them that evening only as Premier of the colony but as a well-known member of the Liberal party, a front rank man. (Cheers.)

CAPTAIN D. H. MCKENZIE seconded the resolution, which was then put by the Mayor, and carried unanimously with acclamation.

The Hon. MR. STOUT, on rising, was received with renewed cheering. He thanked the audience not only for the vote of thanks, but for the patient, and considerate, and kindly hearing afforded him. His only regret was that he was unable to speak to them on many other subjects, but he assured them that he left Auckland with many pleasant recollections of the scenery and climate—he would like it a little colder though, and there, he thought, the South had the advantage of them—(loud laughter and cheers)—and the exceedingly kind way in which he had been treated since he came amongst them. He hoped they would accept this expression of thanks, and if he did not write to all to thank them, it was owing to his inability to do so, his friends had been so numerous. He begged to propose a vote of thanks to His Worship the Mayor, Mr. Waddel, for the able manner in which he had presided over the meeting.

The vote was carried by acclamation, and His Worship having briefly returned thanks, the meeting dispersed.

W. Atkin, General Printer, High Street, Auckland.

Primary Education in New Zealand 1880 Bible in Schools

Extracts From Speeches, Letters, Etc., Etc.

Collected and Compiled

By Prophetes

Wellington: James Hughes, Steam Printer, Lambton Quay. 1880.

Dedication.

Ecclesiastes xii. 13—"Let us hear the conclusion of the whole matter : Fear God, and keep his commandments: for this is the whole Duty of man."

Introduction.

THESE pages are offered to the public,—

In the belief,—that, education without religion is a one-sided kind of education, one-sided in the wrong direction, and a kind that is scarcely worthy of the name of education,—that, infidelity is a deadly peril to the nation in this as in every age,—and, that without faith and love towards God, and His blessing upon our labours, all our schemes for intellectual advancement, or national prosperity, will be in vain, for "Except the Lord build the house they labour in vain that build it."

In this belief, and in the hope that some plan may be adopted, either in accordance with the scheme suggested by the compiler of this work, or such as may be devised by the people of the Colony, for modifying the clause in the Education Act of 1877, which limits the Education to be given, to an entirely secular one,—the opinions of a Governor of New Zealand, and other legislators of this and other Colonies, of clergymen living in New Zealand, of the Press of this country, of those whose business it is to administer the existing Education Act and who are most intimately acquainted with its working, viz., Education Boards, Committees, and Inspectors, and of large numbers of the Parents themselves, are here brought together, as they have been variously publicly expressed during this year, together with the customs and statutes of our own country, of our Mother Country, of other Colonies and Continental Nations relating to Education.

The object of this pamphlet is not to pull down a system of Education which has been built up with so much care and thought in this country, but of improving that system by eliminating from it a blot which seems to be one of the most vital character. An abuse so great that whilst it remains unremoved it will undermine and destroy the effect and value of the Education to be given under the existing Act, a blot which it is believed is not in accordance with the mind of the people of New Zealand, and cannot be in accordance with the mind of God, viz., that all religious instruction shall be absolutely forbidden in the State Schools.

What Our Legislators Think of Bible Reading in Schools.

Speech of his Excellency Sir Hercules Robinson, G.C.M.G., Governor of New Zealand, Delivered at the Opening of the New Normal Schools, in Thorndon, Wellington, 3rd May, 1880.

Ladies and Gentlemen,—It has given me much pleasure to comply with the invitation of the school committee to be present here today at the opening of these new school buildings. The occasion is one of more than ordinary interest, for, as pointed out by Mr. Woodward, provision is made by these buildings, not only for a commodious and well-appointed public school for this immediate neighbourhood, but also for a Normal School for training teachers, for a class room to serve as a school of art, and for an educational museum and library for the whole colony. Of late years great attention has been directed in all countries where education is appreciated to every detail connected with the construction of school buildings, and the arrangement of playgrounds—both of which are important elements in a school system. I was glad to see on a visit which I paid to these buildings a few days ago that all modern requirements in such matters as cubic space, lighting, and ventilation had been kept in view; and that all those improved appliances and arrangements had been adopted which experience has shown to be essential for the health and convenience of both pupils and teachers, and for the maintenance of regularity and cleanliness and discipline in the school. (Applause.) The weak point appears to me to be the play ground, which is too confined in space; but I hope the Board of Education may be able to see their way to purchasing or renting the neighboring paddock, which seems as if it had been left unoccupied for this very purpose, and which I am sure could not be more usefully employed than in straightening the backs and widening the chests, and hardening the biceps of the rising generation of the Thorndon district. (Loud applause.) With this single exception these buildings and their appurtenances appear to me to supply all that can be desired, and I feel sure they will contribute their full share to the successful administration of the public school system of the colony. It is now nearly a year since Mr. Woodward and a deputation from the several Wellington school committees called on me, and invited me to preside at some educational demonstration which was then about to take place. I was unable to accept, as I was at the time about leaving for Auckland. Besides, I had only just arrived in the colony, and I remember telling the deputation that I should like, before taking part in any public gathering of the kind, to make myself acquainted with the provision made by law for primary education in New Zealand, and to be able by personal observation to compare the system in operation here with that in force in other countries and colonies with which I was acquainted. In the twelve months which have since elapsed, I have carefully studied the Education Act, and the admirable report from the Department of Education presented last year to Parliament. I have read too the able and interesting reports of the various Inspectors of Schools, and I have not failed to avail myself of my journeys through the country to have a look at the principal schools in operation in the districts through which I passed. And now that Mr. Woodward and the school committee have again returned to the charge, and have asked me to be present here this afternoon, and to offer a few remarks, I do not see that I can do otherwise than to tell you candidly exactly what I think of your national plan of education, which appears to me to be admirable in its general design, although defective in one or two of its details. (Applause.) If I understand your scheme correctly, it is this: It is proposed in New Zealand to provide the whole juvenile population of the colony with instruction, free of charge, in the following subjects:—Reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar and composition, geography, history, elementary science, drawing, object lessons, vocal music, drill; and, in the case of girls, needle-work and the principles of domestic economy. The scheme includes also provision at the public expense for the establishment of a system of scholarships—for the maintenance of normal schools for training teachers—for the efficient inspection of public schools—and for the erection of suitable school buildings. As soon as sufficient school accommodation has been provided, the Education Act contemplates further that attendance at public schools shall be made compulsory on all children in the colony between the ages of 7 and 13 who may not be otherwise under efficient or regular instruction. This is, I think, a correct *résumé* of the provision made by law for the education of the people of this colony; and it is, as far as I am aware, the most comprehensive and ambitious scheme of free public instruction which has as yet been adopted in any country in the world. (Loud applause.) In England the liability of the nation to its uninstructed youth is generally supposed to be limited to education of a very rudimentary character. Mr. Bright, in one of his speeches on this subject, explained with clearness and precision exactly the kind of education which he thought the State was under an obligation to give. He said:—"What I would wish to see in this country is that every child should be able to read, and to comprehend what he reads; that he should be able to write, and to write so well that what he writes can be read; and that at the same time he should know something of the simple rules of arithmetic, which might enable him to keep a little account of the many transactions which may happen to him in the course of his life." (Applause.) Here, as I have shown, you go far beyond this modest estimate of the debt of a nation to its youth, but, if the colony can afford it, I am not prepared to say that your curriculum of primary education may not be an improvement upon that of the old country. (Applause.) It is sometimes urged, I am aware, that as the great majority of the population must always be dependent for their livelihood upon manual labor, the tendency of a national system of education, which aspires to so high a standard for the masses, may be to make the majority discontented with their lot in life. But

the answer to this objection is, I think, this: That with every encouragement but a small proportion of the youth will ever advance beyond the fourth standard; and even were it otherwise, intellectual cultivation to the fullest extent which the fifth and sixth standards offer, ought not to make persons discontented with their lot in life, however lowly, or unfit them for employment in the humblest industrial or productive occupations; on the contrary, it should, if rightly appreciated, help both men and women to discharge even the common work of the field or the ordinary duties of the household with more intelligence, and not only more intelligently, but with greater enjoyment to themselves. (Applause.) For these reasons I do not attach much weight to the objection that you are running the risk here of educating the masses above their occupations, but the doubts which do occur to me are these : Whether your programme of primary education may not be found in practice to be too varied, and whether it may not also prove to be too costly. In other words, whether, considering the very early age at which the majority of children are removed from school—attendance not being compulsory after thirteen—the cramming them with instruction in such a variety of subjects will not tend to lower the standard of efficiency in reading, writing, and arithmetic—objects of primary importance—and thus substitute a smattering of many subjects for thoroughness in a few; and whether, too, the attempt to provide the machinery for supplying the whole youthful population of the colony with free education of the varied and advanced character embraced in the six standards will not entail upon the country an expenditure more heavy than can be borne. (Applause.) As to the first point I scarcely feel competent to express a decided opinion; but the earnest, able, and experienced officers who are engaged in inspection, and who have opportunities of watching the operation of the new system over extensive areas, will soon be able to judge whether the quality of instruction in essentials is being sacrificed to variety and quantity. As to cost, however, I must confess that when I contemplate the expenditure which primary education will entail on the general revenue, so soon as the scheme at present established by law is brought into full operation, the prospect appears to me to be appalling. It must be borne in mind that the present Act has only been in operation for the last two years. In 1877—the year before it came into effect—the number of public schools was 730. The average daily attendance for the whole year in these schools was 40,837; and the total amount paid by the Government to Education Boards—exclusive of the proceeds of Education Reserves—was £204,205, being £154,205 for ordinary expenditure, and £50,000 for school buildings. In 1878 the number of public schools was 748. The average daily attendance was 48,212; and the Parliamentary grants—exclusive of rents of reserves—amounted to £317,923, being £216,666 for ordinary expenditure, and £101,257 for school buildings. In 1879 the number of public schools was 812. The average daily attendance for the whole year was 54,809; and the Parliamentary grants—exclusive of reserves—amounted to £368,457, being £217,876 for ordinary expenditure, and £150,581 for school buildings. Thus it will be seen that the Parliamentary grants for primary education have increased from £204,205 in 1877, to £317,923 in 1878, and to £368,457 in 1879—or, in other words, from £5 for every child in average daily attendance in 1877 to £6 12s. in 1878, and £6 14s. 6d. in 1879. In estimating the probable expenditure for the future, it must be remembered that the capitation rates paid by the Government to the Boards for ordinary working expenses and scholarships, added to the subsidies for normal schools and inspection, amount together to about £4 IOS. for every child in average daily attendance. In these items there can be no reduction, as the tendency of the new standards will be, I apprehend, to increase rather than diminish the ordinary expenditure. But under the head of school buildings some saving upon the heavy outlay of the last two years may possibly be effected. Having regard, however, to the facts that the population is increasing, and the percentage of attendance to population increasing also, that in consequence, accommodation for a considerable number of additional children will be required annually, and that there will besides be a constant necessity for replacing old worn-out wooden buildings. I scarcely think that it will be found practicable, without impairing the efficiency of the system, to reduce the annual expenditure on buildings much below £1 IOS. per head upon the average attendance. This, with £4 IOS. for ordinary expenditure, would make the total cost to the country of primary education about £6 for every child in average daily attendance in the public schools. And next as to the probable numbers in the future. The last census, taken in 1878, shows that the number of children at that date of school age—that is between 5 and 15—was 105,208, and, as has been observed, the average daily attendance in the public schools for that year was 48,212, being in the proportion of 45.8 per cent. In 1879 the estimated juvenile population was 110,552, and the average attendance in schools 54,809, being in the proportion of 49.5 per cent. From these data it is not unreasonable to expect that the average daily attendance for the present year will be over 62,000, for next year about 70,000, and for 1882 not less than 80,000; so that, if the present system be maintained, the colony will soon find itself face to face with an annual expenditure from the public Treasury of from four to five hundred thousand pounds upon primary education alone, exclusive of the cost of the Department of Education, and of the sums appropriated annually for higher and secondary education. This appears to me to be really a very serious consideration. The expenditure on primary education will soon amount to nearly £1 per head of the whole population, and the consolidated revenue alone will be quite unable to bear such a charge without considerable additions to the general public burdens. Of course, if the people of New

Zealand desire education of this expensive class free, and are prepared to submit to the necessary taxation, there is an end of the matter; but I doubt whether the position we are drifting into in this respect has as yet been generally realised. (Applause.) It appears to me a great pity that all local sources of revenue—such as school fees and school rates—were extinguished by the Education Act, and the whole cost of primary education thus thrown on the consolidated revenue. Such a course has not merely sacrificed a considerable amount of much needed revenue, but its inevitable tendency is, I believe, to deaden parental responsibility, to encourage irregular attendance, and to weaken the feeling of self-reliance, by teaching people to look to the State for everything. (Loud applause.) I have never been able to see myself why attendance should not be compulsory, and a small fee at the same time charged in all cases in which the parents can afford it. This is the course adopted in England; and also in the neighbouring colony of New South Wales, where the fees last year amounted to about £ 1 for every child in average daily attendance, and contributed nearly twenty-five per cent. towards the total ordinary expenditure. I believe the best authorities condemn free schooling. The Rev. Canon Norris, formerly an inspector of schools in England, in one of his reports observes:—"That parents ought to feel responsible for their children's education is allowed by all. That the State, or the clergy, or a society, or a patron should take it out of their hands, and do it for them, is clearly a second-best expedient—an argument that something is wrong—a concession to conditions (real or supposed) which we must all deplore." Dr. Chalmers, too one of the greatest authorities on the subject writes :—"The only way of thoroughly incorporating the education of the young with the habit of families, is to make it form a part of the family expenditure, and thus to make the interest, and the watchfulness, and the jealousy of the parents, so many guarantees for the diligence of the children; and for these reasons do we hold the establishment of free schools to be a frail and impolitic expedient." Professor Smith, also, who has for seven and twenty years been intimately associated with primary education in New South Wales—who has been ten times elected president of the Council of Education—and whose opinion on all subjects connected with national education is second to none in Australia, strongly supports the retention of school fees, and he points out in an admirable speech which he recently delivered in the Legislative Council, of which he is a member, that the abolition of fees is not only injurious to parents, but also to teachers. He observes:—"The substitution of a fixed salary for combined salary and fees tends to diminish the difference between a good and a middling teacher. They may have the same attainments, and the same classification, but the one may be popular and successful and the other a good deal the reverse, for to be popular and successful may depend on qualities which cannot be gauged by examination and are not taken into account in classification. But the popular teacher draws pupils in abundance, and gets his reward in increased fees. Do away with fees and he loses his advantage." But if a return to the system of school fees is impracticable, the next best thing to my mind would be that the public schools should be, in part at all events, supported by local rates. I think that it will always be expedient to continue to pay some considerable portion of the ordinary expenditure out of the general revenue, in order to ensure effective supervision. (Applause.) But if fees are not levied, some part of the ordinary expenditure, and the whole cost of buildings, should be provided locally—the ratepayers being allowed to elect the Education Boards. (Applause.) School rates, doubtless, would not be as good as fees as far as the teachers are concerned, but they would have the same effect in bringing home to parents a sense of their obligations, and the system would provide a remedy for the constitutional anomaly involved in the existing arrangement under which the whole of the vast sum required for primary education is raised by one body and administered by another. With reference to the compulsory clauses which have been embodied in your Act, I will only remark that although I do not much like the principle, it is difficult to resist the conviction that some interference of the kind is necessary. The census taken in March, 1878, shows that there were at that date 27,731 children in the colony between the ages of five and fifteen who were not returned as attending either public or private schools. Of course many of these may have been receiving efficient instruction at home, and others may have left school fairly educated before reaching fifteen years; but after making all reasonable deductions for such cases, there must remain a large number of children who were not receiving instruction of any kind; and it is difficult to see how parents who habitually disregard such a primary duty can be influenced except by penal legislation. (Applause.) I hope, however, that the compulsory clauses will be administered with discrimination and forbearance, and with a view rather to induce attendance than to recover penalties. (Loud applause.) There is only one other point in your national system to which I will advert, and that is the clause in the Education Act which prescribes that the teaching shall be entirely of a secular character. I do not know the precise meaning which the Legislature may have attached to words "entirely secular," but I think the extent to which moral training is ignored in your national plan of education is to be regretted. (Applause.) Of course, in public schools established for children of all denominations, and at which attendance is made compulsory, the schoolmaster should not be made the medium of imparting dogmatic religious teaching, nor should such instruction form an integral part of the school routine. Perhaps, indeed, upon abstract principle, the State to be consistent, ought not to interfere in religious teaching at all; but I think the compromise which has been arrived at on this vexed question, both at Home and in New South Wales, is a wise

one. In England, the Bible is read in State schools, guarded only by a conscience clause, and instruction is allowed to be given by the teachers in the general principles of religion and morality. In New South Wales a selection of Scripture extracts is included amongst the school books authorised by the Education Department, and there are numerous lessons in the ordinary reading books which give Scripture incidents and moral teaching. The Act, too, permits the teachers when reading these books to give a considerable amount of general religious instruction, and it permits clergymen to go during school hours, and to supplement this by special teaching to children of their own persuasion, assembled in a separate class room. Here there is, I believe, nothing of the kind, and the omission appears to me to indicate a forgetfulness of the fact, that the two-fold object of national education is to secure in the individual citizen intellectual clearness and moral worth. Nearly every man in this country, in every rank of life, participates in the exercise of political power, and such being the case it is no doubt of much importance that his intelligence should be sufficiently quickened to enable him to form for himself a sound judgment upon subjects of public concern. (Applause.) But it is even more essential to the well-being of a community that its youth should be taught to love right and hate wrong—that they should be brought up to entertain a strong sense of truth and justice of virtue and integrity, of honor and duty, of respect for the constitutional authorities and the law; and these and such like moral results can, I fear, never be accomplished by intellectual cultivation alone. (Loud Applause.) In the present condition of society moral teaching, to be efficacious must, I believe, rest upon a religious basis. (Applause.) The world has not, as yet, been universally attracted to well-doing by the simple Confucian precept—"Be virtuous and you will be happy and until it attains to such perfection it will be well not to discard the influence which has so far proved the most effectual in arresting the sources of evil in the human heart. (Applause.) I was reading the other day the recent debate in the New South Wales Parliament on the new Public Instruction Bill, and I was much struck with an interesting bit of testimony which was quoted by Professor Smith in support of the contention that religion is the best foundation for morality. De Luc, speaking of the superior efficacy of positive laws compared with the mere philosophy of morals, says:—"Some time ago I was conversing on this subject with a very celebrated man (the late Sir John Pringle) who had been Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh. He was advanced in years, and had lived much in the world. At that time I was still rather a friend to teaching rational morality, thinking it was useful to bring men acquainted with their duty in every possible way. I had just read a work of this nature entitled, 'Of an Universal Moral; or, Man's Duties founded on Nature,' and as he had not read it I offered to lend it to him. I cannot express the tone in which he refused this offer, but you will have some idea of it when you come to know the motives upon which he did it. 'I have been,' said he 'for many years professor of this pretended science. I have ransacked the libraries and my own brain to discover the foundation of it; but the more I sought to persuade and convince my pupils, the less confidence I began to have myself in what I was teaching them; so that at length I gave up my profession and turned to medicine, which had been the first object of my studies. I have nevertheless continued from that time to examine everything that appeared upon the subject, which, as I have told you, I could never explain or treat so as to produce conviction; but at length I have given up the point, most thoroughly assured that without an express Divine sanction attached to the laws of morality, and without positive laws accompanied by determined and urgent motives, men will never be convinced that they ought to submit to any such code, nor agree amongst themselves concerning it. From that time I have never read any book upon morality but the Bible, and I return to that always with fresh delight.'" I think the English plan of allowing teachers to draw instruction in the general principles of religion and morality direct from the Bible the best that can be devised; and that we lose a great deal here even in the matter of teaching English, and history, and biography, by not having the Bible as a school-book. Professor Huxley gave lately to the world some striking testimony in support of this view, which is the more remarkable as flowing from such an unexpected source. He said:—"I have always been strongly in favor of secular education, in the sense of education without theology; but I must confess I have been no less anxiously perplexed to know by what practical measures the religious feeling, which is the essential basis of conduct, was to be kept up, in the utterly chaotic state of opinions on these matters, without the use of the Bible. The Pagan moralists lack life and color, and even the noble stoic Marcus Antoninus, is too high and refined for an ordinary child. Take the Bible as a whole; make the severest deductions which fair criticism can dictate for short-comings, and positive errors; eliminate, as a sensible teacher would do, if left to himself, all that is not desirable for children to occupy themselves with, and there still remains in this old literature a vast residuum of moral beauty and grandeur, And then consider the great historical fact that for three centuries this Book has been woven into the life of all that is best and noblest in English history; that it has become the national epic of Britian, and is familiar to noble and simple from John o' Groat's House to Land's End, as Dante and Tasso were once to the Italians; that it is written in the noblest and purest English, and abounds in exquisite beauties of a mere literary form; and, finally, that it forbids the veriest hind who never left his village to be ignorant of the existence of other countries, and other civilizations, and of a great past stretching back to the farthest limits of the oldest nations in the world. By the study of what other book could children be so much harmonized, and

made to feel that each figure in that vast historical procession fills, like themselves, but a momentary space in the interval between two eternities, and earns the blessing or the curse of all time, according to its efforts to do good and hate evil, even as they also are earning their payment for their work." * * *

I have thus stated to you frankly what appear to me to be the weak points in your educational plan, namely, that it will entail a larger expenditure than the general revenue can well defray without assistance from local sources; and that the course of instruction prescribed fails to inculcate sufficiently the observance of those moral obligations which are essential to the welfare of society. (Loud applause.) With these exceptions I think that your scheme of national education is one of which any country might feel proud, and that it is being administered with an earnestness and an ability which is deserving of all praise. (Loud applause.) I have been much struck in travelling about the country with the deep interest which is universally taken in this most important question, and with the determination which pervades the whole community that the blessings of education shall for the future be placed within the reach of all. Possibly the very intensity of this popular feeling has rendered the correct adjustment at first of all parts of the educational machine the more difficult. But with such a healthy vigorous motive power, supervised and directed with so much intelligence, any defects in the driving gear of the machinery will soon be detected and corrected, until the object which all have equally at heart is fully attained, and New Zealand is placed in the front rank amongst the educated communities of the world. I beg now to declare the new Normal School formally opened. (Loud applause.)

Extract From Speech of the Hon. Sir William Fox, K.C.M.G., Delivered in the House of Representatives, in Wellington, New Zealand, 14th July, 1880.

SIR,—* * * I believe, if we had the means of ascertaining the feelings and opinions of the fathers and mothers of the children of this country at this moment, we should find an overwhelming majority in favour of the introduction, to a limited extent, of religious teaching in the Government schools—to the extent which I should propose myself. I am not making this assertion altogether at haphazard, although I am free to admit that we have not at this moment any positive proof of what is the opinion of the heads of families in this country. Although there have been laid upon the table of the House since the Education Act was passed, particularly last session and the session before, a very considerable number of petitions indicating the opinions prevailing in the minds of a very large proportion of the people of this country, yet what the exact proportion is we have not the means of ascertaining. But in our intercourse with private individuals of the country every now and again we come upon some person who has taken trouble in this matter, and within a limited area has applied a test, which leads me to the conclusion at which I have arrived, that a very large and overwhelming proportion of the heads of families are in favour of the introduction of religious instruction into our public schools. Sir, I hold in my hand here a letter from a clergyman in the Province of Hawke's Bay, who some years ago resided in the Province of Nelson, and it has fallen to his lot, in both those provincial districts, to make a house-to-house canvass upon this very question. I will read a paragraph from his letter, which will show the result of what has come within his own knowledge. He is a gentleman of experience, and he may be relied upon as to the accuracy of his statement. He says: "From an experience of thirteen years in testing the public feeling in this matter by personal canvass, I thoroughly indorse the Hon. Mr. Bowen's remarks, when advocating the introduction of the Bible in public schools, that nineteen-twentieths of the people desire it. In 1867 I took a petition round a village in the then Province of Nelson—Riwaka—in favour of Bible-reading in the Riwaka school; and out of fifty householders forty-nine signed it, and the fiftieth, though he had personal reasons for not attaching his signature, expressed himself in favour of it. Again in 1870-71. I canvassed Wakefield, in the old Province of Nelson, in favour of Bible-reading in the Wakefield schools, and got fully nine-tenths of the householders to sign it and express approval of the object with more or less emphasis. In 1873 an attempt was made by some members of the then Central Board of Education in Nelson, by petition to the Provincial Council, to secularize the Provincial Education Act of Nelson by excising its religious clauses. Mr. Shephard, M.H.R. for Waimea, will remember this. The people immediately took it up, not the clergy, and a petition against the proposed measure was framed by a layman, Mr. J. W. Barnicoat, the Speaker of the Provincial Council of Nelson, at the request of a layman, Mr. Masters, a farmer in Wakefield. This petition was signed by over 1,100 householders. A second petition was started at the same time in advocacy of the measure, but it obtained no support, only 134 names being found on it. In the City of Nelson 500 householders signed the petition against the exclusion of the

undenominational-religious-teaching clause—the 37th of the Act—and the utmost that could be obtained in favour of its excision was 34. I canvassed the City of Nelson myself at that time, so can speak with certainty. The effect of these petitions on the Provincial Council of Nelson was that it refused to secularize the Education Act, but defined the time when the Bible was to be read." * * * * *

There is another point of view from which I approach this subject, and that is this: I think it is an indignity offered by ourselves to ourselves—if I may say so—that, in a country at least nine-tenths of the inhabitants of which profess a religion of some sort or another, based upon what we know as the sacred Scriptures, the sacred Scriptures themselves should be the only book that is interdicted in our schools. You may teach the religion of Confucius; you may teach the religion of the Brahmins; you may teach the whole of the ancient mythology, including everything about Jupiter, Mars, Venus, and their loves, and so on; you may teach them that *ad nauseam*—you may cram their minds with things of that sort; but you are on no account to let them know that there is a God in heaven, or to mention the name of our Saviour. Any master who would dare to open his lips and tell a child anything on these heads during the hours of instruction would be dismissed. I am told that in Victoria the Minister of Education, a very different one, I hope, from ours—actually went through all the common education books—Nelson's and Collins's—and struck out everything that had the least shade of religious teaching in it. Well, we are not so bad as that; and I say, as a citizen of this country, as a member of a community which forms part of a Christian nation, that it is an indignity that this Book, the only book which is the foundation of our national religious faith, should be the only book in the whole circle of our literature which is excluded from our schools. I may be told that we have no national religion. That is true, in one sense: that is to say, we have no State Church—the State does not identify itself with any special form of religion: but the identification of the nation with the Christian faith is complete; and I appeal to you, Sir, to say whether the book in front of you, from which the prayer is read every day, is not a proof that we are a Christian nation. What is that prayer read for, if we are not a Christian nation? You may read a Mohammedan prayer, or anything else you like but, as long as we have evidence of the fact that we use Christian prayers, I think we may call ourselves, to all intents and purposes, a Christian nation, and I say that it is unfair, it is unjust, and an insult to the national character, that this book, the basis of our whole faith, should be the only book in the whole course of our literature which is excluded from our schools. And, Sir, I believe that we ourselves and the Colony of Victoria are the only two peoples—if I may dignify ourselves by such a name—we are the only two peoples amongst the nations of the earth who have deliberately abolished religious instruction from the schools. It is done completely in Victoria, and it is done nearly as completely here. I know of no other country where this is the case. In any other country where there is a religious faith pervading the mass of the people, provision is made for the teaching of some portion of that faith in the schools of the country. I know we shall be told that this is not so in America. I have been a good deal in America, and I know something about it, and I venture to say that in by far the larger proportion of the American schools at this moment the Bible is read, and in a great portion of them Christian hymns are introduced, in addition to the reading of the Bible. It is a great mistake to say that the American system is altogether a secular system. It never was so in the New England States, and, if religious instruction has fallen into desuetude in some of the States, which may be the case, still there is no absolute prohibition. Then take the Continental nations—France, Prussia, and many others that I could mention. As far as I am aware, religious instruction is given in some shape or other in the schools of those nations; and let me say, further, that within the last few weeks the Parliament of the Colony of New South Wales, in which, for twenty years past, a bitter struggle on this question has been going on, appears to have solved the problem to its own satisfaction by passing, by an enormous majority, a Bill which introduces religious instruction into the schools on a basis which might be very well adopted here, and which is not open to the ordinary objections that are urged to religious teaching. * * *

But in any proposition which I shall make I think it absolutely essential that there should be what is known as a conscience clause and a time-table. I wish to work on the lines laid down by Mr. Forster's English Bill, which has been in operation in England a dozen years or more. No doubt honorable members have read that Bill, and will recollect what it provides. It provides that, at some time during school hours, at a time to be permanently fixed by the School Board, religious instruction shall be given for a specified time; and then comes the conscience clause, which says that any parent may withdraw his children during the time in which religious instruction is given. There is no inconvenience. I have heard pathetic speakers sometimes address themselves to the agony of the poor children waiting in the wet while their companions were receiving religious teaching, and so on. Well, Sir, the best proof of the success of the system is that in England it has been working for about twelve years, and has given entire satisfaction there. In the London Board schools, where, of all places, people's religious feelings would be most likely to be hurt by the introduction of this system into education, and where some two hundred thousand are being educated by the State, there have been withdrawals of only one in every four thousand under the conscience clause for the half-hour during which religious instruction is given. What evidence can be more satisfactory than that? I read in the reports of the inspectors throughout England a

unanimous concurrence of opinion that any religious difficulty, if it even practically existed, has been entirely got over. There was one district, certainly, which set us the example which we have followed, and that was the district under the Birmingham Board; but what was the result there? They persevered for eight or ten years in the system in which they started, but they had to give it up. Larrikinism and rowdiness, and evils of every description, were growing to such a fearful extent, and popular feeling was so strongly in favor of religious instruction being imparted, that it had to be adopted. * *

I have heard that it was said by an honorable and gallant gentleman in another Chamber, to which I must not further allude, that it was not the business of the State to give religious instruction—that we all get our religious training at our mothers' knees. Did these young larrikins get their religious training from their mothers? Evidently they did not. And anybody who knows anything of the rising generation must be aware that a proportion of their mothers are degraded and debased to a degree which makes them utterly incapable of imparting religious instruction. And more than that: there are hundreds of those whom we know to be decent and respectable women who are incapable of doing it. Therefore, if we are to depend upon the religious instruction given at the mother's knee, I am afraid it will not reach a large proportion of the class of children to which I have alluded. And then, Sir, with regard to these mothers themselves in the next generation, we have to think of them, and of how they will grow up. If they grow up without any religious teaching, what sort of mothers will they make? And if the children of the next generation grow up without any religious training from their mothers, what sort of women will there be in the generation that comes after them? A woman must have religious feeling: her whole nature is subject to it. To quote the words of the great Book itself, "Her desire is to her husband." It is the nature of women to lean on others. A woman who has not a God will have a devil. You must bear that in mind. You must remember that you are training these women up to be the mothers of the larrikins of the future if you do not give them religious instruction; and we must take care that their being shall not be dwarfed and degraded and debased by the absence of religious instruction.

Speech of the Hon. Dr. Menzies, M.L.C., Delivered in the Legislative Council, Wellington, New Zealand.

SIR,—When the Education Act was passed, in 1877, the Council may remember that I ventured to protest against the decision then arrived at to expel all reference to religious subjects from the course of study to be adopted in schools. I at that time proposed, upon more than one occasion during the progress of the Bill through this Council, first of all that the Bible should be part of the curriculum, and subsequently that it should be read at the beginning of the daily work without necessarily being part of the curriculum; but on both of those occasions the Council thought fit to reject the proposal. I then said that I conceived the question had not been settled aright, and that until it was settled aright no question could be considered to be settled finally. The proposal which I make to-day is somewhat different, and falls considerably short of that which I made then. I do not in any way withdraw from the opinion I then expressed that it was right the Bible should be read in schools—that there should be a recognition of Divine authority in training up the children of the colony; but I conceived I would not have been likely to attain the object in which I formerly failed if I were to attempt to renew it. I think the proposal I now make is a reasonable one, and one to which I trust the Council will accede. It proposes, in effect, to allow the Education Boards in each district to have authority to permit the reading of the Bible in any school in their district where the Committee desires that it should be done. It, in fact, gives to the people of the various districts, as represented by the School Committees, the power of deciding whether they shall have the Bible read in the schools or not. If they desire it, the Education Board, in the event of the Act being amended in the direction I propose, will have the power of allowing them to obtain this privilege, and if they do not desire it they will not be obliged to have the Bible read. I know that in many districts the concession now asked for will be hailed as a great boon. In the remarks which I made on the subject on the second reading of the Education Bill, in 1877, I took occasion to point out that many eminent and intelligent persons, who had written largely on the subject, contended that it would be wise for the State, in the interests of peaceful civil government, to make religion not only an essential, but the foundation of education, and a variety of quotations were made from the writings of many of those authors. Many American authors contended for this on the somewhat low ground of expediency, but other writers—such men as Guizot, Lavaleye, Principal Shairp, and others took higher ground, and contented it was the duty of the State to train the rising generation to a full recognition of the Divine authority, and to familiarize them with that book which recorded the Word of God, inspired them with the love of truth for its own sake, and taught them a sense of responsibility in a future

state, without which foundation, or without a foundation so based, they could not be regarded as having a right moral training. I quoted, from an admirable report which was published in Canterbury some years ago, various passages to the same effect. I do not propose now to repeat them, with the exception of a few lines. The Canterbury report, published in 1863, says,—“It would seem that the Government—by which is meant the representative acting-power of the people—being confessedly Christian, is bound in all its legislation, and not least in the matter of education, to recognize Christianity—not on the points on which it is the subject of human imperfections and infirmities, nor in the divisions of the community into rival sects, violating the laws of the creed they profess, but as a general ruling principle in the life of the State.” And then, a little further on, Sir, it says,—“The Commission do not think it necessary to enter into a discussion of the opinion held by some, that all but purely secular knowledge should be banished from our schools. Such a course would not satisfy the wants of the people generally; and, further, without entering into the religious question, it would be impossible in any system of teaching which professed to fit men for the social and civil duties of every-day life to ignore the existence of Christianity as prevailing the laws, literature, and institutions of the civilized world. In a Christian country no one could be called educated who was ignorant of the Christian Scriptures, to which our civil institutions are so largely indebted.” Sir, in the legislation of the Mother-country the Imperial Parliament recognised this necessity quite as fully as it has been recognised in the words I have just read from the Canterbury report, and the Council will see that they made sufficient provision to meet the wishes of all; and the circumstances there are very much the same as here. In the Home-country, as in New Zealand, there are many denominations, differing from each other, some very widely; but, by certain clauses which were introduced called the conscience clauses, it was conceived then that all reasonable objections would be obviated. Under the provisions of the Imperial Act the religious instruction given was Bible-reading and other religious instruction, such as prayer and singing a hymn, and no children were obliged to attend if their parents desired they should not; in other words, if the parents of any children objected to their attendance while these religious exercises were being performed, then they might be withdrawn. It was felt at the time that, in undertaking the duty of education, if the Government undertook to educate the rising generation, it could not stop at mere secular education; and it may be remembered that, during the debate on the subject, Mr. Foster, who moved the Bill, said the Government recognized the necessity : that, if they meddled with education at all, they must also meddle with religion. Now, the Imperial Act not only prescribes that the religious teaching shall be such as I have described, but also goes considerably further, and authorizes the inspectors to examine the children in these branches—showing that it is part of the curriculum, and a very essential part of it. The question arose in the course of that debate whether the conscience clause would be sufficient to meet the objections which might be taken, and it was found, from the testimony of teachers and managers generally, as stated in the House, that they all concurred in the expression of opinion that very few parents indeed would take objections to the religious teaching and that very few, even in the denominational schools, would seek to withdraw their children. Of this fact Mr. Gladstone made use in the course of the debate; and pointed out that the very fact that few children were withdrawn even from the denominational schools was the strongest argument for the continuance of the system where the teaching was not denominational. Mr. Gladstone made some other remarks, which I find in the *Times* of the 25th June, 1870. He says,—“Can it be said that the prevalence of denominationalism in these schools at the present moment is generally felt by the people to be a grievance? On the contrary, is it not the case that everybody and every section are telling us continually that the religious difficulty, directly you come to practice, becomes insignificant, and that it is a difficulty made rather for Parliament and for debate, than one that would be raised within the schools?” After this Mr. Gladstone substantially said,—“Do not say that I overstate and say there is no religious difficulty now. There is, about compelling schoolchildren to attend a church—learn school Catechism; but the conscience clause in the Bill, and prohibition of the Catechism, will give ample protection.” Now, Sir, the system that has proved successful at Home—and I shall presently show how signally successful it has been—ought to be equally so here. We have different denominations represented here, and these denominations at Home appear to be satisfied, judging from the results, with the provision made for the instruction in religion. I contend that there can be no sound moral training unless it is based upon Scriptural knowledge. We find that in all Christian countries, notwithstanding the exertions of the various Governments, and the active benevolence of numberless philanthropic individuals and societies, yet there are multitudes growing up utterly untaught, having no sense of moral responsibility, and having no knowledge or hope of the future. These classes are dangerous elements in any State. And how are they to be reached? Will secular schools reach them? I apprehend not. If they are to be humanized at all, it must be through the means of the knowledge conveyed to them by ragged schools and Sunday schools—a knowledge of the Christian Scriptures—and without that there is little hope for their restoration to the ranks of society. It may be a grave question for us to consider whether a serious difficulty may not hereafter arise if we debar the rising generation from obtaining this knowledge at the fountain head; and, looking at the position of the community here, considering that, according to the census returns, about 94 per

cent. are professing Christians, that of these about 80 per cent. are nominal Protestants—considering this, one does not see there would be any great difficulty in effecting an arrangement in this colony similar to that which has been found so successful in the Mother-country. It is true that a certain section of the community objects to religion being taught in the schools unless taught by their own teachers; but a considerable section consisting of something like 5½ per cent. of the population, joins these re-claimants and insists, not only that Protestantism shall not be taught in the schools, but that Christianity shall not be taught in them. Sir, a part of these, about 14½ per cent., consisting of Roman Catholics and Jews, might very well agree in accepting the same arrangement here which has been found so successful in other countries. I have here a copy of the eighth report of the Education Department in Victoria, and it gives some information about the system now in operation in various countries. It says, for instance, that, in Prussia,—“In the elementary schools religion is considered as the basis of instruction in conformity with the religious creed of the pupil, and consequently every school bears a religious character. The religion of the master must be in conformity with that of the majority of the children; where the master is not of the same creed with the child, the parents of the child may decide as to the religious instruction which the child is to receive.” And then, further on it says, with reference to Prussia also,—“As a rule, the national schools must be Evangelical or Catholic; but, in the case of a population containing Jews, wherever a sufficient number of Jewish children are found, Jewish elementary schools may be established and considered as national schools. ... No child is to be refused admittance to the schools on account of difference of religion. ... Children who may belong to a religion which differs from that of the teacher are not to be forced to attend his religious instruction against the will of the fathers or guardians.” Then in Sweden, Mr. West reports on the religious question,—“The instruction given in the schools ought to have for its main object the mental development of the children, who should be made to understand what they read on religious subjects before they take their first communion.” In Ireland, this report says—and it is a quotation from the Imperial report,—“In 1867, 598 per cent. of the national schools were combined. One thousand and thirty-nine national schools, taught by Protestant teachers, had an average of 112 Protestant to 28 Roman Catholic children; 132 schools, with both Protestant and Roman Catholic teachers, had an average of 112 Protestants to 100 Roman Catholic children; 2649 schools, taught by Roman Catholic teachers, had 9 Protestant to 126 Roman Catholic children.” There seems to be no difficulty there for both denominations to attend the same schools. In America we find,—“In all the States the schools are maintained chiefly by local rates, and are unsectarian, the Bible only being read, without comment. On this subject the Rev. J. Fraser says,—“There appears no difficulty in assembling children of all denominations in the same schoolroom; but he thinks that the practically entirely secular character of the education given by the public schools causes them to be regarded with growing disfavor by certain sections of the community.” I find, from a list contained in this report, that in the New England States—Massachusetts and others, and also in one or two of the Western States—Ohio and California, as well as in New York, the schools are described as “unsectarian,” the Bible being read without comment.” Now, Sir, I come to the Imperial report. I find it stated,—“It is not invidious to set apart certain hours, but rather to show respect to different religious opinions in a way that forms no departure from the general principle of liberty of conscience. Parents could withdraw their children and appeal to the Board if necessary. Difficulties can be easily overcome by the exercise of common sense and mutual forbearance. The parent, however, must be free to withdraw his child.” Then we are told,—“In schools (Scotland) other than parochial, the parent decides what branches his child shall learn. He is a competent judge in the matter, and if he objects to any branch—classical language or religion—that branch is not taught. There is no fixed course of instruction.” Then, again, Mr. Dale, I think, says,—“Further, it is important to remark that the principle of respect for liberty of conscience is everywhere fully acknowledged. Either religious instruction in schools is confined to that on which all can agree, or special instruction is given by denominational teachers, or the parents are allowed to withdraw their children from religious instruction altogether. In no case is the school allowed either to endeavor to make proselytes or to refuse to admit scholars whose parents object to the religious teaching that may be given.” We know that a keen controversy occurred at the time when the Imperial legislation was passed through, and that all these points were then freely discussed. I shall show presently what the result has been; but I should first like to point out that a discussion of the same character has been going on lately in one of the States of America—Connecticut. About a year ago the School Board of New Haven decided upon prohibiting the religious instruction which had been allowed before, and at the following election a considerable amount of excitement arose, the result being that the former members of the Board were rejected, and men in favor of Bible instruction elected in their places. I need not detain the Council by referring to any of the manifestoes issued during the election, but I may say they are very much of the same character as those we have seen issued in this colony, and I might point out that the result of the contest is suggestive as showing what public opinion may be here as there. The Board thought they represented popular feeling in prohibition religious instruction, but when the people had an opportunity of showing what they thought, they rejected the members of the Board who had carried the prohibition. I have said the result of the Imperial Act was signally successful, and I think

the authority from whence I draw that information will be accepted. From an article in the *Contemporary Review* I read:—"The question of religious instruction was very hotly contested at the formation of most of the Boards, being, unfortunately, in many cases made a battle-field for political parties. A large number of nonconformists looked upon the introduction of religious teaching into the schools as a violation of those principles on which they were grounding their opposition to the Established Church. But, notwithstanding the efforts of this party, there was so strong a national feeling that it would be a fatal mistake to exclude the Bible from the schools—that, having at great expense and trouble gathered the children of the irreligious and profligate into the schools, it would be utterly unjustifiable to send them forth ignorant of the principles of religion and morality. In London the issue of the contest was very striking—through systematic Biblical education as one of the essential subjects being carried by a majority of five to one in a Board consisting almost equally of Churchmen and Nonconformists. So well has the system worked during the whole term of the Board's existence that no single complaint has been made of the teaching that has been given, and not more than one in four thousand children attending the schools has been withdrawn by its parents, although by the rules of the London School Board any person who objects to his child receiving Biblical instruction may require that during the time set apart for this purpose the teacher shall give it secular lessons. In the schools provided by the Board the Bible shall be read, and there shall be given such explanations, and such instruction therefrom in the principles of morality and religion, as are suited to the capacities of the children." Then the article concludes by saying :—"And, lastly, the almost universal adoption of some amount of religious teaching proves a general concurrence in the opinion that the spiritual—that is, the highest—part of human nature, is one that must not be neglected." Sir, we find that many petitions have been presented to the Legislature upon this subject, and the expressions which they contain show that over a very large extent of country in many districts the most cherished feelings of the community have been outraged by the banishment from the schools of that Book which, in the words of the petitioners, they regard as the Word of God and the supreme rule of conduct. Under the present arrangement, because a small minority of the community will not tolerate a plan which would satisfy the majority, a system which is working well elsewhere, and which would work well here if honestly administered, is not allowed a trial. The action of the minority in pressing this forward shows that they endeavour to guard the rights of their consciences so vigilantly that they appear to be ready to trample upon those of the majority. The minority say that the Church and the parents should undertake the duty of giving religious instruction. I am afraid that the parents, in too many instances, are careless and neglectful, sometimes unable; but, independently of all this, I contend that the State has a paramount right to see that the rising generation are educated in such a way and grounded in such principles that they shall grow up to be good citizens; and I say that the State cannot find any more effective mode of doing that than grounding them in a knowledge of the Scriptures. The State has no interest in any particular denomination; but it desires, for the sake of peaceful government, that the rising generation shall have a knowledge of religion, and thereby gain a sense of moral responsibility. The State consists of individuals, and to individuals religion is one of two things : it is either everything or nothing. There is no middle term. Which it is to us will be shown if we continue to refuse to recognise Divine authority in the teaching at our schools; while, as a community, if we believe the Bible, let it be read in the schools. It is true that there are disbelievers, but the fact of their denying the authority of the Bible does not disprove its authority; nor is it any reason against reading a book that may enlighten doubters, the right tendency of which no one can dispute, and therefore their objection raised to the reading of the Bible is entitled to no weight. What has been said by one of the gentlemen who reported to the Imperial Parliament with reference to the Bible simply as a school book? Mr. Aldis says :—"Good reading-books are sadly wanted, written by great and good people; those who make children's books are of very average goodness. When the Bible was the only book read, children got good English, good sense, good history, and good poetry. The present reading-books are a sad come-down." But let us take a higher authority, that of Professor Duncan, who is known to have been one of the most profound theologians in the United Kingdom. He said:—"The Bible is the best school-book, not only for teaching things belonging to the inner and the future, but also to the outer and present life. There is no school-book in the world containing so many roots of things in so short a compass." I and those who think with me do not dispute for a moment that, so far as regards the Roman Catholics, their objections are offered in good faith and in earnest; but there is another class, very influential though not very numerous, which, under the mask of sympathy for these, of liberality, of liberty, seeks to drive out of the schools not Protestantism only, but also Christianity. I think I have said enough to show the Council why it should affirm that such amendments should be made in the Education Act as will authorise Education Boards to give permission to the various School Committees where they desire to introduce Bible-reading into the schools. If the Council does agree to it, I believe, speaking from personal experience, and from the various petitions which have been laid upon the table, that the concession will be regarded as a great privilege. I trust the Council will give no uncertain voice upon this question. I have been told of an intention to evade the question, but I must express a hope that that will not be so, and that we shall also hear an expression of opinion

from the Government upon the subject. Sir, I have shown my colors, let other members of the Council show theirs.

Motion made, and question proposed, "That in the opinion of this Council, the Education Act should be so amended as to provide for permissive power being granted to Education Boards to introduce the reading of the Bible in schools, subject to a timetable and conscience clause."—(Hon. Dr. Menzies.)

After discussion the previous question was put and carried. Dr. Menzies' motion was therefore lost.

Speech By Sir Henry Parkes, K.C.M.G., Delivered at the Opening of a Public School at Blayney, N.S.W.

ON visiting Blayney lately, an address of welcome was presented to Sir Henry Parkes by Mr. William Glasson, chairman of the late local board.

Sir HENRY PARKES, in the course of a lengthened speech in reply, said that in every school that is opened we were, in a manner, planting a new moral fortress, by which to beat down that ignorance which in times past had so frequently enslaved the tender minds of our children—(cheers); and our Legislature had given convincing evidence that its earliest aim was now that every child in the land should be reached. (Cheers.) These public schools had been called seed-plots. (Laughter.) Well, they were assembled there to plant another seed-plot of national life—(cheers)—a seed-plot by which in the future the qualities which will make the nation of the future will be derived, and without those seed-plots the country would most assuredly go to precipitate ruin. He was not there to combat any other man's opinions, or to enter into any controversy. After quoting largely from statistical returns to show the progress of national educational institutions in the Colony, Sir Henry Parkes said we had an army of upwards of 2000 trained teachers, 1200 schools under rigid inspection, with every provision made for the health of the children, as well as for their moral instruction, and we had this placed within the reach, so far as cost was concerned, of the poorest family in the land. (Hear, hear, and cheers.) He for one was in favor of retaining this system of low fees. He thought it a link of sympathy between the parent and the children, that it kept up the responsibility of the parent to educate the child. Trifling as it might be, it would be something for the poor mother to have to collect her threepences on a Monday morning; it would remind her that amongst her responsibilities there was the responsibility of putting aside some small portion of the income of the house to train her boys and girls into respectable men and respectable women. (Cheers.) And he thought that while the retention of these fees was just, it would be healthy in its moral operation upon the minds of parents of the country, and, at the same time, it would add considerably, though not so largely as hitherto, to the revenues applicable to the purpose of education. Provision was made, however, that if there should be any case where a family could not pay these small fees the Minister of Public Instruction or the Public School Board could remit them and admit the child perfectly free. He was aware that objections had been raised to provisions of this kind, on the score that persons would not like to have a privilege which was not extended to all, and that feeling might exist to some extent; but because that feeling existed in a few instances, surely we were not going to release the hundreds and thousands of families who could well afford to pay these small fees. Surely it was only just that those who could pay and were anxious to pay, as he believed the majority of parents were, they, at all events, should pay these small fees for the instruction of their children. The address which was presented him alluded to the facilities for religious teaching. He was one of those who did not believe in children growing up without religious teaching. (Hear, hear.) He believed that a secure and sound and lasting faith was essential to all the higher qualities of humanity and to the performance of all the higher duties of citizenship—(cheers)—to say nothing of the pillar which it afforded to the vast majority of men and women when they came to die. To say nothing of that, he believed that men and woman who did not believe in something were likely to slide away to ruin, and therefore he was not in favour of dispensing with religious teaching; but he was not in favour of religious teaching being mixed with the ordinary curriculum of a school, by which the use of figures, the use of letters, and the use of the pencil were to be taught to the children. (Hear, hear.) It was no more necessary to this kind of instruction than it was to teach a child to be a bricklayer or a carpenter. In teaching a child to cast up figures, or to put letters together so as to spell words, and thus acquire knowledge, or to use the pencil to delineate landscapes, it was no more necessary to teach religion than to teach him the use of chisels, or the hammer, or the spade. Of course, true religion would pervade all our actions and walks of life; but no one would ever dream of tolerating the introduction of religious lessons into the workshop, or the brick yard, or the farmer's field; and for acquiring a sound instruction religion was not more necessary. (Cheers.) But this new law allowed any clergyman or religious teacher to go to the school and

call the children aside and teach them for an hour every day in the doctrines of their own faith; and he said fearlessly that there was nothing to prevent any sect of religion whatever from availing itself of this advantage, and teaching its own doctrines if it thought well to do so. (Hear, hear.) If there were persons in the community who objected to the Christian religion—happily there were not many; and he was one of those who believed that the conscience of all men should be respected, whatever their belief might be—but if there were parents who objected to the Christian lesson books or to the introduction of the religious teacher during this hour, they had only to state their objection, and their children would not be subjected to the teaching they objected to. (Cheers.) Well, the new law provided for the abolition of denominational schools. He had shown already that the abolition of denominational schools had been steadily going on throughout the last 13 years, that the Act of 1866 provided effectually for the gradual extinction of denominational schools; for he had shown that during the 13 years one-half of them had fallen away, and, moreover, that though the half which had been retained had been more powerful, better organised, and placed under trained teachers like the public schools, still the aggregate number of pupils had fallen away—that there were not nearly so many pupils attending our denominational schools last year as there were in 1867. He thought that that was a conclusive answer to those who said that the parents of certain religious persuasions would not send their children to the public schools. And what prevented our Roman Catholic fellow citizens from sending their children to these schools? He did not care what might be said by any authority whatever. If the object of our Roman Catholic fellow citizens was to train their children to be good members of society, loyal subjects of the Queen, persons performing the ordinary avocations of life, so as to emulate each other in doing good, if their aim be simply to build a free nation, what objects could they have separate from ourselves? (Cheers.) If they sought salvation, did they not seek it through the same Saviour? (Hear, hear.) If their worship be different from ours in form, was not the great end the same, and what could there be to prevent them sending their children to sit side by side with the Protestant children of the country? (Cheers.) Everybody in this land—every man, be he born in the British Isles, or be he born of this soil—should be something more than sectarian. (Cheers.) He should be an Australian citizen—(loud cheers)—and if his object be to rear his children simply as members of one common society he had a perfect right, which everybody freely granted to him, of training his children in the religious faith he believed in himself; but what possible obstacle would there be in the way of his sending his child to one of these schools to be taught to read, write, and add up figures? (Cheers.) And what was more, he believed that a very large number of the Catholic parents of this country took the same view as he did. (Hear, hear.) If this was not the case how was it that, while the population of this country had increased 60 per cent, in some 13 years, the children attending the denominational schools had decreased, and sensibly decreased? But the vital change that had now been made by which the whole system came under Parliamentary control, could not be viewed without some anxiety; and he ventured to express his sincere hope that Parliament, while exercising a vigorous supervision, would yet be cautious and forbearing in the introduction of the expanded system. He ventured to express a hope that the teachers who hitherto had been, as it were, an independent body, would recognise in a large and appreciative spirit their changed position as Civil servants of the Government, and he ventured to express a hope that in the administration of this Act there would be every care and forbearance and precaution used, while the utmost zeal was exercised in carrying out its objects. (Hear, hear.) It was not a work in which we could act rashly, and the more we saw where we were treading before each footstep fell, the better it would be for the solid and enduring establishment of our public schools. (Cheers.) He ventured to think that the Government had placed the administration of this Act in as safe hands as could possibly be selected, when they had placed them in the experienced hands of Sir John Robertson. (Loud cheers.) He was one of the ablest and most experienced administrators we had, and it was not so much a special knowledge of the work of education as the aptitude for the especial knowledge of administering a Government department which was required at the present time; and he trusted that the Act, after a little time, would be administered so as to add largely to the blessings which the law had hitherto conferred, so as to extend the advantages of education wider and wider and wider, until they reached all our children, and at the same time to improve the quality of this education that it should be equal to any and inferior to none in the world. (Cheers.) Sir Henry Parkes then declared the public school to be open.

Three Letters by Prophetes.

The Duty of All Parents to Secure a Religious Education for their Children.

Proverbs i. 7—"The fear of the Lord is the beginning (or principal part) of knowledge."

To the Editor of the "Otago Daily Times."

SIR,—A primary duty rests upon every parent who brings a child into the world, of caring for that child, by feeding, clothing, and educating it. With regard to the latter there can be no real education apart from religious instruction, and every parent who has incurred the responsibility of the birth of a child has incurred also a responsibility of bringing up that child in the fear and love of God.

Religion, morality, and knowledge being essential to good government, it is the duty of the State, as it is also to its advantage to encourage this feeling of responsibility in parents, and to assist them, in every possible way, in promoting the religious instruction of their children.

Parents very generally desire that morality and religion should form a part of the daily instruction of their children; and some provision should be made by law for religious observances, and for moral and religious instruction in all State schools.

It is frequently said that the churches ought to instruct their children in religion; but if they are not allowed to do this during the hours set apart for education in the day-schools under the State system, it is difficult to understand when they could do this.

As a rule, as soon as children are washed and dressed and have had their breakfast, they are sent off to school, and when school is over, and they have had a short time for play, by the time they reached their homes (in many instances having to come considerable distances), it is time for them to have their tea. After tea the younger ones are sent to bed, and the elder ones have their lessons to prepare for the next day's school. It is difficult, then, to see when a minister of religion could get his children together for religious instruction, for it would not of course be expected as even a possibility that he could give any efficient instruction by going to the homes of the children, as from their numbers he probably could not visit each more than once or twice a year.

If he were to try and have a class of his children between school times, or before or after school, there would immediately be an outcry, and a reasonable one, that he was overburdening the children's brains; and, in fact, when grown-up men object to having to work more than eight hours a day, surely five hours daily in school, and one and a-half to two hours at home, is enough to tax the brain power of growing children.

If the clergymen were to take the children on the Saturday's holiday, people would say that they had surely deserved their holiday, and that it was very hard that their only holiday should be curtailed for religious instruction.

The religious teaching of children then becomes confined to one short hour on Sunday, when, perhaps under a young and inexperienced teacher, they spend an hour, but come away little the better for it. And this is considered to be sufficient to instruct immortal souls in the things of eternity, though, as they are not compelled to attend Sunday-school—and many do not—many do not even receive this amount of religious instruction.

It is time that the people of New Zealand looked at this question fairly, and asked themselves whether they are satisfied with this amount of religious instruction for the rising generation—whether, as parents, they believed that they were conscientiously discharging their duty to their children in securing for them a religious education, or whether not only are they willing but desire that the minister of their denomination shall go and take a class of the children of his denomination during the week and give regular religious instruction during a time set apart in school hours.

Anybody who knows New Zealand will feel that churches and Sunday-schools, and other religious agencies, are not sufficient to impart a religious education to the young of the Colony. It is to the interest of the country that they shall receive a religious education.

It means a great danger to the State if a large number of young people grow up, having had little or no religious teaching, and without the checks and safeguards which religion imposes; and yet, unless the Government can see its way to sanction in some way religious teaching in our State schools, this is the inevitable result that will follow.

The argument has long been used that, as long as schools retain their distinctively Protestant tone and spirit, the Roman Catholic population have a just ground of complaint, and will be shut out in large numbers from the benefits of the system. That ground of objection once removed—an objection which men think they can understand and appreciate—then it is superficially believed that Roman Catholics will avail themselves of the common school conducted on the purely secular system.

Large numbers of persons are anxious that the schools shall be made purely secular, on the ground of justice to all sects. But it is a great injustice to most sects—to all, in fact, except infidels. The Roman Catholics declare that they are not satisfied with the State "secular" system, and wherever they have a sufficient number of their own Church in a district they will raise and support their own schools. The secular system does not

satisfy them, neither is it that in the main which keeps them away. If religious instruction were given in the schools, those of their children who might be attending the school would not be allowed to be present at it; but for the sake of the others, for the good of the country at large, they prefer a Protestant Bible to none at all, and some species of religious teaching to godlessness.

The experience of New Zealand and Victoria teaches us that we are no nearer getting the Roman Catholics to come into the public school system by making it purely secular than we were before.

When it comes to be felt throughout the country that there is a deep religious principle underlying this question, and when the religious communities awake, as they are beginning to do already, to their responsibilities, and to see the injustice and undesirability of all religious instruction being excluded from our State schools, then the destruction of the secular State school system becomes simply a question of time. Insist upon an absolutely secular instruction, and one sect after another will demand in tones that will be heard and obeyed, either that religious teaching be sanctioned, or in default of this a division of the funds contributed by the State.

The result will be several systems of schools instead of one; the free common schools will disappear, and each religious sect will have its own schools in their place. This is the result sure, sooner or later, to come about, if all religious instruction be absolutely forbidden to every sect, and the just demand for some religious teaching to be given in State schools be disregarded, and religion excluded.

The important question has been raised, whether the secularization of schools would bring in the Roman Catholics?

It is admitted that their ulterior object is to secure a division of the school fund. The *Tablet* says:—"The School Board of Cincinnati have voted, we see from the papers, to exclude the Bible and all religious instruction from the public schools of the city. If this has been done with a view of reconciling Catholics to the common school system, its purpose will not be realised. It does not meet, or in any degree lessen, our objection to the public school system, and only proves the impracticability of that system in a mixed community of Catholics and Protestants; for it proves that the schools must, to be sustained, become thoroughly godless. But to us godless schools are still less acceptable than sectarian schools; and we object less to the reading of King James' Bible, even in the schools, than we do to the exclusion of all religious instruction American Protestantism of the orthodox stamp is far less evil than German infidelity."

Whether the Roman Catholics, who constitute the main force of the sectarian malcontents, would be reconciled by a secular system or not, is clearly proved by the experience of this country and of Victoria, where the Roman Catholics are not satisfied by a purely secular system, and, wherever possible, support their own schools.

If we say that the teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic, together with the reading of the Protestant Bible, is a Protestant, and therefore sectarian action, it is intelligible that Roman Catholics should not be willing to send their children to the public schools where this is allowed. But it is also clear that their ground of objection to sending their children to a State school where religious teaching of any sort is given by the schoolmaster, is cut away from them, when that teaching is absolutely prohibited, and the education is wholly secularized.

But this very secularization of the school teaching—the teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic alone, without any religious instruction at all—satisfies them still less, and not only them, but dissatisfies Protestants as well. In fact, education without any religious instruction whatever is irreligious and infidel, and is therefore sectarian action, and is protecting infidelity with a vengeance, to the injury of both Protestants and Roman Catholics.

A Roman Catholic ought not to be compelled to support a system, the prevailing tone of which is opposed to his religion. Much more, then, Roman Catholics and Protestants ought not to be compelled to support a system which is opposed to every religion by being "entirely secular."

Assuming that public necessity compels the taxation of the whole community for the support of public schools, it still remains the bounden duty of all parents to secure for their children a religious education.

If it be absolutely proved that it is impossible for the State even to sanction any religious instruction whatever, it then becomes the bounden duty of every denomination, and every parent belonging to that denomination, to adopt a system of education, at any sacrifice, which will secure that the children belonging to their denomination shall be brought up in the religion which they deem so important.

If they do not do this, it argues a great indifference to religion which people, and especially parents, ought to be thoroughly ashamed of. If all denominations carried this out thoroughly, there would then remain but few to be educated by the State, and the vast majority belonging to the various denominations could reasonably demand that, whilst they were supporting schools at their own expense for their own children, the education provided by the State for those belonging to no denomination, and for which they were taxed, should be of a simple and economical character.

By almost universal assent, distinctive denominational teaching ought to be prohibited in the public schools to the schoolmaster, but some religious instruction should be, and (D.V.) will yet be, given in the schools. What we contend for is not distinctive denominational teaching, but the teaching of a higher Being than man, of higher duties than mere worldly ones, and of a soul and future state—all which Christians hold to be necessary, but which cannot now legally be taught as part of the curriculum of education in the State schools. Some teaching of this character is absolutely necessary, as of vital importance to the individual souls, and of paramount value in instilling a sense of individual responsibility and high principle into the component parts of the community. We desire religious and moral teaching, as opposed to worldly and secular. The question is, not of one sect against another, but of the worship and knowledge of God, as against the worship and knowledge of this world.—I am, &c.,

PROPHETES.

P.S.—It is not pretended that these letters are original; their sole object is to bring to the notice of the people of New Zealand the fact of the present absence of religious instruction in the free public schools of the Colony, and the necessity that for the good of the whole community some should be provided. With this object in view, any ideas which have been written or spoken, and which seemed to throw light on the subject, have been freely borrowed and adapted for the purpose.

Secular Education the Worship of this World.

"And Elijah came unto all the people and said, 'How long halt ye between two opinions? If the Lord be God, follow Him : but if Baal, then follow him.'"—I. Kings xviii. 21.

To the Editor of the "Otago Daily Times."

SIR,—I distinctly object to having to contribute either directly or indirectly to the support of a system of education which does not recognize the Supreme Being.

The Education Act of 1877, in laying down the course of instruction which is to be followed in the Public Schools of this Colony, not only makes no provision for the instruction of children in their duty to God,—but says, "and the teaching shall be entirely of a secular character."

Now, what does this mean? Let us look in the dictionary, and see the meaning which the word "secular" bears; and, we find :—In Walker's : "Secular—not spiritual, relating to the affairs of this present world."

In Maunder's : "Secular—not bound by rules, worldly."

In Ogilvie's : "Secular—pertaining to an age or division of time, coming once in a century, pertaining to this present world, worldly."

In Walker and Webster's dictionary : "Secular—pertaining to this present world, or to things not spiritual or holy."

In Webster's : "Secular—[Lat, *secularis*, from *seculum*, a generation, age, the time, the world]—(1.) coming or observed once, in an age or century; (2.) pertaining to an age, or the progress of ages, or to a long period of time; (3.) pertaining to this present world or to things not spiritual or holy, relating to things not immediately or primarily respecting the soul, worldly."

—"*New foes arise,*

"Threatening to bind our souls with secular chains."—Milton.

So then, as a people—a people calling ourselves a Christian nation, and once proud of that name; a people that prints the letters "D.G." upon its coins, admitting that its princes reign "by the Grace of God;" that has the cross of our Lord for the emblem upon its National flag;—we are so emasculated in our religion, that, for the sake of a false peace,—because we cannot agree amongst ourselves as to the exact way in which our children shall be taught the knowledge of the Lord,—we are willing to sacrifice our principle of duty to God, to banish God and the things of God altogether from our schools; and hope in this way to get rid of the difficulty.

It is bad policy. It is even now laying the foundation of future trouble to this Colony, and already it is bearing fruit.

Children attending the State Schools in New Zealand may be taught anything relating to the worship of this world but nothing relating to the immeasurably greater "unseen world," and the Almighty God. Is this carrying out the great moral law enunciated by Moses?—Deut. vi. (4.) "Hear, O Israel ! The LORD our GOD is one LORD. (5.) And thou shalt love the LORD thy GOD with all thine heart, and with all thy soul, and with all thy might. (6.) And these words which I command thee this day, shall be in thine heart; (7.) and thou shalt teach them diligently to thy children, and shalt talk of them," &c.

No! In these days we have advanced far beyond old fashioned ideas of that sort. Our children may be taught anything about their bodies, this outward material form, they may be taught anything "relating to the ages and divisions of time that pertain to this world,"—they may be taught anything relating to past generations, "the progress of ages, not relating immediately or primarily to the soul." But, about the Maker of the Universe,—about the things relating to eternity and the soul (which, in some ages of the nation's life would have been looked upon as by far the most important things for a child to know), these, and things spiritual, which have been the springs of action in past history, which govern the lives of many in this present age, are to be forbidden, and driven out of sight as needless, or positively dangerous, from the system of education of our own young people. They form no part of the curriculum of education in our highly-civilized public State schools, and must be learnt in private, if they are to be learnt at all, and if the calls of "secular" education leave any time, opportunity, energy, or inclination, or means of instruction for that which the State evidently regards as superfluous,—if not worse.

"If the LORD be GOD, follow Him; but if Baal, then follow him."

Can it be said that we have sunk so low in our own degradation that we worship the World absolutely to the exclusion of God; and that "knowledge of the world" is so infinitely more important for our children to know than any knowledge of their duty to God and their own souls;—that it is incumbent upon the Government to enforce the one, and absolutely forbid the other?

I trust not. I hope that it is only that people did not know what they were doing; that they passed this clause, without thought, at the desire of a few mere secularists; and they are but few.

If we look at the Report upon the last Census published this year, we find that out of a population of 414,412, 402,105 have specified religious beliefs, and 393,690 are either Protestants or Roman Catholics. That is to say, that Protestants and Roman Catholics number 393,690 to 20,722 other persons.

Now, Protestants and Roman Catholics if left absolutely to themselves and to their denominations, would undoubtedly wish their children to be brought up "in the nurture and admonition of the Lord."

Therefore, either—(1.) a small and disunited party of 20,722 persons of whom probably nearly 4,379 are Chinese, are dictating to their Protestant and Catholic fellow-men, that—whether they will or not—they *shall* not have any religious teaching in the State Schools; or else (2.), Roman Catholics and Protestants of the various denominations cannot agree amongst themselves as to the manner in which religious teaching shall be given; and, therefore, for the sake of a false peace, they mutually agree that God the Creator of the Universe, whose worship is the ground of their differences, shall be banished from the State schools altogether.

Now, if the first is the case, then the majority have a right to be heard, and to say:—"We will have God acknowledged and revered in the curriculum of education drawn up for our schools and supported by ourselves. If you do not like your children to come under religious instruction, you may withdraw them during those hours, or they may be put to other work; but we claim the right—being the vast majority of the people of the country—to have religious instruction for our children."

If this is not the case; but the second reason—viz., that Christians cannot agree amongst themselves, is the one: Then, "Shame upon any people that can voluntarily agree to ignore and to insult the Lord of Hosts, by placing upon their statute-book a law which exalts the knowledge of this world, as such, to His entire exclusion!"

The first principle we ought to unite in insisting upon, whether we be Roman Catholics or Protestants (of whatever denomination), is—that God be acknowledged, and our children brought up in His fear and love, under our State Education system; and that this principle be recognised, and made the law.

The adjustment of this principle to practical detail must be worked out, and, if necessary, fought out. Only, let the principle itself be recognised as a first principle—as so vital—that nothing shall make us lose sight of it, and nothing shall rob us of it.

But the principle of putting God out of sight because no agreement could be come to as to how religion should be taught, is a wholly false and illogical conclusion to arrive at; and is one which it may be confidently anticipated the sense of right in the people of New Zealand will correct; and that they will not agree to allow the things of this world only, and the knowledge of this world and things pertaining to it, to be taught to their children, whilst the things of God, the things of eternity, things that concern the soul, shall not only not form part of the curriculum of study, but shall be forbidden so far as the law can forbid them from being taught by those who are able to teach them, and to those who are anxious to be taught them. I am, &c.,

PROPHETES.

Education on a Religious Basis the Duty of the

State.

DEUT. xxxii.—"46. Set your hearts unto all the words which I testify among you this day, which ye shall command your children to observe to do, all the words of this law. 47. For it is not a vain thing for you, because it is your life."

To the Editor of the "Otago Daily Times."

SIR,—I endeavoured in a former letter to call attention to that clause in the Education Act of 1877 which governs the instruction to be given by the schoolmaster in the State schools, and enacts that "the teaching shall be entirely of a secular character."

I endeavoured to show that the teaching given under this new clause means instruction in the knowledge of this world, to the absolute exclusion of instruction in the knowledge of God; and that the State, whilst recognizing its duty of seeing that all the children belonging to it are educated, and undertaking to educate all those children who are not otherwise educated, makes the egregious blunder of giving them a one-sided education, and instructing them only in secular knowledge, leaving altogether out of sight that which is the very complement of a good education, that which is the only sound basis of a thorough education and a healthy moral training—I mean religious Christian teaching.

Answer has been made to this, "that the people of New Zealand are better than their profession," and that, as a matter of fact, much religious teaching is now given in the free State schools, in spite of the clause which directs that the teaching should be "entirely secular."

In reply to this, I would say that if this is so, it is a wholly wrong state of things; and however creditable it may be to the hearts of the people, as showing that they desire that their children shall have some religious teaching, it is anything but creditable to the moral sense of the community, least of all that it should be tacitly assented to by any of those in authority. Such a state of things tends to lower the moral standard of all, and encourages teachers and children to believe that a law which enacts that which is disagreeable may be evaded with impunity, if not even meritoriously.

If the law is a good one it ought to be obeyed; those in authority ought to see that it is carried out, and teachers should feel that they are bound to observe the laws laid down for their direction, so long as they hold office, however disagreeable or oppressive they seem to be.

If the law is not a good one, let it be altered; and I think that it will not be long before people will demand with no uncertain voice that the Education Act of 1877 shall be altered to the extent that some religious teaching shall be allowed in the course of instruction given in the State schools.

Most people will agree that instruction in religion is indispensable for the training of the young, and as the very foundation for the good morals and well-being of the nation. Are we then satisfied, as individuals and as a community, that the rising generation should be watched over and educated by the State in all knowledge relating to this world, but left to pick up their religious teaching as best they can—the State relying for their getting religious instruction upon the very parents whom it cannot trust by themselves to provide secular education for their children, and therefore take the education of the children to a great extent out of their hands, or else throw it upon the Church? Let us consider how far these two agencies upon which the State may be assumed to rely fulfil the duty—expected of them, and desired from them, for the safety and well-being of the State—of imparting religious instruction to the children.

With reference to home teaching, I would ask each individual parent, How much definitive religious teaching do you give regularly to your children? And the answer too often is, "I do not like to interfere in my children's religious belief." Take the families you know; how many parents, if they would, are capable of teaching their children religion; and how many do? Some "have no time"; others do not feel "fit to talk about such things." In many cases the parents are out or at work the whole day, and have little time or energy to spare, when they and the children get home in the evening, to teach the children religion. I am not sure whether, if the parents wished to impart religious instruction themselves, it would be all that could be desired; in some cases rather the other way, where the children see the lives of their parents spent in indifference to religion, and in a self-indulgence sometimes of a gross kind. In these cases any teaching of theirs would be nullified.

In cases where the parents may be too much occupied or not feel able to impart religious instruction, they might be, and I believe in most cases would be, not only willing, but anxious that their children should receive that religious teaching which they themselves do not feel able to give, from the schoolmaster the clergyman of their denominations, or from any other person whose duty it might be to impart it; but if children have to

depend for religious instruction upon home teaching, very many, perhaps most, will get none at all.

With reference to Church teaching, I would ask those who are acquainted with Sunday-schools whether they are prepared to allow the children of New Zealand to depend absolutely for their religious training upon the hour, more or less, spent in Sunday-school weekly. In the first place the children, whilst compelled to attend the daily instructions in the public school, are not compelled to attend the Sunday-school and to come under religious instruction at all. In many places there are no Sunday-schools, and where there are Sunday-schools the attendance at them is irregular. Sometimes the parents take the children for a walk on Sundays; frequently they go to visit a neighbour and take the children who are detained and do not come to Sunday-school; occasionally, being late in arriving, they do not like to come in, and consequently play truant. But, taking Sunday-schools as they exist, many children do not attend at all, and many of those who do attend come so irregularly that practically what they learn is very little.

In many cases the Sunday spent by the parents differs but little from ordinary days, except in freedom from work, and church-going forms no part of the day's duties.

In these cases, if children get no religious instruction at the day-schools they will get none at all, and it becomes a serious matter for the country to consider whether it is not desirable that children should receive some religious instruction, and whether, as a matter of policy, the State system of education for the young ought not to include some thorough religious teaching.

Let the education of the community be compulsory and general, but let it be religious and not Godless—religious in the sense of having general Christian teaching, as opposed to sectarianism on the one hand and Godlessness on the other.

Let the instruction given by the State be founded upon a religious basis, as is fitting in a Christian nation, as individuals themselves would mostly desire. Let the schoolmaster be instructed to open school with prayer, and to instill the principles of religion and morality into the children as the foundation of education. Let this instruction be absolutely colourless if you will, as far as denominationalism goes, so as to embrace all Christians. Let the prayer be one agreed to by all religious bodies, or confine it only to the Lord's prayer: only, as Christians in this country are twenty times the number of other people, let us insist on an unsectarian religious Christian teaching being given as the foundation of the course of the State system of education by the schoolmaster, taught, if you will, on the ground of expediency, and allow all who do not wish to receive this instruction to withdraw during the time set apart for this purpose, or have them set to some other work, and, in effect, I believe that the number of these would be extremely few. But in a Christian nation do not let a twentieth part of the whole population who are sectarian in their infidelity, or diversity of religious belief, dictate to the immense majority of Christian people that there shall be no Christian teaching whatever in the State schools. Protect them by all means in their infidelity or diversity of belief if they wish it, and let them decide whether or not their children shall come under religious teaching, but do not let a small number of non-Christians dictate to the community who are, with the exception of a twentieth part, Christians, that in opposition to all their principles of faith, their children shall not be educated on a religious and Christian, but on an "entirely-secular basis."

Let the various denominations have permission to teach their own children at an hour to be agreed upon, when the parents wish it, and let that hour be fixed by agreement between the Board, the schoolmaster, and the minister of the denomination.

Do not let us have upon our Statute-book a law containing a clause positively insulting to the Almighty God, by excluding from our children, so far as the State is concerned, all knowledge of Him, and which exercises a tyranny of the most extreme kind over the parents of New Zealand. The law, as it stands at present, takes possession of children for the greater portion of the time for direct education in their lives, and says that they *shall* be educated, and in a manner in which the State chooses to dictate; that religious teaching shall be forbidden, and the parents *shall not* be permitted to exercise any discretion, or to have any voice in deciding whether their children shall be taught upon a religious basis, or receive any religious teaching whatever.

I believe that the people of New Zealand would desire, if asked, that their children should be educated upon a religious and Christian basis, giving permission to non-Christians, and those who objected, to withdraw their children during the time for religious instruction. And I believe that individuals of every denomination would wish that the minister of their denomination should have the privilege of attending the school and instructing their children during a portion of the school time, if their children and other people's children were protected from being taught without their consent by the minister of any other denomination.

It is the duty of the Parliament of this country to protect every denomination in the free exercise of its own religion; and if, there fore, any denomination desires that its children shall be instructed in religion as well as in secular instruction daily, it is the duty of the Legislature to protect their denomination in the imparting of religious instruction to its young people.

If the State decides to continue the present Education Act, and to exclude the Bible and religious

instruction, on the ground of justice to all sects, it then becomes the bounden duty of all Christians, of whatever denomination, to understand the situation and to face it boldly. They ought to say to themselves, the State compels me to educate my children, and to comply with certain regulations as to efficiency, &c., but if I send my children to the State free school I shall send them where they will be brought up upon no religious basis, where there is no regular religious teaching, and where religious teaching is absolutely excluded.

Let them say to themselves, "I will not have this. I value my religion, and I determine that my children shall be brought up in the fear and love of God; and they shall be. I am willing to make any sacrifice to carry this out, but I will not have my children growing up without religious instruction."

Let men be determined on this, and set God before them, and insist on His recognition.

If necessary for this purpose, let them combine and raise schools amongst themselves, which shall be under Government inspection, which shall comply with the requirements of the State, but in which, as being supported by their own voluntary contributions, religious instruction may be given. Let all Christians feel it to be a matter of principle with them to secure religious instruction for their children.

The teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic alone, without any religion whatever, is sectarian action, and so the State subsidises one sect of infidels to the disadvantage of other sects. This is not fair, and is not the boasted equality amongst sects, for they protect one sect and tyrannise over and persecute other sects, who are forbidden to practise their religious worship during a considerable portion of the day, and are compelled to contribute to support a system the prevailing tone of which is opposed to their religion.

The State ought to protect religion, and those parents who desire that their children should be taught by the minister of their denomination ought to be enabled to have their wishes carried out.

It is not desired, though it would be for the good of the community generally, that any child should be compelled to come under religious instruction. The fullest liberty should be allowed to all, and parents or guardians allowed to decide whether or not their children should be taught by the minister of the denomination.

If all the denominations felt the responsibility that rests upon them to see that their children do not grow up without any religious teaching, and combined to demand that facilities should be given for each denomination to give religious instruction during school hours to the children of their persuasion, the pressure brought to bear upon the Government would carry all before it, and the present "entirely secular" system would quickly give way to a system in which "knowledge of God" was not only not ignored, but was imparted by direction of the State by those whose duty it is to teach it, and under safeguards imposed by the State itself. "Secular education" is, by its one-sidedness, incomplete, for the exclusion of the knowledge of God, who takes so great a part in the ordering of the world and all things in it, is excluding all instruction upon the great cause, and reasoning only upon the minor effect. "Truth is one, and its harmony must be sought by a collocation of facts in every department of knowledge," and if religious knowledge be excluded, then the harmonious whole cannot be attained to in our State schools, and the education given there will have a vital defect, for "God is truth," and if all knowledge of Him be denied, the key of truth is lost.—I am, &c.,

PROPHETES.

Sermon By the Rev. Dr. Copeland.

Is Public Education to Remain Secular?

The Rev. Dr Copland delivered a lecture on the above subject at the North Dunedin Church last evening. He took for his text the 11th verse of the eighth chapter of Amos:—"Behold, the days come, saith the Lord God, that I will send a famine in the land : not a famine of bread, nor a thirst for water, but of hearing the words of the Lord." He had selected this text as suggesting what he feared might prove to be the results of a course of action which the country through its Legislature had recently entered upon by driving out the Bible from the public schools. The system of public education in the Colony was of a purely secular kind. The Act declared "The teaching shall be of an entirely secular character." The practical meaning of this, at the present time, was that the Bible should not be read. The monstrous character of this enactment at once appeared when its effect on the different branches of education was considered. No knowledge of English literature and general history could be attained if the Bible were excluded from the schools, and there would be a total absence of moral training. The expressions and allusions constantly met with in literature of every kind, and even in common conversation would be unintelligible. The most ancient and instructive parts of history would be unknown, and a large part of modern history could not be understood. As to moral training—if the teachers were forbidden to refer to God's law as it is authoritatively declared in the Bible, and to man's responsibility to Him as his judge—it would be merely a system of selfishness and terrorism, effective only while the pupils were within reach of the master's rod. It was of little avail to urge against this view of the system of education that the school-books which were or might be used contained extracts from the Bible and were pre-empted by Christian

sentiment. If the interpretation put on the Act was that it excluded the Bible, it would soon be shown by some that the exclusion of the Bible meant the exclusion of all the parts of which it was composed. The more rigid meaning of secularism would be insisted on by some—that it excluded all reference to God and to man's responsibility to Him. This view had already been pressed on public attention, and though it elicited little approval, and nothing was heard of it at the present time, it would again be urged with loudmouthed effrontery whenever the public had become sufficiently off their guard, or indifferent or degraded, to afford the hope of its success. Many of those who assented to the insertion of the secular clause in the Education Act had done so, not from any sympathy with the views of a small party who called themselves secularists or Freethinkers, but from the expectation that instruction in the Bible would be given by ministers and others in the school buildings before or after the statutory four hours of general instruction. They seemed to have been moved also by the hope that they would take away any ground of offence which Romanists might feel, and would preserve the national system, instead of running the risk of its destruction by yielding to many who sought aid for denominational schools. This so-called compromise had utterly failed to satisfy those whom it was intended to appease, and had only given perfect satisfaction to the least considerable body in the community—the Freethinkers. Although it had not yet quite fulfilled their desires in the practical working of the system, seeing that the school-books contained Bible sentiments, and even extracts, and the teachers still ventured to use the liberty of sometimes confessing directly, or by implication, that there is a God, the Freethinkers were patiently waiting their opportunity to insist on the rigid carrying out of the letter of the law. If the system were continued a few years longer such opportunity might possibly be found. In Victoria it was reported some time ago, by a Government School Inspector of Ballarat, that thousands of the young who had been educated at the public schools were growing up in ignorance of the Bible, and the same result might be expected in New Zealand. Heathenism and Nihilism had never reached such an extent in any nation, either ancient or modern, if the murderous reign of the Red Republic in France was expected. The Legislature, instead of removing the ground of complaint of the Roman Catholics, had furnished them with a stronger grievance than before. The idea of imparting Biblical knowledge to the children by teachers appointed by the various churches had proved to be impracticable. The question, "Is our public education to remain secular?" the speaker would answer in the negative on the following grounds: (1) It was evidently the desire of the large majority of the inhabitants that the Bible should be read in the public schools. When the Bible-in-Schools Association elicited the opinion of the school committees throughout Otago, it was found to be nearly unanimous in support of the Bible-reading in the schools, and a large number of petitions numerous signed were at present on the table of Parliament from nearly every district in the province, and from other portions of the country at large. (2) No injustice would be done to the minority who might object. If parents did not desire their children to be present during the Bible-reading, the conscience clause, which was always formerly in force, permitted them to withdraw their children during that time without prejudice in other things. The Roman Catholics, who had been generally held up as a kind of "bugbear" in the matter, had really nothing to do with it, for they were not satisfied with Bible-reading nor without it. (3) There was little doubt that if the present system was continued, thousands would grow up in ignorance of God's Word. It would be alleged by some that the practical value of whatever amount of knowledge of the Bible might be gained was much less than religious men estimated; that many who had possessed abundant Scriptural knowledge and made a religious profession had sometimes shown as worthless characters as the ignorant and irreligious. That to some extent must be admitted, but it could not be shown that in any case men committed vice or crime in consequence of having become acquainted with the Bible. Universal experience testified to its powerful influence for good. (4) He remarked, lastly, that if the secular system is continued, attempts would be made to give it a more thorough-going secular character than simply requiring the prohibition of Bible-reading. To avert this evil all who valued the Bible, who desired to uphold true morality and seek the highest well-being of the rising generation, ought to demand of the Legislature the reintroduction of the Bible. The present was the most favourable opportunity. Many who were disposed to give the present system a trial had weighed it in the balance and found it wanting, and were joining in the demand for the Bible. Some in the highest positions of authority and influence in the country were known to be in favour of it, and had publicly declared their sentiments. It was only necessary that the people generally should let their representatives in Parliament know that they were resolved to do away with the present ill-conceived and hastily-adopted system of secularism. Only thus could it be expected that the evils which had everywhere appeared where men cast off God's law would be prevented. Only thus would the people escape the national corruption and weakness which followed in their train, and save the inhabitants from such a calamity as the text discussed—"A famine in the land : not a famine of bread, nor a thirst of water, but of hearing the words of the Lord."

Extracts from Newspaper Articles.

The "Otago Daily Times" in a Leading Article on 2nd July, 1880, Says:

"THERE are mutterings that threaten the whole fabric of State education on the score of expense, and it is within the range of possibility that those who take this view of our present system may hereafter be willing to coalesce with those who are dissatisfied because they regard the State system not merely as secular, but as absolutely irreligious and immoral, in bringing about such a modified system of payments by results "as we have several times sketched in these columns—a system which would leave greater freedom to all who are anxious to combine religious with secular instruction by making the State the equal distributor of all public grants for secular instruction only, and would allow each separate educational organization to give what religious instruction it pleased. This would be an absolutely impartial system; but, after all, the State schools would be necessary to supplement the imperfect efforts of private enterprise and religious zeal. There is just a possibility that the expense to the State might be lessened by such a course, but the unsettled point is, would not a large number of children be left without education? We do not know how that is to be answered, except by actual experience. The only advice we have to tender to those who believe our present State system is compatible with a reasonable amount of moral and religious instruction being imparted to the children is, to carefully follow the working of the new regulations in New South Wales. If our neighbours succeed, contrary to our expectations, in solving the difficult problem, it will be worth while to consider the propriety of following in their footsteps. If they fail, as we fear they will, it will be useless for us to imitate their example. In that case there will be, so far as we can see, no practicable alternative between an absolutely and exclusively secular State system, and a system of payment by results."

The "Timaru Herald" in a Leading Article On 12th July, 1880, Says :—

"FOR one who desires to see the children of the colony trained philosophically, there are a hundred who desire them to be brought up religiously. The people of this country, like the parent stock, are governed in their daily life by religious ideas. Their social, and even their political institutions, recognize the existence of religion. So much is this the case, that the exclusion of religious teaching from the education of the young, if carried out as strictly as some would wish it to be, would actually constitute the rising generation a class of foreigners, as far as their habits of thought are concerned.

"It is under these circumstances that Sir William Fox, and those who think with him, are endeavouring to engraft on the noble system of public education now firmly established in New Zealand, a provision which will combine religious teaching with the ordinary secular instruction of schools. They will be met at the outset by a host of difficulties, which have nothing to do with the fundamental question of whether or not it is desirable to educate the people in religious principles. The chief of these is the difficulty of reconciling the differences of the various religious denominations. The most ardent advocates of religion must discern a broad distinction between religious education and sectarian education; and the weightiest task that devolves on those who have taken up this subject, is that of devising a course which will secure the former, and yet avoid the latter."

The "Southland Times" of 10th July, 1880, In A Leading Article, Says :—

"THE constitution of Britain and her Colonies is built on the Bible, and it has never been proposed formally to remove one stone of the foundation. To ask, therefore, that the school should recognize the Bible, was simply to ask that there should be consistency throughout the organizations that were the work of the State. There never had been absolute agreement on the part of members of the body politic in regard to its origin and authority, but in spite of this fact, the Bible had been nationally acknowledged in every branch of legislation. It cannot, therefore, be accepted as an argument for excluding that book from the Common Schools, that all are not agreed as to its claims and character. No argument on this score could be adduced against admission of the Bible to the schools that could not be adduced to overturn the foundations of British jurisprudence and government. If these arguments are correct, they form the best direct constitutional argument for an alteration of the Education Act, and the most conclusive answer to the bulk of objections urged against the use of the Bible in the schools. The evils of the present system are sufficiently patent. It discredits in the eyes of the children what is acknowledged by all Christendom to be the ultimate authority in morals. It deprives many of the only opportunity that can be made sure to them of becoming acquainted with the basis of the legislation of their

country, legislation which they are expected to understand and obey. It leaves State teaching without the foundation on which all true education must rest. It withholds from the children much indispensable knowledge of history, and some of the finest specimens of English literature. These are grave indictments, and yet every one of them can be sustained. Beyond them as secular journalists we do not care to go. But it is fair to ask, simply in the interests of the moral and material welfare of the Colony, what harm has ever come of Bible teaching, and what else it is proposed to put in its place. It has been well tried, and wherever it has been tried, has built up the most flourishing nations on the earth. What country, &c. . . .

"We believe that acceptance of the principle of Bible reading in the schools, and its enactment as an obligatory part of the statute, with a conscience clause, is what the country is quite ripe for, and would be the best course to pursue."

What Parents Think of Bible Reading in Schools.

Petition of Otago Board. The Bible-in-Schools Association.

THE following petition from the Council of the above Association has been forwarded to both Houses of the General Assembly :—

- That your petitioners have been duly elected as Members of the Council of the Association known as 'The Bible-in-Schools Association.'
- That your petitioners entertain a strong conviction that the exclusion of the Bible from the common schools of the Colony is fraught with consequences alike disastrous to society and to the cause of sound education.
- That your petitioners do humbly submit, that, apart altogether from its religious teaching (which, however, your petitioners hold in the highest estimation) the Bible is recognised and acknowledged in every Christian country to be the best and most reliable text-book in the important departments of morals and of ancient Jewish History, the former of which subjects in particular cannot, in the opinion of your petitioners, be neglected or overlooked without evil consequences of a most serious character resulting.
- That your petitioners, believing that the opposition to the reading of the Bible in the public schools was confined to but a small section of the community, addressed the following circular to the various School Committees throughout the Provincial District of Otago.—(Here follows the circular.)
- That replies to the said circular were received from 47 Committees, of which number 42 were in favour of the reintroduction of the reading of the Bible, two were against, and three were indifferent or neutral.
- That the following resolution, passed by the Dunedin School Committee, with only two dissentients, may be taken as a specimen of the replies received from the School Committees throughout the Provincial District of Otago:—'That the Dunedin School Committee cordially approve of the efforts of the Bible in Schools Associations to have the Bible reintroduced into our public schools, and will gladly co-operate with them in their efforts to attain so desirable an object.'
- That at a meeting of the Education Board of the Provincial District of Otago, held on the 26th day of June, 1879, the following resolution was passed with only one dissentient:—'That in the opinion of this Board, it is very desirable that the Education Act be amended with the view of allowing the introduction of Bible reading in the public schools.'
- That your petitioners are informed, and believe that the Education Board and School Committees of the Provincial District of Southland are equally strongly in favour of the introduction of Bible-reading in the schools, and they have no reason to doubt that the feeling is general throughout the Colony.
- That your petitioners humbly submit that the School Committees and Education Boards, being elected directly by the people upon the education question alone, their opinions are entitled to great weight upon this important question, it being impossible to gather correctly the opinion of the electors of the Colony at a general election, owing to other political issues of an important character being decided by one vote.
- That your petitioners, holding the conviction referred to, and believing the great majority of the School Committees and of the parents throughout the Colony desire to see the reading of the Bible reintroduced to the public schools, do humbly pray your honourable House to cause such amendments to be made in the Education Act as may provide for such reading being established by law, provided, if needs be, that any School Committee have power to prohibit such reading in any school district if a majority of its members so decide. And your petitioners, as in duty bound, will ever pray.

"(Signed) E. B. Cargill, President.
And the other members of the Association."

Report of Southland Board.

In the Education Report for 1880 (H.—IA.), presented to Parliament on the 5th June, 1880, by the Hon. the Minister for Education, the following paragraph appears on page 85, in the report of the Southland Education Board for the year ending 31st December, 1879—

* * *

"THE BIBLE-IN-SCHOOLS.—This question was brought before the Board, at a meeting held on the 6th June, and, after considerable discussion, a motion was carried almost unanimously, declaring it to be the opinion of the Board that the Bible should be read daily in the public schools without comment. Copies of this motion were forwarded to the Government, and also to all the School Committees, accompanied in the latter case by a request that they should give an expression of their opinion on the subject. Of the 55 committees then existing, 37 expressed themselves in favour of the resolution, and 8 against it. The remaining 10 were either neutral or failed to make any return."

Letter of Ven. Archdeacon Maunsell.

Napier Bible-in-Schools Association.

To the Editor of the "New Zealand Herald."

SIR,—Although you are, I am aware, a strong advocate for the present law on school education, which prohibits any Bible reading or religious teaching during school hours, yet I am sure that you will allow those who think differently to make known their wishes and their plans through your columns. I take the liberty, therefore, to ask you to make known to your readers the accompanying "memo." of the proceedings of a society that has been organised in Napier for promoting the above object—the one, perhaps, to which you referred this morning. The only resource now left to those who wish to remove the present great blot from our school laws is to organise, and to take steps for ascertaining the views of parents on the subject; and I will frankly confess that my object in asking you to make this movement at Napier known, is to stir up those who have leisure and ability to take steps for organizing a similar movement in Auckland.—I am, &c., R. MAUNSELL.

"A meeting of the Bible-in-Schools Committee was held on June 27, in the Council Chamber. The Bishop of Waiapu was in the chair. The secretary, the Rev. J. Spear, read a statement of the result of the canvass for signatures to the Bible petition. In those districts where a canvass was made considerable support was obtained. The total number of signatures to date was 1400. Four instalments of the petition had already been forwarded to Wellington, and were duly presented to the House of Representatives by Sir William Fox and Captain Russell, and by the Hon. Mr. Menzies to the Legislative Council. He thought that the committee ought to resolve themselves into a Bible-in-Schools Association, so as to be on a more permanent footing, and to work with similar associations in other parts of the colony. This would enable them to agree upon a common plan of action, and to institute, if necessary, a general canvass of parents in New Zealand with the view of eliciting their opinion on the subject of Bible-reading in the State schools. He had no fear of the ultimate issue of such an appeal, believing it would result in an overwhelming majority declaring in favour of the proposed measure. Mr. Spear quoted from the recent speech of Sir William Fox before the House, to show that the parents were the proper persons to relegate the question to, and not the mere political theorist, or secularist, or theologian. The result of the late canvass of Napier showed that, in the vast majority of instances, parents, and especially those of the working classes, were extremely desirous that their children should be instructed in the Word of God in the public schools. If the present petition failed to bring about the desired result he would suggest that another be drafted for presentation at the next session of Parliament to be signed by parents only, and to indicate opposite the parents' names the number of children they represent. Such a petition should be signed simultaneously in all parts of the colony, and would represent probably at least 10,000 parents, with an aggregate of about 60,000 children, and if it did not influence the members of the House, it would at least influence the minds of the parents, at the approaching general election."

What an Inspector of Schools Thinks of Bible

Reading in Schools.

Extract From Report of Inspector Hill, Napier District.

"MORAL TRAINING.—Before concluding this report, I venture to draw the attention of the Board to what I consider an important omission in the new education system now being introduced. When the Government decides upon a national plan of education, it is absolutely necessary to inquire what subjects should be taught in the schools, and why they should be taught. To be complete, the training of children should be of three kinds—mental, physical, moral. Any system of education which does not recognize these three is necessarily imperfect, and cannot produce the results indispensable to the well-being of a community. The recent system deals with the mental and physical training of children, but I regret to find that direct moral training has been entirely ignored. Why, I am at a loss to understand, for, after many years' experience as a teacher, I am fully convinced that the moral training of children cannot be neglected. In my opinion it is a vicious system to teach children to imagine that the culture of the intelligence is 'the be-all and the end-all' in learning. Because we have a nation of educated men, it does not follow that virtue and integrity will abound, but both these qualities are essential to the well-being of a nation, and moral training is the fountain-head from whence these qualities proceed. Mr. Lancaster, writing upon moral training, says: 'The province of the schools is to train children in the practice of such moral habits as are conducive to the welfare of society, as well as to impart instruction in useful learning.' Now that the Bible has been expunged from the list of school-books as issued by the department, practically there is no standard of morality to be recognized by the teachers, but I sincerely hope that the present educational machinery, good as it is in many points, may be perfected by permitting the introduction of the Bible as a reading-book into the public schools, guarded only by the adoption of a conscience clause, similar to that adopted by the Home Government.

—I have, &c.,

"H. Hill, B.A., Inspector of Schools.

"J. D. Ormond, Esq., "Chairman Hawkes Bay Education Board."

New Zealand Education Act.

An Act to Make Further Provision for the Education of The People of New Zealand.
[29th November, 1877.

Part I.—Department of Education.

Expenses of administering department to be appropriated by General Assembly.

8. All moneys required for the administration of this Act by the department shall be defrayed out of the moneys to be from time to time appropriated by the General Assembly for the following purposes :

- In payment of salaries and other expenses of the Department of Education.
- In payment to the Board of every district of a sum of three pounds fifteen shillings for each child in average daily attendance at a public school, such average daily attendance to be computed in manner prescribed by regulations.
- For the establishment and maintenance of normal or training schools, and in grants to Boards for the maintenance of such schools already established and under their control.
- For the erection of school-houses, and any other purpose for which such moneys may be applied or appropriated.

Subject to any such appropriation, regulations may be made prescribing the times and manner at and in which such moneys shall be paid or applied.

Part IV.—Public Schools and Management Thereof.

(1) Course of Instruction in Public Schools.

"School age" defined.

83. No child above school age shall be admitted at any public school without the special leave of the Committee, unless such school is a district high school.

"School age" means any age between the years of five and fifteen, reckoned in each case from the last preceding birthday.

Public Schools to be conducted in accordance with regulations.

84. Every public school shall be conducted in accordance with the following regulations (a copy of which regulations shall be conspicuously put up in every school), namely :—

Course of Instruction in Public Schools.

- The subjects of Instruction shall be as follows :— Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, English Grammar and Composition, Geography, History, Elementary Science and Drawing, Object Lessons, Vocal Music, and (in the case of girls) Sewing and Needlework, and the Principles of Domestic Economy. But no child shall be compelled to be present at the teaching of History whose parents or guardians object thereto.
- The school shall be kept open five days in each week for at least four hours, two of which in the forenoon and two in the afternoon shall be consecutive, *and the teaching shall be entirely of a secular character.*
- The school buildings may be used on days and at hours other than those used for public school purposes, upon such terms as the Committee may from time to time prescribe.
- The class books used in the school shall be such only as shall be approved by the Governor in Council.
- The school shall be open at all times to the visits of an Inspector.
- No fees shall be payable at any public school except as hereinbefore provided in the case of district high schools.

(2) Compulsory Education, Exemptions.

Every Child above seven, nor more than thirteen, to attend School.

89. Subject to the provisions of this Act, the parent or guardian of every child not less than seven, nor more than thirteen, years of age shall, in case such child lives within a school district, send such child to school for at least one-half of the period in each year during which the school is usually open.

Exemptions.

90. The parent or guardian of any child may apply for and receive a certificate from the Committee in the school district in which such child resides exempting such child from attendance in whole or in part at school, upon satisfying the Committee of the existence of any one of the following grounds, namely :—

- That the child is under efficient or regular instruction otherwise, or is attending some private school or some educational institution not supported by grants from the Board, and which school or institution provides for instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic on weekdays.
- That the child is prevented from attending school by sickness, danger of infection, temporary or permanent infirmity, or other unavoidable cause.
- That the road between the child's residence and the school is not sufficiently passable for such child.
- That one of the Inspectors or the master of any public school has, by writing under his hand, certified that such child has reached a standard of education prescribed by any regulations under this Act.

And every such certificate of exemption shall state the ground of exemption, and shall be in force for a period of one year or for a shorter period, as may be named in such certificate; and during the period named in such certificate the holder thereof shall be freed from the operation of the provisions of this Act in respect of the child named therein : Provided always that any parent dissatisfied with the decision of a Committee in refusing

to grant an exemption certificate may appeal to the Board against such decision, and the Board may overrule or confirm such decision.

In case Child does not attend School, notice may be given.

91. In case any Committee ascertains that any child between the ages of seven and thirteen years, and resident within the distance of two miles from a public school within its district, does not attend school, the clerk, or any member of such Committee, may give the parent or guardian of such child notice in writing, in the form or to the effect in the Third Schedule hereto, calling upon such parent or guardian to send such child to school.

Proceedings to compel attendance.

92. If the parent or guardian of any child, between the ages of seven and thirteen, resident within two miles from a public school, not holding a certificate of exemption as aforesaid in respect of such child, refuses or neglects to send such child to a public school after having been called upon in manner aforesaid to do so, the parent or guardian of such child may be summoned before any two Justices of the Peace, who may order such parent or guardian to send such child to a public school.

(3) Penalties in Certain Cases.

Penalty for non-compliance with order of Justices.

93. In case any parent or guardian, after having been ordered as aforesaid by any two Justices of the Peace to send any child to a public school, neglects to obey such order, or having obeyed the same for a time, without sufficient cause ceases to do so, such parent or guardian shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding forty shillings, and the same proceedings may be taken week by week in the case of failure by such parent to comply with the order aforesaid.

Extracts From the Education Acts of England and Wales, Scotland, N.S. Wales, Victoria, and South Australia,

England and Wales.

An Act to Provide for Public Elementary Education in England and Wales.

[9th August, 1870.]

Regulations for conduct of Public Elementary School.

7. Every elementary school which is conducted in accordance with the following regulations shall be a public elementary school within the meaning of this Act; and every public elementary school shall be conducted in accordance with the following regulations (a copy of which regulations shall be conspicuously put up in every such school,) namely:—

- It shall not be required, as a condition of any child being admitted into or continuing in the school, that he shall attend or abstain from attending any Sunday school, or any place of religious worship, or that he shall attend any religious observance or any instruction in religious subjects in the school or elsewhere, from which observance or instruction he may be withdrawn by his parent, or that he shall, if withdrawn by his parent, attend the school on any day exclusively set apart for religious observance by the religious body to which his parent belongs.
- The time or times during which any religious observance is practised or instruction in religious subjects is

given at any meeting of the school shall be either at the beginning or at the end or at the beginning and the end of such meeting, and shall be inserted in a time table to be approved by the Education Department, and to be kept permanently and conspicuously affixed in every schoolroom; and any scholar may be withdrawn by his parent from such observance or instruction without forfeiting any of the other benefits of the school.

- The school shall be open at all times to the inspection of any of Her Majesty's inspectors, so, however, that it shall be no part of the duties of such inspector to inquire into any instruction in religious subjects given at such school, or to examine any scholar therein in religious knowledge or in any religious subject or book.

Management and Maintenance of Schools by School Board.

Management of School by School Board.

14. Every school provided by a school board shall be conducted under the control and management of such Board in accordance with the following regulations.

- The school shall be a public elementary school within the meaning of this Act.
- No religious catechism or religious formulary which is distinctive of any particular denomination shall be taught in the school.

Fees of Children.

17. Every child attending a school provided by any school board shall pay such weekly fee as may be prescribed by the school board, with the consent of the Education Department, but the school board may from time to time, for a renewable period not exceeding six months, remit the whole or any part of such fee in the case of any child when they are of opinion that the parent of such child is unable from poverty to pay the same, but such remission shall not be deemed to be parochial relief given to such parent.

Miscellaneous Powers of School Board.

Payment of School Fees.

25. The school board may, if they think fit, from time to time, for a renewable period not exceeding six months, pay the whole or any part of the school fees payable at any public elementary school by any child resident in their district whose parent is, in their opinion, unable from poverty to pay the same; but no such payment shall be made or refused on condition of the child attending any public elementary school other than such as may be selected by the parent; and such payment shall not be deemed to be parochial relief given to such parent.

Attendance at School.

As to attendance of Children at School.

74. Every school board may from time to time, with the approval of the Education Department, make bye-laws for all or any of the following purposes:—

- Requiring the parents of children of such age, not less than five, nor more than thirteen, years as may be fixed by the bye-laws, to cause such children (unless there is some reasonable excuse) to attend school.
- Determining the time during which children are so to attend school: Provided that no such bye-law shall prevent the withdrawal of any child from any religious observance or instruction in religious subjects, or shall require any child to attend school on any day exclusively set apart for religious observance by the religious body to which his parent belongs, or shall be contrary to anything contained in any Act for regulating the education of children employed in labour.
- Providing for the remission or payment of the whole or any part of the fees of any child where the parent satisfies the school board that he is unable from poverty to pay the same.

Inspection of Voluntary Schools by Inspector, not one of Her

Majesty's Inspectors.

76. Where the managers of any public elementary school not provided by a school board desire to have their school inspected or the scholars therein examined, as well in respect of religious as of other subjects, by an inspector other than one of Her Majesty's inspectors, such managers may fix a day or days not exceeding two in any one year for such inspection or examination.

The managers shall, not less than fourteen days before any day so fixed, cause public notice of the day to be given in the school, and notice in writing of such day to be conspicuously affixed in the school.

On any such day any religious observance may be practised, and any instruction in religious subjects given at any time during the meeting of the school; but any scholar who has been withdrawn by his parent from any religious observance or instruction in religious subjects shall not be required to attend the school on any such day.

(II.) Parliamentary Grant.

Conditions of Annual Parliamentary Grant.

97. The conditions required to be fulfilled by an elementary school in order to obtain an annual parliamentary grant shall be those contained in the minutes of the Education Department in force for the time being, and shall amongst other matters provide that after the thirty-first day of March, one thousand eight hundred and seventy-one—

- Such grant shall not be made in respect of any instruction in religious subjects :
- Such grant shall not for any year exceed the income of the school for that year which was derived from voluntary contributions, and from school fees, and from any sources other than the parliamentary grant; but such conditions shall not require that the school shall be in connection with a religious denomination, or that religious instruction shall be given in the school, and shall not give any preference or advantage to any school on the ground that it is or is not provided by a school board:

Scotland.

An Act to Amend and Extend the Provisions of the Law of Scotland on the Subject of Education.

[6th August, 1872.

Preamble.

AND whereas it has been the custom in the public schools of Scotland to give instruction in religion to children whose parents did not object to the instruction so given, but with liberty to parents, without forfeiting any of the other advantages of the schools, to elect that their children should not receive such instruction, and it is expedient that the managers of public schools shall be at liberty to continue the said custom.

Power to Impose Bates.

44. Any sum required to meet a deficiency in the school fund, whether for satisfying present or future liabilities, shall be provided by means of a local rate within the parish or burgh in the school fund of which the deficiency exists.

School Fees.

53. The school board shall, subject to the provisions hereinafter contained with respect to higher class public schools, fix the school fees to be paid for attendance at each school under their management, and such fees shall be paid to the treasurer of the Board, and a separate account shall be kept of the amount of the fees derived from each school, and it shall be lawful for the school board, if they see fit, to pay to teachers of a school the fees derived from such school, and to divide the same among them as the school board shall determine.

Conscience Clause.

68. Every public school, and every school subject to inspection and in receipt of any public money as herein-before provided, shall be open to children of all denominations, and any child may be withdrawn by his parents from any instruction in religious subjects, and from any religious observance in any such school; and no child shall in any such school be placed at any disadvantage with respect to the secular instruction given therein by reason of the denomination to which such child or his parents belong, or by reason of his being withdrawn from any instruction in religious subjects. The time or times during which any religious observance is practised or instruction in religious subjects is given at any meeting of the school for elementary instruction shall be either at the beginning or at the end or at the beginning and at the end of such meeting, and shall be specified in a table approved of by the Scotch Education Department.

Parents to provide Elementary Education for their Children, and when unable, to pay Fees to apply to Parochial Board.

69. It shall be the duty of every parent to provide elementary education in reading, writing, and arithmetic for his children, between five and thirteen years of age, and if unable from poverty to pay therefor to apply to the parochial board of the parish or burgh in which he resides, and it shall be the duty of the said Board to pay out of the poor fund the ordinary and reasonable fees for the elementary education of every such child, or such part of such fees as the parent shall be unable to pay, in the event of such Board being satisfied of the inability of the parent to pay such fees, and the provisions of this clause shall apply to the education of blind children, but no such payment shall be made or refused on condition of the child attending any school in receipt of the parliamentary grant other than such as may be selected by the parent.

New South Wales Education Act.

WE publish below the most material clauses of the new Education Act of New South Wales, which was assented to on 16th April last. We call the special attention of our readers to clauses 7 and 17 regarding religious education, and clause 11 regarding school fees:—

6. The several classes of schools herein defined may be established and maintained under this Act as fully-organised schools, namely—

- Public schools in which the main object shall be to afford the best primary education to all children without sectarian or class distinction.
- Superior public schools in towns and populous districts in which additional lessons in the higher branches of education may be given under such regulations for the purpose as may be approved by the Governor.
- Evening public schools in which the object shall be to instruct persons who may not have received the advantages of primary education.
- High schools for boys in which the course of instruction shall be of such character as to complete the public school curriculum or to prepare students for the university.
- High schools for girls.

7. In all schools under this Act the teaching shall be strictly non-sectarian but the words "secular instruction" shall be held to include general religious teaching as distinguished from dogmatical or polemical theology and lessons in the history of England and in the history of Australia shall form part of the course of secular instruction.

11. In all public schools the weekly fees shall not exceed threepence for each child up to four children of one family and for four or any larger number of the same family the total amount of fees shall not exceed one shilling. And in every cases the fees shall be payable to the teacher in charge of the school or other person appointed by the Minister to receive them and may be recovered by the person so appointed in a summary way before any Justice of the Peace and under regulations to be made for such purpose shall be remitted to the Colonial Treasurer and shall be paid into the Consolidated Revenue Fund.

11. The fees for the teaching in evening public schools shall be fixed by regulations approved by the Governor and all such fees shall be paid to the teachers performing such special duties and may be recovered by such teacher in a summary way before any Justice of the Peace.

12. The Minister or the Public School Board of the district under regulations to be made for that purpose may relieve parents or guardians from the payment of school fees in any case where their inability to pay such fees is satisfactorily shown.

13. It shall be lawful for any station master on the Government railways to issue a free pass to any child to travel in a suitable railway carriage or van to and from any school establishment or declared to be certified under this Act. Provided that such school if a public school shall be the one nearest to the residence of the parents or guardians of such child.

17. In every public school four hours during each school day shall be devoted to secular instruction exclusively and a portion of each day not more than one hour shall be set apart when the children of any one religious persuasion may be instructed by the clergyman or other religious teachers of such persuasion but in all cases the pupils receiving such religious instruction shall be separated from the other pupils of the school. And the hour during which such religious instruction may be given shall be fixed by mutual agreement between the Public School Board in consultation with the teacher of such school and the clergyman of the districts or such other persons as may be duly authorised to act in his stead and any classroom of any public school may be used for such religious instruction by like agreement. Provided that if two or more clergyman of different persuasions desire to give religious instruction at any school the children of each such different persuasion shall be so instructed on different days Provided also that the religious instruction to be so given shall in every case be the religious instruction authorised by the Church to which the clergyman or other religious teachers may belong : Provided further that in case of the non-attendance of any clergyman or religious teacher during any portion of the period agreed to be set apart for religious instruction such period shall be devoted to the ordinary secular instruction in such school.

18. Not with standing anything to the contrary in the last preceeding section no pupil in a public school shall be required to receive any general or special religious instruction if the parents or guardians of such pupil object to such religious instruction being given.

22. In remote and thinly-populated districts where no public school may exist the Minister may establish schools which shall not be classed as fully organised but as provisional only under regulations for that purpose to be approved by "the Govenor Provided that in all such schools the course of such instruction shall be wholly secular and that all such schools shall be subject to the same control and inspection as are prescribed for public schools Provided further that so soon as twenty children shall have been in regular attendance at any school for three months the said school shall be converted into a public school.

Victoria.

An Act to Amend the Law Relating to Education.

[17th December, 1872.

Four hours' Secular Instruction to be given.

12. In every State school secular instruction only shall be given, and no teacher shall give any other than secular instruction in any State school building, and in every school used under this Act not being a training school, night school, rural school, or other special school, four hours at least shall be set apart during each schoolday for secular instruction alone, and of such four hours two shall be before noon, two after noon, which shall in each case be consecutive; but nothing herein contained shall prevent the State school buildings from being used for any purpose on days and at hours other than those used for secular instruction.

Children of School age to be Instructed.

13. The parents of children of not less than six nor more than fifteen years shall cause such children (unless there is some reasonable excuse) to attend school for a period of sixty days in each half year, &c., &c., &c.

Parents neglecting to send a Child to School to be liable to a Penalty.

14. The parents of any child who neglects to send such child to school as provided in the last section may be summoned by any person authorized by the Minister or the local Boards of Advice before a Justice, and on conviction of such offence shall forfeit and pay a sum not exceeding five shillings for a first offence and twenty shillings for every succeeding offence, or in default may be imprisoned for a term not exceeding seven days.

Teacher to be paid by salary and fees and payment by way of results. First Schedule.

17. For the free instruction of all children attending school in the subjects specified in the First Schedule hereto, teachers of State schools shall be paid such salary and remuneration by way of results as shall be fixed

by regulations : For instruction in other branches fees shall be charged to the parents in accordance with a scale to be fixed, and the teacher shall be entitled to such fees subject to a percentage to be deducted, which shall be applied as a fund for the payment of the teachers by way of results.

First Schedule.

Section 10 and 17.

Reading; Writing; Arithmetic; Grammar; Geography; Drill, and, where practicable, Gymnastics; and Sewing and Needlework in addition for girls.

South Australia.

IN the South Australian Education Act of 1875 we find the following clauses inserted :—

An Act to Amend the Law Relating to Public Education.

[Assented to 15th October, 1875.]

Four and a half hours secular instruction.

9. In every public school four and a half hours at least shall be set apart during each school day for secular instruction only; and such schools may open in the morning a quarter of an hour at least before the time fixed for such secular instruction to commence, for the purpose of reading portions of the Holy Scriptures in the authorized or Douay version. The attendance of children at such reading shall not be compulsory, and no sectarian or denominational religious teaching shall be allowed in any school.

School Fees.

13. The Council shall authorize a scale of fees to be paid for pupils, and the amount of all fees collected in any school shall be paid to the teacher thereof for his own use, or if there be more than one teacher, then in such proportion between the teachers as the Council may determine: Provided that it shall be in the discretion of the Council to authorize a special or distinct scale of fees in any case in which the general scale may appear to them inapplicable, or to authorize the payment of a special stipend without fees in exceptional cases.

Fees when remitted.

14. Notwithstanding any regulation for the payment of School fees, any child whose parent shall be unable to pay such fees shall not on that account be refused admission into a public school, but shall, on the inability being shown in the prescribed manner, be received and instructed in the same manner as the other pupils attending such school.

Child not to be refused admission, but parents to be summoned for fees.

15. No child shall be refused admission into a public School on account of the refusal or neglect of the parent of such child to pay the fees due for the education of such child; but all fees so due may be recovered from the parent in the name of the Council or of any person authorized by the Council, before any Justice of the Peace, in a summary way, under Act No. 6, of 1850, or any other Act in force for the time being in that behalf.

What the Present "Secular System" will Lead to.

To the Editor of the "Southland Times."

SIR,—I was very much interested in reading a report which appeared lately in your paper to the effect that a child brought up before the R.M. Court, Christchurch, said that she did not know the nature of an oath, did not

know that there was a Bible, and did not know what would become of her if she told lies. I doubt whether the Bench would have been ready with the only rational answer to the question—what would become of them if they told a lie? which is that they would be liable to be brought into Court to be tried for perjury. The Chief Ministers of the State ought to understand the Government system about secular education. They should have enquired of the constables about Schoolmasters and not about Clergyman. If such ignorance is disgraceful amongst children, why do not the Magistrates report the matter to the proper authorities—the Inspectors of Schools—and require that the children should be properly instructed about the duty of telling the truth, and the consequence of telling lies, according to the present State system? I have heard the term "a mockery and a snare" and I think it could be judiciously applied to any sentiments that are expressed by the servants of the State concerning higher religion, while they are ignorant about the secular system, in which ministers and people in the larger towns seem so quietly acquiescing. The old world which recognizes and establishes religion is consistent, but these young countries are not because they only want it when they can get it for nothing without labour or pains. I would suggest some such catechism as this :—

Question.—What is an oath?

Answer.—A formal promise to the State to tell actual facts.

Question.—What will become of you if you tell a lie?

Answer.—I shall be liable to be tried for perjury.

Question.—Can you be considered guilty if not convicted?

Answer.—No : I could prosecute for libel any one who called me a liar.—I am, &c.,

Consistency.

Invercargill,

July 13th, 1880.

The Demands of the Present "Secular" System.

"No Room for God."

To the Editor of the "Timaru Herald."

SIR,—A father of a large family "in citing his own individual case, but re-echoes that of almost every family having children attending the Borough School. In my instance I have children at school, and this is their daily routine of work : They rise at half-past six and practise their music till eight; then breakfast and to school by nine; out at 12 or more generally half-past, home to dinner, and back again by half-past one; about half-past four they are released for the day, though its labours have barely as yet begun. Now follows the real work, in the shape of hard and numerous lessons, to be learnt and perfected after tea, often occupying till long past bed time. This is about as hard a day's work for a child as many a man does, and I am certainly of opinion that where a child is at school all day, it is cruel and useless to compel it to rack its brains in the execution of extra lessons at night.—I am, &c.,

ANOTHER PARENT.

The Expense of the Present System.

Local Responsibility, Oversight, and Rates Would Economize Better.

To the Editor of the "New Zealand Herald."

SIR,—Having just returned from a trip in the northern districts I have had a slight insight into the way our

money is spent in the matter of education, and I will now endeavour to give the public an idea of the actual waste that takes place. In this particular locality I refer to, which at present I believe boasts of some 25 or 30 children, there was a school which had been put up at an expense of some £80 or £100, which with a very little expense might have been made quite adequate for all the wants of the districts for the next five or ten years, but as the School Board thought it was not quite grand enough, it was decided to have it put up to auction, and it was accordingly knocked down for the sum of £5, and a new one erected about half-a-mile from the site of the old one at a cost of some £350, and a house for the master another £300, some land fenced and ploughed carefully and expensively, a knocker on the door, hat pegs in the hall, a scraper at the door, in fact no luxury omitted at our expense. It would altogether total up about £750. And this is only one instance out of many hundreds. It is about time some notice was taken of it. I for one would be quite willing to contribute towards the education of those children whose parents are unable to pay for their schooling, provided the schools were called by their right name—charity schools; but to pay for other people's children and get no thanks for it is rather too much of a good thing for

ONE OF THE TAXED.

To the Editor of the "Timaru Herald."

SIR,—I assume at starting I am a parvenu or an unknown person no one can take umbrage at my styling myself thusly, and with your permission I would give my crude ideas to the public of New Zealand, so as, if feasible, to strengthen the hands of the present Government, who, I am led to believe, intend to curtail the excessive expenditure on education in this colony. We are, Sir, in my opinion, educated to extremity. It's generally admitted (and I plead guilty to the impeachment) that I have "a goodly heritage" in the way of children, but *I cannot see why those who have not many or any olive branches should contribute to the teaching of mine*. I fail, Sir, to see the grand effects of educating the masses we were once informed would be the outcome of our State schools. Great Britain has made gigantic strides to teach everybody, and what is the result? England proper is anything but comfortable. Her manufactories and various industries languish. Scotland, I grant, produces a number of cannie or shrewd people; they were that always. Ireland the land of modern pre-eminent education, produces a crowd of discontented, disaffected, disloyal folk. To what are we to attribute these results? Why, Sir, I say to education. Our lunatic asylums are filled with educated people, the hospitals have their quota, educated public-house loafers are not altogether uncommon, and I need not inform you that educated obstructionists occupy seats in our Houses of Parliament. Your own pen asserts this fact daily, that some are anything but what they ought to be. Sir, I would have every person pay for the higher culture of their own children. It is monstrous to suppose that the children of some one who, perhaps through accident, gets located in a large town are to have almost a classical education, whilst those of another party, who elects the country, get only a modicum of instruction. Yet the latter contributes equally to the general fund. I have, Sir, the impression on my brain, it may be erroneous, that we are over-educated, spoon fed, in fact, with instruction. For example, an advertisement appears in a paper requiring a clerk, and behold dozens of applicants are forthcoming. I argue, Sir, some one must guide the plough and through that means comes our living by the land, and it only gives us sustenance. Ploughmen are not generally required to decline propositions from Euclid. For goodness sake do try and repress this excessive education mania. We cannot be all clerks, clerymen, doctors, lawyers, etc., some one, I repeat, must steer the plough.

The old hackneyed idea that education represses crime is, I say, effete, obsolete, played out in fact. Read the records of our criminal Courts. Who are the people who embezzle, forge, and such like? Certainly the educated. The recent Dewar affair at Dunedin is supposed, and I believe justly, to have been done by an educated scoundrel. Sir, I assert that in the matter of education we are playing with an edged-tool. My advice is, and I give it to the country gratuitously, to *allow the State to teach our children to read and write fairly; then let the parents expend as much as they please in the higher walks of learning*. And as the Government are beset with monetary difficulties, why, let them sell the greater part of the reserves for education, and all the church ones, pay off some of our liabilities, and New Zealand will recover from her nightmare incubus—namely, education and religion—and prosper.—I am, &c.,

A. Henry Heatley.

Woodbury,

7th July, 1880.

Custom in America, France, and Germany.

What is Thought About "Bible Reading in Schools" in America, U.S.

IN a statement, issued by General Eaton, a United States Commissioner of Education, which he calls "a clear statement of such fundamental principles as all American educators can agree upon," the following passage occurs :—

"24. Sectarian instruction is not given in the public schools. Religious, particularly sectarian training is accomplished mainly in families and by the several denominations in their Sunday-schools or in special classes that recite their catechisms at stated intervals during the week. It is quite a common practice to open or close the public schools with Bible reading and prayer. Singing of religious hymns by the entire school is still more common."

The statement in which this clause appears is signed by Presidents, Principals, State Superintendents, &c., of leading Universities, Colleges, and Schools, in some of the chief towns of about twenty different States of America, and may therefore be accepted as an authoritative declaration on the part of some of the leading educators of the actual practice in America with reference to Bible reading in the Public Schools.

The statement will be found in Appendix I. of a Report by Mr. Edward Combes, C.M.G., M.P., lately presented to Parliament in New South Wales.

The Custom with Regard to Primary Education in Some of the Continental Nations, Existing at the Present Time.

France.

Report by Edward Combes, C.M.G., M.P.

FRANCE has made considerable progress during the last ten years in developing primary education in its many different forms—infant elementary primary schools, superior primary schools, apprentices schools, and elementary schools for adults. In order to keep her place in the first ranks of civilized nations, she has made and is still making great efforts to improve her machinery for superior and secondary education, while primary education has become almost universal.

In France the law recognizes two kinds of primary schools :—

- 1st. Schools founded or maintained by the Communes, or the Department of State. These are called Public Schools (*Ecoles publiques*).
- 2nd. Schools founded or kept by private individuals, companies, or associations. These take the name of Free Schools (*Ecoles libres*).

According to law each Commune must organize and maintain one or more primary schools, and furnish the master with a convenient building for his dwelling, as well as a school house for the purposes of teaching.

Each Communal district of 500 souls, or about that number, if not dispensed with by the Council of the Department, must have at least one school for girls.

Primary instruction comprises: Religious and moral instruction, reading, writing, grammar, arithmetic, and the subjects of weights and measures. Besides these it may also comprise other subjects, which are defined.

Germany.

FOR many years Germany has held a leading position among all the nations of the world, with respect to

her educational institutions and system of instruction. Frederic the Great, at the close of the Seven Years War, published his celebrated regulations of 1763, making education compulsory and free for the poor. Popular instruction in Prussia has always been in the most intimate relation with the Reformed religion. It was considered necessary that every person should be able to read the Four Gospels, within which he should be able to search for himself the principles and rules of his faith. Luther himself occupied himself greatly in educational matters.

Statistics.

Education in Europe.

THE following numbers, which have been published in the educational organs of Germany, represent approximately the present state of the chief European nations in regard to School education.

Country.	Population.	No. of Schools.	No. of Scholars.	Average Number of Scholars at each School	Average Expenditure per head of the population.
Germany	42,000,000	60,000	6,000,000	100	2s. 96 marks or 2s. 11½d.
England	34,000,000	58,000	3,000,000	52	1s. 86 marks or 1s. 10½d.
Austria-Hungary	37,000,000	30,000	3,000,000	100	1s. 68 marks or 1s. 8d.
France	37,000,000	71,000	4,700,000	66	1s. 48 marks or 1s. 6d.
Spain	17,000,000	20,000	1,600,000	56	1s. 40 marks or 1s. 4¾d.
Italy	28,000,000	47,000	1,900,000	40	0s. 84 marks or 10d.
Russia	74,000,000	32,000	1,100,000	36	0s. 28 marks or 3¼d.

Primary Education in New Zealand.

Year.	No. of Private Schools.	No. of Children on Rolls	Private Schools	December.	Average Attendance.	No. of Teachers Public and Superior aided Schools.	No. of Teachers Private Schools.
1874	188	184	244	252	236	+M. 3753	F. 4484
1875	188	184	244	252	236	M. 3206	F. 4110
1876	188	184	244	252	236	M. 4475	F. 9357
1877	188	184	244	252	236	M. 4482	F. 9357
1878	188	184	244	252	236	M. 4479	F. 5513
1879	188	184	244	252	236	M. 4033	F. 5173
1880	188	184	244	252	236	M. 2794	F. 6322
1881	188	184	244	252	236	M. 3528	F. 2796
1882	188	184	244	252	236	M. 3512	F. 6308
1883	188	184	244	252	236	M. 3877	F. 8147
1884	188	184	244	252	236	M. 4271	F. 8148
1885	188	184	244	252	236	M. 3725	F. 4879
1886	188	184	244	252	236	M. 8604	F. 3573
1887	188	184	244	252	236	F. 4565	M. 8138
1888	188	184	244	252	236	F. 1153	M. 1350
1889	188	184	244	252	236	F. 1442	M. 1745
1890	188	184	244	252	236	F. 1817	M. 4449
1891	188	184	244	252	236	F. 452	M. 543
1892	188	184	244	252	236	F. 568	M. 526

* Numbers not received. It is believed that many schools existed in respect of which no returns were received. + Returns for 1879 incomplete and not yet compiled.

The Cost of Primary Education to the Revenue of New Zealand.

EXTRACTS from Education Reports showing the loss sustained by remitting fees, the excessive expenditure upon school buildings, and the extravagant grants of public money in support of the present system. Can the country afford it?

Date.	No. of Population.	No. of Children of School Age.	No. of Children on Roll Books.	No. of Children in Average Daily Attendance.	No. of Schools.	Amount Paid by Government for Ordinary Expenses.	Amount Paid by Government for School Buildings.	Total Charge on Revenue, Education on Elementary Schools only.	Cost of Education to the Country per Child in average Daily Attendance.	Charge on Revenue for Elementary Education per head of Population.	No. of Children Attending Sunday School.				
d. 1874	4341,860	72,147	38,215	27,143	83,756	3 1 8½	4 10¾	38,081	1875	375,856	...45,562	31,827	111,420
10 0 ¼	45 111/8	...	1870	399,075	...	51,618	38,146	177,212	177,212	12 107/88				
10 ¼	J... 1877	417,622	..	56,239	40,837	730	204,205	...	204,205	0 0 1/1	69				
9½	... 1878	432,519	105,208	65,366	47,996	748	216,666	101,257	317,923	6 12 5¾	414				
83/862	253	1870	463,729	...	75,556	54,724	812	217,873	150,581	368,454	14 7 7/8	15 10½	...		

In the Education Report of 1878 the following passage occurs :—

"The comparatively large sum of £45,944 9s. 4d. was received by the Education Boards, in 1877, from local sources, such as school fees, capitation rates, arrears of household and other rates, &c.; but all or nearly all such sources of revenue have been extinguished by the Act of 1877, and the local receipts were consequently reduced last year to £10,650, 16s. Id., only about one-half of this amount can be regarded strictly as revenue, the remainder being made up of deposits, refunds, &c. The grants from Government during the past year show an increase of £113,718 3s. 7d. over those of 1877, owing to the maintenance of the public schools being now almost wholly thrown upon the Colonial revenue, and to the large attendance at the schools. The special vote for school buildings has also increased from £ 50,000 to £100,000."

[N.B.—Districts ought to be rated to supply their own school buildings. They are essentially for the use of the locality in which they exist. Economy would be much more practised when the district was rated for the buildings than can be the case where the expenditure for buildings is thrown upon the Colonial revenue. The revenue will soon be unable to bear the burden, since the larger attendance at schools of some 700 more children caused an increased expenditure in one year upon school buildings of £50,000].

The Education Report for 1879, presented to Parliament June 5th, 1880, has the following :—

"INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF EDUCATION BOARDS.—In addition to the statutory grant of 15s. per annum for every child in average daily attendance at the public schools, the General Assembly made provision for the following purposes :—

- *For grants to Boards, at the rate of 10s. per annum for every child in average daily attendance for distribution amongst the School Committees for local educational purposes. It is required by Order in Council that the whole amount of such grants shall be paid to the School Committees according to a pre-determined scale based upon the average daily attendance at the schools respectively under their charge, and shall form a portion of the school fund to be disbursed by the Committees in terms of the Act.*
- *For grants to Boards, at the rate of 1s. 6d. for each child in average daily attendance, for the support of scholarships established by them under the provisions of the Act. These are the only payments from the Consolidated Revenue which Boards can make applicable to scholarships.*
- *For the distribution amongst Boards of the sum of £40,000 by way of subsidy, with a view to aid and encourage them to make sufficient provision for the efficient inspection of the public schools.*
- *For grants to Boards for the training of teachers. The amount voted for this purpose was £7000.*
- *For a special grant of £175,000 for school buildings."*

And the question arises, can we afford so much out of the State. Treasury for Educational luxuries?

REPORT 1880.—TABLE E.—Summary of Boards Income.

No.	Principal Heads.	Year 1879.	Year 1878.	Year 1877.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
					1	2	3
62,034	7	127,417	3	1143,569	4	72	Parliamentary grants—Maintenance.
217,873	2	0216,666	4	03	Buildings	150,581	4
7101,257	2	11204,205	3	44	Education reserves	21,330	7
18,862	3	916,604	4	35	Local receipts—Arrears of rates, school fees, &c.	5,739	7
410,650	16	145,944	9	46	Interest on current accounts	3,048	17
27	Net income for year for public schools	460,610	3	3364,853	10	8301,323	1
6							

RETURN showing, for each Provincial District of New Zealand, the number of *Roman Catholic Schools* and scholars attending them, in the month of December, 1879.

Provincial Districts.	Number of Roman Catholic Schools.	M.	Number of Scholars.	F.	Total.		
Auckland	...8	352	741	1,093	Taranaki	...13	2840
Wellington	3283382665	Hawkes Bay	4209168377	Marlborough	24556101		
Nelson	28781168	Westland	5304375679	Canterbury	6375579954		
Otago	7377520897	Totals	382,0642,9104,974				

Also, perhaps, the Nelson Roman Catholic Orphanage having about 17 males and 5 females, total 22.

Letters By Prophetes.

The Responsibility of Educating Children Rests Primarily Upon the Parents, not Upon the State.

1 TIM. v. 8.—"But if any provide not for his own, and specially for those of his own house, he hath denied the faith, and is worse than an infidel."

SIR,—The duty of caring for a child rests primarily upon its parents or guardians.

The State recognizes this duty of the relations, as regards feeding and clothing, as being for the good of the community, for from the intimate knowledge of the wants, from the sense of the responsibility of the care of the child, those most nearly related to the child are the most likely persons to discharge their duty efficiently of nourishing and clothing the child.

If the child be insufficiently nourished or clothed, it is likely to grow up diseased or stunted, and therefore not so useful a member of society as if better cared for.

This fact is recognized by the State, and if a parent is found to be absolutely neglecting a child, the State

compels the parent to contribute to its support, and, if it is still neglected, the State then takes the child into its own care, for its own protection, in order that the child may be enabled if possible to become a useful citizen—but this is only where a child is grossly neglected—where parents are discharging their duty of clothing and feeding their children well, the State leaves them alone, considering that they are more likely to discharge that duty efficiently and economically, and to bring up the children as good and useful citizens than if it interfered. If they are not discharging their duty faithfully, the State does not immediately relieve them of that responsibility, which they wilfully incurred, of the care of their children, but it puts pressure upon them to call their attention to their duty and responsibility, and to make them discharge it if possible,—and it is only as a last resort, that the State takes upon itself the charge of the children. All will allow that this is as it should be, for, if the State were to undertake the care of all the children in the country, to feed them and clothe them, and relieve every parent of all responsibility in the matter, the duty would not be nearly so well performed as it is where natural affection is allowed to have its full sway, and the State could not bear the enormous cost, which would be incurred, having to pay sufficient persons to take charge of all the children in the country.

It is the duty of every parent to care for the bringing up of his children up to maturity, in order to make them good and useful men and women, and their minds want nourishing and feeding and their ideas clothing, just as much as their bodies do, and the responsibility of educating his children in the knowledge of God and in secular instruction rests primarily upon the parent.

Even savage nations recognize this duty, and they instruct the memories of their children in the traditions of their tribes, and train their bodies in active exercises and practising the bow and spear, or else the parents place them under the instruction of some person qualified to teach them; but for the State to undertake the education of the minds of the children of a country as a whole, is undermining the moral sense of responsibility of parents, by relieving them of the duty, and all trouble in connection with it as much as possible, and is undertaking to itself a duty which it cannot perform efficiently or economically.

What the State ought to do is this : To see that every parent recognizes and discharges the duty of educating his children, just as much as of clothing or feeding them, and if he fail to feel his responsibility, or neglect to discharge it, then the State should step in, and compel him to do so, for the well-being of the community; and, if the State is convinced that it is necessary, then, as a last resort, it must take the child out of the parent's hands and send it where it will be educated.

Let the State watch over the education of its youth, let it say to parents you have incurred the responsibility of bringing children into the world, and you must discharge the duty which you have incurred towards the State, as well as to the child, of bringing that child up in such a manner that it will become a good citizen. You may send them to what school you like, but whatever school it is, it must satisfy the requirements of the State as to its construction, that it is properly built, so that the health of children attending it shall not be injuriously affected by attending it,—you may have what schoolmaster you like to teach your children, but in order that the State may be satisfied that the children have a competent teacher, he must pass a State examination, and have a certificate of efficiency,—you may instruct your children in what you like, for as you have the responsibility of educating your children, it rests with you to decide what your children shall learn; but, for the good of the community, we must be satisfied that the children are being properly educated, and the children will be periodically examined by persons appointed by the State, to see whether the children are getting a sufficient education.

Teach the children what you like, but certain hours must be given to certain subjects, and religious instruction must be given at a stated time, so that all whose parents do not wish them to be present can absent themselves.

But in every district there must be sufficient school accommodation for all the children of a school age in the district that may wish to attend, so that they shall be able to do so.

Subject to the just demands of the State that the education given to the children shall be sufficient, and come up to a certain standard, the parents shall have, as they ought to have, the control as to the education which shall be given, and shall decide upon what, or how much, instruction shall be given to their children, and whether they are to receive religious instruction or not, during school.

The State should interfere as little as possible with the rights and responsibilities of parents, beyond protecting the interests of the children, in seeing that they get a sufficient education under favourable conditions of health, and I think that the present estimate of the State in New Zealand as to what constitutes a sufficient education is a wildly exaggerated one, and one that is neither practical nor economical.

The State should call attention to, and insist upon, and so strengthen, the moral responsibility of parents to secure education for their own children, and place facilities in their way to enable them to do so, and not weaken or destroy this sense of responsibility, by taking the care of the children's education absolutely out of the hands of those with whom it ought to rest, educating them in many instances above their needs for their position in life, and even for their own advantage and the State's, at a greater cost than the country can afford,

and not allowing the parents to have any say as to the manner in which their own offspring shall be educated.

Every district should be made to support its own schools, which should be called upon to provide sufficient accommodation for all the children in that district. Parents who send their children to those schools should contribute their quota in the shape of fees towards the cost of the education of their children.

Grants-in-aid for building schools and maintenance, should be made by the State, either by results,—that is to say in proportion to the number of children who pass certain standards of efficiency fixed by the State,—or, as a capitation allowance, in proportion to the average attendance at the school,—or, on the £ for £ system of contributing so much from the State exchequer in proportion to the amount contributed by the district.

But every district ought to be obliged to support its own schools in the same way in which it supports its churches, charitable institutions, hospitals, &c.

Whatever deficiency there might be after adding together the fees and Government Grant at the end of the year, could be made up by a local rate upon the district, and a direct taxation of this kind would quickly bring the attention of the whole community to bear upon the question of education, so that superfluities, either in expense or in excessive education, would be pruned down to the real requirements and most profitable system as regards the State.

Where people have to pay directly, either by fees or local rates, for education, they take a more active interest in the efficiency of the school that they contribute to support than where they do not, and they are more particular about economy in the management of a school, whose working they can watch, when they feel the pressure of a direct call for money.

Being directly taxed for their own school they feel a right to have a voice in the matter, if they see that the school is not so economically managed as it might be, for they see where their own pockets can be spared.

The active interest thus created is good in an economical aspect for the school, and as a matter of fact the parents are more anxious to get their money's worth out of their children's schooling which they pay for directly, than if they pay for it by indirect taxation : hence they feel an interest in seeing that the children attend regularly and punctually, and learn their lessons when at home.

Besides it is obvious that when Education Boards have the spending of money, which is raised by Colonial taxation, and do not feel the healthy pressure of having to raise the money required for the schools under their direction, they lose a direct inducement to economy. However difficult it may be to raise the revenue required for Education, that difficulty does not fall upon the shoulders of those who have to spend it, and whilst they see the requirements of education on one hand, they do not feel the pressure of having to raise the money for those requirements, and so lose the force of a great moral pressure at their back which would enable them to resist successfully the importunities of the various schools for their separate requirements, which are not always absolutely necessary, though they may be desirable.

The expense of providing education for their children should fall primarily and directly upon the parents of the children and not upon the State through the medium of Education Boards.

Parents with proper self-respect, would take a pleasure and a pride in providing for their children, and would not forfeit their rights by allowing them to be taken from them, and educated through no care or trouble of their own in a manner in which they have directly little or no voice. It is bad policy, it tends to create a feeling of carelessness and irresponsibility in parents as to the education of their own children, and to lessen the interest taken in educational matters. Parents are satisfied to have the trouble of looking out for a school and having to watch over it, taken off their hands, and they are foolishly weak enough to permit their children to be compulsorily taken out of their hands and educated on a system with the regulation of which, as fixed by statute, they have directly no voice.

If a district is rated for its own school, and the Committee of Management are chosen out of the ratepayers, far more interest will be taken in the school in that district, and it will be more economically managed than at present.

If any person brings children into the world whom he is too poor to educate, and whom he is obliged to hand over to others that they may be educated at all, he has clearly not entered into the responsibility of bringing children into the world, and he is not entitled to dictate how his children should be educated.

The State would then take them out of his hands and educate them as it thought best, and if he throws the whole burden of educating his children off his own shoulders on to the State, he could not complain even if his children were not brought up exactly as he wished. As soon as he is in a position to contribute to the education of his own children, as he ought to be before he incurs the responsibility of having them, and there are very few indeed who are not in this position, then he would have as a right a voice in their education, but so long as he forfeits this right by handing his children over to others to educate, he cannot claim to regulate the system on which they are educated.

But where parents and a district contribute directly to, and support the schools for the education of their children, those parents and that district have a right, and a responsibility, which they ought to claim, and to

exercise, as to the instruction which shall be given to their children; and if they agree that their children shall be educated on a religious basis, and also that they shall have religious instruction given to them at certain times, subject to State restrictions, they have a right to do so, and a Government is taking on itself a serious responsibility which weakens the sense of responsibility of parents by forbidding them to have any voice directly in deciding how their children shall be taught, and disregards their just claim to have facilities given them, whereby they can obtain for their children the plain system of education which they wish, or of having some voice in deciding in their own district whether, if the majority of parents in the district wish it, religious instruction shall or shall not be given in the State schools of that district.

Government should rather call upon parents to educate their own children, and see that they do so, giving them facilities for doing so, and supervising, inspecting, and satisfying themselves that the children are getting a sufficient education, but they should interfere as little as possible with the rights and responsibilities of parents.

And Parents should recognize the responsibilities which they have incurred in having children, and discharge their responsibility faithfully, not only in securing a secular education for their children, but in securing education on a religious basis, and in seeing that the souls and the moral sense of their children are attended to and cultivated, as well as their intellectual capacity, and remember that the wisest of men has told us, that the fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom, and to depart from evil is understanding.—

I am, &c.,
PROPHETES.

Unfinished Letter by Prophetes.

SIR,—I have attempted to show in former letters that the duty of the State with regard to education is to supervise, and insist, and guard, and if necessary supplement, but not absolutely to undertake the carrying out of the educating the young of the nation as a whole. This is a duty which devolves upon the parents primarily, and secondarily upon the neighbourhood in which they live,—it is a duty which the State cannot perform thoroughly, efficiently, or economically, and if the State attempts to do it, it thereby destroys the best kind of work: viz., voluntary effort restrained by wise and firm discipline and regulations, and weakens the sense of moral responsibility in parents and the community, which the State should rather seek to strengthen than to weaken.

If instead of undertaking the primary education of the children of the Colony, the State insisted upon the responsibility of those upon whom the duty naturally devolves, and encouraged them and placed facilities in their way whilst insisting, it would be undertaking its proper duty of Government, and would benefit the community. It would leave greater latitude to parents, who ought to have that latitude, to give the children the education they wished, and would enable parents if they wished it to have religious or any other instruction imparted to their children, under State restrictions, which would guard the rights of conscience of those who differed. The nation would be a gainer, for you do not wish to turn out all the children of the nation as if you were running so much molten metal into a precisely similar mould, and sending them out into the world with exactly the same stamp upon them; on the contrary *Quot homines tot sentential*, and if you allow the intelligences of the different parents and committees some play and latitude, comparison and emulation would both have an effect in improving the system as a whole, different systems would severally be the best adapted to different minds, and, as a whole, would result in advantage to the community.

Besides, and this is the most important of all, it would enable the education of the country, as a whole, to be founded upon a religious basis, and subject to a conscience clause, all children of those who wished it—and these would be by far the greatest majority—could be taught their duty towards God, and be brought up in His fear and love. Without this, any system of education will sooner or later prove a failure, and will end in disaster to the community,—without this education fails with regard to each individual in its most important particular—"For what shall it profit a man if he shall gain the whole world, and lose his own soul? or what shall a man give in exchange for his soul?"

Another point is, and it is one that is most dear to all Englishmen, it would be fair to all classes of the community, and to all denominations, and would do away with the glaring abuse and blot upon the present systems of education in the Colonies, that they are unjust—in most Colonies to the Roman Catholics, in this Colony to all Christians—in taxing them to support a system which they conscientiously object to, and, to be consistent in their principles they are compelled, in addition to supporting a system that they entirely disapprove of, to build and maintain their own schools. It is said constantly, "Well, it is their own fault if they will not come in to the State schools; there they are, other people use them, and they may if they choose; there is nothing to prevent them; why do not they use them?" But there is something to prevent them, a most

important something which amongst high principled people will not, and ought not to be silenced. They say that they conscientiously disapprove of the secular schools, that they cannot conscientiously support them, and that they prefer even if they have to be unjustly taxed for their support, and at great sacrifices to themselves, to support their own schools where they can give the education which they think right. This being so, it is not right, it is not justice, it is un-English, to compel a large class of the community to pay for that which they cannot make use of. It is in plain words robbing-them. It is just the same as if a man went to a baker and asked for a loaf of bread, and the baker took his money and gave him a loaf which was unfit for food; and when the man remonstrated, the baker said : "There is your loaf, you may take it or leave it,—there it is; it is declared to be good bread by Act of Parliament, and you must pay for it whether you eat it or not," and accordingly, the man had to pay for the loaf which was unfit for food, and pay more money for another loaf of good bread to feed himself and his family, because Parliament had declared that the loaf of bad bread was all right; or, at all events, that it was all that he would get, and he must pay for it. This is not English. England is fair and just upon this question, why should not her daughters be?

Not only is England fair and just, but it answers, for "Honesty is the best policy," and that which is right, and based upon right will, in the long run, triumph over wrong.

This pamphlet is unfinished on account of the serious illness of the Author.

Finis.

ISAIAH xxvi. 4.—Trust ye in the Lord for ever : for in the Lord Jehovah is everlasting strength.

ST. JOHN xvii. 3.—And this is life eternal, that they might know Thee the only true God, and Jesus Christ whom thou hast sent.

ST. JOHN xiv. 15.—If ye love Me, keep my Commandments. 16. And I will pray the Father, and He shall give you another Comforter, that he may abide with you for ever.

REV. xiv. 6.—And I saw another angel fly in the midst of heaven, having the everlasting gospel to preach unto them that dwell on the earth, and to every nation, and kindred, and tongue, and people. 7. Saying with a loud voice, Fear God, and give glory to Him : for the hour of His judgment is come : and worship Him that made heaven, and earth, and the sea, and the fountains of water.

Wellington:

James Hughes. Steam Printer. Lambton Quarry.

Public Education in New Zealand:

A Speech Delivered by the Hon. Robert Stout, Minister of Education, in the House of Representatives, JULY 21, 1885.

coat of arms Wellington. By Authority: George Didsbury, Government Printer. 1885

Public Education in New Zealand.

IT has not been the custom hitherto for the Minister of Education to make any formal statement about the working of his department. Seeing, however, the natural and gradual increase Of the vote for education in proportion to the increase of population, and the need there is in every country of taking care that the lines on which the State aid to education is granted are such as commend themselves to the community, I have thought it proper to make a short statement about the educational position of this colony. I do not think there is any need of apology for my doing so. It is considered the duty of other Ministers with respect to their several departments to report to the House, outside of the official departmental reports, what has been accomplished during the recess, and also, if necessary, to indicate what reforms may be made in the departments under their control. There is no department so important as that of Education. A railway here or there may be of importance to some particular districts, but if it be not made, or even if it should be made in the wrong place, these things can be repaired; but the days of granting education to youth are limited, and, once passed, they cannot be recovered. If, then, our children are not obtaining a proper education, we, as a State, are guilty of great neglect. We are preventing them from making the best possible of their life in the future. I have thought it best, in order that members may have a full view of all that the colony is doing for education, to divide what I have to say under several heads. I propose, first, to show what our educational machinery is, and what the State does for higher, secondary, and primary education. I then propose to point out what reforms are being made, and in what direction I think there is need of further reform. I also intend to refer to what the State is doing in the way of museums and scientific instruction, and I shall also speak of the Native schools, the school for the deaf-mutes, and the State industrial schools. Having shown what the State is doing, I shall then point out some reasons why

I think that State interference with education should not at present cease, and why Parliament should pass heartily the sums that are asked for the continuance of our system.

And first as to our educational machinery, I would point out that, unlike that of other colonies, and of the Mother-country, our central Education Department is of a very limited character. Even in England, where it has been said that there is no such thing as State education but only State aid to schools, there is a larger central staff proportionately to the population than we have. In New Zealand there are only the Secretary to the Education Department, the Inspector-General of Schools, three clerks, and three cadets. The Native schools, being directly under the control of the Education Department, have an organizing Inspector, but the staff I have mentioned is all that the central Government has for the distribution of the large sums of money placed under its control, and to aid the Minister in dealing with university, secondary, and primary education, and Native and industrial schools. It will be seen, therefore, that the administration of education is left almost entirely to local management.

Coming to the university—the New Zealand University was first established by Act in 1870. That Act might well be termed tentative in its nature : little was done under it, and it was not until 1874 that the present New Zealand University was reconstituted, and really came into life. In its management the State has very little voice. There are two bodies, the Senate and the Convocation. The Senate consists of twenty-four Fellows; one-half are elected by the graduates, and the other half by the Senate itself. The Convocation consists of the graduates above the degree of Bachelor, and all Bachelors of two years' standing. These two Courts have the control of the University. The Governor in Council has a vetoing power, because every election to the Senate is subject to his approval, and statutes and regulations have to be approved and sanctioned by him before they become operative, and the Governor is also the Visitor of the University, having the powers that Visitors of such institutions possess. But, further than this, the Government cannot interfere. I am not proposing to meddle with the university, but I think it is to be regretted that there should not have been some provision for more direct Governmental control in the management of the highest education of the State. A fund placed by the State at the disposal of the university consists of the sum of three thousand pounds a year, paid out of the Consolidated Fund. The reserves that have been set apart throughout the colony for university purposes have been localized, except what are called the Colonial University reserves at Auckland, which it is proposed to deal with this session; and Colonial University reserves of 10,000 acres in Taranaki, 4,000 acres in the Waitotara district, 30 acres in Westland. With this exception the reserves belong to the separate institutions which perform the teaching functions of a university in the various districts. The New Zealand University is strictly an examining institution : it confers degrees, but it has no teachers in its employment. The teaching part of the university work is done by affiliated institutions. At present they are as follows : The Otago University at Dunedin, the Canterbury College in Christchurch, the Auckland University College in Auckland, the Nelson College at Nelson, and St. John's College, Auckland.

Over some of these institutions the Government has considerable control; for example, the Otago University Council, that has the management of the Otago University, is wholly appointed by the Governor; in Auckland, three members (for the present six) of the Council of the Auckland University College are appointed by the Governor, who also appoints the members of the governing body of Nelson College. With regard to the Canterbury College, however, when vacancies arise in the managing body of the college, members are appointed by the graduates of the New Zealand University on the books of the college, so that, so far as it is concerned, the State has no voice in its management. St. John's College, Auckland, is a Church of England institution. These various affiliated institutions perform, as I have already said, the teaching work of the University, and in some of them there is ample provision made for giving a high-class university education. In Auckland there are four Professors, filling the following chairs: 1. Classics and English; 2. Mathematics; 3. Chemistry and Experimental Physics; 4. Natural Science.

In Canterbury College there are six Professors (for classics, English language and literature, mathematics and natural philosophy, chemistry and physics, geology and palaeontology, and biology), and lecturers on modern languages and jurisprudence.

In Otago University there are eight Professors (for classics, English constitutional history and political economy, mathematics and natural philosophy, chemistry, mental and moral philosophy, biology, anatomy and physiology, and mining and mineralogy), and nine lecturers on law, French, German, surgery, *materia medica*, practice of medicine, pathology, midwifery and medical jurisprudence and public health.

The other institutions are not so well provided with teachers. These affiliated institutions are maintained as follows : Auckland has a grant of £4,000 a year from the General Government. Nelson, Canterbury, and Otago are maintained by revenues from reserves, fees, endowments, &c.

It is not necessary for me to dwell at present on the need of university education for New Zealand. I shall refer to this before I finish my sketch of our educational work. I may say, however, that I have had statistics prepared to show the results of our university education, and I think they may be said to be extremely

gratifying. I will not repeat what members perhaps are aware of—the results in previous years—but I may take for example simply what happened at the last degree-capping at the Edinburgh University. I find that the New Zealand youths stood exceedingly high. Mr. Jeffcoat, of Dunedin, a B.A. of the New Zealand University, took senior first-class honours and medals in *materia medica* and general pathology. His position in *materia medica* was first out of eight who succeeded, and his position in general pathology was the highest. Mr. Lindsay, another New Zealand B.A. trained in the Otago University, took first-class honours in *materia medica*, and the fourth position amongst the eight who succeeded. He took first-class honours, junior division, at general pathology, fifth out of eighteen that succeeded. He took a second-class certificate in clinical surgery, the twelfth out of forty-eight who were successful. I find others who have had the benefits of university education in New Zealand also standing high. Mr. Fleming took second-class honours in practical physiology, being the first out of six who were successful. He took the same class honours in general pathology, the twenty-eighth out of sixty-seven who were successful, and the same in clinical surgery, fortieth out of forty-eight. Mr. McKenzie took senior first-class honours in the practice of physic, being the sixth out of thirteen who succeeded. Mr. Allan took junior second-class honours in general pathology; he also took the same in the Institutes of Medicine, and the same in clinical surgery. Other New Zealand youths have also distinguished themselves. Mr. Robertson took first-class honours, senior division, in surgery, the highest out of eight who were successful; and Mr. Borth-wick took first-class honours and the medal in the junior division in the Institutes of Medicine, being third out of seventeen who were successful, and second-class honours in practical physiology. Mr. Westenra took senior division second-class honours in surgery. Mr. King took junior division honours in the practice of physic. Mr. Williams took junior division second-class honours in the practice of physic. Mr. Hawkes took second-class honours in general pathology. Three competitions have been held in New Zealand for the Gilchrist Scholarship of £100 a year, the test examination being the same as that undergone by candidates for matriculation at the University of London. At the competition in 1880 the scholarship was gained with much credit by Mr. Herbert, B.A., of Canterbury College, who was a master in Napier High School. Three candidates offered themselves for examination in 1882, when the successful competitor was Mr. Salmond, M.A., of Otago University, who was placed by the London examiners "equal with the first candidate in the original honours list" of all that were examined for matriculation by the London University in June, 1882. Mr. Salmond has just terminated his second years' attendance at the London University College. At the close of his first year's course he took the first prize in the classes he attended. He passed the intermediate examination in Laws at London University in first-class honours (being the first of two who gained this distinction among eighty competitors), and obtained the exhibition of £40 a year for two years. At the third examination in July last year there were five competitors : three from Canterbury College, one from Auckland University College, and one, a lady, from Otago University. The successful candidate was Mr. Inglis, B.A., of Canterbury College, who took a high place in the "honours division"; while three competitors, including the lady candidate, took good positions in the "first division," and one failed. Were I to look at the records of other Home universities, where others of our youths are who have been trained in New Zealand, it would be seen that they occupy good positions. I only mention this incidentally, for the purpose of showing that our university institutions and schools are doing good work, and that colonial youths, if opportunities are given to them, can acquit themselves as well as those who hail from the Parent-country.

So far as secondary education is concerned, there are in New Zealand the following secondary schools, viz.: Auckland College and Grammar School, Auckland Girls' High School, Thames High School (for boys and girls), New Plymouth High School (for boys and girls), Wanganui Endowed School, Wellington College, Wellington Girls' High School, Napier Boys' High School, Napier Girls' High School, Nelson College, Nelson Girls' College, Christ's College Grammar School, Christchurch, Christchurch Boys' High School, Christchurch Girls' High School; Rangiora High School (for boys and girls), Akaroa High School (for boys and girls), Ashburton High School (for boys and girls), Timaru High School (for boys and girls), Waitaki High School, Otago Boys' High School, Otago Girls' High School, Southland Boys' High School, and Southland Girls' High School. All these are in full operation. The following have been constituted by Acts of the Legislature, but have not yet begun work : Wanganui High School, Greymouth High School, Hokitika High School, and Wai-mate High School. The Whangarei High School is closed for the present, but it is proposed in the Forest Bill now before the House to reconstitute it as a forestry and agricultural school. The Board, of the Hokitika High School is taking steps to begin work, and with every hope of success.

Of these, the following received assistance directly out of the Consolidated Fund last year : Auckland Girls' High School, £1,000; New Plymouth High School, £200; Wellington College, £150; Wellington Girls' High School, £350; Nelson Girls' College, £500; Christchurch Girls' High School, £200; Timaru High School, £400; and Waitaki High School, £500 : the total amount voted being £3,300.

The others, which did not receive assistance, have been endowed with land and money from the Crown, from associations, and from private individuals. The Inspector-General of Schools has authority to inspect most

of these schools, and he has done so, and his report will be submitted to you. When the Education Act was being passed in this House, I doubted the wisdom of divorcing the secondary from the primary schools. I then thought that they might have been controlled by the same Boards of Management, and that the functions of the Boards might have been so defined by statute that there would have been no danger of funds belonging to secondary schools being taken for primary schools, or of funds belonging to primary schools being taken for secondary. However, Parliament thought otherwise; and hence arose the need of having separate Boards to deal with the secondary schools in the several districts. On many of the Boards the Government have representatives, that is, several members are appointed by the Government for varying terms of years. The Government appoints two members of the Board of each of the following institutions : Whangarei, Ashburton, Greymouth, Waitaki, Otago, and Invercargill High Schools; one member of the Board of each of the High Schools at Napier, Timaru, and Hokitika; three members of the Thames High School Board; and four members of the Wellington College Board. The Governor of the colony, in his capacity of Visitor, appoints all the nine members of the Nelson College Board. Independently, then, of the general inspection by the Inspector-General of Schools, the Government has some voice in the management of the secondary schools; for it has the power of appointing members of the managing bodies. The Government has however, no direct control over them; it cannot prescribe their courses of study, nor can it interfere with their internal management, nor can it even provide that their course of tuition shall stand in a proper relation to that of the primary schools or of the university. This, I think, is to be regretted. However, it may not be expedient at present to interfere with their course of instruction. I intend, however, to state presently what the Education Department has done in making suggestions to them regarding a part of education that has been much neglected in the past.

I now come to the primary schools, still dealing only with what may be termed the machinery of the Act. I have already described the constitution of the central department. We have thirteen Education Boards, which have the general management of education in their districts; and for each school district there is a School Committee, elected annually by householders and parents of children. There is rarely more than one school in each district. The cumulative-voting principle is applicable to the election of these Committees, and, speaking from experience extending over seven years, I think it can be said that the Act in this respect has worked well. No doubt, in small districts and at small meetings, it may have happened that men alto-gether unfit to have the administration of educational affairs have occasionally been put on Committees, but I do not think that any permanent, or even any slight, injury has been inflicted on education by the election of one or two men of this kind. The Committees take considerable interest in the educational affairs of their own districts. The Boards are elected by the School Committees. Each Board consists of nine members, and three retire annually; and, on the whole, I think the colony is to be congratulated on the men who have undertaken the arduous, and often thankless, task of doing Education Board duty. Throughout the colony I believe the Boards have striven to carry out the provisions of the Act; and, though there have been misunderstandings between the Boards and some of the Committees in almost all the districts, yet the Boards have done good work, and raised the standard of education. The Boards have the appointment of the head masters and assistant teachers, and, most Boards have, I think wisely, consulted the Committees before appointments were made, and, except in very rare instances, have deferred to the opinion of the Committees in the appointment of teachers. The power of the dismissal of teachers virtually rests with the Boards, and no doubt the advantage of that has been that the teacher's position has been more secure than it was before the new Education Act came into force. The chance of a good teacher obtaining promotion is now better than under the old systems; for formerly Committees were allowed the power of appointment and dismissal.

The aid annually granted by the State to the primary schools is at the rate of £4 for every child in average daily attendance; this is made up of the statutory vote of £3 15s., and a special grant of 5s., that has been voted for the last three years. There is also a grant of 1s. 6d. a head for the maintenance of scholarships to the secondary schools. In addition to the capitation grants the following sums are voted : £4,000 for distribution among the several Education Boards, to assist them in making sufficient provision for the inspection of the schools; and £8,000 for the maintenance of the training colleges for teachers at Auckland, Wellington, Christchurch, and Dunedin. Special grants are also made for school buildings, and for the purchase and improvement of sites and playgrounds. Of course, as the number of children increases, these grants must yearly increase. I think, however, that as population increases the Boards should be able to economize in their management. It is well known that it is cheaper to teach a large school than a small school—I mean relatively to the number of the children. I hope the time may come when the extra 5s. which has been granted for the last three years may be dispensed with. The reason why I mention this is, not that I personally think we are now, even with this extra sum, paying too much for education, but I know that our education system has many enemies, and that the question of expense will be fastened on as one objection to it. The Boards and Committees who really desire to see the State-education system maintained efficiently should do what they can to aid the department in reducing expenditure, so far as is consistent with efficiency. There are under the

thirteen Boards 976 primary schools, and eleven district high schools, that is, schools combining some secondary school-work with primary teaching. These have 1,657 teachers, 790 pupil-teachers, and 161 sewing mistresses; and the current cost is £313,316, being at the rate of £4 3s. 2¼d. each for 75,391 pupils in average attendance, or £3 4s. 9½d. each for 96,840 pupils on the rolls. The expenditure on school buildings for last year was £49,679, or at the rate of 13s. 2¼d. for each scholar in average attendance, and 10s. 3d. per pupil on the rolls.

The department also gives aid to normal schools—schools providing for the training of teachers. Every district has a pupil-teacher system, and, valuable as is this system for the training of teachers, it has been rightly felt that there should be some training college to which pupil-teachers might go for the perfecting of their studies in teaching. There are training colleges or normal schools at Auckland, at Wellington, at Christchurch, and at Dunedin, and no doubt as other districts increase they may be able to establish similar institutions. At present, four are, I think, sufficient for the wants of the colony. The students in the normal schools at Auckland, Christchurch, and Dunedin have the opportunity of attending the university college lectures. Those in Wellington have not had the same advantages in this respect, but the Wellington Board has done what it could to make up for the want of university teaching. Classes in science have been formed, and steps have been taken to render the teaching of the students as effective as possible.

This, then, briefly stated, is the machinery of our State-education system. I may be asked, What has been the result? It is impossible to accurately gauge the result of an education system in seven years, or even in fourteen or twenty-one years. There are signs, however, that our education system is doing excellent work. It is perhaps not necessary for me to refer to the number of our university students as compared with our population. I believe, however, that we show as many real university students for our population as any country in the world; and, though our primary-school system is not equal to that of some other countries, it is gradually improving, and, with some alterations that I propose to make, it will still further improve. There is one thing that may be taken as some test of what education is doing for the colony, and that is, the number of teachers who have been trained in New Zealand, and are now teaching in our schools, excluding pupil-teachers. I have the statistics of all the schools in the colony save about ninety, and I find that in these schools there are altogether 1,550 teachers, and of these 1,034 were trained in New Zealand, of whom there were 338 who were born in New Zealand, 307 who though born elsewhere have been educated from boyhood or girlhood in New Zealand, and 389 who were mainly educated out of the colony, but first became teachers after their arrival in New Zealand. One hundred and eleven teachers of primary schools were trained in Australia, 392 in Great Britain and Ireland, and thirteen elsewhere. In our secondary schools we have, out of 139 teachers, twenty-nine who were born in New Zealand; twenty who have been trained from early youth in New Zealand, though born elsewhere; twenty-two who were trained as teachers in New Zealand, though mainly educated out of the colony; nine Australian teachers; fifty-seven from Great Britain and Ireland; and two educated elsewhere. I have also some statistics of those who have been educated in the colony who have obtained positions in our various professions and in our mercantile houses and in our Government offices, and it is surprising to see the number of native-trained youths who have distinguished themselves in every department as professional men, as merchants, as manufacturers, and in the Government service.

And now as to the weaknesses of our system. It seems to me that it has been weak in three respects. First, there has not been a proper gradation between the primary and secondary schools; secondly, there has been more attention paid to the literary part of education than to the scientific; and, thirdly, technical instruction has been almost entirely ignored. Reforms in education, however, like reforms in everything else, must come slowly; and it is impossible for any Minister for Education to do at once all that he thinks ought to be done to make an education system complete. So far as the gradation between the primary and secondary schools is concerned, existing defects can only be remedied as population grows denser. I hope, however, that in the chief towns of the colony, without waiting for a great increase of population, some effort will at once be made to prevent the attendance of too young children in our high or grammar schools. I think that there ought to be no admission into a high or grammar school until, at all events, the Fourth Standard of the primary schools has been passed. There are difficulties in laying down such a rule. One difficulty is, that there is no provision for giving the first rudiments of a high literary or classical education in our primary schools, and that children who have passed the Fourth Standard, beginning the study of Latin, or French, or German somewhat late, may be placed at a disadvantage compared with those who, having less knowledge of English, may have begun the study of these foreign languages earlier. I see reason to hope, however, that the Fourth Standard may be passed by children at an earlier age on the average than at present; and that, by grounding the children well in the earlier standards, and teaching them scientifically, this may be accomplished without any cry of over-pressure. I only suggest a stricter examination; but I am firmly convinced that much of the hostility manifested towards the secondary schools has arisen from the fact that the secondary schools have been for many children mere elementary schools, so that there seemed to be some reason to complain that the high schools were not real high

schools in the true sense of the term. Of course, there is always another side to a question, and the other side of this question, from the high-school point of view, is this : that the younger children pay large fees for the elementary teaching they receive, and that the high school is thus enabled to give education in the higher branches at a cheap rate, so that the authorities may say: "If you have such a strict examination as you suggest, we shall be unable to teach the higher branches with our present revenues, and the State must supplement them." This, no doubt, is a difficulty, especially when every pound paid for higher education is grudged by many in this community. I therefore think that, before much can be accomplished in the direction of doing away with elementary teaching in secondary schools, population must become more dense, and that the standards for primary schools must be slightly altered, so that their pupils can more easily change from a primary to a secondary school.

The second point is scientific education. We have brought with us to our colony the idea that our fathers had about high-class education, and their idea was that a high-class education must be a literary education, an acquaintance with languages, an acquaintance with the literature of ancient peoples, an acquaintance with philosophy. In these days scientific education has taken great strides, and everywhere throughout the world efforts are being made to teach science in such a way that, independently of the information it contains, it may afford a mental gymnastic equal in value with that which is supplied by the study of any classical language. The University of New Zealand has wisely recognised this, and so have the affiliated colleges, though the recognition can only take practical shape to the extent allowed by their revenues. Considerable stress has for some time been placed upon scientific attainments, and now persons may obtain degrees in science without having passed in more than two languages, and one of the languages maybe English and the other French or German or Italian. The pass for a Bachelor of Science is as follows : Mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, and any two out of the five following subjects : Latin, Greek, English, modern languages, mental science. A candidate can both matriculate and afterwards proceed to the B.Sc. degree without any knowledge of the classics.

I am also glad to state that in the secondary schools considerable advance has been made in providing for scientific education. Several of them have science masters, and all of them are doing something to teach science.

When I give an account of the alterations I have made in the standards, I shall point out what position science is to occupy in the primary schools.

I shall now deal with technical education. Something has been done in this direction. Let me, however, state that the phrase "technical education" is often misunderstood. No school can so equip any youth for the trade he intends to follow as to render an apprenticeship unnecessary. Our schools cannot be utilized—neither our primary nor secondary schools—for direct training for special trades. The workshop, after all, must be the school for the mechanic. All that we can hope to do in primary or secondary schools is to so teach a boy the theory applicable to any trade that the practice may become easy to him, and also to so train him that he may have a bias towards industry. The training may, perhaps, include, where circumstances will permit, some practical exercises in the handling of tools. Believing in the great advantages of technical education to this colony as likely to promote the development of our manufacturing, our mining, and our agricultural pursuits, I addressed, through the department, a letter to the various secondary schools in this colony, a copy of which will be found annexed to the report of the Education Department laid on the table of the House. I am glad to state that this letter has met with hearty response from almost all the schools, and efforts have been made to establish technical and science classes. I have not time to refer specially to what has been done in the various districts, but it is certain that much will be accomplished in future years. It is not necessary that I should now defend technical education. This I may lay down as an axiom, that the more numerous the manufactures of a country are, the higher will be the intelligence of its inhabitants; and manufactures cannot be properly developed till more attention is paid to technical education.

I now come to deal with the standards of the primary schools; for, after all, it is to the primary schools we must mainly look for the education of the people of the colony. There are only a few that can afford to finish their education at the secondary schools, and fewer still that can afford the time to obtain a university education. I shall not weary you by going over the standards, especially as members will have an opportunity of seeing the old standards and the present standards, and of comparing them. I shall point out what my aim has been in altering them. I found that the objections to the standards were various. One main objection, and one which it is always difficult to overcome, is that, in order to conduct even the small schools in the country districts, there must be a large number of classes. Suppose there are six standards, there will require to be more than six classes, because there are usually some children not yet able to undertake even the work of the First Standard, and some of these classes have to be instructed in geography, history, and grammar; and, if it was impossible for a single teacher do all this work, what then was to be done? I have so arranged the standards that a teacher will be able in country schools to reduce the number of his classes. I have divided the subjects to be taught in

the schools under three heads : they are the compulsory subjects, the class-subjects, and the additional. Compulsory subjects, of course, are those in which no child who does not pass individually can obtain a certificate for the standard. The class-subjects are to be examined in class, and the Inspector is to report as to how the children acquit themselves. In the additional subjects there must be some elasticity allowed : some schools may not be able to undertake them. By making history a class-subject and not a pass-subject, and by making the geography for the pass of an elementary kind, and treating geography as a class-subject, except in Standards III. and V., I have, I hope, made it possible for teachers of small schools to get rid of many disadvantages under which they now labour, and rendered it very unlikely that any reasonable critic will say that the children are made to suffer from over-pressure. In order, however, to provide for the teaching of technical science something must be done in the primary schools. What, then, can be done? Following the recommendation of the Royal Commissioners on technical instruction, who reported last year to the British Government, I have included drawing as one of the compulsory subjects. Drawing is of very great importance to most of our trades; the carpenter, the builder, the engineer, the cabinetmaker, the pattern-maker, the manufacturer, the dressmaker—almost all—require to know drawing. It is, in fact, the first step in technical education, and I propose that it shall be compulsory in all the standards. I shall not expect that the pass will be high, and I shall not seek to enforce this compulsory subject in the higher standards at once. I know that there are many good teachers throughout the colony who do not know how to teach drawing, because they have never been trained, and that is one of the difficulties under which the education system must labour for many years to come. I intend, however, by the adoption of drawing copy-books, and by only requiring at first what may be termed an elementary pass, to lay the lines for the development of drawing, it being, as I have said, the basis of all technical-science education. Then I propose that attention shall be paid to elementary science, and I believe that elementary science can be taught, not from text-books, but orally by the teachers, and that it should be taught to our children from their earliest years, and without any technical names : geology could be called earth-knowledge; botany, plant-knowledge, and so on. And the principles of mechanics could be taught without text-books, by means of object-lessons. In schools in the country I think the teachers should be able to give a special bias towards agriculture, and in schools in the various town districts a special bias may be given towards those manufactures that have been, or are likely to be, established in those towns. This is the system that is practised in many parts of the Continent of Europe with very happy results. With the aid of drawing we may hope to see our manufactures become more artistic. Defect in this respect, as has been pointed out by the Commissioners on Technical Education, has been the great drawback to the manufactures of the English workman : for sound workmanship he is not to be excelled by any foreign workman, but he has lacked the artistic finish and touch of many continental manufacturers.

With this altered syllabus I believe our schools will be made more efficient; I believe they will be made practical; and I believe that the mental training of the children will be as well looked after as it is now.

I may say, before I pass to another point, that I entertain the hope that, perhaps from private munificence, if not from Government aid, we may see established, at all events in each large centre, some working school where the handling of tools may be taught to the children, if only for an hour or two a week. I regret that with the means allowed us for education we cannot at present give any aid in this work.

I must say something about our Native schools. I think, without casting any reflection on the past administration of Native schools, I may state that it is only in recent years that the Native schools have been doing really effective work, and I believe that the colony is greatly indebted to the efforts of Mr. Pope, the Organizing Inspector. He has entered into his work with great enthusiasm, and I am glad to say that almost everywhere throughout the colony his efforts have been successful, and that many Maori schools are now a credit to us, and equal to some of our primary schools where white children are taught. We have sixty-five Native village schools, in charge of 115 teachers and work mistresses, and the cost including buildings was about £15,500 last year. I hope that no one will grudge this expense. The Maoris, in providing for their own education, have been most generous; they invariably give their sites free—in this respect they are sometimes more generous than Europeans; and they gave in the past large tracts of land to be held in trust for the education of their children. I regret to say that, in some cases, their reserves have not been utilized for the purposes for which they were set apart. The Native Committees, who have a share in the management of the schools, have paid a very large amount of attention to them, looking after them most carefully. Of course, there are places where the attendance has fallen away and the schools declined; but, on the whole, Native schools are in a flourishing position and are doing excellent work.

Looking over the reports of the Inspector, and comparing the work with that done in European schools, one sees that with proper educational opportunities the Maori race will not be far behind us. I have seen letters of their own composition written by Maori children, I have seen work done by them, of all kinds, equal in many respects to that done by Europeans; and, seeing that we have a great responsibility in dealing with the Maoris, in providing for their future, I only regret that many years ago similar efforts were not made for the training of

Maori children. There are 2,226 attending the schools, of whom 1,834 are Maoris, half-castes, or between Maori and half-castes, and these numbers show a great increase, notwithstanding the decrease of the race. We have also about eighty Maori children in boarding institutions, where they are trained in European habits and ideas, and a large proportion of them are receiving instruction in the higher subjects. We are using the Native schools as a means of teaching the Maoris the elements of sanitary science and social economy. A text-book, "Health for the Maori," has been published in English and Maori, and Mr. Pope is preparing one on Social Economy. We also send the schools useful seeds and plants, with pamphlets showing how to cultivate them. I shall, with leave of the House, lay one on the table dealing with this subject, to show the kind of work we are attempting.

The other schools that are under the Education Department are termed industrial schools. We have institutions directly under our control in Auckland (at Newton and Koliimarama), at Burnham in Canterbury, and at Caversham in Otago. In connection with these three institutions there were the following children at the close of last year : Resident in the schools, 432; boarded with foster-parents, 384 : making a total of 816 maintained at the expense of the State. There were also 347 children at service or with friends, although still under the legal protection of the managers of the schools. There is also an industrial school and orphanage at the Thames, supported by the Government, but under the management of a local committee, in connection with which there were at the end of the year seventeen committed children, five of whom were at service or with friends. Members are aware that there are also what may be termed private institutions to which children are sent, for whom we pay, as a rule, about seven shillings per week. These are, St. Mary's School in Auckland, St. Joseph's in Wellington, and St. Mary's in Nelson. These institutions are Roman Catholic.

At the end of last year there were 1,446 children of all classes connected with our industrial schools. I have personally visited the schools in Auckland (the St. Mary's, the Kohimarama, and the Howe Street Home), the schools at Nelson, and those at Burnham and Caversham, and I was pleased generally with what I saw. We have in connection with our industrial schools the boarding-out system established, which, shortly, is this : the children are boarded out, we pay seven shillings a week for their board, and, if they are of suitable age, they attend the nearest school. At present 392 children, out of the 1,446, are under this system. These children are under the guardianship of the managers of the industrial schools in their respective districts. In addition to this, we have a lady Official Correspondent at Auckland, at Christchurch, and at Dunedin, and ladies who stately visit the children. I am glad to state that these ladies out of love for the children visit them in their homes, and pay attention to their wants; and here I would specially thank them for what they have done during the past years. Any one who chooses to read over the reports that they furnish monthly to the department will see the care and trouble they take.

The children committed under the industrial-school system are of three kinds : children who themselves have done wrong, and children who were in destitute circumstances, or whose parents have either done wrong or neglected them. The total number committed under the Act last year was 313, who may be classified as follows : Destitute, 195; vagrant, 11; residing in disreputable houses, 23; uncontrollable, 27; guilty of punishable offences, 37; committed by agreement with the parents, 20.

It is not for me perhaps to state what the result of this industrial-school system has been; I will only say this, that it has exceeded what might have been expected of it. Of course every child does not turn out well, nor does every child trained in the primary or secondary schools, but I believe that the proportion in industrial schools who succeed is just as great as in other schools. I have known instances of children whose parents were criminal, low, and degraded, who have, through being taken in time and placed in our industrial schools, turned out good members of society. Cases of this kind have come before me almost every week since I have been Minister of Education.

When these children are able to work they are placed out to service, and some are apprenticed to trades. Their earnings, after deduction of cost of clothing and other necessaries, are placed to their credit in the Savings Bank, and the several amounts are refunded to them on their reaching manhood or womanhood in the event of their conduct proving satisfactory. It is not an unusual thing for the girls to receive their money as a marriage portion, and the boys on their satisfying the Minister of Education that the money will be applied to some good use, such as the purchase of a house or land, or beginning business. A great number of children have thus got a start in life, and I have been delighted to see from the reports I have received from officers of the department that many children who, if not taken any charge of by the State and placed in industrial schools, would, in all probability, have grown up to be criminals and a plague to society, have been made good citizens and are getting on well in the world. The number of such instances is surprising, and what the State has to face is really this : whether it is not better to take the children when young and impressionable and give them a good moral education, than to allow them to grow up criminals, and thus cost society far more than their education costs. But here I might say one word in reference to the cause of so many children being in the industrial schools. The statistics show that it is mainly the fault of the parents—drunken parents, criminal parents, parents who were

leading immoral lives, parents who did not recognise parental duty—it is their children who crowd our industrial schools; and I believe there is need of some more stringent law to make parents who are criminal and neglectful do their duty, and I have asked the House this session to amend the Industrial Schools Act in this direction. There are great difficulties, no doubt, in dealing with industrial-school children : they require peculiar treatment. I am glad to see that, as a rule, masters in charge of the schools have done good work. It would be invidious to single out officers, but I may state that Mr. Titchener, the present manager of the Caversham Industrial School, has reformed many that were given up as unreformable. I need not mention the names—it is unfair to do so to youths who have now settled down and acted rightly—but several instances have come before me of lads, who have been given up as incorrigible, being reformed, and this not by harsh treatment but by kindness, adroitness, and firmness. I may here state that the amount of money in the Savings Bank to the credit of the children at the close of 1884 was £2,756, and that the amount withdrawn and paid to the young men and young women whose good conduct entitled them to their former earnings was last year £190.

In addition to the children committed to the industrial schools there were, at the close of last year, 159 destitute children, maintained out of the charitable-aid vote, in several orphanages which are under the inspection of the Education Department. There are orphanages at Lyttelton, Motueka, and Parnell. A year previously the number of such children was 202, so that there has been a diminution to the extent of 43 during the twelve months.

I must not omit to mention the very interesting work carried on at the Sumner Deaf-mute Institution, under the supervision of the Education Department. This institution is now attended by thirty-six pupils; seven of them are from Auckland; one from Taranaki, four from Wellington, one from Hawke's Bay, ten from Canterbury, and twelve from Otago. Among the pupils is a deaf mute girl, who has been sent from South Australia to enjoy the advantages offered by the school. The method of instruction is that known as the articulation method, by which deaf mutes are trained to the use of the organs of speech, and learn both to speak, in the ordinary sense of the word, and to understand from the motion of the lips the speech of others. No use is made of finger-signs or other means employed elsewhere as substitutes for speech. The course of instruction includes reading and writing in the first instance, followed by the other subjects of a good school education. The girls are, of course, also instructed in sewing, knitting, and other domestic accomplishments. The ability and zeal of the director, Mr. Van Asch, are worthy of high commendation, and he is well seconded by Mrs. Van Asch in promoting the welfare and comfort of the pupils. I have had the pleasure of visiting the school, and seeing the nature of the instruction given, and I must say that the results of Mr. Van Asch's labours are surprising and gratifying.

We have other educational institutions that are helped by the State. We have athenæums, and mechanics institutes, and public libraries. Generally speaking, the lending of books and the keeping open of reading-rooms are the main work performed by these institutions, though they bear different names : in few of them is provision made for lectures and classes. There are in some centres classes organized for teaching apprentices and others in the evening. Voluntary associations are doing this work in some centres of population—excellent work of this class has been done in Dunedin by the Caledonian Society—and Education Boards have provided drawing-classes and schools of art for many pupils. Our mechanics' institutes are, however, mainly libraries. Aid is given to public libraries, the one condition insisted upon being that the reading-room shall be open to the public without charge. Because of this restriction many libraries, including some of our largest, do not receive any part of the grant. Last year £4,000 was distributed amongst 385 libraries, and the local receipts of these libraries from donations and members' subscriptions were nearly £9,000. When I state that there is hardly a village without its library, it will be seen how advanced we are in this mode of providing instruction for our population. Indeed, I am tempted to give a few statistics to show the fondness for reading amongst our people. The value of books imported was last year £115,246. This does not include magazines, newspapers, &c., and books coming by post. Then, the number of newspapers published was 49 daily and 91 weekly, biweekly, and tri-weekly, and 32 others, making a total of 172, or one to every 3,281 of the population. In England and Wales the number was 1,962 newspapers, or 1 to every 13,828; in Ireland, 152 newspapers, or 1 to every 32,585; in Scotland, 184 newspapers, or 1 to every 21,013; and in the United States, 10,771 newspapers, or 1 to every 4,656 of the population.

Then, there is another means of educating the people—museums and art-galleries. So far as museums are concerned, we are in advance of the Australian Colonies. The Canterbury Museum excels those of Sydney and Melbourne, and in arrangement of exhibits for scientific purposes the Otago Museum is second to none I have seen. Our Wellington Museum is full of most interesting exhibits; its geological, palæontological, and mineralogical departments are especially fine : and it is to be deeply regretted that there is not a better and larger building in which the able officers in charge could show the exhibits to greater advantage. In Auckland there is also a museum, which, though smaller than those I have named, has very interesting exhibits. In art-galleries New Zealand is weak. Auckland will soon have a fine one; but little has been done in any other

place. There are, however, art societies in Wellington, Christchurch, and Dunedin, and, from the pictures exhibited, and the enthusiasm that is each year increasing amongst our young painters, I have no doubt we shall soon have art-galleries in the three cities I have named : a colony that can boast of a Gully, and a Richmond, and a Barraud that have painted its natural beauties should before long be well supplied with artists and art-galleries. This brief statement of what is being done with respect to museums and art-galleries necessarily leads me up to a question which has been brought prominently before the Education Department, and it is this : Should New Zealand have a Science and Art Department, such as is seen in London? And first I have to state that the separate scientific institutes, aided by the Colonial Institute, under Dr. Hector's able management, are to some extent doing this work. Honourable members are acquainted with the valuable and interesting volume published each year of this institute's transactions, and they see from time to time manuals and reports on scientific subjects issued from the Colonial Museum Department. But this is not all that has to be done by the present Colonial Museum Department. The Meteorological Department is under Dr. Hector, and his aid in looking after local industries is always valuable. In fact, to a considerable extent, the Colonial Museum acts as a science department. No doubt more could be done, but I am afraid if more were attempted the cost would be begrudged. No one can read the reports and scientific papers issued by this department without seeing that, as a science department, it is doing a great deal of useful work. Where, perhaps, it has been weak in the past has been in the comparatively small degree of attention paid to technical science. Geology, natural history, and meteorology have too exclusively occupied its attention. All that I think we can ask the Government to do is to maintain the present expenditure, and perhaps utilize the Museum Department, together with the proposed Forest Department, for better promoting the manufactures, and increasing the number, quality, and variety of our local productions. In this manner we may help forward our mining, our agriculture, our fruit-culture, our fisheries, and our manufactures; and I hope without additional cost. As to art, I doubt if the colony can at present afford to do much. We must leave this to private munificence. With drawing made compulsory in our schools, with the natural beauty and grandeur to be met with everywhere in New Zealand, we surely may expect to have many artists amongst our children and children's children. If we give sites for art-galleries, should not our wealthy colonists help? In Auckland, Mr. McKelvie, with rare munificence, has given many beautiful pictures, and it is stated that a large sum has been given by him for an art-gallery. When our colony gets older, we shall have others following his good example. We have not, as a colony, the wealth that can afford to start art-galleries in our chief towns—the needs of our practical, every-day life are too many and too incessant; but the time will soon come when no town of any size will be without its museum and its art-gallery, any more than its common school and theatre.

Before treating of the duty of the State towards education, I may mention incidentally, it being a matter that was referred to by question in the House last session, what has been done with reference to education in the Chatham Islands. In accordance with the promise that was given last year, one of our most experienced teachers has been sent to the Chatham Islands, and his letter of instructions will be found in the Education Report. I recognised that it was impossible to organize a school at once in a place like the Chatham Islands, but I requested him to see if he could not get half-or even quarter-time schools, so that, if possible, the whole of the children of the islands may be educated. I have received his first report, and it is very encouraging. He has started work, and is receiving assistance from both Natives and Europeans. We shall make arrangements for the establishing of a school at Te One, and for his visiting other parts of the island. I may here also state that arrangements have been made with the Education Board of Auckland for the establishing of a school at Kawhia.

I have to speak of the duty of the State with reference to education generally. I do so not because I believe that there is any desire on the part of the majority of the colonists for any alteration in what I may term the essentials of our Education Act, nor because I think there is any desire to do away with our university, or to destroy our secondary schools. I know, however, and members are aware, that our Education Act has been attacked from various sides. There are some who attack it because, they say, no religion is taught in the schools; there are others who think that the State should not interfere with education at all, but that education should be left to private enterprise or religious organizations; and there is another class who object to State education because of its expense to the State, and who say that the cost of education should be borne by the parents, just as the cost of food and clothing is borne by them; and there are some who object on all these grounds.

I think it is wise, in view of the opposition raised in some quarters to the Education Act, that I should state shortly what my view of the position of the State is in dealing with education; because, if members understand the position that I take up concerning it, they will understand the lines of administration that I propose for myself in conducting the department. I should wish it to be distinctly understood that in much that I am about to state I am simply expressing my own individual opinions. On the subject of education it is well known there are diverse views held by some of my colleagues. First, I at once admit that, in a possible ideal state of society, there would be no State schools. I believe that in some possible future time there will be no need of State

schools, for parents and Others will have so recognised their duty to teach children that the State will not require to interfere; and I hope that, as civilization advances, the State functions will not increase, but become more limited. The future should be such that the individual is more and not less; but, as practical politicians, we have to do with the present, and we are met with the pressing question of education. Are our children to be brought up in ignorance, or are they to be educated? And when I say that no country in the world that can be termed civilized has been able to do without State aid to education in some form or other, the question really is, what form that aid shall take. There are some who are willing that aid should be given by the State to education, but they think that that aid should be given to private persons or to corporations or religious organizations, who will undertake to do all the teaching. Wherever that system is adopted the State has little control over the modes of education : all that it can do is to test the knowledge of the children at certain examinations.

I believe that the mode of teaching is of as much importance as what is taught, and that if children are trained to acquire knowledge in a proper way, even if the knowledge they acquire may appear small, they have been really educated. I do not think that the State is called upon to expend large sums of money in education if it is to surrender to any persons or corporations or organizations the control of the education of its youth. It is perhaps not necessary that I should state the reason why the State interferes with education at all. It may not be amiss, however, to repeat what have been termed the canons of a State education. One writer has said that the arguments for a State education may be stated somewhat as follows : First, that the first great right of the State is to exist and to perpetuate its own existence. Without this there could be no stability in Government and no such thing as social order. If this be granted, then, secondly, the State has a right to do whatever things will tend to preserve its own existence : one of these is to establish universal suffrage, as a recognition of individual rights, and as a necessary condition of its own existence. Thirdly, it must provide for universal intelligence and social morality, else universal suffrage will become a curse to the State. Fourthly, it must establish universal education as a necessary condition of universal intelligence and social morality. And, fifthly, in order to obtain universal education, it must have a system of public schools. And a recent writer has said that the true function of the State is to make the most of the citizen. This is its only inexhaustible function and if anything is to be made of the citizen he must be educated. These are the grounds of interference by the State with education, and, as the State must recognise the rights of children as well as the rights of parents, looking upon the individual as the social unit, it must see that children are protected from the cruelty, the selfishness, and the ignorance of parents.

If the State does not do this the result will be, as has been found throughout the world, an increase of cost to the State in other directions. If you can get a people universally intelligent you will have less crime, you will have less vice, you will have greater thrift, you will have, in fact, a higher state of society. Then, another view is this : that the State, in having a system of education, should have such a system as tends to train the children to the duties of citizenship, and to make them feel that the duty of citizenship is a paramount one. To establish such a system as some denominationalists ask, of having as many schools as there are sects, all endowed by the Government, would tend, I believe, to social disorder, tend to weaken the ideas of the duties of citizenship, and not tend to the strengthening of the State's position. I need not stop to point out that, with the numerous sects that exist among us, it would be impossible to have such a system, except, perhaps, in the larger towns; and that, unless the State interfered, in sparsely-populated districts the result would be that there would be no education at all.

To the objection to our system, that religion is not taught, I would first say, from a secular point of view, that here one of the blots on our system is disclosed; for religion is taught. Our system is supposed to be free, secular, and compulsory. It is free, it is compulsory in many districts, but I do not know that it is secular in any one. Our school-books are full of what may be termed religious lessons. If one takes up Nelson's Royal Readers, which is the series of school-books in greatest use throughout the colony, he will find, on page after page, religious lessons. I shall mention a few :—Book VI. : "Family Worship," from the Cottar's Saturday Night; "John Bright on War" (appeal to professing Christians); Coleridge's "Hymn before Sunrise, in the Vale of Chamouni;" "Paul at Athens," by W. J. Fox; "The Problem of Creation," by O. M. Mitchell. Book III. : "Little Jim," Farmer; "We are Seven," Wordsworth; "The Better Land," Mrs. Hemans; "The Child's First Grief," Mrs. Hemans; "Lucy Gray," Wordsworth; "The Rain Lesson," Mrs. Sigourney; "The Ark and the Dove," Mrs. Sigourney. Book II. (Third Series) : "Thou shalt not steal;" "Secrets of Nature;" "The Little Girl's Good Morning." Sequel to II. : "Our Daily Bread;" "The Little Chimney-sweeper;" "Lesson from the Flowers;" "The Pet Bird;" "How Fresh on the Mountains;" "The Little Orphan," Mrs. Sewell; "A Sparrow's Nest," Jane Taylor; "The King and the Gipsies;" "British Birds'-nests;" "What is that, Mother Doane;" "Speak Gently."

Those who would have the right to object to the State system so long as such reading-books are in use, are, first, those who believe that religion should not be taught to children; and, second, those who believe that, whether it should be taught or not, it is no part of the duty of the State to teach it. These classes, however, have said nothing against our system. They are willing, for the sake of maintaining a system that is of incalculable

benefit to the colony, to sink their opinions and their feelings, and they have been found to be the warmest supporters of our present system.

And now I come to another phase of the question. If it be said that our State system is doing any moral injury to the children, I say that this question may be tested by statistics. Our State system has now been seven years in operation. This period has been sufficient to afford some test of the system and its results, and the questions we have to ask ourselves are, Has juvenile crime increased, and how do children at our schools turn out in after years? So far as juvenile crime is concerned, New Zealand is far more free from it than other countries. If you take, for example, the number of prisoners from ten to twenty years of age received into our principal gaols, I find that, of the population per thousand at that age, there are only 2.49 between ten and twenty, being 4.90 per cent, of the total prisoners. If I go to England and Wales I find that between the ages of twelve and twenty-one the corresponding proportions are 7.75 and 19.78; in 1878 it was 8.16 and 19.30. If I go to New South Wales, where there has been religious teaching in schools, the clergymen having the right to enter there, I find that from ten to twenty the proportions are 6.38 and 7.60 respectively. In Victoria, where the system is more secular than in the neighbouring colony, the proportions are only 3.94 and 7.58; in Queensland, where there is the : secular system, 4.92 and 12.35. The numbers I have formerly given are those of prisoners who have been received in the principal prisons. I have omitted those received in what are termed police-gaols; if these be added, the totals for New Zealand will be 2.96 per thousand. I know it may be said that there are other causes that have led to the differing results in the other colonies. This does not affect my contention, for I adduce the statistics only to show that our own system has not been productive of any ill consequences the direction of crime, and that we are remarkably free as a colony from any criminal tendency. If I go to Scotland I find that in 1881 the prisoners admitted to all gaols at the age-period from twelve to sixteen was 0.59 per thousand of the population; from sixteen to twenty-one, the proportion was 19.98. The proportion per cent. under twenty-one of the total of prisoners was 15.81. In New Zealand, admitted to all gaols, there were, as I have said, only 2.96 per thousand from ten to twenty; and it is to be observed there were only, out of the 287 under twenty received into the principal gaols, 130 born in New Zealand. Then, there is another thing I would notice, and that is this : that the total amount of crime in New Zealand is not on the increase; on the contrary, there has been practically a decrease since 1876. This will be found from the following statistics :—

The total crime, as estimated from convictions after commitment for trial to superior Courts in New Zealand, per ten thousand of the population, has fallen from 6.43 in 1876 to 4.76 in 1881, and to 3.9 in 1884. In New South Wales the proportions in 1882 and 1883 were 13.3 and 12; in Victoria, 4.8 in 1882 and 3.8 in 1883. it will therefore be seen that, so far as convictions are concerned, there has been a gradual decrease in New Zealand. This is the case with reference to the more heinous offences, but the same decrease is apparent in apprehensions and in summons cases, as well as in summary convictions. In 1876 the apprehensions and summons cases were 57.14 per thousand of population; in 1884, 41.81. In 1876 the summary convictions were 41.55; in 1884 there were only 31.98; and the commitments for trial in 1876 were, per ten thousand of population, 10.68, and in 1884, 8.1 : so that, so far as crime is concerned, New Zealand has shown that since the introduction of the Education Act there has been a decline of all kinds of crime. I do not mean to say that the Education Act has caused this; I only say this : that those who say that the Education Act tends to larrikinism or to crime or to vice should look at the statistics, and they will see that, with a more efficient police force than we ever had, we have had less crime, fewer apprehensions and summons cases, fewer commitments for trial, and fewer convictions. I hope, after the figures I have given, that we shall hear no more remarks about our State system tending to crime. On the contrary, the statistics show that crime is yearly lessening, and I have no doubt that, as the education of the people progresses, crime will still decrease. Of course, to get rid of crime is, in our social state, and will be for centuries, just as impossible as getting rid of poverty. The training in large towns and many other causes create anti-social feelings, and anti-social feelings lead to many kinds of crime. I believe, however, that if we strengthen the social feeling with reference to the State the result will be a greater respect for property and a greater respect for life; and I really think that amongst classes not at all of the criminal type there is much need of our recognising what the State is. We do not fully realize—I think none of us do—our duties to the State as the emblem of our social life. Is it not a fact that people see no harm in dealing with Government property and dealing with Government money as they would not deal with the moneys of individuals? That the sacredness of the trust, imposed upon citizens has not yet been fully realized by any of us is, I believe, abundantly true. It is time enough to speak of the danger of the State to individualism when the duty to the State is considered more paramount than it is at present.

I must deal with another objection—the cost of the present system. Last year when my honourable friend the member for Akaroa (Mr. Montgomery) was Minister of Education a very valuable return was prepared by his direction. It showed that the system was relatively as cheap as that of other countries. I need not repeat that no fees are charged, and that the full cost comes from the Consolidated Fund. Remembering this, the aid given by other countries may be noted.

Having said this much about the duty of the State in reference to primary education, I shall make one or two remarks about its duty to secondary and university education. It may be said that, granted the duty of the State to give children a primary education, there the duty ends. Of course this means, that no children of poor parents can have any right to an education beyond the primary. The children of wealthy parents can always obtain a higher education; wealth can purchase education as well as any-thing else. Is this Parliament prepared to say that those children whose parents have not means to give them a secondary education are to be condemned to a mere primary education? I feel sure that neither this Parliament nor any that this colony will ever have will be found to sanction such an idea. The question, then, comes to this : How is the State to give aid to secondary instruction? Some people reply, you may give scholarships. Scholarships to what? Are there to be any schools in the colony in which the scholarships can be held? If so, under whose control are they to be? Is the State to say that all its brighter boys and all its brighter girls are not to be controlled in their education by the State, but that the State is to hand over the education of its brightest and most intellectual youths into private hands, or into the hands of corporations or religious organizations, and to have no control over their training though it pays for it? I do not think the people of this colony are prepared to submit to such a proposal. I say it is more necessary for the State to look after secondary education than primary, just as it is more necessary for the State to look after those works which are not immediately necessary, than it is to provide for works that are deemed a necessity. The State does not need to look after any mercantile pursuit; it does not need to provide for the obtaining of food for the inhabitants: men have been trained to look after these for themselves. The State has to look after the opening-up of means of communication. The State has to look after, by corporations or otherwise, providing for the health and recreation of the people. Why is this? Because these things are not so requisite as the obtaining of food. So it is with primary and secondary schools. All recognize the need of primary schools, and all will do what they can to provide them; but secondary schools are in a different position. They require more attention. The State is required to give more aid to them than to the primary schools; and I can only say, from what I know of the working of the schools, that there are, not dozens, or scores, but hundreds of youths obtaining education in secondary schools that have been endowed by the State that would have been deprived of this advantage had it not been for those endowments.

And now one word as to our university. It is the natural keystone of our educational building; and here again, unless the State had endowed the university, there could have been no such institution in New Zealand. It was thought by some that the proper way was to provide scholarships, as is done in the neighbouring Colony of Tasmania, for the brighter youths to proceed to England to obtain a university education. It is, I think, a matter for congratulation that this scheme was not adopted. And now New Zealand is in this position : that, considering her population, she has, as I have already said, as many students receiving university education as any country in the world; and I believe she has also, relatively to her population, more university-trained men than any country in the world. "What must the necessary effect of that be? It means the raising of the standard of education all along the line; and it also means this : that we shall have soon, I hope, a development of our manufactures, a development of our trade, commensurate with the high-class education that has been bestowed on our youth. I have already pointed out that I believe there has been a danger in the past in making our university education too literary. This, however, is gradually being remedied; and I believe that universities should yet provide, not only for the best scientific teaching, but for the highest form of technical education. Our universities must also be the abodes of research. This is a function that has not yet been recognised in our university system. We have had our New Zealand University mere examining and degree-conferring body, and we have had the affiliated colleges teaching bodies. We have not yet had the means to make our university the place of the highest scientific research; that, however, will have to come as the colony progresses. If we consider what our nation must be, we must look forward to a time when our political autonomy will lead us to the possession of a distinct type of national life, and you cannot have a distinct type of national life of any value if you have not in your colony the best teaching that can be obtained in the world, and places which are the abodes of the highest culture and of the deepest knowledge.

I think it is of importance to New Zealand that she has not had merely one university college teaching her students. I am glad that she has several, and I hope that as she progresses she will have more. There will be need shortly of a proper university college in Wellington, though the Wellington College is no doubt doing good work. Instead of there being an objection to the splitting up of our university teaching with several colleges, I believe it is the highest recommendation of our system. It will prevent sameness, whilst every college will have an individuality of its own that must create a healthy emulation in the pursuit of knowledge.

And what is the task of the university? It has to provide for us our professional men, our scientific men : it has to provide for us our men of culture. After all, as has been well said, the high-water mark of a nation is not in its primary, nor in its secondary schools; the value of a nation to the human race depends not even on wealth nor numbers, but it is gauged by the high-water mark of its educated mind. A nation may be small, it may appear insignificant, but, if it can produce men of genius and culture, it stands high amongst the nations of the

world. I feel sure that no Parliament will decree, by the abolition of aid to the university and to secondary schools, that New Zealand is to take an inferior position amongst the colonies of the Empire or the nations of the world.

Before I conclude I must refer to a matter for which an Education Minister can do little without hearty co-operation and aid from colouists. I refer to the en-couraging of habits of thrift. I hope to see yet inaugurated what was attempted in 1878-79, namely, the establishment of savings banks in connection with the schools. I am aware that many Education Boards opposed the scheme; I believe, however, that it is necessary, for the proper development of our country, that our children should be trained in habits of thrift, and I believe they can best acquire habits of thrift and be taught the value of money by the establishment of savings banks. In this view I am sustained by many who have been in the colony, and who have taken an interest in education. If I had time I should like to read a minute written by Sir John Hall, when he was Premier, urging in the strongest way the advisability of establishing penny savings banks. I hope, however, that the members of the House will aid the Education Department in pressing on the Boards and School Committees in their districts the need of co-operation to supply this want in our schools. I do not think the Education Department in Wellington can be blamed for its non-success. Everything that was possible to be done in the matter by the various Ministers of Education who have held office has been done. The scheme was first inaugurated by my colleague the present Native Minister when he was Minister of Education, and succeeding Ministers of Education attempted to advance what he had begun, but, I regret to say, with very little success. I hope, however, that this subject will yet be warmly taken up, and be approved of by our Education Boards and School Committees.

And now let me just add that I recognise, as I have stated, that our system is not perfect. I hope, however, that the alterations in the syllabus of our primary schools will make our education better and more practical. Scientific education and technical education will not be treated as inferior to literary education; and, as our university and secondary schools follow on the same lines, we can look forward to a great improvement in all our schools and colleges in method and results. And perhaps a succeeding Minister of Education, when called upon, as our system develops, to attempt further reforms, may be able to acknowledge that what has-been recently done by the department has helped to make his path easier and to lighten his labours.

Education Department.—New Zealand.

Notes on the Black-Wattle and the Golden Wattle.

[In Continuation of "Notes on the Plants forwarded to Native Schools, 1885."]

PRINTED BY AUTHORITY OF THE NEW ZEALAND GOVERNMENT.

WATTLES grow in almost any soil, but their growth is most rapid on loose sandy patches, or where the surface has been broken for agricultural or other purposes. If the ground is hard, a plough furrow should be made for the reception of the seed, but on any land the surface of which has been broken, as for instance on old cultivations, the seed might be thinly sprinkled broad-cast. When wattles are six months old, stock may be turned in amongst them without doing injury to the young trees. They are fit for stripping when four years old. At that age each tree thinned out would yield at least 14lb. of bark, while those removed during the fifth, sixth, and seventh years, together with those left till they reach maturity at the end of eight years in all, say 600 per acre, should yield at least 56lb. of bark on the average; 40 trees would thus yield a ton of bark, the value of which would be from £5 to £7 10s. An acre would therefore yield bark to the value of at least £76 during the eight years between the sowing of the seeds and the completion of the stripping of the bark from the mature trees. Planting may be done in autumn or, in spring. The outer covering of the seed is very tough; the seed, therefore, should be soaked in hot water until it becomes soft. As the seeds are small, a very slight sprinkling of earth over them is sufficient. The wattle is very hardy, and when once established flourishes under what might be considered very unfavourable conditions.

Besides the returns obtained from the main crop of bark, income could be derived from a wattle plantation

in the following ways : Wattle wood is the very best of firewood; it burns with a bright, clear flame, and leaves little Or no ash. In Melbourne this wood is always worth £1 per ton. Wattle timber is one of the best for cooper's work. For beef casks it is very useful, as the wood will not stain meat. It is also much prized by cabinetmakers, as it looks very handsome when polished. The wheelwright finds the wood most useful for spokes and shafts. It makes, too, the best of axe- and pick-handles, and is very suitable for most articles that require to be made of wood having a tough, durable grain. Top-rails made from wattle leave nothing to be desired : it would be a strong horse or bull that could break down a wattle top-rail. Gum exudes from the tree, and the supply can be increased by puncturing the bark, the quality of which is improved by the process. This gum is worth about £25 per ton in London.

On the whole, if we take into account these subsidiary sources of income, and also the value of the bark obtained from trees taken out at the end of the first four years, we may safely say that a clear return of £80 per acre in eight years could be depended upon.

The advantages of cultivating the wattle are manifest. The yield of cultivated trees is very much larger, pruned trees can be stripped more easily, and the bark produced is of better quality. Also, when the trees are all together in a cultivation it takes much less time to strip them than it does when they are scattered.

The best descriptions of wattle are *Acacia pycnantha*—the golden or broad-leaved, and *Acacia decurrens*—the black or feather-leaved. Black-wattle gives good bark and is the hardier of the two, but the golden wattle is by far the most useful for the tanner's purposes; and this is, of course, the main consideration, seeing that it is from the sale of the bark to the tanner that the greatest part of the revenue is to be obtained. The golden wattle will probably thrive in many portions of the North Island, and especially where the soil is sandy. The black-wattle will be likely to succeed nearly everywhere on the coast of both Islands.

As was said in the former paper, it is desirable that teachers should endeavour to disseminate amongst the Natives the knowledge to be gained from these notes, and that, as far as may be, the Natives should take part in the operations necessary for sowing the seeds that are being sent to their districts almost exclusively for their advantage. About three ounces of seed will be sent to each school. As the seeds must be sown where they are to grow, it is expected that the Natives will select suitable pieces of ground for small wattle plantations, and that they will in every district make suitable arrangements for utilising the chance that is now afforded them of trying an experiment that will, if successful, add to their resources very materially. It is desirable that in every case a small plantation should be made in the school glebe, but the seeds are intended mainly for the use of the Natives themselves.

Wellington,

2nd September, 1885.

[1668

Education Department.—New Zealand.

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Besides the returns obtained from the main crop of bark, income could be derived from a wattle plantation in the following ways : Wattle wood is the very best of firewood; it burns with a bright, clear flame, and leaves little or no ash. In Melbourne this wood is always worth £1 per ton. Wattle timber is one of the best for cooper's work. For beef casks it is very useful, as the wood will not stain meat. It is also much prized by cabinetmakers, as it looks very handsome when polished. The wheelwright finds the wood most useful for spokes and shafts. It makes, too, the "best of axe- and pick-handles, and is very suitable for most articles that require to be made of wood having a tough, durable grain. Top-rails made from wattle leave nothing to be desired : it would be a strong horse or bull that could break down a wattle top-rail. Gum exudes from the tree, and the supply can be increased by puncturing the bark, the quality of which is improved by the process. This gum is worth about £25 per ton in London.

On the whole, if we take into account these subsidiary sources of income, and also the value of the bark obtained from trees taken out at the end of the first four years, we may safely say that a clear return of £80 per acre in eight years could be depended upon.

The advantages of cultivating the wattle are manifest. The yield of cultivated trees is very much larger, pruned trees can be stripped more easily, and the bark produced is of better quality. Also, when the trees are all together in a cultivation it takes much less time to strip them than it does when they are scattered.

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As was said in the former paper, it is desirable that teachers should endeavour to disseminate amongst the Natives the knowledge to be gained from these notes, and that, as far as may be, the Natives should take part in the operations necessary for sowing the seeds that are being sent to their districts almost exclusively for their advantage. About three ounces of seed will be sent to each school. As the seeds must be sown where they are to grow, it is expected that the Natives will select suitable pieces of ground for small wattle plantations, and that they will in every district make suitable arrangements for utilising the chance that is now afforded them of trying an experiment that will, if successful, add to their resources very materially. It is desirable that in every case a small plantation should be made in the school glebe, but the seeds are intended mainly for the use of the Natives themselves.

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The National Bureau of Education:
Its History, Work, and Limitations.
Prepared under the Direction of the Commissioner of Education,
By Alex. Shiras, D. D.
Washington: Government Printing Office. 1875.

The National Bureau of Education.

The Bureau of Education, an Office in the Department of the Interior, publishes the following statement of its origin, purposes, practical working, and publications, the numerous inquiries addressed to it on these points making it expedient to have some such method of answering correspondents.

I.—As to its History.

This Office had its rise in the need long felt by leading educators of some central agency by which the general educational statistics of the country could be collected, preserved, condensed, and properly arranged for distribution. The sense of this need found expression finally in the action taken at a convention of the superintendence-department of the National Educational Association, held at Washington, February, 1866, when it was resolved to memorialize Congress in favor of a National Bureau of Education. The following memorial was accordingly prepared, containing substantially the arguments for the establishment of such an Office by the Government, which had been submitted to the convention in a paper by Hon. E. E. White, of Ohio :

Memorial.

Memorial to the honorable the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States :

At a meeting of the National Association of State and City School-Super-intendents, recently held in the city of Washington, D. C., the undersigned were appointed a committee to memorialize Congress for the establishment of a National Bureau of Education.

It was the unanimous opinion of the association that the interests of education would be greatly promoted by the organization of such a Bureau at the present time; that it would render needed assistance in the establishment of school-systems where they do not now exist, and that it would also prove a potent means for improving and vitalizing existing systems. This it could accomplish :

- *By securing greater uniformity and accuracy in school-statistics, and so interpreting them that they may be more widely available and reliable as educational tests and measures.*
- *By bringing together the results of school-systems in different communities, States, and countries, and determining their comparative value.*
- *By collecting the results of all important experiments in new and special methods of school-instruction and management, and making them the common property of school-officers and teachers throughout the country.*
- *By diffusing among the people information respecting the school-laws of the different States; the various modes of providing and disbursing school-funds; the different classes of school-officers and their relative duties; the qualifications required of teachers, the modes of their examination, and the agencies provided for their special training; the best methods of classifying and grading schools, improved plans of school-houses, together with modes of heating and ventilation, &c.—information now obtained only by a few persons and at great expense, but which is of the highest value to all intrusted with the management of schools.*
- *By aiding communities and States in the organization of school-systems in which mischievous errors shall be avoided and vital agencies and well-tried improvements be included.*

- *By the general diffusion of correct ideas respecting the value of education as a quickener of intellectual activities, as a moral renovator, as a multiplier of industry and a consequent producer of wealth, and, finally, as the strength and shield of civil liberty.*

In the opinion of your memorialists, it is not possible to measure the influence which the faithful performance of these duties by a National Bureau would exert upon the cause of education throughout the country, and few persons who have not been intrusted with the management of school-systems can fully realize how wide-spread and urgent is the demand for such assistance. Indeed, the very existence of the association which your memorialists represent is itself positive proof of a demand for a national channel of communication between the school-officer of the different States. Millions of dollars have been thrown away in fruitless experiments, or in stolid plodding, for the want of it.

Your memorialists would also submit that the assistance and encouragement of the General Government are needed to secure the adoption of school-systems throughout the country. An ignorant people have no inward impulse to lead them to self-education. Just where education is most needed, there it is always least appreciated and valued. It is, indeed, a law of educational progress that its impulse and stimulus come from without. Hence it is that Adam Smith and other writers on political economy expressly except education from the operation of the general law of supply and demand. They teach, correctly, that the demand for education must be awakened by external influence and agencies.

This law is illustrated by the fact that entire school-systems, both in this and in other countries, have been lifted up, as it were bodily, by just such influences as a National Bureau of Education would exert upon the schools of the several States; and this, too, without its being invested with any official control of the school-authorities therein. Indeed, the highest value of such a Bureau would be its quickening and informing influence, rather than its authoritative and directive control. The true function of such a Bureau is not to direct officially in the school-affairs in the States, but rather to co-operate with and assist them in the great work of establishing and maintaining systems of public instruction. All experience teaches that the nearer the responsibility of supporting and directing schools is brought to those immediately benefited by them, the greater their vital power and efficiency.

Your memorialists beg permission to suggest one other special duty which should be intrusted to the National Bureau, and which of itself will justify its creation, viz: an investigation of the management and results of the frequent munificent grants of land made by Congress for the promotion of general and special education. It is estimated that these grants, if they had been properly managed, would now present an aggregate educational fund of about live hundred millions of dollars. If your memorialists are not misinformed, Congress has no official information whatever respecting the manner in which these trusts have been managed.

In conclusion, "your memorialists beg leave to express their earnest belief that universal education, next to universal liberty, is a matter of deep national concern. Our experiment of republican institutions is not upon the scale of a petty municipality or state, but it covers half a continent and embraces peoples of widely diverse interests and conditions, but who are to continue "one and inseparable." Every condition of our perpetuity and progress as a nation adds emphasis to the remark of Montesquieu, that "it is in a republican government that the whole power of education is required."

It is an imperative necessity of the American Republic that the common school be planted on every square mile of its peopled territory and that the instruction therein imparted be carried to the highest point of efficiency. The creation of a Bureau of Education by Congress would be a practical recognition of this great truth. It would impart to the cause of education a dignity and importance which would surely widen its influence and enhance its success.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

E. E. White, State-Commissioner of Common Schools of Ohio.

Newton Bateman, State-Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois.

J.S. Adams, Secretary of State-Board of Education, Vermont.

Washington, D. C.,

February 10, 1860.

The above memorial was presented in the House of Representatives by General Garfield, February 14, 1866, with a bill for the establishment of a National Bureau on essentially the basis the school superintendents had proposed. Memorial and bill were both referred to a committee from seven of the States.

The committee of Representatives consisted of Messrs. Garfield of Ohio, Patterson of New Hampshire, Boutwell of Massachusetts, Donnelly of Minnesota, Moulton of Illinois, Goodyear of New York, and Randall

of Pennsylvania, Mr. Randall, however, not acting with the others, as he observed on the floor of the House. On the 15th of June following the bill was reported back from the committee, with an amendment in the nature of a substitute, providing for the creation of a *department* of education, instead of the *bureau* originally proposed. Thus altered, it was put upon its passage, and, after some frank opposition on one side and very able advocacy on the other, it received, June 19, 80 votes in favor to 44 against it. In the Senate it was referred to the Committee on the Judiciary,

Messrs. Trumbull, Harris, Clark, Poland, Stewart, and Hendricks. with a view to determining whether there were any legal or constitutional obstacles to the approval of it. This committee, after holding it till the winter-session, reported it back without amendment and with a recommendation that it pass; and, having been discussed, February 26, 1867, on a motion to restore the title of Bureau, it went through, without division, on the 1st of March, receiving on the next day the approval of the President.

The person selected as the first incumbent of the office of Commissioner of Education was Hon. Henry Barnard, LL. D., of Connecticut, distinguished for his labors on behalf of education in his native State, for five years commissioner of public schools in Rhode Island, for some time chancellor of the University of Wisconsin, and also eminent for his efforts in behalf of education. literature. He was nominated for the post by President Johnson, March 11, 1807, and confirmed by the Senate March 16. Holding the office for three years, he had the task, at once honorable and arduous, of starting a scheme of operation and of getting the yet rough wheels of the organized machine at work. As he failed to receive the congressional co-operation that was hoped for, the National Superintendents' Association came to his aid, and, in a meeting held at Trenton, N. J., August, 1869, passed, unanimously, the following preamble and resolutions:

Whereas it was in consequence of the earnest and often-repeated recommendation of the State and National Teachers' Associations, and especially as the action taken at the session of the Association of School-Superintendents, held February 6, 1866, in the city of Washington, that Congress finally established the Department of Education; and whereas the more recent action of the Senate and House of Representatives seems to indicate a want of confidence in such a department as a useful agency in the promotion of education : Therefore,

Be it resolved, That this association appoint a committee of three to act in conjunction with a like committee of the National Teachers' Association, with instructions to confer with the authorities at Washington in regard to the best interests of the National Bureau, or Office, of Education.

Resolved, That the joint committee appointed as above be instructed to represent to Congress that it is the unanimous opinion of the members of this association that such a Department, at the seat of the General Government, clothed with all the powers and having all the facilities contemplated in the law by which it was originally established, would be of almost incalculable utility in collecting and disseminating information for the use of the great multitude of school-officers of every rank, who are now or who may hereafter be concerned in the organization and management of schools and school-systems in scores of States and thousands of cities and towns throughout the length and breadth of a territory which already covers almost a continent.

Resolved, That the said committee be further instructed to urge upon Congress that the causes which have impaired the present usefulness of said Department—whatsoever they may be—be not permitted to weigh against the continuance and liberal support of the Department itself.

The "liberal support" thus asked for was not given, and on the 17th of March, 1870, Dr. Barnard retired and was succeeded by the present Commissioner. He found the Office shorn of honors and emoluments, the original Department having been reduced to a Bureau, the salary of Commissioner cut down from 84,000 to 83,000, and the appropriation for the work from 820,000 to 86,000, while only two clerks, at 81,200 each, were employed in collecting from all quarters of the world the information upon school-matters to be circulated throughout all our country. This exceedingly inadequate force he has, with the cordial aid of the President, of the Secretary of the Interior, and of Congress, succeeded in increasing to something nearer an approximation to the work to be performed, though it remains still greatly short of what the wide range of the duties of the Bureau calls for.

II.—As to its Work.

The operations of the Bureau are prescribed and indicated by the act of March 2, 1867, to which it owes its being. That act says it shall be established "for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of school-systems and methods of teaching as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school-systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education."

The collection of information as to the condition and progress of education in the whole United States is

the first branch of the work thus outlined. The field for exploration it presents embraces the thirty-seven States and eleven Territories. To make the exploration thorough, the Bureau must examine every school-law, and mark whatever change or amendment may be made, including the charters of city-boards of education, with their rules and ordinances. It must sift, for things deserving general attention, the reports of every State-, county-, and city super-intendent of the public schools that may be sent to it. It must get at the work not only of the public high schools, but also of the private academies and special preparatory schools. It must look through the annual catalogues and calendars of a long list of colleges and universities; schools of divinity, law, medicine, and science; reformatories, and institutions for the training of the deaf and dumb, the blind, and the feeble-minded—selecting from each what is worthy to be noted in the way of either improvement or defect. And besides all this, it must keep its eyes wide open to observe the growth of libraries, museums, schools of art or industry, and other aids to the proper training of the people; must see what the educational journals say as to school-matters in their several States; must note what may be worth preserving in the utterances at teachers' associations and gatherings of scientific men; and must keep up, with reference to all these things, an incessant correspondence with every portion of the country. In fact, its correspondence reaches, more or less directly, to the 48 States and Territories, to 206 cities, 132 normal schools,

Some of these, normal departments in colleges and other schools.

144 business-colleges, 54 Kindergarten, 1,455 academies, 103 schools especially engaged in preparing pupils for the colleges, 240 institutions for the higher training of young women, 383 colleges and universities, 73 schools of science, 115 of theology, 37 of law, and 98 of medicine; with 585 libraries, 26 art-museums, 53 museums of natural history, 40 institutions for the instruction of deaf mutes, 28 for the blind, 9 for the feeble-minded, 400 for orphans, and 45 for the reformation of misguided youth. The list of institutions in correspondence with the Bureau, already over 4,000, is steadily increasing, and must increase, with the growth of population and of schools, to fully 5,000, while that of individual correspondents, now much over 8,000, must soon reach a far greater number. The returns thus made to it, of perfectly free will, on education, exceed considerably what were gathered for the census of 1870 by an army of house-visitant officials, armed with authority for requiring answers to their questions.

The "diffusion" of the information thus collected, to "aid the people in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school-systems and otherwise promote the cause of education," is the second branch of the work to be performed. The language of the law, however, here, "such information as shall aid," widens the field of research considerably; sends the Bureau to the study of school-systems elsewhere prevalent; and induces inquiry as to the ministries of instruction in the several European states, as to the useful suggestions in foreign educational reports and journals, and as to the systems of training in the universities, gymnasia, real-schools, schools of architecture and drawing, and the various institutions for primary education in every civilized community or state, that whatever is peculiar or excellent in each may be collected, with a view to the assistance of our educators in their work.

All this, with the educational collections from our country, is presented by the Bureau : (1) In the form of annual Reports, each giving abstracts of the various classes of instruction, (such as primary, secondary, superior, professional and special,) with lists and statistics of all noticeable institutions and estimates of progress or retreat in various lines; (2) in occasional Circulars of Information, of which twenty have been published up to 1875, besides others of a closely kindred character, not so designated; and (3) in written answers to inquiries on school-matters addressed to the Commissioner, from a great variety of sources, both in this country and abroad.

The amount of intelligence conveyed by these means with respect to educational systems, school-laws, and important institutions, is such as has never previously been made generally accessible in the United States; such as no agency belonging merely to a single State could possibly have gathered and such as private persons could not have obtained, without vast labor and a great expense, except through publications thus brought freely within reach.

A list of these publications may be found in Appendix A.

How highly the intelligence thus spread abroad is valued, and how much it has aided in harmonizing the school-systems of the States and improving in new districts the methods of instruction, might be shown by strong testimonies from very many of our educators. The Bureau cannot violate the sanctity of correspondence by printing the kind words written to it by free pens, but lets this brief report respecting it be made to show what is the work laid on it, and what, with comparatively scanty means, has been the measure of success secured in this through the friendly co-operation of school-officer.

The limitations imposed upon the Bureau with reference to its work deserve some notice in a paper of this kind. It is very evident, from the language of the act creating it, that it was not to be left to do what work it pleased. The field in which it is to operate is, in that act, distinctly marked for it, and the kind of work to be done by it within that field is told in words that no one need mistake. To repeat, it is established "for the

purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information * * * as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school-systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education."

It may be noted here that no power whatever is given the Bureau but that of gathering and disseminating information upon school-affairs; no lordship over school-officials is conferred; no authority over the school-systems of the States is hinted at; no warrant for coercing even an answer to the questions it may ask in its researches is sought or bestowed. The liberty of research and of publication is declared with authoritative voice, and nothing more. A governmental agency for getting at the facts of education, and so grouping these that all may have the benefit of the instruction they convey, the Bureau stands before the various school-officers to interrogate, but not to rule them. It has to depend upon their courtesy for a reply to its interrogations, and would be helpless if that courtesy should fail. It is simply a "clearing-house for educational information."

Not even in the Territories, where the legislative power of Congress is supreme, has any authority been given to the Bureau to direct what educational systems shall prevail. They are included with the States in the limitation of its duties above indicated, and to them, as to the States, a hand of help, and not of rule, is all that it is authorized by Congress to extend. It may gather information from them as to the progress and condition of education in their bounds; may distribute among them, for their benefit, such other information as it has from the various sources in its sphere of view; and may comment, if it should please, on the information it conveys, to show its value or its bearing; but there, alike with Territories and with States, its power ends. It cannot force on them its conclusions; cannot require that its suggestions shall be carried out; cannot demand that any defect which it may see in their systems of instruction be amended. Conveyance of intelligence fitted to amend defects is the extent of the authority accorded to it even with reference to education in the Territories.

That this view is correct is evident from several tilings connected with the first origination of the Bureau, as well as its entire administration.

(1) The spirit of the National Educational Association, from which the action for establishing it emanated, has been from the first opposed to national *control* of education, and in favor only of a moderate national "*aid and comfort*" for it. The whole drift of the action it has taken on this point has been for a perfectly free working of State-systems and against a national compulsory one. The very paper of Mr. White, which formed the basis of the memorial to Congress for the creation of the Bureau, took up the question of the starting of a system of education by the General Government, and pronounced against it as "too wide a departure from the settled educational policy of the country to be seriously entertained." At a succeeding meeting the same year, at Indianapolis, Hon. Oramel Horsford, State-superintendent of public instruction in Michigan, read, with apparently general approval, a paper on "National education," of kindred purport.

The same view was enunciated and illustrated by the present Commissioner, in an address before the association, at Cleveland, in the summer of 1870.

At the meeting in Trenton, in 1869, in which, as has been shown, the Bureau was heartily indorsed, a communication from a prominent clerical gentleman of Massachusetts, favoring "A national system of free schools," "met"—says an educational journal of that period—"but little favor." To make its position on the subject perfectly distinct, the association appended to its resolutions approbatory of the Bureau the following one:

Resolved, That, in petitioning Congress for the creation of a Department of Education, in connection with the General Government, this association contemplates neither the establishment of a national system of education nor any interference whatsoever with the systems of education established in the several States.

At the meeting at Saint Louis, August, 1871, when a scheme for establishing, by congressional enactment, systems of public schools in States where they were not existent was being agitated, the final seal was put upon this matter, as far as the association was concerned, by a paper from Hon. J. P. Wicker-sham, of Pennsylvania, a warm friend of the Bureau, in which a national compulsory system was argued against upon the grounds: (a) that "the establishment of such a system is in opposition to the uniform practice of our National Government;" (b) that "it is in opposition to the wishes of the founders of the Republic and the leading statesmen of the nation;" (c) that "it is of doubtful constitutionality," and (d) that "it is in apposition to a sound republican political philosophy."

This apparently uniform spirit of the body out of whose desire for it the Bureau sprung is accepted as one decisive indication of the limitation intended to be put upon its action.

(2) The expressions of the memorial which urged on Congress the formation of the Bureau afford a kindred indication of the limited powers which the memorialists desired that it should be authorized to exercise. Having stated the benefits to be hoped for from its establishment, the paper goes on thus: "The highest value of the Bureau would be its quickening and informing influence, rather than its authoritative and directive control." And again: "The true function of such a Bureau is not to direct officially in the school-affairs in States, but

rather to cooperate with and assist them in the great work of establishing and maintaining systems of public instruction."

(3) Concurrent with these recorded ideas of the memorialists are those expressed in Congress by prominent men in favor of the Bureau, at the time of the debates on the question of creating it.

For example, General Garfield, of the House, by whom the bill for it was introduced, said, while strenuously urging the importance of a general training of the people: "The genius of our Government does not allow us to establish a compulsory system of education, as is done in some of the countries of Europe. There are States in this Union which have adopted a compulsory system, and perhaps that is well. It is for each State to determine." Mr. Boutwell, then also in the House, remarked, in kindred strain: "This measure is no invasion of State-rights. It does not seek to control anybody. It does not interfere with the system of education anywhere. It only proposes to furnish the means by which, from a Bureau here, every citizen of every State in this Republic can be informed as to the means of education existing and applied in the most advanced sections of this country and the world."

In the Senate, Mr. Norton said he would not vote for it if it was to control education in the States; but, on the understanding that its office was simply to collect and disseminate information, informing one State of the manner of conducting schools and the school-systems to be found in another, he approved of it and believed it would be beneficial to the country. Mr. Trumbull, in the same honorable body, answering the objection that this was a scheme to take the control of education from the States and give it to the central Government, said "it was not so by any means. It was merely to establish a center for the dissemination of information among the States as to improvements in building school-houses, in methods of imparting instruction, and so on, and for giving a history of the disposition of the vast amount of property which the nation has donated for purposes of education."

These several indications of the bounds within which it must confine itself are taken by the Bureau, with the law which gave it birth, as demonstrating what must be its sphere of action. It is to be an aid to instruction in the States, and not a lordship over it. Information, not direction, is the line of work assigned to it. It may courteously question State-officers and teachers, but may not undertake to rule them. Content with this and not disposed to go a step beyond, it not only can disclaim all thought of intermeddling with State-systems, but also fearlessly appeal to the several school-officers with whom its duties bring it into contact, whether it ever trespasses upon their fields or threatens in the least to turn into a tyranny what was meant to be an aid to them. But, happily, there is no need for such appeal. The pleasantest relations constantly subsist between it and the educational authorities in all the States. It is in receipt of frequent and most gratifying evidence of their cordially kind feeling and readiness to co-operate with it in its work. In proof of this, citation may be made from freely-published testimonies, without touching private correspondence.

For instance, at the session of the National Educational Association held in Boston, August, 1872, the assembled educators passed a resolution congratulating themselves and the country that the National Bureau of Education was beginning to meet the wants of teachers by pursuing investigations which increased the value of educational statistics and by publishing occasionally, for the benefit of the educators of the country, the rare products of the educational field in this and other regions. They also respectfully recommended that facilities for the publication of its Circulars of Information be increased and that Congress should provide for a larger edition of the annual Report, to be distributed among teachers and school-officer, that they might have each year in the conduct of their work the advantage of its aggregated information drawn from the previous year's experience.

At the session of the department of superintendence of the same association, held in Washington January, 1874, the following resolutions, presented by Messrs. Ruffner of Va., Bicknell of R. I., Hopkins of Ind., Newell of Md., and Jilson of S. C., the committee on aid to education, passed with apparently unanimous approval:

Resolved, That this convention strongly approves the policy hitherto pursued by the Federal Government of leaving the people and local government of each State to manage their own educational affairs without interference, believing that the principle on which this policy is based is as sound educationally as it is politically.

Resolved, That this convention acknowledges the great service done to the cause of education by Congress in establishing and maintaining a Department of Education, similar in principle to those of Agriculture and Statistics, whereby appropriate information from all parts of the world may be gathered, digested, and distributed, and whereby a number of important ends may be subserved in connection with the work of education. It would also acknowledge the very valuable service already done by the Bureau of Education, and would venture to express the hope that its means of usefulness may be increased.

The State Teachers' Association of Missouri, too, at its annual meeting, held in Warrensburg, December, 1873, adopted this resolution:

Resolved, That we recognize the great value of the work of the United States Commissioner of Education, and respectfully ask our legislators and Representatives in Congress to render the Bureau of Education every possible facility for collecting and distributing the important facts and statistics embraced in the circulars and annual Report of the Commissioner.

Hon. W. H. Ruffner, State-superintendent of instruction in Virginia, and offerer of the Washington resolutions quoted, makes this further voluntary statement in his report for 1873:

Those who have to deal practically with this matter of State-education know what need there is of some central depot of information, where educational facts from all parts of the world may be gathered, digested, and distributed over the country, as is done by the present Bureau of Education. This is a work too large and costly for any State-office, and yet is important to all. This Bureau is intended to occupy a position on educational matters similar to that occupied in their respective spheres by the Bureaus of Agriculture and of Statistics, and should never be allowed to go beyond this.

And finally, Hon. H. A. M. Henderson, State-superintendent of education in Kentucky, speaks thus in his report for 1874:

*I am opposed to any national scheme for popular education, or the creation of any United States Bureau, or Commissioner, who shall be invested with any authority over the superintendents of the separate States. * * * I am not opposed to a Commissioner of Education, to be located at Washington, as at present, whose relations to the subject of popular education shall be those of a general statistician. The annual report he sends out is worth the cost of the Bureau. It has always, afforded me pleasure to co-operate with him in his quest for information, and I have received valuable aid through the agency of his Office.*

While this pamphlet is passing through the press, the following additional testimonials of the appreciation of the Bureau among educators come to hand: (1) That the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association, at its meeting in Boston, December 28-30, 1874, passed, unanimously "a resolution to memorialize Congress in favor of the continuance and liberal support of the National Bureau of Education;" (2) that the New York State Association of School-Commissioners and Superintendents adopted at its session, December 20, the following:

Resolved, That we have noticed with deep regret the apparent want of appreciation, on the part of a large number of Representatives, of the Bureau of Education at Washington, the great value of which we have learned by our individual experience, not as building up a central power in education at the national Capital, which it appears to us inadequate ever to do, but as enabling those engaged in education in the various States to have access to the information necessary to make their work thorough and efficient.

It is hoped that these showings of the limitations put upon the work of the Bureau and of the confidence reposed in it by State-teachers and State-officers, as administered in strict compliance with these limitations, may help to correct misconceptions, not infrequently apparent, as to possible interference with the independence of State-systems of instruction; for any one may see that such interference is impossible from an agency whose business is just to gather from all quarters educational hints, information, and statistics, and spread these, for the general benefit, by its publications and its correspondence through the country. And that this, and on more, is the duty that is laid on it is indicated clearly, not only by the act which gave it its existence, but also, as has been shown, by the spirit of the great association that suggested it, by the terms of the memorial which led to the formation of it, and by the expressions in the congressional debate on that formation.

That the Bureau does, besides this, from its being a known organ of the Government, an incidental duty, not included in its special aim, by furnishing to foreign governments and individuals much-needed information as to our school-systems and school-methods, no one will complain of who desires good-neighborhood among the nations.

In the debate upon the organizing act, in 1867, Senator Yates gave as one reason for voting to create the Bureau, that it would meet a want in this direction, a foreign friend of education having complained to him of the difficulty he experienced in finding any central source of information on such points. He could gather up reports from different States, but any connected view of education in the whole United States was not accessible. In fact, as was said by Hon. G. F. Hoar, upon the floor of Congress, the only respectable accounts of education in this country then published had been prepared by foreign governments.

Our country is honored by being applied to for such information, and the pride of our people in the educational status they have reached would be amply gratified if the Bureau could spread out before them the returns of approval from its many foreign correspondents.

Of the value of such a means of international communication as the Bureau is, an illustration was afforded in the case of the Exposition at Vienna, in 1873. In previous world's fairs the condition of the United States with regard to education had been scarcely touched, from want of any agency to organize the material for exhibition. But at Vienna, through the facilities which this Office was able to furnish from its national position, the educational instrumentalities of the country—public-school-systems, institutions of learning, libraries, and

others—were enabled to represent their statistics, methods, apparatus, and literature, so as to secure special recognition, and carried off forty-eight premiums. Of the four grand diplomas of honor given the United States in the educational group, one was bestowed on this Bureau "for distinguished services in the cause of education and for important contributions to the Exposition."

The Library of the Bureau.

Full justice could not be done to the Bureau without some notice of this department of its work. As one of the fruits of its researches into educational facts and statistics, a library of almost unexampled richness in its special line has gradually grown up beneath its hands. This is, in part, composed of choice collections bearing on the history and art of education in this country and abroad; in part, of the accumulations made in the process of annual examination into the condition of public-school-instruction, the state of academies and colleges, and the rise and-work of professional and special schools.

For one element of it, there come in, each year, the educational journals of the country, the reports on education from our various States and Territories—including not only those of State-superintendents of instruction, but also those of the superintendents in the counties—and those of the cities and large towns. To these are added the annual reports of high schools, union-schools, preparatory schools, and normal schools; of young ladies' seminaries, business-colleges, agricultural colleges, classical and scientific colleges and universities, with the schools of science, law, medicine, and theology standing connected with these, or apart; while to close the list come schools for orphans, for deaf mutes, for the blind, for youth that need to be reformed as well as taught, for the instruction of a force of well-trained nurses, of apprentices for our marine, and of officers for the Army and Navy of our Government. Collections of school-laws go to fill up the list and aid in the investigation of systems of instruction; while prominent publishers of educational works send in their specimens to show what improvements in the means of teaching are continually going forward.

All these collections are, as fast as time and means permit, so bound, classified, and properly arranged as to be immediately available for any line of educational research to be attempted, whether it refer to the forms of State-and city-systems of instruction or to the condition of academic, collegiate, professional, or special training in any recent period or year.

For another element there are full sets of reports on education from Great Britain and Ireland, Germany, France, Austria, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, Italy, Sweden and Norway, the British Colonies, Brazil, and the Argentine Republic, while pretty full, though not complete, ones are on hand from Denmark, Spain, Portugal, Greece, Turkey, Russia, Egypt, Chili, Mexico, Ecuador, and the United States of Colombia.

Both these two elements come in with little other expense to the Bureau than the exchange of its own publications with the governments, officers, institutions, and publishing-houses from which they are received.

Then, as a third element, there are, besides encyclopedias for reference, as large collections as small funds will admit of works relating, in a variety of ways, to the education and civilization of the world, the progress of knowledge, the development of art, and the condition of literature and science.

Works bearing directly on education as a science or an art form a fourth element. Among these may be enumerated: (1) Works of all the prominent German writers on these themes, such as Comenius, Basedow, Pestalozzi, Niemeier, Beneke, Denzel, Graser, Schleiermacher, Herbart, Diesterweg, &c.; (2) all the important works on the history of education in Europe, as well as in the United States; (3) a large number of German, French, and English treatises on educational questions; (4) the chief German, British, Austrian, French, Swiss, and Italian educational periodicals; (5) the many works on special topics in the line of education that have grown out of the controversies, the needs, and the desire for information of the last few years in our own country and abroad.

Those who have had opportunities for comparison of this with kindred libraries abroad do not hesitate to say that, great as are the means for such collections under the monarchies of Europe, this of the Bureau of Education is, for the ground it covers and for purposes of practical investigation, superior to any in existence, except, perhaps, one at Vienna. And of course, as its accumulations are continually going forward and its materials more and more systematized for work, its value as a library of reference increases with each added year.

Appendix A.

Publications of the Bureau of Education.

Under Dr. Barnard.

- Bureau's supply exhausted.
Report for 1867-'68.
- Special Report on the District of Columbia.

Under present administration.

- First Annual Report, 1870.
Of each of these, 20,000 copies were ordered by Congress and 5,000 put at the disposal of the Bureau.
- Second Annual Report, 1871.
- Third Annual Report, 1872.
- Fourth Annual Report, 1873.

As to this, the congressional action was: The House had voted for 20,000 copies of this Report, and when the Senate, on economical grounds, made it 5,000, the House, adhering to its first vote, called for a committee of conference, and only yielded after much effort to secure the larger number. The following is the resolution finally adopted : "*Resolved*, That there be printed, of the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1873, 5,000 copies, of which 2,500 copies shall be for the use of the Commissioner and 2,500 shall be for sale by the Congressional Printer at the cost of paper and press-work, with an addition of 10 per cent." This makes the price to purchasers only 68 cents for a volume of 1,048 pages, the postage on which is, under the new law, but 10 cents.

- August, 1870. Circular respecting illiteracy of 1860; school-room diseases, &c.
- July, 1871. Report on the systems of public instruction in Sweden and Norway.
- November, 1871. Methods of school-discipline.
- December, 1871. Compulsory education. January, 1872. German and other foreign universities.
- February, 1872. Reports on the systems of public instruction in Greece, the Argentine Republic, Chili, and Ecuador, with statistics of Portugal and Japan and an official report on technical education in Italy.
- March, 1872.
 - An inquiry concerning the vital statistics of college graduates.
 - Distribution of college students in 1870-71.
 - Facts of vital statistics in the United States, with tables and diagrams.
- April, 1872. The relation of education to labor.
- June, 1872. Education in the British West Indies.
- July, 1872. The Kindergarten.
- November, 1872. American education at the International Exposition to be held at Vienna in 1873.
- 1872. Free-school policy in connection with leading western railway
- No. 1, 1873. Historical summary and reports on the systems of public instruction in Spain, Bolivia, Uruguay, and Portugal.
- No. 2, 1873. Schools in British India.
- No. 3, 1873. Account of college-commencements, for the summer of 1873, in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania.
- No. 4, 1873. Lists of publications by members of certain college-faculties and learned societies in the United States.
- No. 5, 1873. Account of college-commencements during 1873 in the Western and Southern States.
- No. 1, 1874. Proceedings of the department of superintendence of the National Teachers' Association.
- No. 2, 1874. Drawing in public schools: the present relation of art to education in the United States.
- No. 3, 1874. History of secondary instruction in Germany.
- 1874. Contributions to the annals of medical progress and medical education in the United States before and during the War of Independence.
- 1874. A statement of the theory of education in the United States of America, as approved by many leading educators.

"the Education Act, 1877."

Title.

Preamble.

- Short Title.
- Commencement of Act.
- Repeal of Acts and Ordinances.
- Interpretation.
- Division of Act.

Part I.

Department of Education.

- Minister of Education.
- Secretary and Inspector and officers of Department of Education.
- Expenses of administering department to be appropriated by General Assembly.
- Act not to interfere with "Neglected and Criminal Children Act, 1867."
- Act not to be binding on Maoris.
- Provision for Sundays and holidays.

Part II.

Education Boards.

(1.) *Education Districts.*

- Education districts.

(2.) *Constitution of Boards.*

- Education Board.
- When members of Board take office.
- Annual retirement of three members of Board.
- Ordinary election to fill vacancies.
- Existing Boards to be first Boards under this Act.
- First elections may be postponed.
- Existing Boards to administer Act in altered districts till elections held.
- Qualification for members of Board.
- Disqualification of members.
- Provision for vacancy in Board.
- Acts of Board not to be questioned for informality, &c.
- Boards incorporated.

(3.) *Property of Boards.*

- Property acquired under repealed Acts or Ordinances to vest in Boards constituted by this Act. Provision in respect of new districts.
- Moneys payable to former Boards to be paid to new Boards.
- Debts due to or owing by former Boards to be paid by or recovered from new Board.
- Contracts entered into under repealed Acts or Ordinances, by whom to be performed.
- Provision for apportioning debts and liabilities between old and new Boards.

(4.) Secretary and Officers of Boards.

- Boards may appoint Secretary and other officers.
- Duties of Secretary.

(5.) Meetings of Boards.

- First and other meetings of Boards.
- Quorum of Boards. Chairman to be elected.
- Minutes to be kept.

(6.) Powers and Duties of Boards.

- General powers and duties of Boards.
- Provision when school districts divided. School year.
- Public notice to be given when school district formed.
- Trustees of school may agree to place same under control of Board.

(7.) Board Fund.

- Board to make annual estimate of moneys required for current year.
- Provision for deduction from grants in aid in certain cases.
- Funds of Boards.
- Board Fund, of what to consist.
- Disposal of fund.
- Accounts to be kept. Accounts to be audited.

(8.) Appointment of Teachers.

- Appointment and removal of teachers.
- Teachers of schools in office to continue in same.
- Duration of appointment of school teacher. Summary dismissal in certain cases.
- Teacher's occupation of school-house.
- Proceedings against a teacher refusing to give up school house on demand.
- Pupil-teachers may be employed.

(9.) Scholarships, District High Schools.

- Board may establish scholarships.
- Board may receive land or money for foundation of scholarships.
- Who may compete for scholarship.
- Board may make regulations for scholarships.
- District high schools may be established by Board.
- Course of instruction in high schools.
- School libraries may be established.

Part III.

School Districts. School Committees and their Duties.

(1.) *School Districts.*

- School Committees.
- Disqualification for membership of Committee.
- Provision for constitution of new school districts.
- Meeting of householders.
- School districts in existence under repealed Acts or Ordinances to continue such.

(2.) *Election of School Committees.*

- Election of first School Committees under this Act.
- Subsequent elections. Proceedings at meeting. Duration of office.
- Cumulative voting at elections.
- Disputes as to validity of elections to be settled by Board of District. Provision in case of failure to elect on day of annual meeting.
- In case of failure to elect at second meeting, Board may appoint Commissioner.
- Powers and duties of Commissioners.

(3.) *Meetings of School Committees.*

- First meeting of School Committee. Election of Chairman.
- Proceedings at meetings.
- Clerk and Treasurer may be appointed. Not to receive remuneration in certain cases.
- Minutes of meetings, &c.
- Committee may appear by Clerk, or Chairman, or Solicitor.

(4.) *Powers and Duties of School Committees.*

- Committee may establish public schools. Committee to have management of educational matters in school district.
- Committee may provide school-houses, &c.
- May appoint teachers of sewing.
- Board may acquire sites for school houses, &c.
- Savings banks may be established.

(5.) *Good-Attendance Certificates.*

- Certificates of attendance obtainable.

(6.) *School Fund.*

- Of what School Fund to consist.
- Application of section 41 to School Fund.
- Audit of Committee's accounts. Copy to be sent to the Board.

Part IV.

Public Schools and Management Thereof.

(1.) Course of Instruction in Public Schools.

- "School ago" defined.
- Public schools to be conducted in accordance with regulations. Course of instruction in public schools.
- Military drill and physical training in certain schools. Playgrounds.
- Evening schools.
- Expulsion of children in certain cases.
- Itinerant teachers may be appointed. Aided schools.

(2.) Compulsory Education: Exemptions.

- Every child above seven nor more than thirteen to attend school.
- Exemptions.
- In case child does not attend school, notice may be given.
- Proceedings to compel attendance.

(3.) Penalties in certain cases.

- Penalty for non-compliance with order of Justices.
- Proceedings to be taken under "Justices of the Peace Act, 1866."
- Compulsory clauses, when shall be enforced.
- Penalty for wilful disturbance of school.

(4.) Inspection of Schools.

- Inspection of schools.
- Private schools may be inspected on request of managers.
- Governor may order inspection of industrial schools, &c.

(5.) Regulations and Reports.

- Regulations may be made by Order in Council.
- Minister to make annual report.
- Boards to make annual report.
- Committee to forward yearly report to Board.
- School lands and buildings exempt from rates. Schedules.

AN ACT to make further Provision for the Education of the Title. People of New Zealand.

[29th November', 1877.]

WHEREAS it is expedient to make further and better provision
Preamble.

for the education of the people in the Colony of New Zealand :

Be it therefore enacted by the General Assembly of New Zealand in Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows :—

1. The Short Title of this Act shall be "The Education Act,
Short Title.
1877."

2. This Act shall come into operation on the first day of
Commencement of Act.

January, one thousand eight hundred and seventy-eight, except as to the appointment of the Minister, the Secretary to the Department of Education, the Inspectors of Schools, and other officers, and the making of regulations and orders, and the provisions of sections seventeen and eighteen, for which purposes only this Act shall come into force on the passing hereof.

3. Upon the coming into operation of this Act, the Acts
Repeal of Acts and Ordinances.

specified in the First Schedule hereto shall be and the same are hereby repealed.

4. In the interpretation of this Act, and except where there
Interpretation.

is something in the context repugnant thereto or inconsistent therewith, the following words and expressions shall mean or include the matters following:—

- "Minister" means the Minister of Education appointed for the purposes of this Act:
- "Inspector" means any person appointed to be an Inspector of Schools under this Act:
- "Board" means the Education Board of any district constituted under this Act:
- "District" means an education district constituted under this Act:
- "School district" means a district under the jurisdiction of a School Committee :
- "Committee" means the School Committee elected for a school district :
- "Property" means real and personal property of every description :
- "Teacher" means any schoolmaster or schoolmistress, or assistant schoolmaster or schoolmistress, or other person engaged in teaching in any public school, except pupil-teachers :
- "Public school" means any school established or constituted under the provisions of this Act, subject to the control and management of the Board :
- "Householder" means every adult male or female person, who as owner or tenant, lessee or occupier, occupies, uses, or resides in any dwelling-house, shop, warehouse, or other building in any district, or every parent or guardian who is likely to maintain, or has the actual custody of, any child :
- "School house" includes the schoolmaster's residence and land attached thereto, outbuildings, and apparatus and appliances for instruction in gymnastics and physical training :
- "Gazette" means the *New Zealand Gazette*, and "gazetted" means published in such gazette :
- "Public notice" or "publicly notified" means that a notice shall be published in some newspaper circulating in the district :
- "Regulations" mean regulations made under this Act :
- "Outlying district" means a district not included within the jurisdiction of a Road Board or Borough Council.

[unclear: vision] of Act.

5. The provisions of this Act are divided into Parts relating to the following subject-matters:—

- PART I.—Department of Education.
- PART II.—Education Boards.
- PART III.—School Districts. School Committees and their Duties.
- PART IV.—Public Schools and Management thereof.

Part I.

Department of Education.

[unclear: Minister of Education]

6. The Governor may from time to time appoint any Minister of the Crown to be Minister of Education. The Minister shall have the control and direction of the Department of Education, as constituted under Part I. of this Act, and the officers of that department, and, subject to the provisions hereinafter contained, shall generally administer this Act.

7. The Governor may from time to time appoint and remove Secretary and Inspector and officers of Department [unclear: of] Education a Secretary to the Department of Education, and such Inspector of Schools, clerks, and other officers as may be deemed necessary.

8. All moneys required for the administration of this Act by Expenses of administering department to appropriated by general Assembly the department shall be defrayed out of moneys to be from time to time appropriated by the General Assembly for the following purposes:—

- In payment of salaries and other expenses of the Department of Education.
- In payment to the Board of every district of a sum of three pounds fifteen shillings for each child in average daily attendance at a public school, such average daily attendance to be computed in manner prescribed by regulations.
- For the establishment and maintenance of normal or training schools, and in grants to Boards for the maintenance of such schools already established and under their control.
- For the erection of school houses, and for any other purpose for which such moneys may be applied or appropriated.

Subject to any such appropriation, regulations may be made prescribing the times and manner at and in which such moneys shall be paid or applied.

9. Nothing in this Act shall be construed to interfere with or Act not to interfere with "Neglected Criminal Children Act 1867." affect the provisions of "The Neglected and Criminal Children Act, 1867," or any Act amending the same, nor with any industrial or reformatory school established or which may be established under any Act or Ordinance.

10. Nothing in this Act shall be binding on any Maori, but Act not to be binding on Maoris any Maori shall be at liberty to send his children to a public school under this Act, subject to the regulations for the time being in force in such school.

The word "Maori" shall include every person of the aboriginal race of New Zealand and every person one of whose parents was a native of such race : But no half-caste shall be deemed to be a Maori within the interpretation of this Act unless he shall be living as a member of some Native tribe or community.

[unclear: ovision for Sundays and Holidays].

11. When the day on which anything is by this Act required to be done falls on a Sunday, Good Friday, Christmas Day, New Year's Day, or any proclaimed or customary public holiday, then such thing shall be done on the day following.

Part II.

Education Boards.

(1.) Education Districts.

[unclear: Education districts]

12. The divisions of the colony described in the Second Schedule hereto shall be and are hereby constituted education districts for the purposes of this Act, and shall be called by the names set over each such description.

Where the boundaries of any county comprised in an education district shall be altered under "The Counties

Act, 1876," such alteration shall operate with respect to any district constituted under this Act, and shall take effect accordingly.

The Governor may, by Proclamation in the *Gazette*, and on the request of the Board, bring any of the counties mentioned in the Second Schedule of "The Counties Act, 1876," or any part thereof, under the operation of this Act, and create the same part of an education district.

(2.) Constitution of Boards.

[*unclear*: Education hard].

13. There shall be for every district an Education Board, consisting of nine members, constituted as hereinafter provided:—

- Between the first and the thirty-first days of January, one thousand eight hundred and seventy-eight, each of the Committees in each district shall transmit to the Board the names of two persons qualified to be members of the Board, their written consent being first obtained, and the Board shall thereupon publicly notify the names of such persons, and in such notice shall also state the day on which the election of the Board shall be held, and shall also transmit to each Committee the names of such persons.
The day of election shall be some day not later than the fifteenth of March.
- On or before the last day of February in the same year, the Committee in each district shall send to the Secretary of the Board a list in writing, setting forth the full names of not more than nine of the persons whose names have been publicly notified as aforesaid.
- The Secretary shall carefully keep all such lists, and on the day fixed by the Board shall proceed to ascertain what persons, so nominated, have the greatest number of votes; and the nine persons who have the greatest number of votes shall be the members of the Board.
- After it has been ascertained what candidates have by an absolute majority of votes been duly elected, if it shall appear that there is an equality of votes for one or more candidates remaining to complete the list of nine members, the Board shall decide which of such persons shall be the member or members.
- If a Committee refuses or neglects to transmit to the Board either of the lists of names hereinbefore required to be transmitted, within the time appointed, the Board shall proceed to the election of members notwithstanding such refusal or neglect.
- Every election shall be conducted publicly by the Board in such manner as it thinks fit.
- The Board shall publicly notify what persons have been found to be elected, and such notification shall be signed by the Chairman of the Board, and shall be final and conclusive for all purposes.
A copy of such notification signed by the Chairman shall be transmitted to the Minister without delay.
- In the event of nine persons not being nominated as herein provided, the Board shall elect such a number of duly qualified persons as may be necessary to complete the number of the Board.

14. The members of the Board so elected shall take office on

When members of Board take office.

the thirty-first day of March, one thousand eight hundred and seventy-eight.

15. On the thirty-first day of March, one thousand eight

Annual retirement of three members of Board.

hundred and seventy-nine, and on the same day and month in every year thereafter, one-third of the members then in office shall retire.

The members to retire in the year one thousand eight hundred and seventy-nine shall be determined by each Board by ballot not later than the thirty-first day of December immediately preceding.

In the year one thousand eight hundred and eighty, three out of the six original members shall retire, and the members so retiring shall also be determined by ballot not later than the day aforesaid.

And in every subsequent year the members shall retire who have served longest upon such Board without re-election.

All retiring members shall be eligible for re-election.

Ordinary election to fill vacancies.

16. In the month of March, one thousand eight hundred and seventy-nine, and in the same months in every succeeding year, an election shall be held for the purpose of filling the vacancies caused by the retirement of members as herein provided.

Except as respects the number of persons to be elected, all the proceedings in and about such election shall be had and taken in the same manner as prescribed in section thirteen upon the first election of Boards.

Existing Boards to be first Boards under this Act.

17. Notwithstanding anything contained in "The Education Boards Act, 1876," every Education Board

constituted thereunder shall continue in office till the first Boards are elected under this Act; and each such first-mentioned Board shall be the Board under this Act for the district for which such Board shall have been constituted accordingly.

Every Act required to be done by any such Board or by the Chairman thereof, under this Act, may respectively be done and performed by each such Board and Chairman as if it or he had been elected or appointed under this Act.

In case Any vacancy shall occur in any Board or in the office of Chairman thereof before the coming into office of the new Board constituted under this Act, the Governor may appoint some person to be a member of the Board or Chairman thereof, as the case may require.

First elections may be postponed.

18. The Governor may, by Order in Council, postpone, for a period not exceeding two months, all or any first elections of School Committees or Education Boards under this Act, and all proceedings incident to any such election postponed as aforesaid shall be respectively postponed for the same period. In case of any such postponement, the members of the Board shall take office on such day as shall be fixed by the Governor in Council.

Existing Boards of administer Act in altered districts till lections held.

19. Where the limits of districts as existing immediately before the coming into operation of this Act have been altered by this Act, the Board of the district which immediately before the coming into operation of this Act comprised such altered limits shall, until the election of a Board for such new district, administer this Act in all respects as if such limits had not been altered.

Where a new district has been constituted, all the proceedings in and about the first election of a Board for such new district shall be had and taken in the manner herein before provided by the Board of the district of which such new district originally formed part, or, if the Governor in Council thinks fit so to order, by any other Board which can more conveniently conduct such election.

20. Every person, male or female, of the full age of twenty-

Qualification for members of Board.

one years, and not disqualified as mentioned in the next section, resident in the education district, shall be qualified to be a member of the Board.

21. If any member shall, by writing under his hand addressed

Disqualification of members.

to the Chairman of the Board, resign his office, or shall die, or become of unsound mind, or be adjudicated a bankrupt, or execute any deed of composition or arrangement with his creditors, or be absent without leave from the meetings of the Board for three consecutive months, or be convicted of treason, felony, perjury, or any infamous crime, he shall immediately cease to be a member of the Board.

If any member shall receive any salary from the Board, or accept or hold any office or employment from or under the Board to which any salary, fees, or emoluments are attached, or shall be or become interested or concerned (except as a member of a registered or incorporated company) in any contract under which any money is to be paid by the Board, he shall immediately thereupon cease to be a member of the Board : Provided that it shall be lawful for the Board to pay any member residing at a distance from the ordinary place of meeting of the Board reasonable travelling expenses.

22. If the place of any member of the Board shall become

Provision for vacancy in Board.

vacant for any of the causes aforesaid, such vacancy shall be deemed to be an extraordinary vacancy.

The Chairman of the Board shall fix a day on or before which the Committees of the several school districts shall each transmit the name of a person qualified to fill such vacancy, and shall publicly notify the names so transmitted, and appoint a day on which each Committee shall send in the name of a person so notified, and a day on which the election shall be held.

All the proceedings in and about such election shall be conducted in the same manner as in the case of ordinary elections.

The member then elected shall retain his office so long as the vacating member would have retained the same if no such vacancy had occurred.

Acts of Board not to be questioned for informality, &c.

23. No act of the Board shall be questioned on the ground of any informality in the election of a member, nor on the ground that the scat of any member is vacant, or that any supposed member thereof is incapable of being a member.

Boards incorporated.

24. Each Board shall be a body corporate under the name of "The Education Board of the District of [naming it] and by such name shall have perpetual succession and a common seal, and may take and hold land

for the purposes of this Act, and may do and suffer all such acts and things as bodies corporate may do and suffer.

(3.) Property of Boards.

Property acquired under repealed Acts or Ordinances to vest in Boards constituted by this Act.

25. All real and personal property immediately before the coming into operation of this Act vested in, belonging to, or under the control of the Education Board of any district constituted by any Act or Ordinance hereby repealed or otherwise, for educational purposes, shall, on the coming into operation of this Act, be vested in the Education Board of such district constituted under this Act, to be held by it for the purposes of this Act within such district.

Provision in respect of new districts.

Where a new district is constituted under this Act, all such property within or held in trust for educational purposes for such new district which was formerly vested in the Board of the original district shall, upon the thirty-first day of March next, vest in the Board of the new district.

Where the limits of a district as existing immediately before the coming into operation of this Act have been altered hereby, all such property within such altered limits shall, on the thirty, first day of March, vest in the Board of the district where such property is situate. Nothing in this section contained shall extend or apply to reserves for educational purposes which by or under any law or authority have been set apart as endowments for educational purposes in any district, but all such endowments shall in any of the cases hereinbefore provided for be dealt with in the manner provided by "The Education Reserves Act, 1877."

Moneys payable to former Boards to be paid to new Boards.

26. All persons who immediately before the coming into operation of this Act owe or are liable or compellable to pay any money to the Education Board of any district constituted under any Act or Ordinance hereby repealed, or to any other person on behalf of such Education Board, shall immediately on the coming into operation of this Act be deemed to owe and shall be liable and compellable to pay the same to the Education Board of such district constituted under this Act.

27. All moneys which, by reason of any contract entered into

Debts due to or owing by former Boards to be paid by or recovered from new Boards.

under the provisions of any Act or Ordinance hereby repealed at or immediately before the coming into operation of this Act, were due or owing by or recoverable from the Education Board of any district constituted under any Act repealed hereby, or by any other person on behalf of such Board, shall on the coming into operation of this Act be paid by or be recoverable from the Education Board of such district constituted under this Act.

28. All contracts, agreements, and securities before the coming

Contracts entered into under repealed Acts or Ordinances, by whom to be performed.

into operation of this Act entered into or made under any Act or Ordinance hereby repealed with or in favour of or by the Education Board of any district constituted by any such Act, or with or in favour of or by the Superintendent of the province formerly comprising such district, and which immediately before the coming into operation of this Act were in force, shall at the coming into operation of this Act take effect and be proceeded on and enforced as near as circumstances will admit in favour of by and against, and with reference to, the Board of such district constituted under this Act.

29. Where a new district has been constituted by this Act,

Provision for apportioning debts and liabilities between old and new Boards.

or where the limits of a district as existing immediately before the passing of this Act have been altered hereby, the Boards of the respective districts may agree what moneys, debts and liabilities, contracts and securities, or what proportions thereof, shall belong and attach to each such Board; and if they cannot so agree before the first day of May next, the Minister shall, upon the application of either of such Boards, make an inquiry into the circumstances, and make an award as to the several matters mentioned in this and the last two preceding sections.

Every award of the Minister made in respect of any one or more of such matters shall be final and conclusive on the several Boards interested therein.

(4.) Secretary and Officers of Boards.

30. Every Board may from time to time appoint and remove

Boards may appoint Secretary and other officers.

a Secretary and Inspectors and such other officers as may be thought necessary, who shall receive such

salary as the Board shall deem proper.

Any person who at the time of the coming into operation of this Act holds office under an Education Board in any district under the provisions of any Act hereby repealed or otherwise shall, subject to removal as aforesaid and to any express provision of this Act, continue to hold such office.

Duties of Secretary

31. The Secretary to each Board shall attend all meetings of such Board, take minutes of its proceedings, and enter such minutes in a book to be provided for that purpose, and conduct the correspondence of the Board, and take charge of and preserve all letters, papers, and documents relating to the business of the Board, and perform all such duties as may be required by the Board for carrying out the provisions of this Act.

He shall also prepare under direction of the Board all reports, returns, and information relating to school matters which may be asked for by the Minister.

(5.) Meetings of Boards.

First and other meetings of Boards.

32. The first meeting of each Board elected under the provisions of this Act shall be held at such time and place as the Minister shall appoint, and all subsequent meetings shall be held at such times and places as the Board may by any regulation in that behalf determine.

But at least one meeting shall be held in every month after such first meeting, and a quorum of the Board, having duly met, may from time to time adjourn, to meet at such other time and place as they shall appoint.

Quorum Boards.

33. The powers given to Boards by this Act shall be exercised at meetings convened as aforesaid, at which meetings three members shall be a quorum.

Chairman to be elected.

Every Board shall at its first meeting, or as soon thereafter as conveniently may be, elect one of its number to be Chairman, and on every question before the Board the decision of the majority shall be final and conclusive. The Chairman shall have a deliberative vote, and, in case the votes shall be equal, shall also have a casting vote.

No resolution or decision come to at any meeting of Board shall be revoked or altered at any subsequent meeting of such Board within twelve months from the passing thereof, unless notice of the intention to propose such revocation or alteration shall have been given at a previous meeting of the Board, and shall have been made known by the circular convening the meeting addressed to each member of the Board at his usual or last known place of abode.

If the Chairman shall be absent from any meeting, the members present shall elect one of their number to preside in his stead at such meeting, and such presiding member shall have the same power at such meeting as the Chairman.

If the Chairman shall from any cause cease to be a member of the Board or resign the office of Chairman, the Board shall as soon thereafter as conveniently may be elect another member of the Board to be Chairman in his stead.

34. Minutes of the proceedings of every Board shall be

Minutes to be kept.

regularly entered in a book to be kept for that purpose, and at every meeting of the Board the minutes of the preceding meeting shall be read over and signed by the Chairman of the meeting at which the same shall be read, and the minutes when so signed shall for all purposes be held to be a true statement and record of the proceedings of the Board.

(6.) Powers and Duties of Boards.

35. Subject to the provisions of this Act, the Board of each

General powers and duties of Boards.

district shall establish and maintain public schools within the district, whether such schools have already been established under the provisions of any Ordinance or Act hereby repealed or shall be established by the Board under the provisions of this Act; shall promote the establishment of school districts within such district, and define the limits thereof, with power to alter such limits as the Board shall see fit, and to divide any such school district into two or more school districts or parts of districts, or to combine two or more school districts or parts of such districts into one; shall appoint and remove officers and teachers in the manner provided by this Act; may establish scholarships, school libraries, and district high schools; shall raise the moneys required to be raised for the purposes of this Act, and administer the funds granted by the Education Department, and all other

funds which may become the property of the Board; and generally shall have and exercise all the duties and functions imposed by this Act.

36. When any school district shall be divided into two or more such districts, or two or more such districts or parts of districts shall be combined into one district, then every such division of a school district and every such combination shall for the purpose of this Act be deemed a new school district, and the proceedings shall be taken in like manner as hereinafter provided for school districts originally constituted.

Provision when school districts divided.

The formation of any new district by the division or combination of any existing school district or districts shall take effect on and after the commencement of the school year next following the date on which the formation of such new school district shall have been agreed to by a resolution of the Board.

School year.

A "school year" shall be from the first day of January to the thirty-first day of December, both days inclusive, in each year.

Public notice to be given when school district formed.

37. Whenever any new school district shall be formed by a Board pursuant to the provisions of this Act, the Board shall direct a public notice of the formation of such new district and of the boundaries thereof to be published, and every school district shall be held to be bounded as described in any such notice.

Trustees of school may agree to place same under control of Board.

38. Any persons having the management and control of any school not established under any of the Acts or Ordinances repealed hereby may, with the consent of the persons in whom the school buildings, lands, and endowments pertaining thereto are vested, and with the assent of the Governor, agree with the Board of the district in which such school is that the said school shall be subject to the management and control of the Board, and that the said buildings, lands, and endowments shall be vested in such Board instead of such persons as aforesaid.

If the Governor assent to such agreement, and a notification of such assent be gazetted, such school buildings, lands, and endowments shall be vested in the said Board for or towards the maintenance of such school as a school under this Act, of such character or class as the Governor shall direct, but under and subject to the provisions of this Act, and the said persons shall thenceforth be freed and discharged from the trust imposed on them as trustees or governors of such school, and the buildings, lands, and endowments pertaining thereto.

(7.) Board Fund.

Board to make annual estimate of moneys required for current year.

39. At the first ordinary meeting of the Board in each year, the Board shall make an estimate of the amount of money which it has reason to believe will be derived from the following sources:—

- From moneys payable by Government in respect of the average daily attendance of children as hereinbefore provided:
- From moneys in any manner whatever received or to be received by the Board.

The Board shall regulate its expenditure upon the basis of the estimate so made, and a copy thereof shall be transmitted to the Minister.

40. Whenever the Board of any district shall be in receipt of rents or other profits derived from lands or other property vested in the School Commissioners under "The Education Reserves Act, 1877," an account shall be taken at such periods as the Minister may direct, showing the amount of such rents or other profits; and, in computing the proportionate share which such Board would, under the provisions of this Act, be entitled to receive from the Government, allowance shall be made for such rents and profits, and such share shall be paid subject to a deduction based upon the net amount of such rents or other profits.

Provision for deduction from grants in aid in certain cases.

No such deduction shall be made in respect of moneys received from such special endowments as are mentioned in section fifty-two of this Act.

41. All moneys received by or belonging to the Board shall be paid into such bank as the Board from time to time appoints, to an account to be called "The Education Board Account," and no moneys shall be drawn out of the bank except by authority of the Board, and shall be paid by cheque, signed by the Treasurer and by such one or more members of the Board as the Board may from time to time authorize to sign cheques.

Funds of Boards.

42. The Board Fund shall consist of the following moneys, Board Fund, of what to consist.

that is to say,—

- Grants from the Consolidated Fund.
- Rents and profits derived from property or endowments vested in the Board.
- Special endowments or grants for particular purposes.
- Special fees for higher education.
- Any other moneys which the Board may receive from donations, subscriptions, or otherwise.

43. Every Board shall, out of the Board Fund, make such Disposal of fund.

provision from time to time as to it shall seem fit for the following, namely,—

- For the payment of salaries and other expenses connected with the carrying on of the business of such Board;
- For the expense of purchasing or renting school sites, playgrounds, and buildings, or for erecting, fitting up, and improving school buildings;
- For the payment of teachers' salaries;
- For the maintenance and education of pupil-teachers;
- For grants to Committees for general educational purposes;
- For subsidizing school libraries;
- And generally for the payment of all expenses necessarily incurred by such Board or any Committee under their supervision in the carrying out of any of the provisions of this Act :

Provided always that no Board shall be liable for the payment of any expenditure incurred by any Committee or teacher, unless such expenditure shall have been previously sanctioned by such Board.

Accounts to be kept.

44. The Board shall keep full and true accounts, in which shall be entered every sum received into and paid out of the Board Fund in the order of date of each such receipt and payment, including all moneys received from rents or profits derived from land or other property vested in the Board, or under its control or management.

It may be provided by regulations that Boards shall keep general and special accounts in such convenient form as may be thought fit.

Accounts to be audited.

All such accounts shall be rendered annually, or at such periods as may be prescribed by regulations, and all such accounts shall be audited by an Auditor to be appointed by the Governor.

Copies of all such accounts, when audited, shall be furnished to the Minister.

(8.) Appointment of Teachers.

Appointment and removal of teachers.

45. The Board of each district shall be entitled to appoint teachers for every school under its control, or to remove such teachers from one school to any other school within the district, but no person shall be eligible for appointment who does not produce a certificate of competency from the Minister of Education, and such other certificates of fitness as shall be required by any regulations that may hereafter be made under this Act.

But in case a certificated teacher cannot be obtained for any school or schools, a person not duly certificated may be temporarily appointed until a certificated teacher can be obtained.

Certificates of competency will be issued to teachers after examination held in such manner as may be prescribed by regulations to be made as hereinafter provided.

Provided that the Committee may recommend teachers to the Board for appointment, and may also recommend the suspension or dismissal of any such teacher; but no appointment, suspension, or dismissal shall take place until the Committee have been first consulted.

46. All teachers of schools at or immediately before the Teachers of schools in office to continue in same.

coming into operation of this Act holding office under the provisions of any Ordinance or Act hereby repealed shall, subject to any express provisions of this Act, continue to hold such office as if this Act had not come into operation.

47. No school teacher appointed, or whose appointment is Duration of appointment of school teacher.

confirmed under this Act, shall be at liberty to relinquish his said engagement without giving to the Chairman of the Committee, and also to the Secretary of the Board under which he holds his appointment, at

least one month's notice in writing of his intention to do so; and such engagement shall not be determined by any Board except on giving three months' notice, signed by its Secretary.

Nothing contained in this Act shall preclude or prevent Summary dismissal in certain cases.

the Committee from suspending, and the Board from peremptorily dismissing, any school teacher for immoral conduct or gross behaviour.

48. The teacher's occupation of the schoolhouse and land Teacher's occupation of schoolhouse.

attached thereto, or teacher's house, if one be provided, is hereby declared to be an occupancy by sufferance only.

49. In case a teacher shall refuse or neglect to deliver up Proceedings against a teacher refusing to give up schoolhouse on demand.

possession of the schoolhouse and land attached, or of the house, as the case may be, after demand in writing made by or on behalf of the Board, the Resident Magistrate whose Court shall be nearest to the locality shall, on the application of the Board, issue a warrant to the Bailiff of the Court, commanding him to enter into the premises and give possession of the same to the Board.

Every such warrant may and shall be enforced as a warrant issued under the ninetieth section of "The Resident Magistrates Act, 1867," and the ninety-first, ninety-second, and ninety-third sections of that Act shall apply to warrants issued under the foregoing provisions.

Pupil-teachers may be employed.

50. The Board of any district may engage and employ any number of apprentice pupil-teachers, subject to such regulations for the examination, training, employment, and payment of such pupil-teachers as may be made from time to time.

(9.) Scholarships, District High Schools.

Board may establish scholarships.

51. The Board may, with the concurrence of the Minister, from time to time, out of funds made specially applicable for the purpose, establish scholarships to be competed for by the pupils attending any public school, and also scholarships open to all children of school age, in such manner and at such times as shall be fixed by regulations to be made under this Act.

The successful competitor for any such scholarship shall receive the amount of his or her scholarship only so long as he or she shall continue his or her education at any school or educational institution under the control of the Board at which the higher branches of education are taught, but, if there be no such school or institution in the district where the holder of the scholarship resides, then at such school, subject to inspection by a Public School Inspector, as the Board may approve of.

Board may [unclear: sceive] land or [unclear: loney] for [unclear: undation] of scholarships.

52. The Board may receive grants of land or money, to be applied towards founding scholarships or exhibitions, or for other educational purposes in connection with any public school within a district, and such land or money shall be vested in the Board for the specific purposes declared in the grant.

Who may [unclear: mpete] for scholarship.

53. Subject to any special trust, every scholarship or exhibition in the last preceding section mentioned shall be open to any child on the roll of such school; and in the event of any school for which a scholarship or exhibition is founded being discontinued, the Minister may direct that the scholarship or exhibition shall attach to some other public school in the district.

[unclear: oard] may make [unclear: gulations] for scholarships.

54. The Board may make regulations under which scholarships or exhibitions founded by any private individual or society may be competed for and held at any public school within the district.

[unclear: strict] high [unclear: hools] may be established by [unclear: sard].

55. Any Board, on receiving an application in writing from the Committee, may, with the express sanction of the Minister previously obtained, convert any public school in the district into and establish the same as a district high school.

Every grammar school or high school at or immediately before the coming into operation of this Act under the charge of any School Committee or Education Board, by virtue of the provisions of any Provincial Ordinance or Act hereby repealed, shall, unless otherwise provided, be deemed to be a district high school under this Act.

56. Every such district high school shall be under the charge Course of instruction in high schools.

of a head master, and such number of duly-qualified masters and assistants as the Board shall from time to time consider necessary.

All the branches of a liberal education, comprising Latin and Greek classics, French and other modern languages, mathematics, and such other branches of science as the advancement of the colony and the increase of the population may from time to time require, may be taught in such school. For such higher education fees shall be paid by the pupils at such rates as shall be fixed by regulations.

In every district high school instruction shall also be given in the ordinary branches of education prescribed by this Act to be given in public schools.

57. In the various school districts the Board may from time

School libraries may be established.

to time expend in the purchase of books, to be placed in the school library, any sum or sums of money equal to any sum or sums of money which shall have been raised by public subscription or otherwise within such school district.

The Board shall make such provision as may seem fit for the safe custody and care of such books and for the use thereof.

The word "book" in this section shall be deemed to include all works of art, and all scientific apparatus which may be required for the purpose of illustration in lectures, and all specimens of natural history for the formation of museums.

Part III.

School Districts. School Committees and their Duties.

(1.) *School Districts.*

58. For every school district constituted under this Act there
School Committees.

shall be a School Committee, consisting of seven householders resident within the school district, to be elected as hereinafter provided.

Disqualification or membership of Committee.

59. No bankrupt who has not obtained his final order of discharge, no person attainted of treason or convicted of felony or perjury or any infamous crime, no person of unsound mind, and no person not qualified as herein required, shall be capable of being or continuing a member of any Committee.

Provision for constitution [*unclear: ofew*] school [*unclear: stricts.*]

60. Upon the memorial of not less than ten householders of any locality praying for the erection of such locality into a separate school district, or upon the report of an Inspector, or otherwise at its own discretion for any reason that may seem to it sufficient, the Board of the district may call by advertisement a public meeting of the householders in such locality for the purpose of electing a Committee.

[*unclear: leeting*] of [*unclear: ouseholders.*]

61. It shall be the duty of such meeting to appoint a Chairman and elect a Committee in manner hereinafter provided, and the meeting shall likewise consider the boundaries of the proposed school district, and report the same to the Board, which may at its discretion fix the boundaries of the school district, whether those recommended by the meeting or otherwise, and cause the same to be publicly notified.

[*unclear: chool*] districts [*unclear: a*] existence [*unclear: nder*] repealed [*unclear: cts*] or [*unclear: rdinances*] to [*unclear: bntinue*] such.

62. All school districts constituted under the provisions of any Ordinance or Act hereby repealed shall be school districts for the purpose of this Act until altered as herein provided, and the persons in office at the time of the coming into operation of this Act as the Committee of every such district shall continue in office till their successors are elected.

In case any vacancy shall occur in any Committee before the first election is held under this Act, the Board may nominate a person or persons to be a member or members thereof.

(2.) Election of School Committees.

[unclear: lection] of first [unclear: school] [unclear: committee] this Act.

63. The first meeting of the householders in every school district shall be held on such day in the year one thousand eight hundred and seventy-eight, and at such time and place, as the Board of the district in which such school districts respectively are shall for each appoint, and at every such meeting the householders present shall elect in manner hereinafter provided seven householders to form the Committee for such district.

[unclear: subsequent elections.]

64. On the fourth Monday in the month of January in each year succeeding the year one thousand eight hundred and seventy-eight, a public meeting of the householders in every school district shall be held at a time and place to be fixed by the Board, and publicly notified at least fourteen days previously.

At such meeting a Chairman shall be chosen, and the Committee Proceedings at meeting.

for the preceding year shall give a full report of its proceedings, and thereupon the electors present shall proceed to elect by ballot, as hereinafter provided, a new Committee for the then current year of seven persons qualified as prescribed by the fifty-eighth section of this Act, and may re-elect all or any of the persons going out of office to be members of such new Committee.

Every Committee so appointed shall hold office until the Duration of office.

appointment of its successors, and, if any vacancy shall occur by death or otherwise than by effluxion of time in any Committee, the remaining members of the Committee shall elect a qualified person or persons to fill such vacancy or vacancies.

At every meeting convened and held for the election of a Committee, the Chairman having a deliberative vote shall also have a casting vote.

65. At every election for a School Committee every voter Cumulative voting at elections.

shall be entitled to a number of votes equal to the number of the Committee to be elected, and may give all such votes to one candidate, or may distribute them among the candidates, as he thinks fit.

66. If any dispute shall arise respecting the validity of the Disputes as to validity of elections to be settled by [unclear: Board] of district.

proceedings at the annual or other election of any member or members of any Committee, the matter in dispute shall be submitted to the judgment of the Board of the district, whose decision thereon shall be final and conclusive.

If in any case the electors in any school district shall, from Provision in [unclear: case] of failure to [unclear: elect] on day of [unclear: annual] meeting.

any cause whatever, fail to elect a Committee upon the annual day of meeting as hereinbefore provided, it shall be lawful for the Board of the district in which such school district is, if it shall see fit, to fix another day for the election of a Committee for such school district, and the same notice of such meeting shall be given and the same proceedings taken thereat as are prescribed by the last three preceding sections of this Act.

67. If after such last-mentioned meeting the householders

In case of fail to elect at [unclear: section] meeting, [unclear: Board] may appoint [unclear: Commissioner] neglect or refuse to elect a Committee, the Board may appoint a Commissioner for the purposes hereinafter mentioned.

68. The Commissioner so appointed shall exercise all powers Powers and duties of [unclear: Commissioner]

and duties by this Act imposed and conferred on Committees of school districts at any time after he shall have assumed the place and duties of the Committee as aforesaid, and a salary to be paid to the Commissioner shall be fixed by the Board if it shall see fit, and shall be paid out of any moneys available for distribution in the school district for or to which such Commissioner is appointed.

But such Commissioner shall only hold office from the date of appointment to the fourth Monday in the month of January next ensuing, and he shall be guided in the performance of his duties by instructions to be given him by the Board from time to time.

The power to appoint a Commissioner shall include a power to appoint more than one Commissioner if the Board sees fit, and this foregoing provision shall take effect accordingly.

(3.) Meetings of School Committees.

[unclear: st] meeting of [unclear: 00] [unclear: mittee.]

69. The Committee of each school district shall hold its first meeting after election at some time and place to be from time to time appointed by the Board of the district within which such school district is.

[unclear: ction of airman.]

At its first meeting, or as soon thereafter as conveniently may be, it shall elect, by a majority of the votes of the members present thereat, one of its body to be Chairman until the next election of the School Committee.

Such Chairman shall preside at all meetings of the Committee at which he shall be present; and if such Chairman cease to be a member of the Committee he shall cease to be such Chairman.

In case the Chairman die, or by writing under his hand delivered to the Committee at any meeting thereof resign his office, or cease to be a member of the Committee, the members present at the meeting next after the occurrence of such vacancy, or at any meeting before there shall as yet have been a Chairman chosen, shall elect some one of its number to be a Chairman, and the Chairman so elected shall continue in office for the remainder of the year.

If at any meeting of the Committee the Chairman be not present, one of the members present shall be elected Chairman of such meeting by the majority of the votes of the members present thereat.

[unclear: ceedings] at [unclear: tings.]

70. The proceedings of every Committee shall be transacted at meetings to be convened at the request of two or more of the members or by order of the Chairman thereof.

At all meetings three members shall form a quorum, and the Chairman shall have a deliberative and also a casting vote at every such meeting, and the decision of the majority shall be final and conclusive.

71. Every Committee shall be at liberty to appoint one of its Clerk and Treasurer may be appointed.

own members or other qualified person to be its Clerk and Treasurer, who shall convene all meetings of the Committee by causing at least three days' previous notice to be given to each member thereof, and shall attend such meetings of the said Committee, and take minutes of its proceedings, and do whatever may be required of him in the execution of this Act.

But no Clerk and Treasurer shall receive any remuneration

Not to receive remuneration in certain cases. Minutes of meetings, &c.

for his services if he is a member of the Committee.

72. At every meeting of a School Committee the same proceedings shall be taken with regard to the minutes of such meeting as are prescribed by section thirty-four of this Act with regard to the minutes of meetings of Boards; and no recommendation to the Board concerning the appointment, suspension, or dismissal of a teacher shall be considered unless notice in writing to the effect that such business is proposed to be transacted has been addressed to every member of the Committee three days at least before the meeting at his usual or last known place of abode.

73. A Committee may appear in all legal proceedings by its

Committee [unclear: ma] appear by [unclear: Cler] or Chairman, [unclear: o] Solicitor.

Clerk, or Chairman, or Solicitor.

(4.) Powers and Duties of School Committees.

74. In every school district it shall be lawful for the Committee,

Committee [unclear: ma] establish [unclear: publi] schools.

with the express sanction previously obtained of the Board of the district in which such school district is situated, to establish one or more public schools.

Subject to the general supervision and control of the Board,

Committee to have management of educational matters in [unclear: schc] district. Committee [unclear: ma] provide school-houses, &c.

and to inspection by an Inspector, as herein provided, the Committee shall have the management of educational matters within the school district.

75. Every Committee may, with the sanction of the Board of the district within which the school district is, previously obtained, provide by building or otherwise schoolhouses, and may improve, enlarge, and fit up any such schoolhouses, and supply school apparatus and everything necessary for the efficiency of the schools provided by them; and such proportion of the cost of providing, fitting up, improving, and keeping in repair such schoolhouses as may be prescribed by such Board shall be defrayed by the Committee out of the School Fund, and the remainder (if any) of such cost shall be defrayed by the Board of the district within which the school is situated by and out of any moneys at their disposal.

May appoint teachers of [unclear: sewing.]

76. The Committee may from time to time, with the approval of the Board, appoint teachers of sewing for any school under its control.

[unclear: Board may acquire] sites [unclear: or] school-[unclear: houses,] &c.

77. On the application of the Committee, the Board of the district may select, purchase, lease, or acquire a suitable site or sites for a schoolhouse; and the Board, if it shall so think fit, shall require that the whole or any portion of the cost of such purchase shall be defrayed by the School Committee out of the School Fund.

Savings banks [unclear: lay] be [unclear: established.]

78. The Committee, with the approval of the Board, may establish savings banks for the use of children attending the school.

(5.) Good-Attendance Certificates.

Certificates of attendance [unclear: obtainable.]

79. At every public school certificates shall be obtainable, to be called "good-attendance certificates," and such certificates shall be of two classes,—

- For any child of school age attending a public school in the district, who, for a period of twelve months, has been present every time the school was open, both in the morning and afternoon;
- For any such child who for a like period has not been absent from such school more than five times in all.

Such certificates shall be obtainable by all children of school age attending a public school, and be signed and issued by the Chairman of the Committee, or in such other mode as the Committee may direct.

Any child attending a public school who has been absent from such school by reason only of the observance of any fast or other day set apart for strict religious observance by the religious body of which such child is a member, shall, notwithstanding such absence, be deemed to have been present as above provided. But in each such case satisfactory evidence shall be given by the parent or guardian of such child that such child was absent only for the cause above mentioned, and that the day or days of such absence was or were days strictly set apart for strict observance by the religious body of which the child is a member.

(6.) School Fund.

80. The School Fund shall consist of—

Of what School Fund to consist.

- Moneys granted out of the Board Fund;
- Donations, subscriptions, and all other moneys which may be granted to the Committee for the purposes of this Act.

81. The provisions of section forty-one shall apply to the

Application of section 41 to School Fund.

School Fund and to the money in the hands of the Committee, and, *mutatis mutandis*, shall be applied accordingly.

82. The accounts of the Treasurer shall be rendered to and

Audit of Committee's accounts.

audited as prescribed by regulations, and all moneys in hand (if any) shall be paid over by such Committee to its successors.

A copy of such accounts shall be forwarded to the Board of

Copy to be sent to the Board.

the district within which is the school district to which such accounts pertain, as soon as conveniently may be after the same have been audited, together with the Auditor's report thereon.

Part IV.

Public Schools and Management Thereof.

(1.) Course of Instruction in Public Schools.

83. No child above school age shall be admitted at any public
"School age" defined.

school without the special leave of the Committee, unless such school is a district high school.

"School age" means any age between the years of five and fifteen, reckoned in each case from the last preceding birthday.

84. Every public school shall be conducted in accordance with

Public schools to be conducted in accordance with regulations.

the following regulations (a copy of which regulations shall be conspicuously put up in every such school), namely,—

- The subjects of instruction shall be as follows:—

Course of instruction in public schools.

Reading,

Writing,

Arithmetic,

English grammar and composition,

Geography,

History,

Elementary science and drawing,

Object lessons,

Vocal music,

And (in the case of girls) sewing and needlework, and the principles of domestic economy. But no child shall be compelled to be present at the teaching of history whose parents or guardians object thereto.

- The school shall be kept open five days in each week for at least four hours, two of which in the forenoon and two in the afternoon shall be consecutive, and the teaching shall be entirely of a secular character.
- The school buildings may be used on days and at hours other than those used for public school purposes upon such terms as the Committee may from time to time prescribe.
- The class-books used in the school shall be such only as shall be approved by the Governor in Council.
- The school shall be open at all times to the visits of an Inspector.
- No fees shall be payable at any public school except as hereinbefore provided in the case of district high schools.

Military drill and physical training in certain schools. Playgrounds.

85. In public schools provision shall be made for the instruction in military drill of all boys, and in such of the schools as the Board shall from time to time direct provision shall also be made for physical training, and whenever practicable there shall be attached to each school a playground of at least a quarter of an acre.

Evening schools.

86. Every male teacher having principal charge of a public school may open an evening school for pupils above thirteen years of age, but at such evening schools the teacher may charge a fee for the instruction of such pupils, subject to the approval of the Committee.

Expulsion of children in certain cases.

87. It shall be lawful for the teacher of any school to expel or forbid the attendance of any child for want of cleanliness, or who may be likely to communicate any contagious disease, or who from gross misconduct or incorrigible disobedience may be considered an injurious or dangerous example to the other scholars.

The parent or guardian of any child so expelled or whose attendance has been forbidden shall have a right of appeal, first to the Committee, and finally to the Board of the district.

Itinerant teachers may be appointed.

88. In outlying districts or parts of the country where from the scattered state of the population it is not practicable to establish a public school, the Board may appoint itinerant teachers under regulations to be provided for that purpose. The Board may also, on the recommendation of the Inspector,

Aided schools.

in such outlying districts which it would be premature or inconvenient to constitute school districts, assist schools started by private enterprise, in books, school apparatus, or money, as the Board shall think expedient : Provided always that the schools so aided shall comply with the provisions of section eighty-four of this Act.

(2.) Compulsory Education: Exemptions.

89. Subject to the provisions of this Act, the parent or

Every child above seven nor more than thirteen to attend school.

guardian of every child not less than seven nor more than thirteen years of age shall, in case such child lives within the distance of two miles measured according to the nearest road from a public school within a school district, send such child to school for at least one-half of the period in each year during which the school is

usually open,

90. The parent or guardian of any child may apply for and Exemptions.

receive a certificate from the Committee in the school district in which such child resides exempting such child from attendance in whole or in part at school, upon satisfying the Committee of the existence of any one of the following grounds, namely,—

- That the child is under efficient or regular instruction otherwise, or is attending some private school or some educational institution not supported by grants from the Board, and which school or institution provides for instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic on week days :
- That the child is prevented from attending school by sickness, danger of infection, temporary or permanent infirmity, or other unavoidable cause :
- That the road between the child's residence and the school is not sufficiently passable for such child :
- That one of the Inspectors or the master of any public school has, by writing under his hand, certified that such child has reached a standard of education prescribed by any regulations under this Act.

And every such certificate of exemption shall state the ground of exemption, and shall be in force for a period of one year or for a shorter period, as may be named in such certificate; and during the period named in such certificate the holder thereof shall be freed from the operation of the provisions of this Act in respect of the child named therein: Provided always that any parent dissatisfied with the decision of a Committee in refusing to grant an exemption certificate may appeal to the Board against such decision, and the Board may overrule or confirm such decision.

In case child does not attend school, notice may be given.

91. In case any Committee ascertains that any child between the ages of seven and thirteen years, and resident within the distance of two miles from a public school within its district, does not attend school, the Clerk or any member of such Committee may give the parent or guardian of such child notice in writing, in the form or to the effect in the Third Schedule hereto, calling upon such parent or guardian to send such child to school.

Proceedings to compel attendance.

92. If the parent or guardian of any child between the ages of seven and thirteen resident within two miles from a public school, not holding a certificate of exemption as aforesaid in respect of such child, refuses or neglects to send such child to a public school after having been called upon in manner aforesaid to do so, the parent or guardian of such child may be summoned before any two Justices of the Peace, who may order such parent or guardian to send such child to a public school.

(3.) Penalties in certain cases.

Penalty for non-compliance with order of Justices.

93. In case any parent or guardian, after having been ordered as aforesaid by any two Justices of the Peace to send any child to a public school, neglects to obey such order, or, having obeyed the same for a time, without sufficient cause ceases to do so, such parent or guardian shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding forty shillings, and the same proceedings may be taken week by week in the case of failure by such parent to comply with the order aforesaid.

In any information or complaint under this Act, whether for recovery of penalties or for orders to send children to school, the allegation that a child is between the ages of seven and thirteen years shall be deemed sufficient *prima facie* evidence of the fact until the contrary is proved, and in every case the father and mother or guardian of any child may be witnesses.

Proceedings to be taken under "Justices of the Peace Act, 1866."

94. All proceedings for orders to send children to school and for recovery of penalties under this Act may be had and taken in the manner prescribed by "The Justices of the Peace Act, 1866."

95. The parts of this Act from section eighty-nine to section

Compulsory clauses, when shall be enforced.

ninety-three, both inclusive, shall only come into force in any school district upon the vote of a majority of the Committee of such district.

96. Any person who shall wilfully disturb any school, or who

Penalty for wilful disturbance of school.

shall upbraid, insult, or abuse any teacher in the presence or hearing of the pupils assembled in school, shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding forty shillings.

(4.) Inspection of Schools.

97. All public schools within the meaning of this Act shall

Inspection of schools.

be inspected at such times and in such manner as may be prescribed by regulations.

98. Where the teacher or managers of any private school

Private schools may be inspected on request of managers.

desire to have their school inspected by an Inspector, such teacher or managers may apply to the Board to authorize such inspection, and the same, when authorized, shall be conducted in like manner as the inspection of public schools.

The term "managers" shall mean and include all persons who have the control and management of any such school, whether the legal interest in the schoolhouse is or is not vested in them.

99. The Governor may from time to time cause inspection to

Governor may order inspection of industrial schools, &c.

be made by an Inspector of the Educational Department of any industrial school, reformatory, gaol-school, or other educational institution maintained wholly or in part by a grant or grants from the public revenue, or by endowments derived from a grant or grants of lands made at any time by the Governor or otherwise.

(5.) *Regulations and Reports.*

100. The Governor in Council may, subject to the provisions

Regulations may be made by Order in Council.

of this Act, from time to time make, alter, and repeal regulations and orders—

- For the organization and management of the Department of Education:
- For defining the principle on which daily average attendance shall be calculated :
- For the examination and classification of teachers :
- For the employment, education, and examination of pupil-teachers :
- For the issue of certificates of competency to teachers :
- For the establishment and management of normal or training colleges:
- For defining the standards of education which, under the provisions of this Act, may be prescribed by regulations :
- For prescribing the times and manner of auditing the accounts of Boards and Committees :
- For making such other regulations as may be necessary to secure the due administration of this Act.

And all such regulations shall fix a day on which the same come into force, and shall be published in the *Gazette*, after which they shall have the force of law, and shall be laid before both Houses of the General Assembly as soon after they are passed as circumstances will permit.

Minister to make annual report.

101. The Minister shall, before the thirtieth day of June in each and every year, lay before the Governor a report upon the progress and condition of public education in New Zealand during the year ending the thirty-first day of December immediately preceding, and also a general statement of accounts.

Such report and statement shall be laid before both Houses of the General Assembly within one month if the Assembly be then sitting, and, if the Assembly be not then sitting, then within one month after the next ensuing session thereof.

Boards to make annual report.

102. Every Board shall, before the last day of March in each and every year, forward to the Minister a report of its proceedings during the previous year; and such a report shall contain a full account of the income and expenditure of the Board, audited as provided by regulations, and also such information relative to the public schools and to educational matters within the district as the Minister may direct.

Committee to forward yearly report to Board.

103. Every Committee shall, before the last day of January in each and every year, forward to the Board a report of its proceedings during the previous year. Such report shall contain a full account of the income and expenditure of the Committee, audited as provided by regulations, and also such information relative to the public schools and to educational matters within the district as the Board may direct.

School lands and buildings exempt from rates.

104. Notwithstanding anything contained in "The Rating Act, 1876," or in any amending Act, no rates shall be levied on any lands or building used for school purposes.

Schedules.

First Schedule.

LIST OF ACTS AND ORDINANCES REPEALED.

"The Education Boards Act, 1876."

Acts of the Province of Auckland.

"The Education Act, 1872." "The Education Act 1872 Amendment Act, 1874."

Ordinances of the Province of Taranaki.

"The Educational Ordinance, 1874." "The Educational Ordinance 1874 Amendment Ordinance, 1875."

Act of the Province of Hawke's Bay.

"The Hawke's Bay Education Act, 1873."

Acts of the Province of Wellington.

"The Wellington Education Act, 1871." "The Wellington Education Act Amendment Act, 1872." "The Wellington Education Act 1871 Amendment Act, 1873." "The Wellington Education Act Amendment Act, 1874."

Acts of the Province of Nelson.

"The Education Act, 1863." "The Education Act Amendment Act, 1867." "The Education Act Amendment Act, 1869." "The Education Act Amendment Act, 1873."

Acts of the Province of Marlborough.

"The Education Act, 1870." "The Education Act Amendment Act, 1872." "The Education Act Amendment Act, 1875."

Ordinances of the Province of Westland.

"The Westland Education Ordinance, 1874." "The Westland Education Ordinance Amendment Ordinance, 1875."

Ordinance of the Province of Canterbury.

"The Education Ordinance, 1875."

Ordinances of the Province of Otago.

"The Education Ordinance, 1864." "The Education Ordinance 1864 Amendment Ordinance, 1865." "The Otago Grammar Schools Ordinance, 1869."

Second Schedule.

Education District of Auckland.

ALL that area in our Colony of New Zealand, being the Counties of Mongonui, Hokianga, Bay of Islands, Hobson, Whangarei, Rodney, Waitemata, Eden, Manukau, Raglan, Waikato, Waipa, Coromandel, Thames, Piako, Tauranga, Whakatane, East Taupo, West Taupo, and Kawhia, as described in "The Counties Act, 1876," and including all boroughs therein.

EDUCATION DISTRICT OF TARANAKI.

All that area in our Colony of New Zealand, being the County of Taranaki, as described in "The Counties Act, 1876," and including all boroughs therein.

EDUCATION DISTRICT OF WANGANUI.

All that area in our Colony of New Zealand, being the Counties of Patea, Wanganui, Rangitikei, and Manawatu, as described in "The Counties Act, 1876," and including all boroughs therein.

EDUCATION DISTRICT OF WELLINGTON.

All that area in our Colony of New Zealand, being the Counties of Wairarapa East, Wairarapa West, and Hutt, as described in "The Counties Act, 1876," and including all boroughs therein.

EDUCATION DISTRICT OF HAWKE'S BAY.

All that area in our Colony of New Zealand, being the Counties of Cook, Wairoa, Hawke's Bay, and Waipawa, as described in "The Counties Act, 1876," and including all boroughs therein.

EDUCATION DISTRICT OF MARLBOROUGH.

All that area in our Colony of New Zealand, being the Counties of Sounds and Marlborough, as described in "The Counties Act, 1876," and including all boroughs therein.

EDUCATION DISTRICT OF NELSON.

All that area in our Colony of New Zealand, being the Counties of Collingwood, Buller, Inangahua, and Waimea, as described in "The Counties Act, 1876," and including all boroughs therein.

EDUCATION DISTRICT OF NORTH CANTERBURY.

All that area in our Colony of New Zealand, being the Counties of Kaikoura, Amuri, Cheviot, Ashley, Akaroa, Selwyn, and Ashburton, as described in "The Counties Act, 1876," and including all boroughs therein.

EDUCATION DISTRICT OF SOUTH CANTERBURY.

All that area in our Colony of New Zealand, being the Counties of Geraldine and Waimate, as described in "The Counties Act, 1876," and including all boroughs therein.

EDUCATION DISTRICT OF WESTLAND.

All that area in our Colony of New Zealand, being the Counties of Westland and Grey, as described in "The Counties Act, 1876," and including all boroughs therein.

EDUCATION DISTRICT OF OTAGO.

All that area in our Colony of New Zealand, being the Counties of Waitaki, Vincent, Maniototo, Waikouaiti, Taieri, Peninsula, Bruce, Tuapeka, and Clutha, as described in "The Counties Act, 1876," and including all boroughs therein.

EDUCATION DISTRICT OF SOUTHLAND.

All that area in our Colony of New Zealand, being the Counties of Lake, Southland, Fiord, Wallace, and Stewart Island, as described in "The Counties Act, 1876," and including all boroughs therein.

Third Schedule.

To A.B.

You are hereby required to send your child, C.D., between the ages of seven and thirteen years, to a public school; and if you fail to do so you will be summoned before two Justices of the Peace to answer for such neglect.

If your said child is (1) under efficient instruction otherwise than at a public school, or (2) if it is prevented from attending school by sickness or unavoidable cause, or (3) if the road between the child's residence and the nearest public school is not sufficiently passable for your child, or (4) if you have obtained a certificate in writing from a Government Inspector of Schools or the master of any public school that your child has reached the standard of education prescribed by the Regulations, and if you satisfy the School Committee of any of these facts, you will receive a certificate exempting you from sending your child to school.

E.F.,

Clerk [*or* Member] of the School Committee of the District of

Dated this ____ day of ____, 18__.

"The Education Act, 1877."

Regulations of his Excellency the Governor in Council.

[18th September, 1883.]

1. The Order in Council made on the twenty-third day of January, one thousand eight hundred and seventy-eight, and prescribing regulations for the auditing of the accounts of School Committees, is hereby repealed.

2. Every School Committee shall, not later than the fifteenth day of January in every year, make up its accounts for the year ending the thirty-first day of December previous, and shall immediately thereafter submit the same to an Auditor appointed by the Board of the education district within which the school or schools under the jurisdiction of the Committee are situated.

3. The Board of each education district shall, in the month of December in every year, appoint an Auditor or Auditors to audit the accounts of the School Committees within the district in or for which such Board is constituted, and shall in the same month notify to each School Committee the name of the Auditor who is appointed to audit the accounts of such Committee for the year in which such appointment is made.

4. The Auditor appointed to audit the accounts of any School Committee shall have access to all the books and accounts of the Committee and any of its officers, and shall examine the general statement of the receipts and expenditure of the Committee, and verify the same with the accounts and vouchers relating thereto, and shall either certify under his hand the same as found by him to be correct, duly vouched, and in accordance with law, and specially report to the Education Board of the district in what respect he finds it incorrect, unvouched, or not in accordance with law.

[13th March, 1878.]

1. Every Education Board shall, during the month of March in the present and every succeeding year, cause its accounts to be made up for the year ending the thirty-first day of December previous, and shall submit the same for audit to the Auditor appointed for the purposes of the said Act, in or for the district for which such Board is constituted.

2. Every such Auditor shall have access to all the books and accounts of the Board and any of its officers, and shall examine the general statement of the receipts and expenditure of the Board, and verify the same with the accounts and vouchers relating thereto, and shall either certify under his hand the same as found by him to be correct, duly vouched, and in accordance with law, or specially report to the Minister of Education holding office for the time being under "The Education Act, 1877," in what respect he finds it incorrect, unvouched, or not in accordance with law.

3. These regulations shall apply to every Education Board constituted prior to or after the coming into operation of "The Education Act, 1877," and shall come into force upon the thirteenth day of March instant.

[28th May, 1878.]

1. The head-teacher of each school shall keep a register of attendance in a form which shall be furnished by the Minister of Education; and all the teachers in the school shall assist in making up weekly and quarterly summaries of attendance.

2. The attendance of the scholars in each school shall be registered *every* morning and *every* afternoon at a convenient time within the school hours.

3. The average daily attendance shall be ascertained by dividing the total number of morning and afternoon attendances taken together by the total number of times (morning and afternoon reckoned separately) that the school has been opened during the period for which the computation is made. The school shall be held to be open if any child be present before the first half-hour of the school time has passed. But, in order that the capitation allowance may not be unduly affected by bad weather, epidemics, or any unusual occurrence, a second computation of average shall be made, by throwing out of account the mornings and the afternoons on which the attendance was less than one-half of the number of children then belonging to the school; and the payments to Boards under "The Education Act, 1877," shall be based upon the second computation.

4. The Chairman of every School Committee shall, as soon as possible after the end of each quarter, cause to be transmitted to the Education Board of the district a return exhibiting, in the form hereinafter prescribed, the state of the school roll and of the attendance for such quarter.

5. The Education Board of each district shall cause to be made and transmitted to the Secretary to the Department of Education, at as early a date as possible in each quarter, a summary statement of the attendance returns received from the Committees for the preceding quarter.

6. The form of quarterly return of attendance from each school shall be as follows:—

RETURN OF ATTENDANCE FOR QUARTER ENDING, 18.

(N.B.—This return should be sent in to the Board within five days after the end of the quarter.)

School.Half- Days.F.Total.I. How many scholars were returned as belonging to the school at the end of last quarter? II. How many of these have left, not having attended at all this quarter III. What, then, was the number really belonging to the school at beginning of quarter? [Subtract II. from I.] IV. How many have been admitted during the quarter? .._____ V. How many, therefore, have belonged to the school this quarter? [Add III. and IV.] VI. How many of these (in V.) left before the end of the quarter?—VII. What, then, is the number now belonging? [Subtract VI. from V.] VIII. What is the average weekly number on the roll during quarter?—

Return of Attendance—continued.SCHOOL.HALF- DAYS.M.P.TOTAL.IX. How many times has the school been open this quarter (mornings and afternoons to be reckoned separately)? X. What is the number of half-day attendances? XI. What, then, is the strict average attendance? [Divide XI. by IX.] XII. On how many half-days has the attendance been not less than one-half of the number on the roll for the time being? XIII. What is the number of attendances on those half-days? XIV. What, then, is the average attendance by the second computation (or working average)? Divide XIII. by XII.] XV. What has been the largest attendance on any half-day this quarter?

AGES.MF.TOTAL.STANDARDS (WHERE OR WHEN STANDARDS ARE IN USE).MF.TOTAL.
 Under 5 years .. 5 and under 7 .. 7 and under 10 .. 10 and under 13 13 and under 15 .. Above 15 years ..
 .. Infants (too young for line next below) Perparing for Standard I. .. " " " I. .. " " " II. .. " " " III. .. " " " IV. .. " "
 " V. .. Passed Standard VI. ..Total as in line VII.Total as in line VII. ..

NUMBERS receiving INSTRUCTION ineach SUBJECT prescribed by the Act.

Reading .. Writing .. Arithmetic .. English Grammar and Composition .. Geography .. History ..
 ..1 Elementary Science .. Drawing .. Object-lessons .. Vocal Music .. Needlework .. Domestic Economy
 ..(Signed), Principal Teacher. Approved—, Chairman of Committee. Date:, 187 . 7. These regulations shall come into force upon the twenty-eighth day of May, 1878.

[20th August, 1878.]

1. The Education Board of any district may make regulations under which scholarships such as are described in "The Education Act, 1877," section fifty-one, may be competed for and held; but such regulations shall not come into operation until they shall have been submitted to the Minister of Education, and shall have been approved of by him; and no such regulations shall be so approved of which do not set forth—

- Whether the scholarships are open to all children of school age, or are to be competed for by pupils attending public schools only (*see* section fifty-one of "Education Act, 1877");
- Any other conditions of candidature (for example, as to age);
- The annual value of each scholarship, the term for which it is to be held, and the conditions of tenure (as to good conduct and diligence);
- The subjects of examination;
- The minimum proportion of marks in each subject, and of total possible marks, which will be necessary to qualify for a scholarship.

2. This regulation shall come into force upon the date hereof.

[17th September and 3rd December, 1878.]

1. The grant under the Act of three pounds fifteen shillings per annum for every child in average daily attendance at the public schools shall be made to the Board by monthly payments.

2. The moneys appropriated by the General Assembly, at the rate of ten shillings per annum for each child in daily average attendance, for distribution amongst School Committees for educational purposes, shall be paid to the Boards monthly, and the whole of such moneys shall be distributed by the Boards amongst the School Committees according to a predetermined scale based upon the average daily attendance at the public schools under the charge of the several Committees, and shall form a portion of the School Fund to be disbursed by the Committees in terms of the Act.

3. The moneys appropriated by the General Assembly, at the rate of one shilling and sixpence for each child in average daily attendance, and being the funds made especially applicable to the support of scholarships established by Boards under the provisions of the Act, shall be paid to the Boards once in every three months, or at such other times as the Minister may determine, according to the amount, not exceeding one shilling and sixpence for each child in average daily attendance as aforesaid, shown by the Boards to be actually due in respect of such scholarships.

4. The moneys appropriated by the General Assembly in aid of training institutions and the inspection of schools, for school buildings, and for any other purposes, shall, unless otherwise provided, be paid to Boards in such proportions and at such times as the Minister may determine.

5. In the months of April, July, October, and January respectively an account shall be taken of the amount of rents or profits received by each Board during the previous quarter in respect of lands or other property vested in the School Commissioners under "The Education Reserves Act, 1877;" and the amount in each case of such rents or profits shall be deducted from the grants thereafter payable to the Board.

6. Grants for special purposes shall be applied by Boards solely and exclusively to those purposes for which such grants have respectively been made; and the Minister may from time to time require from Boards statements showing in detail the application of any such special grant.

7. The monthly payments to Boards shall be made according to the ascertained average attendance of the preceding quarter, as shown by the summary statements of the quarterly attendance returns furnished by them in terms of the Order in Council of 28th May, 1878.

8. The form of the summary statement of quarterly attendance to be furnished by the Boards shall be as follows :—

The Education Board of the District of

Summary of Attendance Returns for the Quarter Ending, 18.

(N.B.—This Summary should be forwarded to the Department of Education not later than one month from the expiry of the quarter to which it relates.)

SCHOOLS (each School to be given separately).TEACHERS, INCLUDING PUPIL-TEACHERS.SEWING TEACHERS.NUMBERS ON ROLL.AVERAGE ATTENDANCE. REMARKS. At beginning of Quarter.At end of Quarter.Average Weekly Number.j Strict Average.Working Average.M.F.Total.M.F.Total. M.F.Total.M.F.Total.Totals ..(Signed) Secretary to the Board. Approved—(Signed) Chairman, or Member of Board. (Date), 18.

9. These regulations shall come into force upon the date hereof.

[24th September, 1878.]

1. There shall be five classes of certificates, distinguished (from the highest to the lowest) by the letters A, B, C, D, E.

2. In each class there shall be five divisions, distinguished (from the highest to the lowest) by the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

3. The class for which a certificate is granted shall depend upon attainments in learning as proved by examination; the division in the class, upon experience and practical skill in the art of teaching and of school management.

4. The relative values of certificates shall depend in equal degree upon attainments in learning and upon practical skill, as indicated in the subjoined scale, in which the letter and number denoting any one certificate stand opposite to the letter and number which in any other column denote a certificate of equal value.

5. An examination for the certificate of the lowest class (E), and, if necessary, for certificates of higher classes, shall be held every year, in the fourth week of the month of March. Candidates for any class must signify to the Minister of Education, in writing, not later than the first day of January immediately before the examination, their intention to present themselves for examination for that class, and must send in at the same time testimonials as to their moral character, and declare that they have either attained the age of nineteen years, or have passed through a course of not less than one year's training in a normal school, or have acted as pupil-teacher for not less than four years, and shall thereupon receive from the department a notification of the time, and of the place within the bounds of the education district in which they reside, at which they will be required to attend for examination.

6. A certificate will not be granted to any candidate who has not attained the full age of twenty-one years, or who has not been engaged in school-teaching for at least two years, nor until he has forwarded to the Minister of Education a testimonial, signed by a Public School Inspector, or by the principal of a training institution, certifying to the candidate's fitness to teach and to exercise control.

7. Except as hereinafter provided, every candidate will be required to pass an examination in elementary science, vocal music, and drawing, of such a character as to prove his fitness to impart instruction in these subjects, as defined by the regulations for standards and inspection.

3. Every female candidate will be required to exhibit such proficiency in needlework as to prove that she is qualified to impart instruction therein as defined in the Regulations for Standards, and, in consideration of such proficiency, shall be allowed to substitute for the examination in elementary science an examination in the practical laws of health and in domestic economy.

9. Every candidate will be required to pass an examination in the principles of school organization and government, of the art of teaching, and of method, including time-tables and notes of lessons.

10. Except as hereinafter provided, the special qualifications for the several classes of certificates shall be as follows:—

For Class A.—To have graduated at the University of New Zealand in first- or second-class honours.

For Class B.—To have passed the examination for the degree of Bachelor of Arts in the said University.

For Class C.—To have passed the examination for the compulsory subjects, or for the optional subjects, for the degree of Bachelor of Arts in the said University, and, except in the case of candidates who have passed the examination for Class D, to have passed an examination in the compulsory subjects for Class D.

For Class D.—To have passed an examination in four compulsory and two optional subjects, as follows:—

I.—COMPULSORY.

- *English Grammar and Composition.*
- *Arithmetic.*—Fundamental rules—Vulgar and decimal fractions—Proportion and square root.
- *Geography.*—The chief physical features and principal towns of Europe, Asia, Africa, and North and South America, together with more minute details of the geography of Great Britain and Ireland, Australia, and New Zealand.
- *History.*—Outlines of English history to the end of the eighteenth century.

II.—OPTIONAL (ANY TWO).

- *Greek.*—Grammar, and very easy passages for translation at sight.
- *Latin.*—(As for Greek.)
- *Algebra.*—To simple equations, inclusive, with easy problems.
- *Euclid.*—Books I. and II.
- *Elementary Chemistry.*—The non-metallic elements, and the atomic theory.
- *Elementary Physics.*—Any one of the following branches: (a) Electricity, (b) Sound and light, (c) Heat.
- *Elementary Natural Science.*—Any one of the following branches: (a) Botany, (b) Zoology, (c) Geology.
- *Modern Languages.*—Grammar of one modern language (French, German, or Italian), and easy translation at sight.

[NOTE.—If the University of New Zealand shall institute a general examination for matriculation, upon the same scale as the present matriculation examination, candidates will find that the requirements here specified for Class D fall in with the programme for matriculation in such a way that, by taking the four compulsory subjects here prescribed, together with Latin and one other optional subject, they can at one examination matriculate and qualify for Class D. The Senate will be requested in that case to allow candidates for Classes C and D to sit at the University examinations for the purpose of qualifying for a class, although they may not desire to sustain any relation to the University as undergraduates.]

For Class E.—To have satisfactorily passed an examination in the following subjects:—

- *Reading.*
- *Writing.*—Including the setting of copies and writing on black-board.
- *Spelling.*
- *English Grammar.*—The subject generally, including derivation of words.
- *English Composition.*—Accuracy and facility, tested by exercise in dictation, paraphrase, and essay writing.
- *Arithmetic.*—The subject generally, including explanation of processes and rules. A somewhat lower standard in this subject will be accepted from females than from males.
- *Geography.*—The elements of mathematical and physical geography, and the general topography and political geography of the world, with map-drawing from memory of the European countries and the British dependencies.
- *English History.*—From 1603 to 1837, and a very brief outline of the chief events prior to 1603.

11. The programme of examination in elementary science required by Regulation 7 shall be as follows:—

- *Changes and Indestructibility* of matter and energy.
- *Matter*.—Solid—Liquid—Gas—Combination—Decomposition—Displacement.
- *Energy*.—Motion of mass and of particles (heat): bodies separated, but under the influence of forces, such as gravitation, electricity, &c.
- *Properties of Bodies*.—Mass—Weight—Density—Specific gravity of solids, liquids, and gases—Flotation—Balloon—Elasticity of form and volume—Compressibility of gases—Barometer—Pump—Syphon—Diving bell.
- *Solids*.—Compactness—Porosity—Hardness—Brittleness—Toughness—Malleability—Ductility—Tenacity and flexibility.
- *Liquids*.—Pressure of Column—Tendency to find level—Waves—Diffusion.
- *Gases*.—Compressibility—Diffusion.
- *Gravitation*.—Falling bodies—Work done against gravity—Wheel and axle—Levers—Pulley.
- *Sound*.—Velocity—Echo—Waves—Pitch.
- *Light*.—Propagation—Velocity—Reflection—Looking-glasses—Refraction—Magnifying glass—Prism—Colour—The Eye.
- *Heat*.—Production—Expansion of solids—Liquids and Gases—Winds—Conduction—Convection—Steam—Latent Heat—Evaporation—Radiation.
- *Magnetism*.—Properties of magnets—Induction—Mariner's compass.
- *Electricity*.—Development of frictional electricity—Attraction—Repulsion—Induction—Conduction—Insulation—Distribution—Lightning conductors—Electric machines—Voltaic electricity—Simple battery—Current—Conductors—Resistance—Heat—Electro-magnet—Telegraph.
- *Chemistry*.—Mixtures and compounds—Combination and decomposition—Elements and compounds—Affinity—The air—Burning—Oxygen : Decomposition and composition of water—Rusting—Igniting splinter—Nitrogen : Not supporter of combustion, neutral element—Hydrogen : Preparation and elementary properties—Atoms—The chief properties and preparation of carbon—Sulphur—Phosphorus and chlorine—The character of the useful metals—Smelting—Lime—Potash and soda—Glass—The uses of clay—Nitrogenous, oleaginous, and amylaceous food—Putrefaction—Decay—Fermentation—Distillation of coal gas—Coke—Uses of tar—Benzol—Aniline colours—Carbolic acid.
- *Biology*.—Properties of living matter—Plants and animals—Plants—Composition and nutrition—Dissemination—Elements of classification—Human physiology: Composition and general form of the body—The bones, muscles, and connective tissues—Names and positions of internal organs—Alimentation—The blood—Circulation—Respiration—The kidneys and their secretion—Animal heat—Senses and nerves—General laws of health—Cleanliness in person, food, water, and air—Clothing and temperance—Elements of classification of animals.

12. The class for which a certificate is granted being determined by examination, the division within the class shall depend—first, on the number of years during which the teacher has been actually engaged in school-teaching, one mark being assigned for two years' service, two marks for five years, three marks for eight years, four marks for eleven years, and five marks for fourteen years and upwards; and, second, on the judgment of the Inspector in whose district the teacher is at work, such judgment being expressed by marks numbering 2, 4, 6, 8, or 10, according to the Inspector's estimate of less or greater efficiency; and, the marks of both series being added, 14 marks shall qualify for the first division, 11 marks for the second, 8 marks for the third, 5 marks for the fourth, and 3 marks for the fifth. On the thirtieth day of June in each year, teachers who, by length of service, or upon a more favourable judgment expressed by the Inspector before the thirty-first day of May, shall have become entitled to promotion to a higher division, shall receive such promotion.

13. Candidates who fail to pass the examination for Class E, but who do not fall far short of the requirements for that class, may receive from the Minister of Education a license to teach, which license shall be in force for two years only from the date at which it is issued, but may, at the discretion of the Minister, be renewed from time to time, and which while it is in force shall have the force of a certificate.

14. Teachers who hold certificates of Education Boards in New Zealand, such certificates having been granted before the thirty-first day of December, 1878, shall, subject to the provisions of Regulation 15, receive from the Minister certificates or licenses to teach, such as shall in his judgment be equivalent in value to the certificates which they already hold; and generally a certificate of any class may be granted to a candidate whose qualifications, not being precisely those prescribed for such class in Regulation 10, but being sufficiently attested, shall appear to the Minister to be of equal value with the qualifications so prescribed.

15. A certificate issued under the first part of Regulation 14 shall be only a provisional certificate, unless

the teacher in whose favour it is issued can show that he has already passed an examination in some department of physical or natural science, or until he pass the examination in elementary science prescribed by Regulation 11. The holder of such provisional certificate will be expected to pass the examination in elementary science within two years from the date of the issue of the certificate. Similar provisional certificates may be granted to candidates who, at the first examination held under these regulations, comply with every requirement except those expressed in Regulation 11. Provisional certificates may also be granted to candidates under twenty-one years of age who have passed the examination for any class.

16. In the month of June in each year, a list of teachers holding certificates and licenses shall be issued by the Minister of Education, and such list shall set forth, in every case of promotion to a higher class or division, the reason of such promotion; and after the publication of such list every teacher who has been so promoted shall be entitled, upon making due application to the Minister, to have a record of his promotion indorsed upon his certificate.

17. The Minister of Education shall have power to cancel any certificate or license to teach if the holder of the certificate shall at any time be proved guilty of immoral conduct, or gross misbehaviour, within the meaning of "The Education Act, 1877," or of any subsequent Act.

18. These regulations shall come into force on the date hereof.

[7th July, 1880.]

1. Notwithstanding anything to the contrary contained in an Order in Council of the twenty-fourth day of September, one thousand eight hundred and seventy-eight, the annual examination of candidates for teachers' certificates shall be held in the last week in January of every year, and not in the month of March, and candidates for any class must give written notice, accompanied by all necessary testimonials and declarations, not later than the first day of November immediately before the examination.

2. Every candidate for examination, with the exception of candidates who apply to be examined in elementary science or domestic economy only, and of candidates who having been partially successful at a former examination present themselves for examination in those subjects only in which they were at that former examination unsuccessful, shall, at the time of giving notice of intention to be present at the examination, pay to the credit of the Public Account at any branch of the Bank of New Zealand the sum of one pound sterling as a contribution towards defraying the expenses of the examination, and shall forward the bank receipt to the Minister of Education, with the notice of intention to sit at the examination.

3. No application for examination will be received unless it be accompanied by a certificate, signed by a Public School Inspector, and setting forth that the candidate has passed before such Inspector a satisfactory examination in reading, spelling, dictation, and writing; but this regulation shall not apply to candidates who already hold certificates granted to them by the Minister of Education, nor to candidates who present themselves in those subjects only in which at a former examination they were unsuccessful.

4. These regulations shall come into force upon the date hereof.

[24th September, 1878.]

1. Subject to the provisions of these regulations, the Board of each education district shall make its own regulations for the employment, maintenance, education, and examination of pupil-teachers, and shall submit such regulations to the Minister of Education, and such regulations shall, upon receiving his approval, come into operation, and shall not be altered or amended without his authority.

2. Any agreement already entered into between any Board and any pupil-teacher, and in force at the date hereof, shall not be affected by these regulations, or by such regulations as any Board shall hereafter make in pursuance of these regulations.

3. The regulations to be made by any Board shall include provisions to the effect that a young person of either sex, to be eligible for appointment as a pupil-teacher, must be at least thirteen years of age, of good character, of good constitution, and free from any bodily or other defect or infirmity detrimental to usefulness or efficiency as a teacher, and must have passed the examination prescribed for the Fifth Standard.

4. The regulations to be made by any Board shall deal with the matters following:—

- The nature of the agreement with pupil-teachers, whether indenture of apprenticeship or otherwise.
- The term of service, and the number of hours to be spent each day in teaching.
- The rate of pay.
- The number of hours which head-teachers shall devote to the instruction of pupil-teachers, and the remuneration for the same. The programme of annual examinations.

5. These regulations shall come into force upon the date hereof.

[21st December, 1880.]

The Minister of Education may, on application being made to him by any Education Board, grant to any person who shall have served as pupil-teacher under such Board for a term of three years or more, and who shall have passed the final examination of the pupil-teachers' course as prescribed by such Board, a district license tenable for two years from the date at which the aforesaid final examination was passed, and during such two years such district license shall, within the education district of the Board by which such application shall have been made, have the force of a certificate granted under "The Education Act, 1877."

[29th March, 1881.]

At any examination of candidates for teachers' certificates, pupil-teachers in the service of any Education Board may present themselves for examination in drawing. Of four divisions of the subject, viz., (1) freehand, (2) geometrical, (3) perspective, and (4) model drawing, they may take up any one or more at one examination, or at successive examinations, and in any order; and their success in one or more of the four divisions will render them so far exempt from examination in drawing when they become candidates for certificates.

[24th September, 1878.]

1. As far as practicable, the work of the Public School Inspectors shall be so arranged as to provide for two visits to every public school in every year, one visit for purposes of general inspection, and the other visit for the purpose of examination according to the standards hereinafter prescribed.

2. At every standard examination of a public school, all scholars in fair attendance shall be expected to pass one standard. No scholar shall be examined in a standard which he has already passed. A scholar who has failed to pass a standard at any annual examination may, at the discretion of the teacher, be presented at the next annual examination, either for the standard which he failed to pass, or for a higher standard; and at any annual examination a scholar may, at the teacher's discretion, be presented for a standard higher than the next to that which he last passed.

3. In all cases the scholars presented for any standard must be prepared to show proficiency in the work also of the lower standards.

4. As soon as possible after the examination of a school the head-teacher shall be furnished, in such manner as shall be ordered by the Education Board of the district, with lists of the names of the scholars who have passed the several standards; and thereupon the head-teacher shall issue to every scholar who has passed a standard at the examination a certificate, in such form as the Board shall prescribe, showing that he has passed such standard; and every scholar transferred from one public school to another shall be required to exhibit his last certificate to the head-teacher of the school, who shall not present such scholar for reexamination in the standard to which such certificate relates.

5. An annual return shall be made by each Public School Inspector, showing, with respect to each public school subject to his inspection, the number of children who have passed from a lower to a higher standard in the year.

6. The standards shall not be understood to prescribe to the teacher the precise order in which the different parts of any subject shall be taught, but as representing the minimum of attainments of which the Inspector will expect evidence at each stage of a scholar's progress. (For example, a teacher, who finds that in arithmetic he can produce the required results in the Fourth and Fifth Standards as well or better by teaching fractions before practice and proportion, is at liberty to follow his own course, but not to substitute fractions for practice and proportion.)

7. The following are the standards:—

STANDARD I.

- *Beading.*—Sentences composed of words of one syllable, and common words of two syllables, to be read intelligently.
- *Spelling.*—Easy words of one syllable.
- *Writing.*—The small letters and the ten figures, on slate, at dictation.
- *Arithmetic.*—Counting, and oral addition by twos, threes, fours, and fives, up to 100; numeration and notation to 999; addition sums of not more than three columns; multiplication of numbers not exceeding 999 by 2, 3, 4, and 5. [*Note.*—The numeration must be applied to the addition and multiplication, and the multiplication known to be a compendious method of addition.]

- *Object-lessons, Singing, Disciplinary Exercises, &c.*—As prescribed in Regulation 9.

STANDARD II.

- *Reading and Definition.*—Sentences containing words of two syllables, and easy words of more than two syllables, to be read intelligently, and the meanings of the words to be known.
- *Spelling.*—Easy words of two syllables.
- *Writing.*—Short words in copy-books, not larger than round-hand. On slate : Capital letters and transcription from reading book of Standard II.
- *Arithmetic.*—Numeration and notation of not more than six figures; addition of not more than six lines, with six figures in a line; short multiplication, and multiplication by factors not greater than 12; subtraction; division by numbers not exceeding 12, by the method of long division, and by the method of short division; mental problems adapted to this stage of progress; multiplication tables to 12 times 12.
- *Geography.*—Knowledge of the meaning of a ground plan and of a map; of the principal geographical terms; and of the positions of the continents, oceans, and larger seas.
- *Other Subjects.*—As prescribed in Regulation 9.

STANDARD III.

- *Reading and Definition.*—Easy reading book, to be read fluently and intelligently, with knowledge of the meanings of the words, and with due regard to the distinction of paragraphs, as well as of sentences.
- *Spelling.*—From the same book; knowledge of words having the same or nearly the same sound, but differing in meaning; dictation of easy sentences from the reading book of a lower standard.
- *Writing.*—Longer words and sentences, not larger than round-hand; transcription from the reading book of Standard III., with due regard to punctuation and quotation marks.
- *Arithmetic.*—Numeration and notation generally (one million to be taken as the number of which one billion is the second power, one trillion the third power, and so on); long multiplication and long division; the four money rules (excepting long multiplication of money); money tables; and easy money problems in mental arithmetic.
- *Grammar and Composition.*—The distinguishing of the nouns (and pronouns used in the same way as nouns) and verbs in easy sentences; also of articles and adjectives (and pronouns used in the same way as adjectives); and very simple exercises in composition, to test the pupil's power of putting his own thoughts on familiar subjects into words.
- *Geography.*—Knowledge of the chief towns of New Zealand, and of the principal features of the district in which the school is situated; of Australian Colonies and their chief towns; of the countries and capitals of Europe; and of the principal mountains and rivers of the world.
- *English History.*—Knowledge of the chronological order in which the following periods stand: Ionian, Saxon, Norman, Plantagenet, Tudor, Stuart, Brunswick; and of a of the more interesting facts connected with each period.
- *Other Subjects.*—As prescribed in Regulation 9.

STANDARD IV.

- *Reading and Definition.*—An easy book of prose and verse.
- *Spelling and Dictation* suited to this stage, as represented by the reading book in use; the dictation to exhibit a knowledge of the use of capitals and of punctuation, but (at inspection) to be confined to prose.
- *Writing.*—Good copies in a hand not larger than round-hand, and transcription of poetry.
- *Arithmetic.*—Long multiplication of money; reduction; the compound rules applied to problems in weights and measures; practice, and the making out of bills of accounts and receipts; tables of weights and measures; mental arithmetic to correspond.
- *Grammar and Composition.*—The distinguishing of all the parts of speech in easy sentences; the inflexions of the noun, adjective, and pronoun; letter-writing on prescribed subjects; the addressing of letters and envelopes.
- *Geography.*—Knowledge of the countries of the world, with their capitals, and of the principal seas, gulfs, mountains, rivers, lakes, capes, straits, islands, and peninsulas on the map of the world; geography of Australia in outline; and the drawing of rough maps of New Zealand, with one set of principal features (as capes, or towns, or rivers). [In this and the subsequent standards, scholars will be expected to know the situation of places mentioned in their reading books.] Mathematical Geography : The form of the earth, day and night, the seasons, the zones, meridians, and parallels; and climate in this connection.]

- *English History*.—The succession of Houses and Sovereigns from 1066 A.D. to 1485 A.D., and the leading events of the period known in connection with the reigns and centuries to which they belong, and in their own character. [Precise dates will not be required, though a knowledge of them may assist in referring each event to the proper reign.]
- *Elementary Science, &c.*—See Regulation 9.

STANDARD V.

- *Reading and Definition*.—A book of general information, not necessarily excluding matter such as that prescribed for Standard IV.
- *Spelling and Dictation* suited to this stage.
- *Writing*.—Small-hand copies in a strict formal style, and text-hand; transcription of verse in complicated metres, and of prose exhibiting the niceties of punctuation.
- *Arithmetic*.—Proportion; simple interest; the easier cases of vulgar fractions, and problems involving them; mental arithmetic.
- *Grammar and Composition*.—Inflexions of the verb; the parsing (with inflexions) of all the words in any easy sentence; a short essay or letter on a familiar subject, or the rendering of the sense of a passage of easy verse into good prose; analysis of a simple sentence.
- *Geography*.—Knowledge of places of political, historical, and commercial importance in New Zealand, in Great Britain, and on the European Continent; and the drawing of outline maps of New Zealand Great Britain and Europe. Physical Geography : Distribution of land and water? mountain and river systems; changes effected by the agency of water; and climate as influenced mountain and sea.
- *English History*. The period from 1485 A.D. to 1714 A.D. treated as the former period is treated in Standard IV.
- *Elementary Science, &c.*—See Regulation 9.

STANDARD VI.

- *Reading*.—A book containing extracts from general literature.
- *Spelling and Dictation* suited to this stage.
- *Writing*.—The copying of tabulated matter, showing bold head-lines, and marking distinctions such as in letterpress require varieties of type (*e.g.*, the copying of these printed standards, or of a catalogue showing division into groups).
- *Arithmetic*.—Vulgar and decimal fractions; interest and other commercial rules; square root, and simple cases of mensuration of surfaces; mental arithmetic generally.
- *Grammar and Composition*.—Complete parsing (including syntax) of simple and compound sentences; prefixes and affixes, and a few of the more important Latin and Greek roots, illustrated by a part of the reading book; essay, or letter; analysis of easy complex sentences.
- *Geography*.—Knowledge of places of political, historical, and commercial importance in Asia, North America, and the British Possessions. Physical geography : Atmospheric phenomena, winds, rain, ice; distribution of the animals and plants of greatest value to man.
- *English History*.—The succession of Houses and Sovereigns, and the leading events of each reign, from the earliest times to the present (precise dates not required); also the elements of social economy.
- *Elementary Science, &c.*—See Regulation 9.

8. In the application of any standard to the case of an individual scholar, marked deficiency in all or most of the subjects, or serious failure in any two subjects, shall be reckoned as failure for that standard; but serious failure in any one subject alone shall not be so reckoned if it appear to be due to some individual peculiarity, and be not common to a large proportion of the class under examination.

9. Although the scholars will be allowed to pass the standards as defined in Regulation 7, the Inspector will inquire, and, if necessary, report as to the kind and amount of instruction in other subjects in the case of each class, as follows:—

CLASS PREPARING FOR STANDARD I.

- *Object and Natural-History Lessons*.—A syllabus of the year's work done to be given to the Inspector, who will examine the class upon some object selected from the syllabus.
- *Knowledge of the Subject-matter of the Reading Lessons*.
- *Repetition of Easy Verses*.—Syllabus and test as for object-lessons.
- *Singing*.—A sufficient number of easy and suitable songs in correct time and tune, and at a proper pitch.

- *Disciplinary Exercises or Drill.*
- *Needlework.*—See Regulation 10.
- *Drawing.*—See Regulation 11.

CLASS PREPARING FOR STANDARD II.

- *Object-lessons, and Lessons in Natural History and on Manufactures.*—A syllabus, as in Standard I.
- *Knowledge of Subject-matter of Beading Lessons.*
- *Repetition of Verses.*—Syllabus showing progress.
- *Singing.*—Songs as before; the places of the notes on the stave, or the symbol used for each note in the notation adopted; to sing the major diatonic scale and the successive notes of the common chord in all keys.
- *School Drill.*
- *Needlework and Drawing.*—See Regulations 10 and 11.

CLASS PREPARING FOR STANDARD III.

- *Knowledge of Common Things.*—A syllabus as for object-lessons in the former standards.
- *The Subject-matter of the Beading Lessons.*
- *Repetition of Verses.*—Syllabus showing progress.
- *Singing.*—Easy exercises on the common chord, and the interval of a second in common time and in 2/4 time, not involving the use of dotted notes; use of the signs *p.*, *f.*, *cres.*, *dim.*, *rall.*, and their equivalents; songs as before, or in common with the upper part of the school.
- *Drill.*
- *Needlework and Drawing.*—See Regulations 10 and 11.

CLASS PREPARING FOR STANDARD IV.

- *Elementary Science.*—See Regulation 12.
- *Recitation.*—A list of pieces learnt, and one piece (or more) specially prepared for the examination.
- *Singing.*—Easy exercise on the chords of the dominant and subdominant, and in the intervals prescribed for Standard III.; exercises in triple time; use of dotted notes; melodies, rounds, and part songs in common with the higher standards. [*Note.*—It will suffice if this class take the air of the songs, while the other parts are sung by the more] advanced classes, and it may be useful to let older scholars lead the parts in a round.]
- *Drill.*
- *Needlework and Drawing.*—See Regulations 10 and 11.

Classes Preparing for Standards V. and VI.

- *Elementary Science.*—See Regulation 12.
- *Recitation.*—Of a higher order than for Standard IV.
- *Singing.*—More difficult exercises in time and tune; strict attention to expression marks.
- *Drill.*
- *Needlework and Drawing.*—See Regulations 10 and 11.

10. All the girls in every public school in which there is a female teacher shall learn needlework, and, if the Inspector is satisfied that the instruction in this subject is thoroughly systematic and efficient, he may reduce the minimum number of marks for passing the standards by 10 per cent, in favour of the girls as compared with the boys. The classes for needlework shall be approximately the same as those for the standards, but such changes of children from one class to another in this subject may be made as shall be found necessary to insure the passing of every child through the different stages in the order here stated.

First.—Threading needles and hemming. (Illustration of work : Strips of calico or a plain pocket-handkerchief.)

Second.—The foregoing, and felling, and fixing a hem. (Illustration : A child's pinafore.)

Third.—The foregoing and stitching, sewing on strings, and fixing all work up to this stage. (A pillow-case, or woman's plain shift, without bands or gathers.)

Fourth.—The foregoing, and button-holing, sewing on buttons, stroking, setting in gathers, plain darning, and fixing. (A plain day-or night-shirt.)

Fifth.—The foregoing, and whipping, a tuck run, sewing on frill, and gathering. (A night-dress with frills.)

Sixth.—Cutting out any plain garment and fixing it for a junior class; darning stockings (fine and coarse) in worsted or cotton; grafting, darning fine linen or calico; patching the same; darning and patching fine diaper.

If Knitting is learnt it shall be in the following order: A strip of plain knitting; knitted muffatees, ribbed; a plain-knitted child's sock; a long-ribbed stocking.

11. The order of instruction in drawing shall be as follows:—

- Standard I. Freehand outline drawing from blackboard exercises (on slate).
- Standard II. The same, but more advanced, and with some use of drawing-book.
- Standard III. Freehand outline drawing in drawing-book (from copies).
- Standard IV. Outline drawing from models and other solid objects.
- Standard V. Practical geometrical drawing.
- Standard VI. Practical perspective drawing.

[NOTE.—Solid models for Standard IV. can be made by any carpenter; cost in London, 24s.; in New Zealand, 30s. Tate's Practical Geometry (price 1s.) is a good textbook for Standard V., and J. C. Dicksee's Perspective (4s.) for Standard VI.]

12. The teaching of elementary science for Standards IV., V., and VI. shall embrace elementary physics, a small part of elementary chemistry, elementary mechanics, and elementary physiology; and shall be sufficient for and applied to the purposes of illustrating the laws of health, the structure and operation of the simpler machines and philosophical instruments, the simpler processes of agriculture, and the classification of animals and plants. The head-teacher of each school shall prepare a syllabus showing the distribution of these subjects over a three-years' course, having regard to the amount and order of the information contained in the reading books used in the school. The Inspector will see that the syllabus is sufficient, and examine each class in that part of the work with which the class has been engaged during the year. The syllabus shall present a suitable arrangement of the matter contained in the following programme (the portions enclosed within square brackets being, however, optional) :—

Conditions of matter—solid, liquid, gaseous; force—gravitation, heat, chemical affinity, electricity, magnetism; properties of solids—compactness, porousness, comparative hardness, brittleness, toughness, &c.; forms of bodies; inertia of rest and motion; comparative density and specific gravity; centre of gravity; acceleration; the mechanical powers; pressure of liquids and gases; pumps, barometers, hydraulic press, &c.

Vibrations; velocity of sound and light; reflection, refraction, &c.; the magnifying glass and the prism; heat expansion, convection, conduction, radiation; thermometer; ventilation; steam; mechanical mixture and chemical combination; [oxygen; hydrogen; nitrogen; chlorine; carbon; sulphur; phosphorus; lime; iron;] composition of water and of air; combustion; [acid and alkali].

[Characteristics of saccharoids; of oils and fats; of fermentation products; of albuminoids; fractional and voltaic electricity; the electric machine; the battery; currents;] the build of the human body, and names and positions of internal parts; constituents of blood, muscle, bone, and connective tissue; alimentation; circulation; respiration; [the kidneys and their secretion;] animal heat; organs of sense; principal divisions of the animal kingdom, and of the vegetable kingdom.

[NOTE.—The extent of the knowledge indicated by this programme is intended to be not greater than the ground covered by the ten popular lectures contained in Parts II., III., IV., V., and VI., of "Science made Easy," by Thomas Twining, price 1s. each part; published by Chapman and Hall, London. The "Science Primers," entitled respectively "Introductory," "Chemistry," "Physics," "Physiology," "Botany," price 1s. each, published by Macmillan and Co., will be useful to teachers, but they go beyond the programme. "Health in the House," by Mrs. Buckton, price 2s., published by Longmans, is a very useful illustration of the application of elementary science to the practical concerns of common life; and Johnston's "Catechism of Agricultural Chemistry," price 1s., published by Blackwood and Sons, should be studied, especially by teachers of country schools.]

13. Standard IV., as defined in these Regulations, shall be the standard of education prescribed under "The Education Act, 1877," section ninety, subsection four.

14. These regulations shall come into force upon the date hereof; but the examinations of schools at any time earlier than the first day of July, one thousand eight hundred and seventy-nine, shall be regarded as merely preparatory to the complete observance of the standards as herein defined.

[24th September, 1878.]

1. Subject to such restrictions as the Education Board of any district may impose, any books described in the following list may be used in any public school:—

- *Reading.*—Nelson's Royal Readers (the whole series); Chambers's National Reader (the whole series); Collins's Academic Progressive Reader (the whole series); Philip's New Code Reader, by J. G. Cromwell (the whole series); and, for advanced classes, Macmillan's Sixth Reading Book, Morell's English

- Literature, and Church's Stories from Homer (Seeley).
- *Spelling*.—Sullivan's Spelling Book Superseded; Jones's Spelling Book for Beginners; Jones's Essentials of Spelling; Christie's Constructive Spelling.
 - *Writing*.—Vere Foster's Copy-books (preferred to any others); Darnell's Copy-books; the Public School Copy-books (Daldy).
 - *Arithmetic*.—Colenso's Shilling Arithmetic; Colenso's Arithmetical Examples, Parts 1, 2, 3; Chambers's Arithmetical Exercises; Collins's Standard Arithmetic; Collins's Complete System of Practical Arithmetic; Nelson's Royal Arithmetic, Parts 1 to 5; Piper's Elementary School Arithmetic; Manson's Progressive Exercises (Senior and Junior); Irish National School Arithmetic; and, for advanced classes, Colenso's School Arithmetic; Barnard Smith's School Arithmetic; Hamblin Smith's Arithmetic; Piper's Advanced Arithmetic; Barnard Smith's Arithmetical Exercises with Answers; and Barnard Smith's Examination Papers in Arithmetic with Answers.
 - *Grammar*.—Lewis's Grammar for Beginners (2d.); Chambers's Grammar Primer (1½d.); Chambers's Introduction to Grammar (6d.); Morrison's Initiatory English Grammar (7d.); Brewer's First and Second English Grammars (4d. and 1s., Philip); Smith's English Grammar Simplified (Nelson); Currey's English Grammar; Morrison's English Grammar; Allen and Cornwell's English Grammar; Collins's English Grammar; Douglas's English Grammar; Chambers's Grammar and Composition; and, for advanced classes, Lewis's English Language, its Grammar and History (2s., Stanford); Smith and Hall's English Grammar (Murray); and Morell's Grammar and Analysis. [Teachers may consult with advantage Tancock's English Grammar.]
 - *Composition*.—Chambers's Introduction to Composition; Allen and Cornwell's Young Composer; Collins's Elementary English Composition; Nelson's Exercises in English Composition.
 - *Geography*.—Chambers's Outlines of Geography (1½d.); Collins's Young Child's Geography (3d.); Nelson's Geography and Atlas combined; Hughes's Elementary Class Book of Modern Geography; Cornwell's Geography for Beginners; Cornwell's School Geography; Mackay's Outlines of Modern Geography; Murray's School Manual of Modern Geography; Petrie's New Zealand Geography; Bowden's New Zealand Geographies (revised); Collins's Modern Geography—Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand; Science Primer—Geography; Sullivan's Geography Generalized. Physical Geography: Procter's Elementary Physical Geography (1s. 6d., Longman's, strongly recommended as comprising all the physical geography required for Standards IV., V., and VI.); Geikie's Physical Geography (Science Primer); Hughes's Elementary Physical Geography; and, for advanced classes, Hughes's Class Book of Physical Geography; also Foster's Manual of Geographical Pronunciation (2s.).
 - *History*.—Nelson's Brief History of England (7d.); Laurie's Compendium of English History; Edith Thomson's History of England (Macmillan); Nelson's History of Great Britain; Collier's History of the British Empire; Epochs of English History (Longmans); Epochs of Ancient History; Epochs of Modern History; Dr. Smith's Smaller History of England.
 - *Elementary Science*.—Berners's First Lessons on Health (1s.); Buckton's Health in the House (Longmans); the Scholar's Handbook of Household Management (Macmillan); Collins's Domestic Economy; Laurie's Home and its Duties; Chambers's Girls' Reading Book (Homework and Duties); the Science Primers; Irish Agricultural Class Book; Johnston's Agricultural Chemistry; Johnston's Catechism of Agricultural Chemistry and Geology; Mrs. Fawcett's Lessons in Political Economy; Lessons in Political Economy (S.P.C.K.); J. S. Laurie's Sketches of Political Economy; Chambers's Political Economy.
 - *Music*.—Tonic Sol-fa Standard Course, and other Tonic Sol-fa publications; Stimpson's Exercises from Singing Class Book (Collins); Nelson's School Songs; Currie's School Songs; Crampton's 24 School Songs; Training School Song Book; 60 Kindergarten Songs and games (Novello); Child's Garland of Action Songs with Music (Central School Depôt).
 - *Drawing*.—Tate's Practical Geometry (1s.); J. C. Dicksee's Perspective (4s.).
2. Any Board which may desire to continue temporarily the use of any book not contained in the foregoing list, or to introduce any new book, may, if the Minister for Education see fit, receive special authority for the use of such book.
 3. These regulations shall come into force upon the date hereof.

[20th July, 1880.]

The book entitled "English History for Schools," by John Curnow (George Philip and Son, London), and the several parts of the book entitled "Elementary Linear Drawing," by David C. Hutton (issued by the Education Department), may be used in any public school as if they had been described and included in the list

of works set forth in the Order in Council dated the twenty-fourth day of September, one thousand eight hundred and seventy-eight.

[1st March, 1881.]

The books entitled "A Class-book and Method for teaching Geography and History to the Second and Third Standards" (Robertson, Melbourne); "Geography of New Zealand and Oceania," by Rev. Peter Mason, B.A. (Upton and Co., Auckland); and "A First Geography for the Schools of New Zealand and the Australian Colonies," by D. Petrie, M.A. (Henry Wise and Co., Dunedin), may be used in any public school as if they had been described and included in the list of works set forth in the Order in Council dated the twenty-fourth day of September, one thousand eight hundred and seventy-eight.

[10th July, 1882.]

The books entitled "Little History of New Zealand," by E. M. Bourke (Robertson, Melbourne); "Primer of English History," by J. Curnow (Robertson, Melbourne); "English History Reading Books," Parts I., II., and III., by Miss Yonge (National Society, London); "Political Economy Reading Book," by R. H. Inglis Palgrave (National Society, London); "Glimpses of the Globe," by J. R. Blakiston (Griffith and Farran, London); "The Child's Geography," by M. J. Barrington Ward (Marcus, Ward and Co., London); "First Geographical Reader" (Isbister, London); "The London Readers" (Isbister, London); "Chambers's English Readers" (Chambers, Edinburgh); "Standard Grammar," by J. M. D. Meiklejohn (Chambers, Edinburgh); "Domestic Economy," by J. Milner Fothergill (Isbister, London); "The Alphabet of the Principles of Agriculture," by Professor Tanner (Macmillan and Co., London); "Further Steps in the Principles of Agriculture," by Professor Tanner (Macmillan and Co., London), may be used in any public school as if they had been described and included in the list of works set forth in the Order in Council dated the twenty-fourth day of September, one thousand eight hundred and seventy-eight.

[18th September, 1883.]

The book entitled "History for Standard III.," by D. Petrie, M.A. (Wise, Caffin, and Co., Dunedin), may be used in any public school as if it had been described and included in the list of works set forth in the Order in Council dated the twenty-fourth day of September, one thousand eight hundred and seventy-eight.

[20th November, 1883.]

The books entitled "Outline of English History," by S. R. Gardiner (Longmans, Green, and Co., London); "New Zealand Standard Class Book of Arithmetic," First Standard, by R. Lee, Inspector of Schools (J. Hughes, Wellington), may be used in any public school as if they had been described and included in the list of works set forth in the Order in Council dated the twenty-fourth day of September, one thousand eight hundred and seventy-eight.

[24th September, 1878.]

1. The Education Board of any district in which any normal school or training college is situated shall have the entire control and management of such school or college, subject to the provisions hereinafter made.

2. Every normal school or training college shall be so organized as to afford to persons of both sexes intending to become teachers in public schools the means of acquiring sufficient knowledge of the subjects which they will afterwards be required to teach, and of theories of education and methods of teaching, and also to afford to such persons sufficient opportunity of practising the art of teaching.

3. The terms of admission to any normal school or training college shall be such as to make no distinction between applicants residing within the bounds of the education district in which such institution is situate and applicants residing in an education district where there is no such institution.

4. In the arrangement of the plan of study in any normal school or training college regard shall be had to the opportunities of instruction offered to the students in such school or college by means of lectures in any neighbouring institution affiliated to the University of New Zealand.

5. Any Education Board having the control of a normal school or training college may establish or maintain, in connection with such school or college, a public school to be used as a practising school; or may agree with the Committee of any school district for the use of any public school within such district as a practising school, subject to such conditions as may be agreed upon with regard to the relations which shall in

that case subsist between the principal officer of the training college and the head master of the public school.

6. Every Education Board having the control of a normal school or training college shall frame regulations for the organization and conduct of the institution, and shall submit such regulations to the Minister of Education; and upon receiving his approval such regulations shall come into force, and shall not be altered or amended without his authority. Such regulations shall relate to the matters following:—

- The number, status, salaries, and duties of the officers of the training college;
- The terms of admission to the college;
- The time during which each student will be required or allowed to continue at the college;
- The subjects of study, and the time allotted to each (approximately);
- The arrangements for employing students in the actual work of teaching, and the proportion of time spent in such work;
- The relations of the training college and of its officer or officers to the practising school;
- The organization of the practising school.

7. These regulations shall come into force upon the date hereof.

[24th September, 1878.]

1. In the district high school at Blenheim the fees for higher education within the meaning of section 56 of "The Education Act, 1877," shall be ten shillings a quarter for not more than two subjects, and five shillings a quarter for each subject in excess of two.

2. In the district high schools established or to be established under the Education Board of Otago, the fee shall be ten shillings a quarter for one subject or for any number of subjects.

3. These regulations shall come into force upon the date hereof.

[24th August, 1880.]

In the district high school at Invercargill the fees for higher education within the meaning of section 56 of "The Education Act, 1877," shall be ten shillings a quarter for not more than one subject, and five shillings a quarter for each subject in excess of one.

[30th December, 1882.]

In the district high school at Riverton the fees for higher education within the meaning of section 56 of "The Education Act, 1877," shall be ten shillings a quarter for not more than one subject, and five shillings a quarter for each subject in excess of one.

[25th June, 1883.]

In the district high schools at Cambridge and Hamilton, in the Education District of Auckland, the fees for higher education, within the meaning of section 56 of "The Education Act, 1877," shall be eight guineas a year.

In the district high schools at Temuka and Waimate, in the Education District of South Canterbury, the fees for higher education within the meaning of section 56 of "The Education Act, 1877," shall be—for one subject, ten shillings a quarter; for two subjects, twelve shillings and sixpence a quarter; and for three or more subjects, fifteen shillings a quarter.

By Authority : GEORGE DIDSBURY, Government Printer, Wellington.—1884.

[Extract from *New Zealand Gazette*, 19th June, 1884.]

"The Education Act, 1877."—Standard Examinations.

Order in Council.

At the Government House, at Wellington, this seventeenth day of June, 1884.

Present:

HIS EXCELLENCY THE GOVERNOR IN COUNCIL.

IN exercise and pursuance of the powers and authorities vested in him by "The Education Act, 1877," the Governor, with the advice and consent of the Executive Council of the colony, doth make the regulations hereto annexed concerning standard examinations of public schools, and with the like advice and consent doth prescribe that this order shall take effect from the date hereof.

REGULATIONS.

1. REGULATION 2 under Order in Council dated the 24th September, 1878, for defining the standards of education and for inspection of schools is hereby repealed.

2. At every standard examination of a public school the whole school shall be examined. Pupils not sufficiently advanced to be in a class that has been prepared for examination in Standard I. shall be examined in such manner as the Inspector may deem fit, but all the other pupils must be presented for examination according to the standards. Every pupil who has already passed any standard must be presented for a higher standard; provided that at any time, not being less than three months before the examination, the teacher may, if he see fit, place any pupil in the class preparing for the standard which he last passed, and such pupil shall be examined with such class, but shall not be deemed a candidate for a pass, and shall not in any case be reckoned as passing again in the standard for which he is so examined. The teacher shall formally present for examination all the pupils on the school roll, by giving to the Inspector a list or lists of the pupils that are not prepared for Standard I., or a memorandum of the number of such pupils, and for each standard a separate list of the pupils presented to pass the standard, together with a list of those presented to be reexamined in the standard. The teacher shall, at the same time, hand to the Inspector a summary of the numbers presented, the total of which summary must correspond to the number of pupils on the roll of the school.

Forster Goring,

Clerk of the Executive Council.

The Reformatory & Refuge Journal.

Jan.—March, 1885.

To seek and to save that which was lost No. CLII—CLIV. Price Twopence. London: REFORMATORY AND REFUGE UNION, 32, CHARING CROSS, S.W.

Contents.

TRAINED AND CERTIFICATED HEAD MASTER seeks Superintendentship, Assistant Superintendentship, or *Good* Head-Mastership. Experienced in the various departments of Institution work. At present Head of Higher Grade Church School. Earned "Excellent" Merit Grant in 1883 (first year of its coming into force) and in 1884. References include Her Majesty's Inspectors. J.G.G., care of Secretary, Reformatory and Refuge Union.

Subscriptions to the *Journal*.

SUBSCRIBERS to the *Journal* are requested to remit their subscription in stamps, to the Secretary, 32, Charing Cross, S.W. We shall be glad to add to our list the names of those who wish to receive the *Journal* regularly. Will those of our readers who are officers of Institutions kindly bring it under the notice of their fellow-labourers, whether Members of Committee or Officials? The subscription is 2s. per annum, including postage and Christmas Number.

J. E. Earee, Breakfast & Tea Contractor,

97, Hackney Road, near Shoreditch Church.

J. E. E. respectfully begs to inform the Clergy, Superintendents of Schools, and others, who are in the practice of commemorating their Anniversaries, &c., by Public Breakfasts and Tea Meetings, that he has every requisite for such occasions, comprising Tables, Coppers, and China to any extent, in a superior style, at extremely moderate charges.

J. E. E. tenders his sincere thanks to those ladies and gentlemen who have hitherto favoured him with their kind patronage, and hopes by strict attention to ensure a continuance of the same; he also begs most respectfully to solicit the favour of their recommendation.

Rout Seats on reasonable terms. Vans, and every requisite for Excursion Parties, with the entire management taken by contract.

Communications by Post Immediately Attended to.

References are kindly permitted to be made to the Secretaries of the Ragged School Union, the Reformatory and Refuge Union, and the Temperance League.

The Birkbeck Building Society's Annual Receipts exceed Four Millions.

HOW TO PURCHASE A HOUSE FOR TWO GUINEAS PER MONTH, with immediate Possession and no Rent to Pay. Apply at the Office of the BIRKBECK BUILDING SOCIETY.

HOW TO PURCHASE A PLOT OF LAND FOR FIVE SHILLINGS PER MONTH, with immediate possession, either for Building or Gardening purposes. Apply at the Office of the BIRKBECK FREEHOLD LAND SOCIETY. A Pamphlet with full particulars, on application.

Francis Ravenscroft, Manager.

Southampton Buildings, Chancery Lane, W.C.

Established 1851.

Birkbeck Bank.—Southampton Buildings, Chancery Lane. Current Accounts opened according to the usual practice of other Bankers, and Interest allowed on the minimum monthly balances when not drawn below £25. No commission charged for keeping Accounts.

The Bank also receives money on Deposit at Three per cent. Interest repayable on demand.

The Bank undertakes for its Customers, free of charge, the custody of Deeds, Writings, and other Securities and Valuables; the collection of Bills of Exchange, Dividends and Coupons; and the purchase and sale of Stocks and Shares.

Letters of Credit and Circular Notes issued.

A Pamphlet with full particulars, on application.

Francis Ravenscroft, Manager.

The Reformatory and Refuge Journal.

Intelligence.

THE Newport Market Refuge and Industrial School is removed from Long Acre to Coburg Row, Westminster, where new buildings have been erected at a cost of £8,000, to accommodate 100 boys in the Industrial School and to provide a night shelter for thirty men and thirty women.

A meeting of Officers of Institutions connected with the Reformatory and Refuge Union, was held at the Stockwell Orphanage, on Thursday, the 11th of December, and a paper on "Technical Education" was read by Mr. Bowden.

The Boys' Refuge having been closed the Committee have presented a cheque for £250 to Mr. Langford who was for 14 years the Superintendent.

The premises acquired by the London Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, at 7, Harpur Street, Red Lion Square, were opened by the Lord Mayor as the Central Shelter and Office of the Society on October 27th. The Baroness Burdett Coutts, Lady George Hamilton, Lord Shaftesbury, and other influential promoters were present.

The National Industrial Home for Crippled Boys was awarded a Bronze Medal at the Health Exhibition.

The East London Industrial School is removed to Lewisham.

Mr. and Mrs. Macpherson, of the Boys' Reformatory, Inverness, have been appointed Superintendent and Matron of the Boys' Certified Industrial School, Stockport.

The Christmas Festival Meeting of the Children's Home was held at Exeter Hall, on Tuesday, December 23rd, and was largely attended.

The New Buildings of the Boys' Home, Regent's Park, are to be opened on the 6th of January. There will be special services in the Chapel in the morning and afternoon, and an entertainment in the New School-room in the evening.

No. cli.—JANUARY, 1885.

Parental Control.

THE following is a copy of a circular that has recently been issued to the Managers of Certified Reformatories and Industrial Schools.

OFFICE OF INSPECTOR OF REFORMATORY AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS, 3, Delahay Street, S.W.,

22nd November, 1884.

SIR,

I am directed by Secretary SIR WILLIAM VERNON HARCOURT to inform you that it is his desire that no boy should under any circumstances whatever, be discharged from a Reformatory or Industrial School for Sea or Coast Service, Emigration, or Enlistment in the Army or Navy, without the full knowledge and consent of his parents.

The Secretary of State requests that this injunction, which will apply also to the Emigration of Girls, be strictly observed.

I have therefore to ask that in all applications for the discharge of children as above-mentioned, the consent of the parents should be clearly intimated, and it should be also understood that no inmate under detention is to be allowed to leave the School except under the legal license (which does not extend beyond the country) without the express authority of the Secretary of State.

I am, Sir, Your obedient servant,

(Signed,) W. Inglis?,

H. M. Inspector of Reformatory and Industrial Schools.

P. S. A special report should be sent in cases of children suitable for emigration, &c., whose return to their parents is considered undesirable on account of the bad character and surroundings of their homes.

THE MANAGER,
] Industrial School.

The following communication has been addressed to the Inspector, by the Secretary of the "Cornwall" Training Ship, in reply to the above circular letter.

20th December, 1884.

SIR,

The Committee of the Reformatory Ship "Cornwall" desire me to acknowledge receipt of your letter of the 22nd ulto., and to state in reply, that the instructions of the Secretary of State cannot of course refer to Reformatory Ships, which have been established for the special purpose of training lads for the sea.

I am, Sir, Your obedient servant,

(Signed,) Walter Millachip.

MAJOR INGLIS, H. M. Inspector, &c., &c.

A Few Brief Remarks

On some of the ill effects likely to result from the Home Office Circular, relative to the Licensing and Discharge of Children from Reformatories and, Industrial Schools.

By CAPTAIN J. ROWLAND BROOKES.

THE entire purport of this Circular appears to be founded on the principle that the Managers of Schools are persons who have no interest in the future well-being of the children under their charge, and that the parents are actuated by a deep sense of parental responsibility, and are anxious to bring their children home in order that they may be influenced by their own virtuous example!

It seems quite to ignore the fact that the more degraded and miserable the condition of the parent may be, the more persistent will he be in insisting that the child shall return to his former vicious habits and surroundings, and thus quickly eradicate every good principle which has cost a largo expenditure of public money to inculcate.

In point of fact the action of the Circular is to render nugatory the effect of years of patient training, and to cause the wilful waste of a quarter of a million of Public money annually.

Its ill effects will be more especially and severely felt by those Institutions which prepare lads for a sea-life—and will be productive of the following dilemma:—

If the boy is discharged some considerable time before the expiration of his term of detention under a Secretary of State's warrant, he will probably go *one* voyage, and on his return home will decline to go again, and drift into his own surroundings—result: time and expense of training quite thrown away.

Or (as the Secretary of State has no power to issue a conditional discharge) he may possibly defy the school authorities, refuse to go to sea at all, and return home—result: time and expense of training quite thrown away.

Or should he be detained until his term of detention is about to expire, in nine cases out of ten, he will refuse to go to sea at all, and will return home—the result still being: time and expense of training quite thrown away.

It is further to be remembered that this Circular has been issued in direct opposition to the views expressed by the Royal Commission on Reformatory and Industrial Schools, and of the Howard Association who have urged in their reports that the powers of the parents over their children should practically be transferred to the School Managers.

From my own humble point of view (which I believe the great majority of those who have had any *practical* experience in the matter will entirely endorse), the action of this Circular will tend in an enormous degree to still further limit the utility of our Institutions (more especially the Training Ships), and to render the result of the training which the children receive in them downright prejudicial to the community—resulting in a waste of labour, time, energy and money.

It is, however, to be remembered that the responsibility of any failures resulting from the action of this Circular, *entirely rests on the Home Secretary*, issued, as it is, in direct defiance of the written views of the Authorities to whom I have just referred.

English Civilization and Infantine Slavery.

From the Introduction to Miss Barlee's Book, "PANTOMIME WAIFS."

By the RIGHT HON. THE EARL OF SHAFTESBURY, K.G.

THE inner character of a people is much tested by their pleasures and recreations. The glitter of Civilization, as it is called, covers a multitude of abominations. The Gladiatorial Conflicts at Rome, a high state of refinement, revealed a really savage and uncultivated people. So with the Bull-fights in Spain; nor can the English claim exemption from the general charge. The Cock-pit, the Bull-bait, the Prize-fight, though now prohibited by law, are not yet extinct, and the journals of nearly every week show the continuance of the taste, and a desire to renew these sanguinary and attractive spectacles.

We boast ourselves as, no doubt, vastly superior to the Chinese in civilization, though they are a people who could read and write, long before we were a nation. We revile many of their customs and usages, but omit to cast a reflex glance on our own. Their Civilization permits them to get rid of their superfluous babies by throwing them into the rivers, and so, by their early and easy death, to be relieved of a burden. Our Civilization, it seems, permits us to hand over or hire our children to a course of sin, suffering, and sorrow, and so, by the agency of these helpless creatures, thrive on the profits of their moral degradation.

Of all the words in the English dictionary, there is no one so much perverted as the word Civilization; and so it is with the equivalent term in the dictionary of every language. It is used to imply Magnificent Buildings, Galleries, Lectures on Science, Libraries, Theatres, boundless Amusements, lots of Clubs, abundance of Newspapers, Magazines, Novels, "the lust of the flesh, the lust of the eyes, and the pride of life." The grand moral rights of every individual, as such, of the Human Race are forgotten under the glare of these superficial institutions. High culture of mind by no means leads, of necessity, to strong feelings of humanity. We see it in the Athenians—the same people who wept over the "Antigone" of Sophocles, would adjourn to their public assembly, and there decree a thousand prisoners to death, and as many more to slavery. Our inhumanity is not

so extreme, and it is more indirect; but, in principle, there is not much difference. The working men and women, who have been justly indignant at some wrong done to others; the more easy and leisurely classes, who have almost fainted under a sensational novel, will pass the same evening to witness the torture and danger of infantine Gymnasts and Acrobats, or revel at the sight of groups of childish dancers, who, as those spectators henceforward will know (if they suspect it not already), are trained to a career of sin, misery, and ruin.

To this form of slavery the English people have not, as yet, shown any general repugnance. They will, probably, adhere to it very tenaciously; and Miss Barlee is perhaps, doomed to find that, in assailing the amusements of the public, she has undertaken an enterprise as hard of accomplishment as the abolition of the trade in negroes, or the amendment of the factory system.

And, indeed, were the law to attempt the regulation and supervision of all the many details attendant on the perpetration of these cruelties, it would be non-plussed at almost every step. It could, perhaps, render us some little service by an enactment, strictly enforced, that no one should be permitted to appear in these Exhibitions until he or she had attained the age of seventeen years. The long delay, before profits could be realised, would cut off the hope of repayment for the costs of training and maintenance.

The conductors of Penitentiaries, the Committees of Asylums and Rescue Societies, and the like, should direct their attention to this state of things, and see whether it is not an abundant source of supply to their sorrowful institutions.

Prevention of Cruelty to Children.

THE Institution in connection with the Reformatory and Refuge Union hitherto known as the Stock bridge Nursery and Infant Home, Edinburgh, will in future be known as the "EDINBURGH AND LEITH CHILDREN'S AID AND REFUGE FOR THE PROTECTION OF CHILDREN."

The Directors having had their attention called to the fact, that it is desirable to have a shelter provided in the centre of the city for the reception of cases of cruelty to children which from time to time come under the cognisance of the police, have secured central and commodious premises, at 150, High Street, for this purpose.

The following Branches of the work will still be continued:—

- The Day Nursery, 10, Mackenzie Place.
- The Infant Home, 11, Mackenzie Place.
- The Home for Boys, 4, Bayton Terrace, Granton Road.
- The Home for Boys, 1, Craigholm, Burntisland.
- The Home for Girls, 2, Craigholm, Burntisland.
- The Home for Girls, 16, Craigholm, Burntisland.

All these Homes have been provided for the class of children who may be for a time inmates of the shelter. At the present time, the Directors have upwards of 150 children under their care.

Government Instructions and Regulations for Certified Industrial Schools.

WE have been frequently asked to state what restrictions obligations are involved by an Industrial School becoming Certified, and to meet such enquiries we annex the following:—

- *Lodgings.*—The Children lodged in the School shall have separate beds. If any are lodged out under Section 26 of the Industrial Schools' Act, notice of each case shall thereon be sent to the Office of the Inspector of Industrial Schools.
- *Clothing.*—The Children shall be supplied with plain useful clothing, not necessarily uniform, either in material or colour.
- *Dietary.*—The Children shall be supplied with plain wholesome food, according to a Dietary to be approved by the Inspector.
- *Instruction.*—The Secular Instruction shall consist of Reading, Spelling, Writing, and Ciphering, and, as far as practicable, the Elements of History, Geography, Social Economy, and Drawing. It shall be given for three hours daily. The Religious Instruction shall be in accordance with the Religious Denomination of the School, and shall be given daily. The Industrial Education shall be in Farm and Garden work, and any common handicraft. The children shall be employed for not less than six hours daily. In Training School Ships, the Boys shall be instructed in Naval Exercises and Employments, and Elements of Navigation.
- *Religious Exercises and Worship.*—Each day shall be begun and ended with simple family worship, to be prescribed by the Rules. On Sunday the Children shall attend public worship, at some convenient Church or Chapel. In case of any child being admitted who is specified in the Order of Detention as of some other

religious persuasion than the Church of England, a Minister of such religious persuasion shall be allowed to visit such child, and the child shall not be required to learn the Catechism of the Church of England.

This condition is modified according to the religious denomination of the School.

- *Time Table.*—A Time Table, showing the Hours of Work, School Instruction, Meals, &c., as approved by the Inspector, shall be fixed in the School-room.
- *Discipline.*—The Master shall be authorised to punish the Boys detained in the School in case of misconduct; all faults and punishments being entered in a book kept for that purpose, to be laid before the Committee at their meetings.
- *Punishment.*—Punishments may consist of Forfeiture of Rewards and Privileges, Reduction in quantity or quality of food, Confinement in a room or lighted cell, for not more than three days, and moderate Personal correction. But no child shall be deprived of more than two meals in succession. And any child in confinement shall be allowed not less than 1 lb of Bread and Gruel, or Milk and Water, daily. [No modes or method of correction different from the above may be resorted to unless specified in the Rules sanctioned by the Secretary of State.]
- *Recreation.*—The Children shall be allowed two hours daily for Recreation and Exercise, and shall be occasionally taken out for exercise beyond the boundaries of the School.
- *Visit of Friends.*—The Parents or other Relations of the Children shall be allowed to correspond with them at reasonable times, and to visit them once in two (or three) months, such privileges to be forfeited by misconduct or interference with the discipline of the School.
- *Provision on Discharge.*—On the Discharge of any Child from the School, he shall be provided with a sufficient outfit, according to the circumstances of the Discharge, and shall be apprenticed or placed out, as far as practicable, in some employment or service. If returned to relatives or friends, the expenses of such return shall be defrayed.
- *Visitors.*—The School shall be open to the inspection of Visitors at convenient times to be regulated by the Committee (or Managers).
- *Journals, &c.*—The Master shall keep a Journal of all that passes in the respective departments of the School. All admissions, licenses, discharges, desertions, and other offences, and all punishments shall be recorded in it. The Journal shall be laid before the Committee (or Managers), at their meetings, and the Inspector on his visits.
- *Medical Officer.*—A Medical Officer shall be appointed to visit the School. He shall enter his visit in a book kept for the purpose, with a note of all serious cases of illness attended by him in the School, and of the treatment prescribed. In the case of the serious illness of a child immediate notice shall be given to the parents.

See also page 291, *Reformatory and Refuge Journal*, 1884.
- *Inquest.*—In the case of the sudden or violent death of any inmate of the School, an Inquest shall be held, and the circumstances of the case immediately reported to the Inspector.
- *Inspector.*—In case of any child deserting from the School, or being placed out on license, or dying while an inmate of the School, or on license from it, or being committed to a Reformatory School, immediate notice shall be given to the Inspector. The Children shall be examined, and their proficiency in School Instruction and Industrial Training tested from time to time by the Inspector. All Books and Journals of the School shall be open to the Inspector for examination. Any teacher employed for the Instruction of the Children shall be examined by him, if he think it necessary. Previous notice shall be given him of the appointment or discharge of the Master and the Schoolmaster.
- *Returns, &c.*—The Master (or Secretary), shall keep a Register of admissions and discharges, with particulars of the parentage, previous circumstances, &c., of each child admitted, and of the disposal of each child discharged, and shall regularly send to the Office of the Inspector (under cover to the Under Secretary of State for the Home Department) the Returns and Quarterly Accounts required, and in the month of January of each year, a full statement of Receipts and Expenditure of the School for the past year, showing all debts and liabilities, and duly vouched by the Committee (or Managers).
- *General Regulations.*—The Officers and Teachers of the School shall be required to maintain the discipline and order of the School, and attend to the instruction and training of the children in conformity with the above Regulations. The children shall be required to obey the Officers and Teachers of the School, and to comply with its Regulations; and any wilful neglect or refusal to obey or comply on the part of any child admitted under the provisions of the Industrial Schools' Act, shall be deemed to be an offence under the 32nd Section of the Act.

Correspondence.

[The Editor is not Responsible for the Opinions of Coree8Pondents.]

Entertainments.

To the Editor of the "Reformatory and Refuge Journal,"
SIR,

A few weeks ago I was forcibly reminded of the necessity of providing amusement for my boys, now the days are short, and cricket or other out-door games can no longer be enjoyed. One of my officers came to me during the hour set apart for recreation before evening prayers, and said I had better go into such a corridor and see what some of the boys were doing; accordingly I went, and found a group of about twenty boys, in the centre of which two or three others were doing the comic business, having turned their jackets inside out, tied their scarves round their waists, and otherwise made themselves look as grotesque as possible. Of course when I came upon the scene there was an attempt to dissolve the audience, but I gravely insisted upon everyone remaining, and the performance going on as intended, saying that "I had come to see the fun." It was five or ten minutes before the performers could resume their gravity and proceed to business, which they did by one first singing a very harmless song, which was rewarded by loud applause. Then three attempted a dance after the style of "The Perfect Cure," then a recitation and another song, all of which were laughed at and loudly cheered. Without saying a word either of approval or disapproval, I dismissed both performers and audience. Of course the event was "all the talk" among the boys the next day, they wanted to know what the Governor thought about it. Well, they had not to wait long, for after evening prayers I had a familiar chat with them on the subject. I told them I was pleased to see them try to amuse each other, that it was a proper thing to laugh and have amusement, and if they liked to be at the trouble to "get up" a lot of things, they should have a night *all to themselves*, no visitors being allowed. The only thing I stipulated was that I should know beforehand what they were going to do. Accordingly in about three weeks a programme was handed to me, which had been entirely made up by themselves, consisting of songs, duets, recitations, and a dialogue for eight individuals, comet solo, a duet for two comets, and a short selection by ten of the principal band boys, *without* the bandmaster. Suffice it to say that the other evening saw them all assembled in the school room, and for an hour and a half there was nothing but healthy amusement, the blunders that were made causing a lot of fun, while the best executed part of the programme was attentively listened to, and rapturously applauded by over 200 boys, although nothing had been done in the shape of dress to add to the grotesque appearance of the performers. I expressed my very great pleasure at the way they had gone through their various parts, and announced that we would have a similar entertainment once a month, which announcement was received with great cheering.

We have in former years had a monthly entertainment given by ladies and gentlemen, friends of the School, but we believe the boys will enjoy what is done by their schoolfellows, and that those taking part in it will be none the worse for the labour involved in preparing for the entertainments.

Governor.

The Primate and the Saltley Reformatory Boys.

AFTER a visit by the Archbishop of Canterbury to the Saltley Reformatory, the boys wrote the following letter:—

TO HIS GRACE THE ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY.

We embrace the earliest opportunity of telling your Grace the impression left upon our minds by your most gratifying visit to our School.

We never expected the honour of seeing the Archbishop amongst us, and we never shall forget the kind words of encouragement used to stimulate good actions in our future life, nor shall we ever forget those few words spoken when your Grace alluded to our drill, calling to recollection the influence of a spirit of prompt obedience in forming our character, and contributing to our future happiness and success.

We also feel deeply the short prayer offered for our future conduct and guidance under providence that we may lead an honest and industrious career.

(Here followed the signature of 100 Boys).

SALTLEY REFORMATORY,
SMALL HEATH, BIRMINGHAM.

In reply the Archbishop wrote:—

ADDINGTON PARK, CROYDON.
MY DEAR BOYS,

It gave me real pleasure to receive your kind words so well written out, and expressing what I am sure you feel. I do not mean only your kind feelings towards me (although I am sincerely grateful for your warm assurances) but I mean much more; you promised to be good boys, and your earnest desire to live upright and honourable lives.

God will bless your desire; and He will give you strength through Jesus Christ to keep all your lives pure and good if you pray as we prayed together and do not forget Him.

I am glad you remembered what I said about your drill. You can get your hearts and thoughts into as good order as you have got hands and feet and all your limbs into if you will take the same pains. I think the gay colours and flowers with which you adorned the address shew that *you* took pleasure in it as I do. Give my remembrances to Master and Mistress, and be sure that the friends that brought me to see you are true friends who really care for you, and your good conduct will be the best thanks you can give them.

I am, your sincere friend,

EDW. CANTUAR,
To the Boys of Saltley Reformatory.

Industrial Training Schools for the Army.

By A. V. FORDYCE, F.S.SC., Founder of the Birmingham Hornet for Working and Destitute Bogs; Boys' Night Refuge; and Refuge for Girls of Tender years.

A FEW years ago the writer was tempted, from motives of economy, to institute a system of military routine in a home for boys formerly carried on under the regulations usual for such establishments. The question of industrial training schools for the Army having recently come to the front, he has been prompted to offer a few suggestions emanating from his experience in this direction. The establishment alluded to, the Homes for "Working and Destitute Boys at Birmingham, has for its object to provide a home for neglected and homeless lads, who would otherwise be abandoned to a life in common lodging-houses or the streets. Before describing the system of management, it should be premised that two circumstances have prevented its full development—viz., the want of suitable premises, and the absence of the right sort of paid officer to assist the writer. The small number of boy-inmates at any one time (an average of twenty-six) has also been a drawback. Still, even with these disadvantages, the military system of management has worked well.

It may be described in outline as follows:—

First it was necessary to appoint non-commissioned officers. This, as in the case of the Regular Army, is a most difficult and important matter. With an establishment of thirty, the staff of non-commissioned officers has been one sergeant, two corporals, and two lance-corporals; one bugler is also appointed. The remaining rank and file (twenty-four) are divided into four squads, each under charge of a noncommissioned officer, while the sergeant superintends the whole. Pay is issued for each rank at the rate of 1d. per stripe per week; other emoluments being granted for certain duties performed, such as the offices of librarian, store-clerk, orderly-room clerk, kitchen orderly, etc. There being four dormitories, one corporal is placed in charge of each, he being responsible for the cleanliness and drill efficiency of each individual in his squad. Promotion goes by seniority, as a rule, but sometimes by selection. One non-commissioned officer is on duty daily in turn. He is responsible for *reveille* at 5.30 a.m., and that by 6.30 a.m. everyone is on parade for boot inspection and drill. At 7 p.m. he marches the parade to breakfast, after which the boys disperse to their daily work in the different factories in the town. At 8 a.m. the sergeant-major inspects each locker in the lavatory and each kit shelf in the dormitories. Punishment for disorder in either of these is one hour's pack drill. At 10.15 a.m. the senior boy at home (one of those out of work or at home from other cause) parades any boys not certified as having passed

recruits' drill, and they receive squad instruction and marching drill until 11.45 a.m., when they are dismissed, and are free to amuse themselves until dinner-parade falls in, under the corporal of the day, at 1.15 p.m. From 3 p.m. to 4.30 p.m. the morning drill is repeated, after which the boys are dismissed for the day, unless employed on some of the duties hereafter mentioned. At 6 p.m. (about which time the boys in work come home), the guard is mounted, consisting of the corporal of the day and three privates, one of whom is posted on sentry at the entrance and relieved hourly until 10 p.m., the boy coming off at 7 p.m. being released from duty at 8 p.m., and his place taken by one of the working boys, and the one coming off at 8 p.m., being relieved from duty altogether at 9 p.m. in the same way. At 7.30 p.m. is supper parade, and after supper, at 8 p.m., the junior corporal falls in the boys under sentence of pack drill. This on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays; on Tuesdays, commanding officer's parade; and on Thursdays a science-lecture takes place at the same hour. At 8.30 p.m. is evening roll-call, after which the prisoners are "told off." For minor offences they are brought before the commanding officer, in the orderly room, but graver ones are referred to a court-martial. Boys who misconduct themselves are reported to the corporal of the day, who enters the report on his daily report sheet. This is called "open arrest." In very serious cases the offender is placed in the guard room, or, if necessary, in the cell. This is called "close arrest." Punishments vary from one hour's pack drill, or an extra guard to seven days' cells, with bread and water. There are various medium punishments as well, such as the stoppage of leave, of pay, etc. At 9 p.m. the non-commissioned officers parade for orders; at 9.30 p.m. first post sounds; at 10 p.m. second post, when all must be in their dormitories, but the corporal and the last sentry remain on duty until the last person is in or out of the institution. On Saturdays the boys coming home from work earlier, the duty times vary. Guard mounting is then at 2 p.m.; kit inspection at 2.30 p.m.; prisoners are told off at 3 p.m., absentees without leave are given seventy-two hours to return, after which time they are posted as deserters, and receive a proportionately severe punishment on capture. When once the guard is mounted no one under the rank of sergeant is allowed in or out without a proper pass. On Sundays there are church parades at 10.15 a.m. and 6 p.m., and Bible class at 3 p.m. On admission to the Horae (which is distinct from the Boys' Night Refuge), the boys have to bind themselves to remain in the Home until they attain the age of eighteen, during which time their earnings go towards their support—they, however, receiving back, as pay, one penny in the shilling. A good-conduct stripe, carrying extra pay at the rate of twopence a week, is awarded to every boy who is six weeks without being reported. The boys wear ordinary clothes to go to work in, fatigue dress about the Home and off duty, undress, with belts, on duty, full dress on Sundays and on guard. Busbies are only worn by the guard on Sundays, and when otherwise ordered. Each boy is provided with a rifle-carbine, which he is expected to keep in good order. There is a library of 300 volumes, and a reading-room where about twenty daily and weekly papers are supplied. The boys, as a company, go into camp for six days annually, when guards are mounted night and day; and the usual camp routine fully carried out.

As regards the cost, it was £10 a head in 1883 (after deducting the boys' earnings). The writer has now endeavoured briefly to show what *has* been done. He would now like to indicate what, in his opinion, should be a model military training school. In the first place it would be requisite to have suitable premises; (it will be seen from remarks at the close of this paper that such premises will shortly be built) secondly, some formal recognition from Government. In the case of these homes it is proposed to form a juvenile Volunteer corps of two companies, each consisting of one lieutenant, one staff-sergeant, one sergeant (from the boys), two corporals, two lance-corporals, one bugler, and twenty-four rank and file, with an honorary captain commandant over all, assisted by a sergeant-major. This arrangement, the writer has reason to believe, would be looked upon with favour by the authorities. The cost per boy per annum, it is estimated, would then stand as hereunder:—

For keeping and training sixty boys a sum of £207 10s. would thus have to be made up by the public. The writer would suggest that the only help asked from Government should be a bounty of £10. for each good and healthy recruit finally passed into the Army, together with any slight assistance that could be given in the way of condemned clothing, or a small capitation-grant of say 10/-per head for each boy who attended the annual inspection, such inspection to be undertaken by an officer detailed for the purpose by the authorities at Horse Guards

Such inspection has since taken place. Last August the boys encamped at King's Norton for six days, being inspected at the close by Capt. Scott, Adjutant of the Royal Warwick Regiment. The report was most favourable, and the General Officer commanding the District complimented the writer upon its favourable nature.

. Help might also be given in the shape of the occasional services of a drill instructor from the nearest depot and of a military medical officer when required. By carrying out this plan from 15 to 20 lads could be drafted annually from the home into the Army—lads with two to three years' experience of barrack-life, well drilled and trained, and in every way eligible candidates for promotion to non-commissioned rank. Desertions would decrease in proportion as these homes are multiplied, and the bounty of £10 per recruit would surely be repaid,

if only in the saving of the expenses incurred in the recapture of deserters. The Birmingham Homes have already sent some score of good young soldiers into the Army, of whom none have failed, and they are prepared to do a great deal more if the public will find the means.

Technical Education,

A Paper read at a meeting of Officers of Institutions in connection with the Reformatory and Refuge Union, held at the Stockwell Orphanage on the 11th of December, 1884.

AS APPLIED TO INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS FOR BOYS.

BY JOHN BOWDEN, *Master of the Boys' Farm Home, Barnet.*

I SHALL begin my subject by defining its title. Technical Education is, as I understand it, a special education with a special object. A mutual friend of ours, I saw, described it at the Dublin Conference as "another name for Industrial Work," and for his purpose the definition answered very well, but Technical Education to my mind means a good deal more than that. The idea involved in the term is a double one—first, that the most complete acquaintance with the theory of an art or industry is not a complete education in that art or industry, and second, that no mere handicraftsman in any industry is a sufficient exponent of its resources. Technical Education seeks to supplement the deficiency in each case by adding to it its proper complement. For the workman it establishes schools where the principles which underlie his craft are expounded; for the student it supplies workshops where at the lathe, the forge, or the bench, he can test the soundness of his theories by their practical application to things. The one finds that his work embodies principles and rules; the other awakes to the fact that his theories are mere barren formul till they are practically applied.

Actual experience has taught that it is the wise union of theory with practice in the prosecution of any industry which creates the conditions most favourable to its successful development. The great discoveries and inventions which have placed Great Britain foremost among the manufacturing nations of the earth have, almost without exception, been due to men, who united to minds of more than ordinary power and originality, the skill and dexterity of the trained workman. It is only, however, of comparatively speaking late years, that the full significance of this fact has been actually realised in this country. For many years after the great Continental wars of the early part of this century, Great Britain was the sole possessor of the improved machinery employed in our great manufactures. The result was that our trade advanced by "leaps and bounds" (as a great authority has put it), and left all possible rivals on the continent far in our rear. To make this position still more secure, various Acts of Parliament, which were not repealed till 1825, made it a penal offence to enlist English workmen for service abroad. But trade keeps a keen eye on its rivals, and if it cannot compete in one way, has a wonderful knack of finding another. So our neighbours across the "silver streak" established Technical Schools; the French had their *École Centrale* at Paris, and the Germans and Swiss their Polytechnic Schools where engineers and men of science, trained in England, taught Technology. This instruction filtered down through the industrial mass till it reached the ordinary workman, and the result was that soon the printed cottons of Mulhouse, the woollen fabrics of Rheims and Roubaix, the silks and velvets of Basle and Lyons and Crefeld competed successfully with, and even excelled in the open market the products of Manchester and Bradford and Coventry. English manufacturers then found it necessary to bestir themselves, if their manufacturing superiority was to be maintained. What newspaper correspondents call the "great mind of England" is not easily agitated—it appears to be in a chronic state of somnolence—but when it is roused it generally faces its difficulties, and solves its problems in such a way that all the world understands the solution. So, given the question "How are we to maintain our manufacturing superiority?" the enquiry has been "How is it jeopardised?" and having found the bane it straightway discovers the antidote—in this case the homæopathic one of "like cures like."

"Continental manufacturers are taking the wind out of our sails by Technical Education, we will overhaul them by Technical Education." So there is a general, I might almost say universal, move in this direction, with results already so satisfactory, that they have more than repaid the trouble and expense incurred, while opening out for the future an era of advancement of which no one can foresee the ultimate consequences.

In 1881 a Royal Commission was appointed to look into, and report upon this question; and on April, 1884, their report was issued, from which I quote the following:—

"The manufacturers of Nottingham speak with no uncertain voice of the important influence of the local School of Art on the lace manufacture of that town." "Without the Lambeth School the art productions of Messrs. Doulton could scarcely have come into existence." "The linen manufacturers of Belfast are becoming alive to the necessity of technical instruction, if competition on equal terms with foreign nations in the more artistic productions is to be rendered possible." "The new generation of engineers and manufacturers of

Glasgow has been trained in the Technical Schools of that city." "The City and Guilds of London Institute owes its existence to the conviction of the liverymen, that technical instruction is a necessary condition of the welfare of our great industries."

Here you will see that the desirableness of, and even necessity for, Technical Education is shown with a conclusiveness that admits of no question whatever. One witness in his evidence before the Commissioners speaks thus of the results of the influence of the Science and Art Classes established in Oldham.

"In the case of pattern makers for instance, they understand their work better than they did previously. It has caused the men to be more intelligent workmen, and to understand better the instructions given them and the object had in view in the work performed, and they understand the working better. Our foremen draughtsmen are now all taken from the Institution. Before the Institution existed we used to get Swiss and French and Germans principally. Now there is hardly a foreigner in the town."

In addition to an exhaustive enquiry in detail into the nature of technical instruction given on the Continent, twenty-seven of the most important agencies for the diffusion of technical instruction in England were visited and reported upon by the Commission. They range from the London School Board with its elementary education, to the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, from the special schools of the manufacturing centres to the National Science and Art Department at South Kensington. These efforts, whatever their nature and degree, are, one and all, recognised as helping to supply a national want, viz., English workmen who can, in productive power, intelligent and effective workmanship and artistic excellence, outstrip in the industrial race any continental or transatlantic rivals. Technical education, assiduously disseminated abroad, did, as before shown, for a time and in certain industries, threaten to wrest the palm of superiority from our hands; but the impending danger was discovered in time, and technical education diligently cultivated at home, has again set the balance in favour of England.

To quote the report again. "But, great as has been the progress of foreign countries, and keen as is their rivalry with us in many important branches, we have no hesitation in stating our conviction, which we believe to be shared by continental manufacturers themselves, that taking the state of the arts of construction and the staple manufactures as a whole, our people still maintain their position at the head of the industrial world. Not only has nearly every important machine and process employed in manufactures been either invented or perfected in this country in the past, but it is not too much to say that most of the prominent new industrial departures of modern times are due to the inventive power and practical skill of our countrymen."

To he continued.

Transformation Scenes.

A PANTOMIME, what fun! what jollity! what gorgeous Pageantry, what Fairy Transformation Scenes, what troops of merry children crowding to the sight, accompanied by parents whose hearts beat with pride and joy, as they watch the dancing lights of pleasure in their darlings' eyes, and the exclamations of rapturous delight with which they gaze on the brilliant scene.

When the curtain, however, falls, and the excited little ones return to their happy homes, and still under loving care sink to sleep in their downy beds, how few persons, we fear, give a thought to that curtain's reverse shadows, or inquire into the well-being of the human machinery which provided their evening's amusement.

Turn off however, the gas, slip off the tinselled raiment, and follow those other little ones, too often through pitiless rain and biting cold, to their so-called "Homes" in some fireless London garret, and compassion will surely arise to learn what Transformation Scenes await them there, what surroundings environ their young lives, what horrible temptations lie like quicksands in their homeward path, making shipwreck of their Innocence and Purity.—*Pantomime Waifs.*

Books Received.

"Zoological Photographs." By Joseph Hassell, A.K.C. 166 pages, small 8vo. London: SUNDAY SCHOOL UNION, Old Bailey, 2s. 6d. Mr. Hassell's happy manner of conveying information to the mind of the young is so well known among the managers of Refuges, Reformatories, and Industrial Schools, that we hardly need commend his hook from this point of view. His attempt to popularize the study of zoology, must be pronounced a decided success. The illustrations are numerous and well-selected, and the subject matter of the book, while calculated to fascinate the young, will we predict, be read with considerable interest by many, who, if not actually old, are at least old enough to teach and train the young. We are glad to know that a cheaper edition is about to be produced, if it is not already in the market.

"Sunshine:" Edited by Rev. W. M. Whittemore, D.D. 188 pages, imperial 8vo. London: GEORGE STONEMAN, Paternoster Row, 1s. 6d. This Annual for Children, though not so well known as some of its

contemporaries, is of considerable merit. It has little of interest for the very young, but the tales and contents generally are carefully prepared for older children, and are suitable for week-day or Sunday reading. The illustrations are fairly good, though the general get up" and finish of the annual is capable of considerable improvement, to bring it to the level of what is now expected of such publications.

"The Autocrat of the Nursery:" By L. T. Meade. 174 pages, small folio, London: HODDER & STOUGHTON, Paternoster Row, 5s. The first thing that strikes one on looking at this book is the exquisite taste and care which has been bestowed upon both the binding and the letter-press; examining next the illustrations we observe that they are by T. Pym, and in the best style of that artist. Some of the incidents recorded may seem a little unnatural, but this will be readily overlooked in a book in every other respect so attractive, that it will for a long time be one of the prettiest and most welcome gifts that can be presented to the young folks.

"Bible Light:" 140 pages, 8vo. London: JOHN F. SHAW & CO., Paternoster Row. This annual of Biblical exposition will be valued by Christian workers and teachers. Several interesting questions are discussed in its pages. The publication is carefully preserved from denominational bias. The "Enquirer's page" is a good feature in the serial.

Charity Moore:" By Lina Orman-Cooper. 130 pages, small 8vo. London: HODDER & STOUGHTON, Paternoster Row, 1s. 6d. In this story of a child left one snowy night at a Workhouse door, Mrs. Orman-Cooper has been successful in showing how happy and useful a life may be that has commenced under most unpromising circumstances, and she has done this without resorting to any extraordinary or unreasonable flights of fancy. The Matron of the Workhouse is depicted according to the usual conception of such officials; but we hope that type of unsympathetic character is less common than it once was. The illustrations by T. Pym are an additional attraction to a pretty story, which takes Charity through many trials and leaves her in possession of a humble, peaceful home, where God is feared and loved.

Messrs. WILLIAM COLINS, SONS & CO., Limited, Glasgow, have issued the second book," and the "third book" of their *Improved Illustrated Readers.*" Book II. contains 160 pages, forty lessons, and nineteen illustrations. Book III. contains 192 pages, sixty lessons, and twenty illustrations. They are published at the remarkably low price of 7d. and 8d. respectively. The lessons are such as are likely to interest the young, the words are judiciously selected, the spelling difficulties being simplified by a careful process of classification. The "summary" which is appended to each lesson will be found useful for dictation or transcription.

Newspaper Stories." By J. Forbes Moncrieff. Glasgow: CHAS. GLASS & CO. There is an eagerness in the young of a certain age to hear something out of the newspaper, and the writer of this little address avails himself of this fact to impart, by the narration of several striking incidents that have appeared in the newspapers, some practical truths and moral lessons affecting daily life. Another address to young men and women, by the same author, has recently been published, entitled, *Look to the End.*"

New Zealand Industrial Schools.

THE children maintained in the eleven Industrial Schools and Orphanages in New Zealand may be divided into two classes: (1) Children committed to proclaimed Industrial Schools under the provisions of "The Industrial Schools' Act, 1882;" and (2) orphan and destitute children who are not so committed. The latter class comprises children admitted on the order of a Government relieving officer, and for whose maintenance a capitation payment is made by Government; and children admitted by the local managers at their own instance, and in respect of whom payment from the public revenue is not always made.

Three hundred and fifty-seven children were admitted to the schools in 1883; of this number 320 were committed, and thirty-seven noncommitted. About one-third of the children were Roman Catholic. There were 887 boys and 638 girls belonging to the schools on the 1st of January, 1884.

They are accounted for as follows:—

In many instances the parents or friends of committed children make earnest application to have them restored to their custody. After careful inquiry it is often found necessary, for the sake of the children, to refuse such applications, but not unfrequently they are granted for what are deemed sufficient reasons. In such cases the children are licensed as prescribed by the Act, but they remain under the guardianship of the manager of the school, and can be recalled at any time, if necessary, by order of the Minister. The parents or others to whom the children are thus intrusted, knowing this, are put upon their good behaviour, and are usually exceedingly careful to avoid such a course of conduct as would lead to the forfeiture of the custody of the children. It thus happens that the committal of a child to an industrial school sometimes proves beneficial to the parents as well as to the child.

Under the repealed Act the children were released from the control of the school on the expiry of their several terms of committal; by the Act of 1882 all are committed for detention in the school till they attain the age of fifteen years, but they continue under the legal guardianship of the manager till the age of twenty-one

years is reached, unless previously discharged by warrant of the Governor. This provision is of great advantage to those who need protection from their own depraved and worthless parents. Nearly all those over fifteen years who are still under the legal guardianship of the several managers are in service or with friends; a few are on the staff in some of the institutions. As the industrial schools are the only homes that a number of these young people can properly go to when not in service, a few are almost at all times in the institutions, in some cases between the leaving of one situation and the entering on another, and in some instances owing to sickness or incapacity for service. The number over fifteen years that belonged to the schools at the end of 1883 was 133. They may be classified as follows:—

The Industrial Schools' Act provides that the earnings of the children when at service shall be placed in the Post Office Savings Bank, after defraying the cost of clothing and other necessaries. The repayment of these moneys, with accumulated interest, is contingent on good conduct. The boys usually receive theirs on reaching manhood, and showing that the money will be satisfactorily expended by them. The girls' money is usually paid to them on their marriage with the approval of the manager. Last year two brothers received £91 1s. 8d. and £29 17s. 10d. respectively, or £120 between them. They were committed in 1872 for seven years, their father being dead and their mother a drunkard. In addition to the amount in the bank, they had accumulated other moneys and a good stock of cattle. The stock of the elder brother began in 1874 with three heifers, two of which were presents from his mistress, and a third from a friend of his employer who had become interested in the boy. The brothers having jointly taken a farm of two hundred acres in a well-settled district, and, being good practical workmen and of highly respectable character, there is every reason to expect that their under-taking will prove a successful one. Two young women, who had conducted themselves with great propriety for a number of years, recently received their money from the savings bank on being married: in one case the amount received was £13 14s., in the other about £5.

The amount of payments made by parents on account of the maintenance of their children in 1883 was £1,335 16s. 7d., which in proportion to the number of inmates on the 1st of January, 1884, was about fifty percent, more than was collected from parents in England and Wales.

With the sanction of the Hon. the Defence Minister, the officer in charge of every police-station is appointed a person to take all necessary proceedings in the Courts of Law to recover maintenance money from the parents of committed children. When applications are made by parents or friends for the custody of children, the members of the police force in almost every case supply reliable information concerning the character of the applicants, and advise the department or the managers of the schools as to the propriety or otherwise of granting the application. When a child (not a foster-child) is placed out at service or with friends, the officer in charge of the police district in which the child is to reside is notified of the fact, with a view to his maintaining a friendly watch over such child. Thus almost all the children belonging to the industrial schools who are not in residence or boarded with foster-parents are under (not surveillance in the ordinary sense, but) the kindly and watchful eye of one or other of the members of the police force, and any circumstances of an unsatisfactory nature regarding the conduct of the children or their treatment by their employers or friends are reported as soon as possible to the master of the schools to which they severally belong. There is consequently a large amount of correspondence between the members of the two departments, as well as numerous demands upon the services of the members of the police force, who have ever shown the utmost willingness to render all the assistance in their power.

The Clerks of Resident Magistrates' Courts have been appointed receivers of maintenance money owing by parents.

The system of boarding out appears to be very successfully managed.

The Mark System. IV.

THE following are the Rules for Boys' Marks and Pay recently approved by the Committee of The Boys' Home, Regent's

Marks.

Every boy in the Home can earn by good conduct a mark each day. After a quarter's probation, he can, with these marks, earn a red star each quarter, and four stars will be exchanged for a red stripe. On earning a stripe and another star a boy becomes a G. C. B. (good conduct boy); on earning two stripes and a star he becomes a Truro boy, if he be over fourteen years of age. Two red stripes will be exchanged for a silver one.

Pay.

- SPENDING MONEY.—One penny a month will be paid on each star, but no boy will receive a monthly payment of more than eightpence a month.

- **TRADE MONEY.**—In addition to the marks mentioned above, every boy of fourteen years of age or over will be able to earn either one, two, or three trade-marks each week, to be given by the Master of his shop, according to the excellence of his work. For every trade-mark earned twopence will be added to the boy's bank account, to be given to him after he leaves the Home: one-third at six months, one-third at nine months, and one-third at twelve months, provided he maintains a thoroughly satisfactory character.
- **EXTRA, OUTFIT MONEY.**—Two shillings a month will be put away from the time of a boy becoming a G.C.B.; and four shillings a month from his becoming a Truro boy. This money (called 'extra outfit money') will be spent on additional clothing (or on tools) after the boy has left the Home, partly at the end of a month and partly at the end of the first year. Those who enter the Army bands will receive this money in cash, in four half-yearly payments. *It must be distinctly understood that the 'extra outfit money' (as well as the 'trade money') will be withheld for a time, or altogether, if the boy's character be not perfectly satisfactory; all the above pay being entirely under the control of the Committee.*

This 'extra outfit money' is in addition to the clothes with which a boy is furnished at the time of his leaving the Home, usually of the value of £2 10s.

Forfeits.

If a boy lose four out of the twenty-eight marks for a month, half his month's pay will be stopped; if eight marks, all his month's pay; if twelve marks, his Sunday out will be stopped. If twenty marks be lost out of the quarterly eighty-four, no star will be given; if thirty be lost, a star already earned will be taken away.

By the above Rules a boy's earnings may amount to a sum varying from £5 to as much as £10, according to his length of service, beside the spending money that he will have received in the Home; but to do this both work and conduct must be good throughout.

Each quarter a list will be put up showing every boy's account of earnings as 'trade money' and 'extra outfit money.'

These Rules will begin from 1st of January, 1885; meanwhile, every boy of over fourteen who has two red stripes and one red star is to be reckoned a Truro boy; every boy who has one stripe and a star, a G.C.B.

The Roman Catholic Reformatory Ship "Clarence."

THE strong hopes entertained by the Liverpool Roman Catholic Reformatory Committee of securing from the Admiralty a ship to replace the "Clarence" have not been realised. On the 17th of January, 1884, the "Clarence" Reformatory Ship, which had been lent twenty years before by the Government for the purpose of a Reformatory School, was set on fire by some of the boys on board and completely burned down. The "Clarence" was insured for such a sum of money as would enable the Committee to refit a ship in case of a fire such as that which actually occurred, and the Liverpool Reformatory Association forthwith applied for the loan of another of the old Admiralty hulks. The request, however, gave rise to much discussion, the Admiralty claiming that the insurance money should be paid to them. A correspondence was, in consequence, carried on throughout the summer, but no definite result was arrived at until July, when, at length, the Admiralty agreed to lend the Committee the "Royal William," a vessel which, for a great number of years, had been lying unused in Devonport dockyard. The Committee gladly accepted this offer, but they met with great difficulty in getting a company to insure the ship against fire, a condition imposed as a *sine qua non* by the Admiralty. Then, for taking out the engines of the ship the Admiralty demanded the payment of the sum of £1,310, and the vessel itself being in a very unsatisfactory condition, a further sum of £500 was required for rendering the "Royal William" fit to leave Devonport, and for the erection of masts later on. The Committee having intimated their acceptance of the offer made to them, orders were given that the work upon the "Royal William" should be at once proceeded with. But at the last moment, it appears, the Admiralty received from the Mersey Docks and Harbour Board a Bill for £1,509, the balance of the cost of blowing up the wreck of the "Clarence," after allowing for the sale of wreckage; and the Admiralty forthwith—on the 19th November last—intimated to the Reformatory Committee that the ship would not be lent to them unless they paid this further sum of £1,509. Such an amount as this being far in excess of what the Committee would receive from the insurance, was a burden of too serious a nature to become responsible for. The Committee therefore asked the M.P.'s for Liverpool—Lord Claud Hamilton, Mr. Samuel Smith, and Mr. Whitley—to urge the Admiralty to remit this charge. These gentlemen did everything in their power, making representations alike to the Chief Lord (Lord Northbrook), Mr. Brassey, and Mr. Caine, but all their efforts were fruitless, and at the end of December it became apparent that the ship could not be obtained unless the sum of £1,509 were paid. The Committee, under the circumstances, are in a serious dilemma, inasmuch as they could not contemplate incurring so heavy a charge as this. When the "Clarence" was destroyed in January, 1884, there were on board 220 boys who were being trained for the sea service. Eager to keep up their old institution, which had been doing its useful work so

effectively, the Committee turned in all directions for the means of carrying on the school. At first the boys were removed to the port sanitary hospital at Rock Ferry, which the Corporation of Liverpool kindly allowed them to occupy. Subsequently when Liverpool was threatened with an outbreak of cholera, the boys were removed to Mount St. Bernard's in Leicestershire. There, with such makeshift arrangements as can be resorted to, the Catholic Reformatory authorities have since been endeavouring to train the lads and to fit them for a life at sea. The removal of the boys from place to place, and the other incidental expenses have probably cost the Committee a thousand pounds in extraordinary payments. Besides this, the school has necessarily dwindled in size. It is feared that if speedy arrangements of a permanent character cannot be made, this institution is doomed to extinction.

The Home in the East Reformatory is about to be closed.

We are glad to hear that the Home Office circular of the 22nd November, 1884, (*see page 2*) is to be considerably modified and explained.

Laws for the Reformation and Protection of Children in the State of New York.

AMONGST the valuable Amendments in the Penal Code of the State of New York, passed in 1884, are the following, several of which would be found very serviceable by the Managers of Reformatory and Preventive Institutions of Great Britain, if embodied into the new Bill, which it is expected will be introduced as a result of the recent Report of the Royal Commission:—

"Whenever in any legal proceeding it becomes necessary to determine the age of a child, the child may be produced for personal inspection, to enable the magistrate, court, or jury to determine the age thereby; and the court or magistrate may direct an examination by one or more physicians, whose opinions shall also be competent evidence upon the question of age.

"Any person other than a duly incorporated institution, who receives, boards, or keeps more than two foundlings, abandoned or homeless children under the age of twelve years, not his relatives, apprentices, pupils, or wards, without legal commitment, or without having first obtained a license in writing so to do from a member of the State Board of Charities, or from the Mayor or Board of Health of the city or town wherein such children are received, boarded or kept, is guilty of a misdemeanor. Such license must specify the name and age of the child, and the name and residence of the person so undertaking its care, and shall be revocable at will by the authority granting it. It shall be lawful for the officers of any incorporated society for the prevention of cruelty to children, at all reasonable times to enter and inspect the premises wherein such child is so boarded, received or kept.

"A person who admits to or allows to remain in any dance-house, concert saloon, theatre, museum, or in any place where wines or spirituous or malt liquors are sold or given away, or in any place of entertainment injurious to health or morals, owned, kept, or managed by him in whole or in part, any child actually or apparently under the age of sixteen years, unless accompanied by its parent or guardian, is guilty of a misdemeanor. Any person who shall suffer or permit any such child to play any game of skill or chance in any such place, or in any place adjacent thereto, or to be or remain therein, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor.

"Any magistrate having criminal jurisdiction may commit temporarily to an institution authorized by law to receive children on final commitment, and to have compensation therefor from the city or county authorities, any child under the age of sixteen years who is held for trial on a criminal charge; and may in like manner, so commit any such child held as a witness to appear on the trial of any criminal case; which institution shall thereupon receive the same and be entitled to the like compensation proportionally therefor as on final commitment, but subject to the order of the court as to the time of detention and discharge of the child. Any such child convicted of any misdemeanor shall be finally committed to some such institution, and not to any prison, or jail, or penitentiary, longer than is necessary for its transfer thereto. No child under restraint or conviction, actually or apparently under the age of sixteen years shall be placed in any prison or place of confinement, or in any court room or any vehicle for transportation in company with adults charged with or convicted of crime, except in the presence of a proper official.

"A person who employs, or causes to be employed, or who exhibits, uses, or has in his custody for the purpose of exhibiting or employing any child apparently or actually under the age of sixteen years, or who, having the care, custody, or control of such a child as parent, relative, guardian, employer, or otherwise, sells, lets out, gives away or in any way procures or consents to the employment or exhibition of such a child either,

- As a rope or wire walker, dancer, gymnast, contortionist rider or acrobat; or,
- In begging or receiving alms, or in any mendicant occupation; or,
- In peddling, singing or playing upon a musical instrument, or in a theatrical exhibition, or in any wandering occupation, or,

- In any indecent or immoral exhibition or practice; or,
 - In any practice or exhibition dangerous or injurious to the life, limb, health, or morals of the child;
- Is guilty of a misdemeanor. But this section does not apply to the employment of any child as a singer or musician in a church, school, or academy, or in teaching or learning the science or practice of music, or as a musician in any concert with the written consent of the Mayor of the city, or the President of the Board of Trustees of the village where such concert takes place.

"A person who manufactures, or causes to be manufactured, or sells, or keeps for sale, or offers, or gives, or disposes of, any instrument or weapon of the kind usually known as slung-shot, billy, sand-club or metal knuckles, or who, in any city in this State, without the written consent of a police magistrate, sells or gives any pistol or other firearm to any person under the age of eighteen years, is guilty of a misdemeanor."

Section 282 of the Penal Code as now amended is very stringent. It protects girls under sixteen, and under certain circumstances young women under twenty-five years of age from immorality.

Legislation by Circular.

THE following letter has been addressed to the Editor of the *Standard*:—

SIR,—The public is little aware how much legislation is carried on without the co-operation of Queen, Lords, or Commons. A continual flow of Acts, in the shape of Circulars, issues from the Home Office. They limit powers which Acts of Parliament have conferred, but their origin is simply the arbitrary will of the Home Secretary. The latest of these Circular Acts has reference to Reformatory and Industrial Schools. The Home Secretary has power by Act of Parliament to license these Institutions or to withdraw his license from them. It is with the implied threat of adopting the latter course that these circulars are issued: "Obey me, or I will put an end to your existence."

The present Circular deals with the question of the disposal of young persons on leaving the Schools where they have been carefully trained for periods of from two to five years at the public expense. It is well known that emigration or enlistment in the Army or Navy are amongst the most promising openings for such young persons to lead new and honest lives. The results of such disposal are remarkable. It is equally well known that juvenile criminality, which leads to the sending of boys and girls to these Schools, is largely due to the idleness, drunkenness, or criminality of their parents. This fact impressed the recent Royal Commission on these Schools so forcibly that they recommended that the control of parents over young persons who leave the Schools should be superseded.

In the face of this recommendation, however, Sir William Harcourt issues the following ukase:—"It is his desire that no boy should, under any circumstances whatever, be discharged from a Reformatory or Industrial School for Sea or Coast Service, Emigration, or Enlistment into the Army or Navy, without the full knowledge and consent of his parents."

Thus, a child may become a criminal through its parents' neglect or folly, and be sent to a Reformatory at the age of fifteen, to be trained for five years at public expense. The parent meanwhile skulks in various low quarters of London to avoid contributing to the lad's maintenance. The boy grows up to be a young man of nineteen or twenty, well trained and educated, and desirous of emigrating to Canada, where he is almost certain to succeed in life. But the parent, after the lapse of all these years, conceives a new affection for him, or for what he thinks he can get out of him, and declines to consent. The young man returns home, work is not to be had. The parent's affection cools, and he reproaches his son with being a burden to him. The young man finds home uncomfortable, and leaves it. The surroundings of a low lodging-house soon contaminate him. He steals, and is sent to prison, where he will speedily return after his discharge. All the expense of his Reformatory training is thrown away. The new expense of his maintenance in a Convict Prison will have to be incurred. And all this is due to the meddling and muddling of Sir William Harcourt.

Will the public look with equanimity upon "Legislature by Circular," when it tends to produce such results as these?

I am, Sir, your obedient Servant,

January 2.

A Clergyman.

How will it Affect us?

EARLY in last year the Report of the Royal Commission on Reformatories and Industrial Schools was made public, considerable discussion upon its contents has followed, and the day is probably now not far distant when some attempt at legislation will be made. It would not be surprising if a Bill, founded upon the Report, were introduced during the present Session; indeed it would hardly be respectful to the members of the Commission if the matter were further delayed. But what will be the nature of the Bill? and how will it affect the managers of these Institutions? Assuming, as seems reasonable, that the Bill will be framed upon the lines of the Report, we may, in a preliminary manner, deal with the question at the head of this paper—it can only be considered in detail when the actual Bill is before us. In the meanwhile some ground may be cleared.

- The Managers of Reformatories and Industrial Schools are happily a large body, and capable, *if united*, of exerting a strong influence in Parliament. This power should be husbanded, and put forth only in connection with those vital questions upon which the opinions of managers are generally agreed.
- It is likely to be as necessary to unite in support of some of the recommendations of the Commission, as in opposing others. This seems to have been lost sight of in one of the Conferences held last year, at which nearly all the resolutions proposed were of a negative character, and were carried with remarkable unanimity. The issue of the recent circular of the Home Secretary (*see page 2*) should be a warning to managers of the necessity that may arise of supporting the Recommendations rather than of opposing them.
- In view of the fact that there is a great difference of opinion amongst managers upon many of the questions dealt with in the Report, it behoves them to select, as soon as possible, a few, and those the most important, and to strive to arrive at something like an agreement as to the best practical settlement of them. In other words, they should concentrate their forces without delay.

In selecting the subjects to be deemed urgent, due regard should be had to the chief aims of the Institutions and the means of maintaining them, and pre-eminence should be given to any proposals immediately affecting the reclamation of the children from their previous evil surroundings, and the education of "them in the fear of God and in the knowledge of the Holy Scriptures."

We think also that the voluntary character of the Institutions should be carefully preserved, and any attempt to interfere with it by the imposition of Government regulations affecting such minute details of internal management as would intrude upon the domestic happiness of the Homes should be jealously guarded against.

It was in this sense that the order for the placarding of punishments appeared to us abhorrent. The principle that a complete record of punishments should be systematically and intelligibly kept for reference is not one likely to be disputed; but the attempt to *enforce* the perpetual exhibition to the inmates of a list whether of rewards or punishments is an interference with the rights of voluntary management which should be unitedly resisted to the utmost. Many would prefer to resign their certificate rather than submit to such a regulation.

The points upon which, in accordance with the above remarks, united effort and influence seem most desirable and practical are:—

- Parental control.
- Ages on admission.
- Capitation grants.
- Uniformity in terms of detention.
- Powers of Licensing.

There may be some other points upon which unanimity could be arrived at.

Amongst the more important subjects upon which such strong and opposite views are held that it seems impracticable to obtain a united opinion are:—

- Punishment anterior to a committal to a Reformatory.
- The Schoolmaster difficulty.

Technical Education

FROM what has been already said, there can be no doubt of the importance of advancing technical education along the whole of the industrial and educational line. Our industrial schools occupy a position, however humble, in this line, and should therefore move with its movement. How this may be done, it is the object of the present paper to suggest.

The great obstacle in the path of technical education has hitherto been the difficulty of combining the school with the workshop. Marked as has been the success which has attended the establishment of science and art classes, the best results have been attained invariably by the special schools established in connection with,

and directly adjoining special industries. I could quote examples, but want of time and space forbid. This difficulty, in the case of our schools is to a great extent non-existent; as they exhibit in their very name and nature, the necessary combination of school and workshop.

My recommendations will be of two distinct classes—the first applying to Town schools, and the second to Farm schools.

FIRSTLY: with regard to Town Schools. Both Art and Science, so far as it can advance the thoroughness of the industrial training should be taught.

Upon examining the list of industries pursued in our schools, as shown in the "Classified List" published by the Reformatory and Refuge Union, I find that the majority of those taught to any great extent would certainly be better done if each child engaged in it knew how to draw. Drawing should be systematically and thoroughly taught in all our schools. To understand the extent to which this is done on the Continent, and with the very best results, you have only to look at the first volume of the Report of the Royal Commission, and if such results are produced abroad they can be at home. Very great facilities are now at hand for the attainment of this object. Most trained teachers are qualified to give the necessary instruction in the subject, and to earn grants from the Science and Art Department for successful work. In my own school—which by the way is not a town but a farm school—we have at present four drawing classes, one each for scale, freehand, geometrical, and model drawing; and we devote just one hour every Friday to the subject. At the last examination sixty-one boys were presented, of whom only two failed to satisfy the Examiners, while twelve gained the mark of distinction and a prize. I maintain that even as farmers each of these successful boys had gained a distinct benefit—eye and hand had been trained to observe and delineate with accuracy and intelligence. The advantage would be still greater to a boy who is to be a carpenter or joiner, plumber or gas-fitter, lithographer or relief stamper, and greatest of all in any industry where design plays an important part. Modelling, again, is a capital exercise for eye and hand, and under the Kindergarten system both on the Continent and in our own country, is employed with good results, especially among young children. Knowledge of form is gained, which is only obtainable by the actual manipulation of some plastic substance. The exercise is interesting, and calls out a child's faculties.

So far as industrial schools are concerned, however, there is in most instances plenty of employment; what is most needed is the technical instruction which should accompany it, supplement it, and altogether raise the character of the work. The best way of supplying this need would be, of course, that the necessary instruction should be imparted by the regular teachers of the school; but in the present condition of things this would, as a rule, be out of the question. But most of our town schools are surely within reach of some science class, where the instruction can be procured; and I would recommend that all boys whose general education is sufficiently advanced, should be allowed, and even encouraged, to attend such classes.

Children above the third standard are now under the direction of enterprising School Boards, being taught science successfully. I might instance that of Liverpool, where in 1880, after a careful examination of the children being instructed in Mechanics, Professor Forbes, of Glasgow, says, "I was quite surprised to find so much clear intelligence and comprehension of the subject in boys so young," and this in a school by no means attended by the best class of children. I should add that in Liverpool this instruction is only to a very small extent given by the regular teachers in the schools,—the main part is done by a specially-appointed demonstrator who, with his apparatus in a hand-cart goes from school to school. It seems to me that all our friends in charge of industrial schools would do well to secure a regular visit from such a person. But even supposing both these suggestions should be found impracticable, there remains a third, which is to obtain the necessary assistance from volunteer helpers. A lady volunteer teaches botany very successfully in the York Industrial School, and most of us have good reason to know and appreciate the self-denying help of volunteers in our work generally.

But, lest some should fail to see how scientific knowledge can be brought to bear on such industries as are carried on in our schools, I had better give an illustration. The City and Guilds of London Institute for the Advancement of Technical Education is an important centre for carrying on this work in London. Its schedule of subjects for lectures and examinations contains the names of all the chief industries of England under thirty-four different headings, and many of these are identical with those on the Reformatory and Refuge Union list I spoke of just now. Suppose we take the two representative trades of baking and carpentry, each of which is carried on in eighty of our industrial institutions.

Baking and Bread-Making.

The subjects for examination in Baking or Bread making are:

- The chemical composition of the chief bread stuffs. Microscopic examination of flour, its use in detecting adulteration.
- The albuminous matters of flour, soluble and insoluble.

- Kiln drying. Flour making. Strong and weak flours.
- Fermentation. The yeast organism, ferments of disease. The microscopic examination of yeast. Preparation of patent yeast. Conditions requisite for healthy fermentation.
- The preparation of the ferment, sponge, and dough. The action of common salt, carbonate of lime, alum. Detection of the latter in bread.
- Baking; the changes produced by heat. The steam jet and its use in glazing. Biscuit making.

The following are some of the questions submitted by the examiners on this subject:

- How is starch prepared from wheat?
- How would you distinguish between wheaten flour and rice flour?
- What are the chief mineral constituents of wheat?
- How would you detect alum in a mixture of alum and salt?

Carpentry and Joinery.

In Carpentry the subjects are:

- Nature and properties of the various kinds of wood used in carpentry and joinery.
- Tools, their names, shapes, uses, &c.
- Mechanical drawing as applied to carpentry and joinery.
- A general knowledge of the proportions of stiles, rails, muntings, &c.
- Mouldings, their forms and names.
- Bevels.
- Circular work.
- Newel and geometrical stairs,
- Handrailing.
- Mechanical principles. The principles required in framing roof trusses, &c.
- Methods of strengthening beams and girders by "flitching" and "trussing," &c.
- Joints. Mortice and tenon, &c.

You might perhaps fancy that the introduction of such work as this into our school-rooms would be detrimental to the general education given. There need, however, be no fear of that, experience in this matter shows that the percentage of passes in the three R's is always greater where science is added to the instruction.

SECONDLY: with reference to Farm Schools—Agricultural Science is a very comprehensive term, and might be almost said to mean all the sciences in one. The agricultural interest in this country is at present in a very critical condition. Old methods are passing away, and new ones are taking their places, and there is the usual amount of disturbance in the body agricultural that there is in most bodies, when organic changes are in progress. Scientific knowledge is taking the place of mother wit, steam power and elaborate machinery are to a great extent superseding hand labour; new modes of working and saving time are replacing the old-fashioned comfortable ways. The spirit of modern progress has invaded every department of the farm, is revolutionizing the dairies, re-organising the stock yards. The treatment of the soil, the harvesting of the crops, in fact every detail of farm work is being modified with an anxious eye on the future, instead of resting in unconcerned security on the traditions of the past. But what has caused this? The competition with farmers in other continents, who, with the advantages of farms measured by square miles, a nominal rent, a virgin soil, a more regular climate, rapid and cheap steam communication, etc., etc., are supplying the markets of England with corn and beef at rates which to the ordinary British farmer are simply ruinous. Hence it follows that the most conservative of Britons are obliged to abandon their conservatism and move with the age, to adopt and work new ideas. The successful farmer of the future must be a scientific man, who is able to apply his knowledge to the various processes he conducts.

Only people who have practical acquaintance with agricultural matters can fully understand what an advantage even a small amount of scientific knowledge is to a farmer. "A little knowledge is a dangerous thing" is hardly true in this instance, for almost every scrap may be utilised. The management of a manure heap, for example, may seem a very lowly subject for scientific investigation or instruction; but I venture to say that the labourer who has been instructed as to what is a proper method and why it is so, is very superior, even from a profit and loss point of view to the one who possesses no such knowledge. It is a good thing to know the why and the wherefore of things, and for the farmer to investigate the processes of nature, to enter as it were her very laboratory and try to comprehend, even if in ever so dim and imperfect a manner, somewhat of her methods of working; to trace the gradual transformation from mineral to vegetable, from vegetable to animal forms, and to follow these forms to their inevitable resolution into primitive elements again, is like letting sunshine into a darkened room. And, my friends, if you reflect that education in its highest aspect is something more than a mere preparation for the successful discharge of the duties of life, that it is intended to raise the

mind through things to the great Maker of all, how can this be better advanced than by a patient and intelligent study of His works? It is idle to argue that the mere smattering of such knowledge which you can impart is useless—do we not know that there is virtue in touching even the hem of that glorious garment in which the Almighty clothes Himself, and which we call nature. Need I say more—it is surely evident from every point of view that it is our duty to give the children entrusted to our training as much of such real instruction as is within our reach and their comprehensions.

The second volume of the Report of the Royal Commission is entirely devoted to Agriculture, and is drawn up by Mr. Jenkins, the Secretary of the Royal Agricultural Society, a gentleman to whom I am indebted for a good deal of valuable advice and assistance in teaching the subject in my own school.

He states that Germany has an enormous number of schools in which elementary instruction is given in the principles of Agriculture, and that "we have no such institutions in the United Kingdom, unless the Science Classes in which the subject is taught according to the rules of the Science and Art Department be admitted to come under this category."

And now, my friends, I must ask your very great indulgence. As there are no such schools in England, according to Mr. Jenkins, it is impossible for me to invite your attention to their methods of working. So I am reduced to this dilemma; either to bring my paper to a rapid conclusion as best I may, or to give you the results of my own experience in this matter.

At the risk of being considered egotistic, I have chosen the latter alternative, but will confine myself strictly to facts. It is now thirteen years ago that I first saw the desirability of giving theoretical instruction in agriculture to my young farmers; that was some years before the subject was added to the schedule of subjects taught under the Science and Art Department.

I, at first, gave the instruction myself, but subsequently one of the boys of my original class, who is now ray assistant master, following up his study of the subject as a young man, passed the necessary examinations under the Department, and thus qualified himself as a grant earning instructor in agriculture. He now gives the instruction, and as my Committee always make him a present of the grant earned by his class (averaging £8 per annum), he finds the subject one of the most profitable he teaches.

In my judgment, no farm school should be without at least one teacher qualified to give theoretical instruction in agriculture, and as so many of the students in training for schoolmasters now qualify themselves in this subject, there is really no difficulty in procuring a qualified teacher if you require one.

With regard to the means of teaching I shall also quote the experience of Church Farm.

First.—Every farm school should adopt as school reading books for boys above the third standard a series of science primers, all of which should bear on the subject of agriculture. There are many such to be obtained; we use the shilling series published by Macmillan, each written by a man of eminence in science. It is wonderful how interesting and simple a little agricultural chemistry, physiology, botany, and so on can be made when the work is done by the band of a master, as it is in these cases. I would, however, most strongly impress upon everyone the utter uselessness of teaching these things merely from the book, the instruction can only be of value when it can be abundantly illustrated by the daily work of the boys on the farm. There is, I fear, no disguising the fact that a good deal of this barren science is taught with the natural result that it has brought a certain amount of cheap ridicule upon the whole movement. We are all familiar with the scullery maid who knew that white of egg was "halbumen," but whose knowledge of her duties was, to say the least of it, inadequate.

Second.—The establishment of a school museum is another method of advancing this instruction. It should consist of specimens of the natural products of the district—the various kinds of soil, the indigenous weeds, grasses and wild flowers; the moths, butterflies, beetles and other insects (especially those that affect the farm crops), the reptiles, birds and few wild animals which are still to be found. Also specimens of seeds of the various cereal, root and other crops. We have the beginnings of such a collection at Church Farm, and I may mention that already we possess 365 distinct species of moths alone. The specimens should always be available for illustrating lessons in school.

Third.—This I am directly indebted to Mr. Jenkins for. It is that each of the elder boys should be supplied with a book to keep as a diary, in which he should record each evening his impressions of the day's doings. An experiment which I made in this direction was only partially successful, but the idea is quite good enough to try again. Properly worked it would be a great means of quickening the power of observation, one of the most valuable qualities a farmer can possess.

Fourth.—A simple method of keeping a profit and loss account should be taught to every boy. This point is acknowledged to be one of the weakest in the management of an ordinary farmer, and is frequently a cause of disaster. I make most of my elder boys familiar with the method adopted at Church Farm.

Fifth.—As a last suggestion I would advocate the regular purchase of one of the numerous good periodicals now issued on subjects connected with farming. We take "Farm and Home," at a cost of 1d. a week, and the

amount of really useful information each number contains is astonishing. We also get the splendid illustrated catalogues of the great seed merchants, and allow the boys access to them in their spare time.

Now I beg that you will not look upon the foregoing as a scheme which I recommend for universal adoption. It is more as a record of what has been done and is still doing at Church Farm. The appendix to Mr. Jenkins' report contains abundance of matter well worth the attention of all interested in this subject, and if by the perusal of this and the record of our doings anyone is stimulated to examine this question and do something in it, the object of this paper will have been attained. Before I close, however, I should just like to read you as I did in the early part of the paper, the kind of thing required of boys who are examined in agriculture. This is the enumeration of the subjects they are supposed to be acquainted with:—

- Soils. Their origin, formation, and variations in character. Chemical constitutions of soils. Organic and inorganic matters. Active and dormant matters in soils. Conversion of dormant matter into an active condition. "Rest" or fallow.
- Plant life. Favourable and unfavourable conditions. Germination. Organic and inorganic constituents. Selection and rotation of crops.
- Manures. Farmyard manure; its production, fermentation, composition and value. Its general management and mode of application. Guano and other excrementitious manures. Other general manures. Artificial and manufactured manures.
- Tillage operations. Mechanical and chemical changes. Influence of atmospheric agencies in assisting tillage operations. Essential differences in the cultivation of light and heavy soils.
- Food. Constituents of various kinds of food. Condiments and stimulants. Maintenance of animal heat. Formation of flesh, fat, and bone. Economical use of food.

This is a specimen of the kind of questions set.—

- What is meant when we speak of the *organic* and *inorganic* constituents of plants?
- Explain why frost and changes in temperature pulverize soils.
- Give two examples of rotations of crops.
- Explain the origin of alluvial and of peaty soils.
- Why is a period of "rest" or fallow conducive to the fertility of soils?
- Name the conditions requisite for the successful germination of seeds. How are they insured in agriculture?
- Explain the meaning of the phrase "habit of growth."
- What ingredients (constituents) would you expect to find in substances recommended as fertilizers?
- Why may we assume all animal or vegetable refuse to possess manurial value?
- Write a description of a fertile soil under the following heads:—
 - Its chemical composition.
 - Its texture, including that of subsoil.
 - Its surroundings.
- What is the usual course pursued in order to "clean" a piece of "foul" or weedy land?
- Why is thorough tillage or "cultivation" necessary to the successful growth of crops?

In conclusion, I very heartily recommend to your earnest consideration the teaching of such subjects as I have spoken of in the institutions over which you preside. The difficulties you will meet, will, at first, no doubt be considerable, but the reward will be proportionate to them.

Industrial Education in America.

THE Industrial Education Association, with head-quarters at 6 E, 14th Street, New York, has been formed to promote training of all classes, and both sexes, in all those industrial arts which affect the home, and to enable those receiving it to become self-supporting. It is in entire sympathy and ready to co-operate with existing organizations for similar work. The importance and benefit of industrial training is becoming evident to all thoughtful minds. Industrial training has been proved by practical experiment to be a great preventive of crime: its introduction into the reform schools of one of the Western States having materially reduced the criminal lists. The United States Bureau of Education is thoroughly alive to the importance of such training, and has given the Industrial Education Association its hearty co-operation and endorsement.

The Association has also received the approval of the President of the N. Y. State Board of Charities, and has been requested to further the introduction of industrial training into all reformatories and asylums. In our own city we have many opportunities of at once giving this instruction in institutions, schools connected with missions and societies, etc. Already domestic training is being given in a number of schools and institutions, besides several classes in private schools, all of which are accomplishing much good. A manual of advanced lessons on domestic work, and a book on "Household Economy," suitable for use in schools, have also been

prepared both of which are giving great satisfaction.

Parental Control.—II.

AN "explanatory" and "supplementary" circular has been issued in reference to this subject. It is far from satisfactory, and we hear there is likely to be an understanding arrived at between the Managers of the training ships to give up their certificates rather than comply with these circulars. Other Managers decline to allow that any official circular can alter the Acts of Parliament, under which Reformatories and Industrial Schools are certified. The following is a copy of the circular:—

OFFICE OF INSPECTOR OF REFORMATORY AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS, 3, Delahay Street, S.W.

31st January, 1885.

SIR,—I am directed by the Secretary, Sir William Harcourt, to inform you that difficulties having arisen in giving effect to the circular of November 22nd, 1884, the Secretary of State desires it to be understood that it is not his view that a vicious or criminal parent should be permitted to exercise a veto on the disposal of a child who has been brought up in a Reformatory or Industrial School. But he is of opinion that before a child is so far removed from home, as must be the case where he is sent on sea or coast service, or emigrated, or enlisted in the army or the navy, notice should be given to the parents, if it is possible to do so, in order that they may have an opportunity of showing, if they are in a position to do it, that they are not unfit to have the charge of their children. It is desirable that in all such cases a careful inquiry should be made into the character of the parents and the condition of the home.

The Secretary of State therefore desires that before any application is made to him for the discharge of a boy from a Reformatory or Industrial School for sea or coast service, emigration, or enlistment in the army or navy, notice should be sent by the Managers to the parents where practicable, and the parents should be informed that any representation they have to make on the subject should be sent within a limited time to the Managers, who will submit the same to the Secretary of State for his consideration.

The Managers will, in the event of objections on the part of the parents, state their own observations on the case, in order that the Secretary of State may decide whether the objection is one which ought to be allowed to prevail. The same course of procedure should be adopted with regard to the discharge of girls for emigration.

This circular is to be read as explanatory of and supplementary to the circular of November 22nd, 1884.

I am, Sir,

Your obedient Servant,

W. Inglis.

H. M. Inspector of Reformatory and Industrial School.

The Manager,—Industrial School.

The following is a Copy of a letter addressed to the Inspector by the Managers of Reformatories and Industrial Schools in Bristol:—

Bristol,

19th February, 1885.

To MAJOR INGLIS, *H. M. Inspector of Industrial and Reformatory Schools.*

SIR,—We, the undersigned, being Managers of Industrial and Reformatory Schools in Bristol and the neighbourhood, beg that you will lay before the Home Secretary the following statement of our views on his orders contained in your circulars of 22nd November and 31st January.

Although the explanatory communication of 31st January somewhat modifies the stringency of the order contained in the first circular, we are of opinion that the instructions will still greatly interfere with the work of these Schools.

By far the greater number of children committed to our care have parents who are totally unfit to have any control or influence over their disposal, and whose interference would be ruinous to their prospects. The circumstances of almost all the cases would thus have to be brought before the Home Secretary involving serious delay and a vast amount of correspondence with the Home Office.

We therefore hope that the Home Secretary will be satisfied with having conveyed to the Managers of Schools his opinion that only in cases where the influence of parents would injuriously affect the future of children should their wishes be disregarded, and that he will see fit altogether to withdraw the circular of 22nd November.

We are, Sir,

Yours faithfully,

Signed on behalf of the Managers,
Henry Fedden, Hon. Sec.,

Bristol Training Ship "Formidable."

Mark Whitwill, Chairman of

Bristol School Board.

Wm. Raymond Garrett, Hon. Sec.

Clifton Industrial School.

Rosa E. Pease, Hon. Sec.

Girls' Industrial School, Bristol.

Edw. A. Leonard, Hon. Sec.,

Park Row industrial School, Bristol.

Mr. and Mrs. Langford have been appointed Superintendent and Matron of the Islington Workhouse Schools in Hornsey Road.

In a recent debate upon the Budget of the London School Board, Sir E. H. Currie pointed out that the Roman Catholics formed but a small minority of the population of London, yet a full third of the children for whom the Board was paying in Industrial Schools were Roman Catholics.

A new Home for Working Boys has been opened—"Tyndale House," 29, Whitehead's Grove, Chelsea.

The Annual Meeting of the Reformatory and Refuge Union is to be held at St. James's Hall, Piccadilly, on Wednesday, the 29th of April, at three o'clock in the afternoon. The Earl of Shaftesbury has promised to take the Chair.

Correspondence.

[The Editor is not Responsible for the Opinions of Correspondents.]

Entertainments.

To the Editor of the "Reformatory and Refuge Journal."

SIR,—I am quite in sympathy with the "*Governor's*" letter respecting the boys giving entertainments amongst themselves. We found by experience this winter that our women were much happier when they were invited to entertain others as well as be entertained themselves. They selected their own pieces and brought them for our sanction before learning them, and when the time came for the evening's recreation our visitors went away pleased and edified, and the girls had the happy sensation of having been able to give pleasure as

well as to receive it.

Matron.

Corporal Punishment.

To the Editor of the "Reformatory and Refuge Journal."

SIR,

The *Times* lately published letters from MR. CHADWICK, MISS HESBA STRETTON, and others, in reference to a case of excessive corporal punishment at Frampton Cotterell, and a leading article on this matter for which all those engaged in educational training may well express respectful thanks.

Thirty years of practical and successful work as Manager of large Schools of both Girls and Boys will justify my offering a few lines on a subject of great importance, yet of greater difficulty of treatment than most people suppose.

The amount of corporal punishment in the schools of my youth was both wicked and foolish, but I believe that its abolition would have been equally unwise. The radical fault in its administration was its habitual use to impart School learning instead of being reserved as a punishment for moral offences. It is hardly necessary for me to say that in one point of view I entirely agree with the *Times* correspondents that this mode of punishment is extremely disagreeable and repulsive to the Teacher or Parent who may be obliged, and may feel it his or her duty to inflict it. They deserve more kindly sympathy than is generally bestowed on them by unreasoning and impulsive people.

With regard to the culprits punished, I must, at the risk of being thought unfeeling, express my belief that the punishment inflicted, even if intentionally severe, is not so horrible as sensitive persons suppose; and does not leave that animosity which ignorant people imagine to be engendered in the hearts of naughty children.

With no lack of respect for the *Times* correspondents I venture to doubt whether they have been practically and intimately concerned in the training of children. Service as a Member of a School Committee is a very different experience from that obtained by the personal daily work of an individual Manager, whether he or she be the actual Teacher, Superintendent, Master, Warden, or Governor. And this applies to families—"old maids' children" like "bachelors' wives" are proverbially the most perfect of their class. Fathers and mothers know better.

In my own management of Schools I have endeavoured to impress upon my subordinate teachers of both sexes, the great principle that their own skill is proved by the small amount of punishment inflicted. An apt illustration has been afforded by a remark of that great surgeon, John Hunter, to his class of students after the operation of removing a tumour, "Gentlemen, whenever you have need of the knife you may justly feel humiliated that your science is not yet sufficient to supersede it." But John Hunter was no quack, and he did not shrink from the use of the knife when no other certain remedy was available.

Colonel INGLIS, the experienced Government Inspector of Reformatories and Industrial Schools, in his latest Report to Parliament, gives some shrewd remarks which, slightly abbreviated, are as follows:—

"Theoretically I am in favour of abolishing corporal punishment, looking at it from a practical point of view, I am not. In every School it must occasionally occur that the sort of material we have to deal with can only be successfully appealed to by the judicious use of a cane, and a few strokes may bring a girl to reason, and save her from worse punishment. A Superintendent of a well ordered Girls' School told me that she had only occasion to use corporal punishment once in last year; but that she was certain that she could not maintain discipline if the girls knew that it was forbidden by the rules. At the Girls' School at B—, this was forbidden, and a case occurred of a girl who had become almost insanely unmanageable. The punishment allowed by the rules, such as shutting her up in a bed-room, or extra work given out to her, having no effect, she was taken before the Magistrates and sentenced to a month's imprisonment and hard labour, and five years in a Reformatory. I have no doubt that timely corporal punishment properly administered would have brought her to her senses, and saved her from both prison and reformatory.

"To do without corporal punishment altogether requires an amount of tact and managing power rarely met with, and when corporal punishment is entirely forbidden, there is always a risk of illegal and unauthorized punishments."

In addition to the teaching of these wise and humane men, I would ask your readers to consult a clever little tract, "*How shall we order the child?*" published by the Church of England Sunday School Institute, the entire tone and teaching of which are embued with Christian love and sympathy for children.

Long experience has shown me that there are certain children, and that there are certain sins, which not only imperatively demand bodily chastisement, but are actually fostered and increased by continual preaching and attempts to reason with young offenders.

That a saucy girl or an impudent boy shall set their Teachers at defiance, evidently strikes at the root of all successful schooling, and England would certainly suffer for such license.

It has been my duty to inspect scores of Schools in Britain, and a few on the Continent; and I invariably inquire, *inter alia*, as to the punishments employed, for so long as human nature is such as it is, there must be punishments.

A common result of my further enquiry, after a reply that there is no corporal punishment, is to find that though the birch or the strap are forbidden, a black hole, a box on the ears, the loss of dinner, the deprivation of playtime, are common. As if these could not be, as they generally are, far worse punishments than a two minutes whipping.

The cane is, in my opinion, a bad instrument of punishment, and a box on the ear is a most wicked one. The strap or Scottish "tawse," or the English birch rod, are more wholesome.

Reasonable, temperate, solemnly administered exceptional bodily correction, seems to me, after many years study, the most merciful punishment for young children. To deprive them of food is to impede their growth, to put them into solitary confinement is a terrible mental blow, and to quote incessantly our Saviour's example, or to chatter about the love of Jesus, tends to degrade by undue familiarity the holiest form of teaching.

It will be objected that the infliction of corporal punishment may easily be unjust or excessive, but observation in Schools, or among School children, will convince any one that the substituted punishments are even more likely to be both unjust or excessive. The facility of sending a child into confinement, or of making it stand up on its legs for thirty or even sixty minutes, is more dangerous in this respect, and the pain, sometimes amounting to torture, of the latter punishment, is inconsistent with the absence of corporal punishment. The infliction of a hundred lines of Virgil to be learnt by heart, may be mentally far more injurious to a little boy than a sharp and short "swishing."

Kindly intentioned folks, when they talk indignantly of exceptional abuses of punishment, seem to be ignorant of the sins with which we, practical trainers of children, have to deal. Acts or words of indecency, petty thefts, &c. are faults that require sharp and prompt treatment, and the younger the offender is the more likely is this to effect a cure. To illustrate this: The Matron of a School of Orphan Girls of the lower, but not the lowest class, reported to me that a recent arrival, a girl of ten years old had thrice stolen cakes and other eatables. She had been once sent to bed for this offence, and deprived of a meal, &c. There had not been a case of theft, previous to her arrival, for many years, and the birch was almost unknown in the School. Here this punishment, privately and very seriously administered by my order proved entirely successful, supplemented as it was by the loving maimers, advice, and subsequent watchfulness of the Matron, and her Staff. I ought to add that that she had previously threatened the girl with this punishment, a measure to which I positively object; threats are almost always mischievous, the incidence of both punishments and rewards should be positive to be salutary.

In private families, especially in the higher class, this form of punishment should be rare, but to assert that even the most loving mother ought not thus to correct a disobedient, or an untruthful child, displays profound ignorance of human nature. I have known a mother talk for an hour to a saucy child, about "the love of Jesus but it is hardly necessary to point out that this was a very inefficient, as well as an unsuitable mode of treating the not unnatural delinquency of a little boy.

In truth, mothers and fathers, perhaps unconsciously, shrink from chastising children as they shrink from holding them for vaccination or any other pain—from cowardice, not from kindness—and by threatening without acting, they too often ruin their children.

Chastisement is to be sparingly and reluctantly used, never in haste or in temper, and always with sorrow as apparent as it ought to be real. "It is a foolish pity and a cruel kindness which spares the rod, but its use is to be dictated by love, regulated by judgment, never to be prompted by hasty temper or by caprice."

A judicious system of rewards in any school, admits of a ready and most useful mode of punishment by the loss of these rewards or privileges when faults have been committed. How well it may work can be seen by a visit to The Boys' Home Industrial School in Regent's Park Road, where by a judicious system of rewards and privileges to be earned by good conduct, corporal punishment, though there are 160 boys, of the lowest origin, is kept down in a most satisfactory degree. I doubt not there are many such illustrative schools.

But what would this school be, or even any girls' school, or even any private family, were it known among the children that all corporal punishment was forbidden?

Liberavi animam mean. It is from a strong sense of duty that these remarks are offered; the education in our greatly increasing Elementary schools must not be limited to mere book-learning, much less must it be directed to the benefit of those children who are fairly well-behaved and fairly attentive, diligent and submissive.

The moral training of our children, especially those of the working class, is almost as important to Great Britain as the scholastic teaching. If teachers are to be forbidden to use the time-honoured means of enforcing obedience and respect for their authority, or are kept in fear of a magisterial summons when an indecent or a rebellious child is wholesomely chastised, they will be heavily handicapped in their course of duty, and our nation will suffer by it.

I am, Sir, Your obedient servant,

22nd January, 1885.

George William Bell.

Notes on Rescue Work.

"RESCUE Work" is rather a comprehensive term, and we must utter a gentle protest against its being exclusively applied to any one section of Rescue Work, as appears to have been done by the Rev. Arthur Brinckman in a valuable little book upon work amongst the Fallen, which he has just published entitled "Notes on Rescue Work." It may be well, however, in dealing with the whole subject to offer a few hints upon this department of the work first, as they are to be found in the book just mentioned. We need hardly say we do not agree with all the writer's conclusions. We think his remarks on

Tract distribution

liable to mislead. He does not "believe in it," and cannot remember any woman of this sort ever telling him that her first resolve or wish to quit her sin came from the perusal of a tract. It is hardly surprising that this should be the experience of one who does not believe in it, and therefore we may presume seldom if ever himself distributes or encourages the distribution of tracts, and it is hardly fair to bring forward such experience (or rather absence of experience) in support of the very idea which produced it. There may be cases that a tract would be the most unlikely means to reach, there may be some who "are sick of tracts, others who would tear them up, others who take them home to make fun over them with their companions," but some at least have taken the first step on the better road because the Holy Spirit used the truth as simply set forth in a tract though it was in a very faulty fashion. "Tracts have yet to be written that would be just the thing for them." It is quite safe to say this, even without having read all the tracts that have been written for the purpose, for though in our view there are some very suitable ones; there is doubtless still room for something better. But there is surprisingly little to find fault with in MR. BRINCKMAN'S book, and much, very much that is practical and helpful in the various phases of the work. We will now quote a few of his remarks.

How to take up the work.

Whoever takes up this work should do so in the fear of God, in all humility, should ever pray for more and more love for God and souls, and never forget that, of all efforts to help souls, this work requires in those that attempt to carry it on, some knowledge of the world, combined with plenty of tact and common sense. Maudlin sentimentality, ignorance, excitability, impatience, talkativeness, goody-goodness, are the ruination of it.

Those who under God will succeed best are those who are calm, patient, brightly hopeful, refined, and who, as regards their own efforts and the work they help, say as little as possible.

The kind of workers required.

The workers have the real burden of the Mission upon them, and as far as possible they ought indeed to be a picked body of women.

I must confess that the great majority of clergymen have not had much experience in this special work, and that on the whole women can, will, and *must* do the greater part of this work amongst women.

Some think it does not much matter who your workers are at this preliminary rescue work so long as they are good, earnest women. *It is impossible to say how much does depend on them,—under God nearly all.*

How often one worker speaks to a woman without avail, and another wins her directly!

And if a girl agrees to go to a Home, how often (whether she is allowed to correspond or visit her or not) does the thought of the first good friend outside keep the penitent in the Home, trying to persevere. How often has it been that when in a restless mood a girl leaves a Home she either at once or subsequently seeks "her lady," and is kept in hand by her till something else can be done for her; granted that very often a woman of, say, the sub-matron class of life in a small refuge, will see through and through one of these women, and

understand her when many a born lady would fail to do so; granted that some of these paid Mission women of the working class can do a very useful work, still, with all the grades of women who live in sin, from the highest to the lowest, the elevating as well as the *first* winning influence of the cultured, common-sense lady is by far the most powerful.

As a rule the married are more fit in every way for this work than single women are.

The women who work amongst these women should be the very pink and flower of their sex. It is a mistake, and a vital one, I believe, to say "any good woman with pluck and zeal will do for this sort of work, or that if she is a little coarse in mind or manner, perhaps all the better for dealing with coarseness and the low forms of vice."

If a woman is very talkative, rough, coarse, noisy, excited, inclined to be too familiar with these women, and to be in the least degree light in her talk about them or their sin, it is only the enemy of souls, or foolish enthusiasts, of the Salvation Army type, who could approve of her taking part in this work.

"Plain and homely" is all very well, but these women are not attracted by anything in the least degree approaching to coarseness, levity of manner or light talking about their sin! The workers cannot be too refined, courteous, and gentle in manner.

As regards this work in the streets being done by *men*, I think it *ought not to be*.

The women do not believe in it, that it is done with the best intentions, and often attribute the worst of motives to the proceeding.

Women can do a good and useful work in the streets, if they are quite independent and keep to the work *regularly for some long time*.

Thank God! as some said years ago, this is a work of all others in which *all Christians* can work together. Whatever difference there may be as to the after treatment, in the efforts at rescue, we can all work side by side, for we can all put forth the same appeal to these souls:

"For the love of Jesus come away from your sin."

(Mr. Brinckman in his notes narrows the saying to "all Churchmen," but we have good reason to know that no such limit need be put.)

The first object in the work.

The first and direct work is, of course, to win souls for God, but in speaking of the woman's reformation, be it remembered this is *the* object of rescue work to *bring her back from sin* to holiness—to God.

"Placed in situations," "Otherwise assisted," "Emigrated," may all mean no reformation at all.

It need not follow, that the woman is really penitent, loves God any the more, and is in the true, high sense of the word *rescued*.

Most of these real reformed cases must be known to God only.

Prison Administration in Ireland.

See "Sessional Proceedings of the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science." December, 1884.

THE Report of the Royal Commission on Prisons in Ireland has disclosed some very unsatisfactory information concerning those establishments and the administration of them. The matter was discussed at the Social Science Congress held in Birmingham in September last, which resulted in a deputation waiting upon Earl Spencer on the 21st of November. The deputation consisted of Mr. H. G. Allen, M. P.; Mr. W. E. Briggs, M. P.; Colonel Colthurst, M.P.; Dr. Farquharson, M.P.; Mr. Hastings, M.P.; Mr. C. H. Hopwood, M.P.; Mr. R. B. Mackie, M.P.; Mr. Peter McLagan, M.P.; Mr. Arthur Moore, M.P.; Mr. George Palmer, M.P.; Sir J. Eardly Wilmot, M.P.; Mr. W. Woodall, M.P.; Sir Walter Crofton, C.B.; Mr. Frederic Hill; Mr. Arthur J. S. Maddison (Secretary, Reformatory and Refuge Union); Mr. James Marshall; Mr. A. Herbert Safford; Mr. William Tallack (Secretary, Howard Association); Mr. R. Denny Wilin; Mr. Westlake, Q.C.; Mr. J. L. Clifford-Smith.

MR. HASTINGS introduced the deputation, and in the course of his remarks he pointed out that in 1861 he was convinced that of all the convict systems in the world, the Irish was then the most efficient. Referring to the Report of the Royal Commission, he directed attention to the twelfth paragraph, which says, "cases have undoubtedly come under our notice in which an excessive number of punishments appear to have been inflicted, but these were cases of refractory prisoners, whose mental condition may be described as the border land between sanity and insanity." Also to the 127th paragraph, which speaks of "the large number of long records of punishments inflicted on convicts who have, eventually, become insane." Also to the extraordinary number of prison officials who quit the service. He further shewed that the report teemed with complaints as to the treatment of untried prisoners, and urged that encouragement should be given for the formation of Discharged Prisoners Aid Societies, of which there were only two in the whole of Ireland. In reference to Lusk

Intermediate Prison, which the Commissioners seem to recommend should be disestablished, it was the one prison in Europe in which the prisoners were under strict moral influence apart from personal coercion, Mr. Hastings thought no greater calamity could happen to Ireland or to England at large, than that such a course should be adopted.

SIR WALTER CROFTON, as an old member of the Social Science Association, and of the Reformatory and Refuge Union, and as the principal founder of Lusk, strongly supported this opinion, shewing that his original intentions as regards the system at Lusk were not being carried out, and that consequently the numbers in that prison were not as large as they should be while the expenditure was needlessly excessive.

EARL SPENCER in replying, admitted that there were points which were extremely serious in the remarks made by the Prisons Commission. He pointed out that until very recently there had not been the facilities for separating prisoners who were on the border line of insanity, which the establishment at Maryborough now afforded, and he hoped that the very serious blot, in reference to that class of prisoners, would be of the past and not of the future. As regards Discharged Prisoners Aid Societies, Lord Spencer frankly confessed he was not aware, until told by the deputation, that grants were made by Government to these societies in England, but he attached the highest value to their work and should be happy to see them promoted in Ireland. Referring to Lusk, his lordship claimed to be a pupil of Sir Walter Crofton, with whose views on prison management he agreed. But the difficulty with the Government was whether they could justify the maintenance of that system without incurring enormous expense. He hoped the deputation would see that the Irish Government felt the deep importance of this subject, and that the general scope of their views did not differ really from the principles laid down by the deputation. The larger recommendations of the Commission would be taken up as rapidly as possible.

MR. HASTINGS thanked Lord Spencer for his great kindness and courtesy and the deputation withdrew.

Books Received.

Jesus, and other Sermons to children, by J. V. B. Shrewsbury. (96 pages 24mo). London: T. WOOLMER, Castle Street, E.C. Twenty-one very little sermons for little people, full of precious truth, illustrated with anecdote. They are fragments of Sunday morning addresses delivered to a Wesleyan congregation, at which it was the custom of the preacher to devote five minutes of the time, especially to the children. The collection will be found suggestive to teachers, though it is not free from statements and expressions which would be unintelligible to those those we are accustomed to regard as children.

School and Home, (Volume III. 232 pages small 8vo). London: SYSTEMATIC BIBLE TEACHING MISSION, Paternoster Row.—A very closely printed mass of useful matter, compiled with the view of assisting parents and others to give religious instruction to their children. There is doubtless far too little of home religious teaching by parents, and what is given is often very desultory; so that any help to make such instruction more methodical and orthodox must be heartily welcomed, at the same time it must be remembered that one of the charms of such teaching is naturalness and freedom from constraint which might be spoilt by a too close adherence to any rigid system. Taken as a guide, for which it is doubtless intended, "School and Home" may prove a valuable help; but followed in every detail it might render home teaching unhomely.

The Jukes, by R. L. Dugdale. (120 pages small 8vo). New York and London: G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS, "The Knickerbocker Press." "The Jukes" is a pseudonym used to protect from aspersion worthy members of the family therein studied, and for convenience of treatment, to reduce the forty-two family names included in the lineage to one generic application. The book was published originally in 1877, but, as Sir. Round (the Secretary of the New York Prison Association) observes in his introductory remarks, it is as fresh to-day as it was then." The design of the work has been to produce a record and study of the relations of crime, pauperism, disease and heredity, in furtherance of the view expressed by M. Beltrani-Scalia (Inspector of Prisons in Italy), who has said, "Until we have studied crime in its perpetrators, and in all its relations and different aspects, we shall never be able to discover the best means to prevent or correct it, nor can we say that penitentiary science has made any great progress." Mr. Dugdale in July, 1874, at the request of the New York Prison Association, commenced a visit to the country gaols, and having found in one of them six persons under four family names, who turned out to be blood relations, he was led to make further enquiries and ultimately a thorough investigation. He afterwards tabulated and reported upon the results of his labours as recorded in the work before us. The information comprises particulars as to genealogies, intemperance, social habits, diseases, pauperism, out-door relief, and crimes, all derived from reliable sources. 22.74 of the prisoners examined were "Refuge Boys," *i.e.*, had been sent to a Reformatory, School Ship, Industrial School, or House of Refuge; and some evidence is given suggestive of evil arising from want of proper management and discipline in the New York House of Refuge, but upon this we offer no opinion. As may be well imagined, Mr. Dugdale, in search of information undertook several perilous adventures, casting himself on some occasions upon the mercy of

known high way men and murderers. We are told that this book "is known, read, and valued wherever the civilization of the world has advanced far enough to be alarmed at the increase of crime, and to be concerned in reducing the criminal classes." We may hope, therefore, that the facts here brought together may afford not only matter for interesting observation and curiosity, but also a basis on which to found practical reforms in the treatment of crime.

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Contents.

The Imperial Review.

Victorian Liberalism.

NOT long ago we attended a celebration at the Melbourne Trades Hall, in the evening. There was a large conclave of respectable working men, mostly small employers, we fancy. They were termed the Council, and sat in the prettiest hall which Melbourne possesses, a chamber which recalls the luxury of a theatre dress circle. It is æsthetically and richly decorated in light green, with upholstery to match, on elegant round-backed white iron seats, disposed in semicircular tiers. Indeed, the place is quite aristocratic—most lovingly garnished.

The occasion was the unveiling of a bust of Mr. Higinbotham, and it might well lead to a review of Victorian, and, indeed, Australian Liberalism. Mr. Wentworth was the father of Liberalism on this continent. He could never undo, in his later years, the work of his prime. From Wentworth we trace down to the Eureka Stockade, the "Corner" in the Victorian Legislative Assembly, and the triumph of Liberalism in Victoria.

Wentworth, as a member of the New South Wales Legislature, was an ardent Federalist. He strenuously resisted the separation of Australia Felix, or Victoria. Sir Hercules Robinson, speaking once at Albury, said there was a process of disintegration and reintegration in most countries. Examples are afforded by Germany, Italy, and South America, where Chili leads the way to a Federation which will embrace all the Republics and Brazil.

When Wentworth had outdone the memory of Sir Francis Burdett as a Radical turned Conservative, the career of Liberalism began in Victoria. The insurrection which culminated at the Eureka Stockade, Ballarat, led to the Australian National Flag of the Southern Cross being unfurled for the first time. Now everyone talks glibly about Australian independence. A fiercely disloyal song at the Melbourne Opera House raises a *furor*. The leading Sandhurst paper writes of the "Yoke of England."

At the commencement of our present Parliamentary system in Victoria, the Comer Party sprung up in the Legislative Assembly. It originated from the Convention, an irregular Melbourne Parliament, which discussed the Land Question, the very centre and core of all our political troubles. Wilson Gray, Heales, Don, Ebenezer Syme, and Owens were men of the Corner. In the face of obloquy they persevered against overwhelming odds, and now their principles rule the country. After Wentworth's time, as a practical Democrat, we cannot find any record worth preserving of Liberal progress in other Australian provinces, save Victoria. This province fought the battle for the whole continent. No wonder that it is in the van of protest against foreign aggression in the Pacific. The Parliaments of New South Wales, South Australia, and Tasmania have been mere borough-mongering concerns, their only troubles those of the Municipal Corporation.

There is a mistaken feeling amid politicians that they can wipe out all recollection of their former differences. Todd, the Parliamentary Historian, embalms a narration of the Victorian Darling Grant dispute in his book on "Colonial Governments." If battles be fought, military historians will never give them up.

Mr. Higinbotham, like Mr. Boucaut, has made up his mind to waste the latter part of his lifetime in judicial ermine, doing so-called work which far inferior men can do equally well, if not better, arbitrating in the squabbles of the wealthy. Nevertheless, you can no more obliterate Higinbotham's record than Wentworth's.

The Victorian Assembly was really distinguished when it afforded an arena for such gladiators, at the same time, as O'Shanassy, Wood, Haines, Fellows, Higinbotham, Evans, Michie, Gray, Aspinall, Brooke, Nicholson,

Ireland, Duffy, Don, Owens, Syme, Heales, and so on. There was something tangible to fight about, the everlasting struggle of want and have, very plainly in issue, and all gravitated round the lands. Wilson Gray was the Henry George of the era.

Looking at the present state of things, we find one grievous sore remaining. It has often been written about in these pages, and the salt shall be rubbed into the wound until it is healed. We refer to the closed roads. Liberals in England, where we have many readers, will be astounded to hear that something like 9000 miles of chain-wide public roads, that is to say fine broad ones, are this very day fenced in by the Victorian squatters, and used as part of their, property!

This is truly the most outrageous grievance in our current politics. Rich men are allowed to fence roads in, and occasionally oblige the travelling public with a swing-gate. There is an enormously bulky report of the Closed Roads Commission, which glaringly exposes this piece of tyranny. No poor man would dare to attempt such a thing.

Seeley's Napoleon.

PROFESSOR SEELEY, in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, follows on the lines of Lanfrey, who demolished the Napoleonic Legend, as embodied in the glowing history by Thiers. Buckle wrote of "The gigantic crimes of Alexander and Napoleon," which is the text of Lanfrey and Seeley.

Colonel Jung has lately published an interesting work on the youth of Napoleon, and indeed it is extremely nebulous, like the life of Shakespeare. Buonaparte languished seven years as a lieutenant. He first came into notice, against the English, at the siege of Toulon. Here he rose to Colonel of Artillery, and Brigadier-General. He received a wound, apparently from an English bayonet, and it was not discovered till after his death, being on one thigh.

He was not far off an experience, final, of the guillotine, through his friendship with the younger Robespierre. After very dark days, worse than those of Clive, he obtained the command of the Army in Italy, through the influence of Josephine with the Director Barras. His prodigious successes against the Austrians, at Montenotte, Castiglione, Arcoli, Rivoli, made him a dangerous man, and the Directory shunted him off in command of a vast expedition against Egypt. The French fleet and transports had a narrow escape from Nelson, who afterwards destroyed the fleet at the battle of the Nile.

Buonaparte's failure to penetrate into Syria, through the obstinate resistance of Sir Sydney Smith, at the little town of St. Jean d'Acre, partly caused his surreptitious return to Paris, deserting the Army. Then he played the Cromwell, dissolving the Legislature, and making himself First Consul, subsequently transmuted into consul for life. The next advance of the panorama is his crossing the Alps, and beating the Austrians at Marengo, which gained him the Empire.

For two years he maintained the camp of 150,000 soldiers at Boulogne, for the Invasion of England. The passage of the flotilla was to be secured by a device of luring the English fleet away, after the French fleet, which was to return unexpectedly, and obtain command of the Channel for a couple of days. This broke down. The French fleet, together with the Spanish, was

Napoleon swung his Grand Army from Boulogne over to Moravia, where he defeated the Austrians and Russians at Austerlitz. Prussia had hung aloof, and the next year Napoleon overthrew this power at Jena. We could trace how he was the author of the present triumph of Germany. By limiting the Prussian army, he inspired Stein and Scharnhorst with the idea of putting all the young men of the population through the mill, under a short service system, which eventuated in the instrument wielded by the Emperor William, Bismarck, Moltke, and Roon, in their several departments of policy, organisation and direction. Yes, Napoleon was the author of Gravelotte, Sedan, and the second capture of Paris, as well as the first. War ever breeds war. The Revanche must come over Alsace and Lorraine.

The campaigns of Eylau and Friedland were devoted by Napoleon to beating the Russians. He had Russia pacified, and Prussia prostrate, when he gave Austria a knockdown blow in the campaign of Wagram. But Austria is the most elastic power ever known. Austerlitz, Wagram, Solferino, and Sadowa have all "destroyed" her. The Wagram campaign was nearly fatal to Napoleon. Defeated at Essling, he was driven back upon the island of Lobau, on the Danube, from which he emerged with reinforcements, and won Wagram, whereby he gained, too, the hand of Marie Louise.

Russia remained to be crushed. Napoleon led thither his army of half-a-million, which almost perished in the retreat over the snows of Russia from burnt Moscow, after winning Borodino, the bloodiest battle on record. Here the Russians gained that character which they maintained at Plevna. "Their columns are walls of flesh, hack and hew them as you will," said a French officer.

Napoleon's backbone was broken by this appalling disaster of 1812, conjoined with Wellington's successes in the Spanish peninsula; Vimiera, Talavera, Massena's repulse from before the lines of Torres Vedras,

followed by the battles of Fuentes d'Onoro, Busaco, Barossa, Albuera, Salamanca, Vittoria, Orthez, the Pyrenees, Toulouse.

The immense battles, of which Leipsic was the chief, preceding Napoleon's Abdication, were an irresistible breaking down of his power, like Grant's wearing down of Lee. His return from Elba, with 1200 men, and re-conquest of France without shedding a drop of blood, is undoubtedly the most extraordinary event in all history.

Our articles on "Quatre Bras, Ligny," "Eve of Waterloo," and "Waterloo," based on Mr. Dorsey Gardner's book, took our readers over the details of the last struggle. Darting up into Belgium, Napoleon surprised Wellington and Blucher. He beat and drove back Blucher at Ligny, but the left hand of his army, under Ney, was unable to grip the four cross roads of Quatre Bras from Wellington. This contest was very like that in which Sheridan so magnificently wrenched away the position at Five Forks.

We showed how the five acts of the Drama of Waterloo ended in Napoleon's defeat, through the absence of Grouchy, with 30,000 men. Our limits do not allow of a discussion of the political and social side of Napoleon's life, to which we may recur.

Ranke's Universal History.

READERS of Macaulay's essays are acquainted with that on "Ranke's History of the Popes." The venerable Leopold von Ranke finishes his career with a Universal History, imagined in the spirit of Humboldt's "Cosmos," which attempted a grasp of all natural phenomena, as Ranke does of the human.

Truly this is a grand idea. Where is history to begin? The stone age, the iron age? We suppose no one commences with Adam and Eve.

In the dim nebulæ we have those relics of baby civilisation traceable in North America, Cambodia, Easter Island, and other mysteriously varied spots. A foothold is first obtained in Egypt. Even there we know not where to fix a beginning. The civilisation of Egypt six thousand years ago must have been the outcome of long ages of development. It has been shown how the wondrous Nile brought this growth into luxuriant richness. But the Mississippi and the Amazon did not create civilisations.

From the Egyptian quarry we proceed to that of India, still puzzled and, indeed, lost in the maze. Asia furnished the Aryan household, spreading from the "Roof of the World." Here are the progenitors of that civilisation under whose butterfly phase we have been warmed to life. For, in a view of the Universal, what is a thousand years but a day? There is no such thing as time, no such thing as size. All is relative to our animalculæ conceptions.

Ranke, on the same basis as Rawlinson's hurried sketch of ancient history, treats of Chaldea, Babylonia, Assyria, Media and Persia. Rawlinson, in his "Ancient Monarchies," expanded this division. We take up Grote, of course, for Greece, with a glance at Thirlwall and Mitford. Alexander the Great appears as the first of the eminent modern soldiers, may we say? His successors were Hannibal, Cæsar, and Napoleon. We may as well think on grand lines while we are about it.

Over Rome we linger, and burnish out our knowledge, for here begins that which is truly valuable. The period of the Kings interests us little, but our affection curls around the centuries of the Republic. Yet there is no worthy history, none possible of this era. Very few traces are to be found in Rome of its most glorious age, that of the Republic. The haggard beauty of the Coliseum, the fragments of the Forum, the Baths, the Arches, the Appian Way, and the other antique objects of our worship, are wreckage from the decadence of the empire which Gibbon has historised.

The hub and pivot of the history of the world is that period which casts up the names of Marius, Sulla, Pompey, Cæsar, and Augustus. This is the nucleus and head of the comet, the tail of which effulgently streams away in Tiberius, Aurelius, Trajan, Severus and the glamour of the Emperors. We admire Gibbon and study Mommsen.

From Rome is derived the vertebral part of Western civilisation. Our law rests on the buttresses and foundations of Justinian, who coded what had grown up before. Republican Rome, barring its slavery, is modern—more truly modern than the Italian States of the Dark and Middle ages, or even such as have been quenched in our own generation. In geology an old formation may inexplicably be superimposed on a newer one. When called upon to swallow mythologies we say, "The men of the Roman Republic had the same common sense as we have. We can shake hands with them, talk coolly, and find that order, method, and law rule the universe."

The history of Rome leads right on to that of England. "Laboremus!" exclaimed the Emperor Severus, as he lay dying at York. There was but a brief interval betwixt sunset and dawn. We can view history as we may view the earth—in imagination. The distance may be fixed anywhere. There is a distance from which the historical globe will show the continents Rome—England.

Ranke's Universal History, like that conceived by any one of us, must perforce be one-sided, and the side only that of a polygon. It is a matter of predilection. The thing amounts to little more than a chronicle of the military affairs of men. Even thus-wise it is mostly made up of the old "fable agreed on"—a romance elevating to the mind, like a musical overture, but no more satisfying. What is the impulsion that has produced England, France, Germany, Russia, the United States, China, Australia? Here we have more than Ranke can afford, indeed, more than the mind of any man can hold. Your Rollins and Rankes are instructive writers, but we must recognise what a mere pocket-handkerchief laid on a field is the effort of a man to write universal history, unless he possesses all the treasures of science, potential as well as actual. "Universal Chronicle" would rather be the title for Von Ranke's work. It fails just as Humboldt's "Cosmos" failed, and as this article fails—commencing with the fireworks of generalisation, but soon reaching our own little patch of back garden.

Favourite of Fortune.

JOHN M'MANUS was squeezed out of Ireland because he did not care to be merely a six-foot machine for turning potatoes into human nature. He came to Melbourne in the emigrant ship *Palm Tree*, but resisted the fascinations of all the Biddies. In Melbourne he lodged with Schanck, a little tailor, and ran away to Sebastopol and Napoleons with Schanck's wife. They had a large family, and rolled up a large amount of money in the butchering, from which M'Manus advanced to the squatting. He became wealthy. Mrs. S. was always called Mrs. M'Manus.

John was in the land racket under Duffy's Act, in 1862, and dummied a magnificent estate in the Western district, which he obtained in fee simple.

He took saloon passages for self and family by the R.M.S. *Czar* to Galle, Bombay and Venice. The whole party had actually got on board when whispers were circulated about Mrs. M'Manus' husband being still living in Queen-street. There was a flutter among the ladies. It resulted in Mrs. M'Manus going ashore in a huff, and M'Manus made an arrangement with the superintendent to return her passage money and that of the family, who elected to remain with their mother. M'Manus went on with the steamer, in his reckless style, caring nought for public opinion. His favourite saying was, "I look upon men and women that don't belong to me as so many cabbage stalks." He considered that his good lady belonged to him.

Yet another relative belonged to him—his brother Barnaby, who had stopped in the old country, and languished digging and hedging at their birthplace of Thurlow. His nickname was "Barney the Bull," a poor fellow. John visited him, of course, and gave him a trifle of a £5 note.

Barney continued at his humble pursuits. "I'm Fortune's Fool," he exclaimed, as he thought over John's boundless wealth, his landau, pair of horses, sheep, cattle, pigs, and his thoroughbreds, Skyscraper and Moonraker, both entered for the Melbourne Cup.

"Ohoa!" sighed Barney, "Fortune's Fool!"

One day he got a telegram from Mr. Preston, the big solicitor, in Dublin, "av ye plaze." Barney's scanty, grizzled locks almost stood up. A post office order was sent for him to come to the city of Dublin immediately, and see Preston. Billy O'Brien advised him to go at once. He didn't return to Thurlow for five years.

In the meantime he visited Mr. Preston's office, where he was received with as much consideration as Tittlebat Titmouse was by Quirk, Gammon, and Snap. Something of the same sort coming, you be bound.

"Listen," said Preston. "Your brother is drowned. He took passage in the steamer *Spartiate*, which has been wrecked on the Welsh coast, and all hands were lost. His body has been washed ashore, and, although much mutilated, it has been recognised by his acquaintance, Sir Thomas Merino, whose estate is near the shipwreck. You are heir to all he possesses, I believe, for I did his legal business here, and he told me he was not married, and had left no will. The strangest thing about it is that he shipped in the *Spartiate* under a feigned name, and we did not know it was him until, concurrent with the news of the shipwreck, came the news that Sir Thomas had identified him. It seems he was a good deal annoyed about a paragraph having got into the papers over the *Czar* business, and he did not like to be recognised any more than he could help.

"Very quare," was all that Barney could ejaculate.

He and Preston went off straight to Melbourne. A brief litigation, before Mr. Justice Moleskin, in Equity, placed Barney in full possession of John's estates. Poor Mrs. M'Manus, otherwise Schanck, was cast into terrible distress. Barney generously allowed her £1 10s. a week. All the prospects of the sons and daughters were blasted. They had to go to work.

Schanck died. Barney began to make ducks and drakes of John's property. He disfigured John's park, near Melbourne, by sticking statues on all the stumps, an odd development of æstheticism. He gave Slingsby, the eminent artist, a commission to paint "me house and me sitting in front." The price was £250. Barney was about to cash up, when he exclaimed, "Holloa, Mister! What have you painted me wid one oye for?" "It is in profile," respectfully replied the artist. "Oh, profile be!" cried Barney, "Stick in the other oye, or I won't pay ye." The

artist refused such a violation of principle, and had to sue for his money in the County Court.

Sweet are the uses of adversity. Mrs. M'Manus and her family recognised that they were closer drawn together by their misfortunes. The poor woman became religious, and found her offspring most dutiful and uncomplaining.

Barney had the cruelty to say, "You may as well marry me, and I'll make ye an honest woman." She replied to him with scorn, and the consequence was, he cut off her allowance, telling her to "go to the divvle."

One afternoon Barney was sitting in his office, Flinders-lane west, when his brother John M'Manus walked in.

Barney dropped down in a heap, with a shout of, "Holy Father!"

When he came round, with an excited crowd in the office, John explained:

"I did not go in the *Spartiate*. Merino was mistaken. I shipped in the *Generaal Debbilty*, a Dutch ship, for New Zealand. She was wrecked by entering a cave. A few of us escaped in the boats to the Auckland Islands, where we lived two years, like Robinson Crusoes. I have brought the dress of skins I wore when ray clothes were done."

John was furious on hearing how his wife had been treated. All he would do for Barney was to give him a passage back to Ireland, where he took to driving a post-office cart. John married the mother of his family, and became as happy and prosperous as Job, or any other squatter.

Says Barney to Billy O'Brine, "Agorra, I thought I was Fortune's Favourite, but I find I'm Fortune's Fool."

Lord Malmesbury.

A YEAR or two ago, the Earl of Malmesbury, being a widower of about Mr. Gladstone's age, married a very young lady, and set about preparing his reminiscences.

When Sir Charles Coldstream was so dreadfully used up, his friend, Sir Adonis Leech, tried to rally him with reminiscences of foreign travel. "But then there is the dome of St. Peter's at Rome." "Oh, ah, very nicely scooped out, but—there's nothing in it!"

Here is the moral of "Lord Malmesbury's Recollections." Thackeray drew Louis XIV. without his built-up peruke and gorgeous robes, reducing him to an atomy. It may be unkind to suggest that Lord Malmesbury does the same with himself, but what conclusion can we draw from the autobiographic record of a life which is all upholstery?

Again, it suggests Fanny Kemble's reminiscences of Lady Cook, whom she found, at the age of ninety, admiring her own white shoulders before the mirror. "For shame, ma'am," exclaimed the lady's maid, applying an antimacassar.

Or we may take the venerable and dying Chester, in "Barnaby Rudge," carefully composing his features, so that they might be left handsome.

"Truly it is a dreadful thing to be alive," wrote Carlyle, but Malmesbury is of the type of his "Maupas" in the "French Revolution"—that good old man who gyrated and said, "It will last my time." One can hardly regard the thing as pleasant that a man on the verge of the Eternal World, setting down his life for the benefit of the young, can only give a tag-rag counterpane of gossip—a life, too, begun in the purple, with splendid opportunities. However, we will take good Malmesbury as we find him.

Perhaps we can extract the most, for Australians, with regard to the late Lord Derby, for Derby is the name in everybody's mouth. Alexander Dumas wrote "Le Pere Prodigue," the Prodigal Father. He limned his own father, as Dickens did, in Mr. Micawber. Charles Mathews will be remembered at the Gaiety in "My Awful Dad."

The late Earl Derby spoke of his son, the present earl, as the "Old Gentleman." He had an awful respect for Stanley, the man of science and statistics. Malmesbury increases our respect for the late earl by showing how unwilling he was to lead his party into office. He preferred a quiet life at Knowsley, among his antelopes, springboks, gazelles and gnus, having a strange fancy for the collection of these animals.

Then again, he sensibly recognised that Lord Palmerston, at the tiller, was the right man in the right place. Palmerston was a rank Tory. Gladstone is the virtual leader of the Conservatives at the present day. *Punch* neatly hits off the situation with the Franchise farce, "And if our friends in front are pleased then Gladstone Box—and Salisbury Cox—are happy."

Malmesbury's stories, some of them, are what his aristocratic friends would term rather blue, or very brown. We would not care about reprinting that *apropos* of the lady attache, who unconsciously went diaphanously to the fancy ball.

The clotted cream, whipped syllabub and snow meringues of life are all that Lord Malmesbury has lived for. His ideal was similar to Disraeli's, though on a lower plane, and he professes himself satisfied—"Pleasure is pleasant," that is all. He represents a state of things which is passing away, caking off and dropping into

limbo. "Men cannot return to their superstition and prejudice unless they return to their ignorance." The whole fabric of the power of Malmesbury and his party was built on the helpless state of the masses through ignorance.

He complacently narrates how he was thoroughly qualified as Foreign Minister by wading through about six feet thick of the despatches of an ancestor. This, superadded to a gad-fly like flitting about outside diplomatic circles at Paris, Vienna and Berlin, was all the education he needed.

Mr. Gladstone, with his energy, his earnestness, and his reality, is strongly before our mind in contrast to Lord Malmesbury. They have run the same space in their "gleam of time between two eternities." My Lord is typical of that bulk of mankind "Neither very virtuous nor very vicious, causing no scandal, exciting no wonder, noiselessly conforming to the standard of the age in which they live." The standard is fixed by use and wont. Our Party. Perhaps we are too severe, for, "In every work regard the writer's end."

The best part of Malmesbury's two volumes is contained in the recollections of the late French Emperor. He is an integral figure in history, over neglected just now.

Monsignor Sayon.

"ET dixit qui sedebat in throno—Ecce nova facio omnia"—"He who sat upon the throne said, Behold I make all things new."

Christians, my theme is suggested by Bossuet upon the same. In this superb cathedra], with the light transmuted in rainbow colours on a vast and fashionable assemblage of the court of Louis Quatorze, youth, beauty, valour, age, in all the resplendency of wealth, he gave his text—"Ecce, nova facio omnia."

He excited his imagination to depict every possible change, but how far short he fell of Robespierre and Napoleon!

The things which cannot be shaken remain. Look at our Cathedral of Cologne. For four centuries men mock at the crane on the tower. But it is finished. Gloria.

We are troubled with the names of Strauss, Colenso, Darwin, Renan, and the like. Surely the edifice of religion shall be overthrown. But no; the unshakeable remains. In time we may even incorporate that of which we were in terror. The ocean nibbles up the continent, but new continents arise.

John views the new Heaven and the new earth—the city of the New Jerusalem coming down from heaven, as a bride adorned for her husband. Lovely vision—of a reality.

May I be permitted to introduce here some thoughts on a perusal of M. Darwin? In the correlation of growth, part answering to part, in the immutable laws of Nature, may we not strengthen morality by science? If the Almighty comes to earth and dwells with man, he is all knowledge, all science, as well as all justice, all purity, all mercy. Yea, the Heavenly Jerusalem is built upon Truth, of which no scrap can be dispensed with. The plan must be rounded with every particle of knowledge. Every stain shall be rubbed off the mirror of the speculum, and untiring will be the labour while we see through a glass darkly.

If the scientist tells us that the whole framework is perfectly jointed, then it follows that sin and punishment grow on the same stalk. We, as preachers and teachers are immensely strengthened thereby, insisting on the reign of law. How shall we escape?

All things new—everything about us is in change and flux. Our dearest affections are but as the tents of a night. This scene must be shifted. "This, too, shall pass away," is written upon all joy, and all sorrow, too. Benedicite.

My exemplar, Bossuet, spoke, as I do now, before a funeral bier. Beneath the catafalque reposed the statue, in flesh, of a lovely woman. She was alive, and she is alive—yea, like our dear young sister who lies before us now. There is the unquenchable Life which is but transplanted. No change in the divine! "I make all things new," is not written of the celestial but merely of the phenomenal. She lives. Gloria.

The Delsarte Peerage.

THE most extraordinary case which has occurred in my experience as a solicitor is that of the Delsarte Peerage.

The Rev. Chas. Delsarte was a clergyman in the West of England. He was related to the noble family of Delsarte. His wife developed a strange and invincible fascination for the stage. She left her husband, and became an actress; a false glamour being given to her position by the use of her noble name with the prefix "Honourable Mrs.," to which she was not strictly entitled.

Forty years afterwards, when her meteor-like career had been forgotten, the peerage fell vacant, under circumstances which made it devolve on the descendants of her husband. Young Mr. Delsarte was summoned from New Zealand, and his claim, as grandson of the Rev. Chas. Delsarte, appeared to be satisfactorily

established. It should be added that his grandfather had married again, after the death of the actress, and this grandson traced down from the second marriage.

We were acting as attorneys for the family, and imagined we had everything settled when we were startled by an unexpected difficulty. An opposition which we had despised sprung upon us—the statement that Mrs. Delsarte, the actress, had a son, born after she left her husband.

A matter like this must be cleared up positively and definitely ere we could get the House of Lords to receive young Mr. Delsarte as the Earl.

I ascertained, without a doubt, that Mrs. Delsarte had a son after leaving her husband. This took me to Edinburgh, where I spent the best part of a day rummaging the musty old playbills of the Theatre Royal, with regard to Mrs. Delsarte's appearances at a particular season. I found she played Juliet, Isabella, the Grecian Daughter, Belvidera, and other parts. A white satin bill, with blue letters and fringe, was preserved, announcing her benefit. What an exhumation!

I discovered that she had been living under the protection of a wealthy gentleman named M'Pherson, after she left home. Was he alive?

A long and tedious course of inquiry showed that he was. He lived at Galbraith House, Ross-shire. I cannot describe the feelings with which I undertook the disagreeable task of going to interview that venerable gentleman. It must be done.

Behold me then, on a calm summer's night, seated in the drawingroom at Galbraith House. The servant has gone for Mr. M'Pherson. I have leisure to contemplate the room, luxuriously furnished. It is warmly lighted by silver candelabra, on the circular table. There is an oil painting of a handsome, dark-haired young man, with side whiskers. Opposite hangs an enlarged photograph of the same man, aged, with silver white hair. Yes, it is the same—Mr. M'Pherson. On the table was a large gilt-bound Bible open, with a pair of spectacles upon the page. I glanced at the type, and just caught the words, "Remember not against me the sins of my youth," when the door creaked, and in walked the original of the portraits.

Never did I face a more unpleasant situation. I introduced myself to the mild, aged, and infirm man, whose eyes were peculiarly lustrous. He looked surprised, for, of course, I had sent my card. Evidently he had not the slightest notion of the business that brought me there.

I broached it with excusable nervousness and deprecation when we were both seated.

He bowed forward in his arm chair, and then looked up, resting his head on one hand. There was a painful silence for fully five minutes. He looked annoyed, and was on the point of making an angry exclamation, but became calm.

"This is not fair—not fair," he said.

I urged the desperate importance of the case. The Tichborne affair came into my mind, and I mentioned it as an instance of injustice which might be done.

"Yes," he said, "you are right."

Then, in calm, low tones, throughout that summer evening, he told me the whole history, and I listened as one entranced, for the circumstances were so strange. He had a son, and the mother was Mrs. Delsarte. He married another lady, and had a family, of whom three daughters survived. But he secretly maintained his natural son for fourteen years, without making known his relationship. Then he sent the boy to sea, and lost sight of him for ten years. All at once the young man appeared before him at Galbraith House, having tracked him out. The family happened to be away in Paris. His son, after a pitiful scene, generously left, and refused all pecuniary assistance. Since then he had never heard of him.

Now I had to search out the son, which task gave me three months of anxious work. It looked a blank impossibility, and the volumes of Lloyd's register gave me infinitely more trouble than the playbills of the Edinburgh theatre. We tracked him at last, just for a glimpse of his life, under the name of James Forrester, and pieced him together with another sailor who in after years had been known as James Delsarte. The ramification of inquiries made by us at seaports can only be faintly imagined. The most experienced private detectives failed to solve the mystery as to whether Delsarte was alive or dead.

We kept a standing advertisement in the newspapers, and this at length brought the very man to our office—a plain, honest, weather-worn sailor, middle-aged, and single. He had become quite a German in ways and language, and his blonde hair and beard made him look very Teutonic. A steamer to which he was attached—the *Europa*—chanced to make a voyage from Riga to London, with oats, and the captain showed him a copy of the London *Daily Telegraph*, saying it was odd that a person of his unusual name should be wanted.

The next scene of the drama is before a committee of the House of Lords. It afforded vivid contrasts. Delsarte attended, and likewise his aged father, but it was impossible to repair the bond of union between the pair, or indeed, I should say, to create it. The father had been cut to the heart with the exposure, a Nemesis tearing up the secrets of the grave. He was accompanied by his youngest and only unmarried daughter, who

stared at Delsarte as if he were a magnet. The poor fellow was the image of his mother's portrait—a miniature which I gave him, and which he wore always, hung round his neck beneath the pilot coat. The genuine Delsarte, the claimant, was a decent young man, a sort of faint copy of the fine looking sailor, who was a model of physique, the other being decidedly puny.

The sailor was still the same simple, honest, straightforward creature, only anxious to get away to his ship, and he had some "flame" in Riga, Fraulein Martha Buffinschein, whose *carte-de visite* he confided to me in return for the miniature. She was indeed, a Madonna, very pale, with light golden hair, rather objectionably cropped over the forehead, and a yard of rope down the back, while her nose had a slight piquant up-tilt, and her lower lip came just invitingly over the upper, with a demure sort of kiss-me-quick pout. But then poor James told me he had not the ghost of a show.

Where on earth am I digressing to? We proved that James was born twenty-three months after the separation of the Rev. Mr. and Mrs. Delsarte. I don't know what ultimately became of him. The claimant got the peerage. James obstinately refused any reward.

Froude's Luther.

THE proceedings of the Luther Centenary are now sufficiently remote for us to give a cool judgment on the celebration.

"My kingdom is not of this world." These words come to mind as we read the glowing accounts of the Luther Festivals in Germany last year. Theatrical performances, pageants, all the lust of the eye and the pride of life! In short, Luther was a man of the world, and a politician. We are not decrying him, except as an exponent of that religion the watchword of which is humility, abasement, and being evil spoken of by men.

Luther became a tool in the hands of shrewd and ambitious men, to whom religion was of no moment whatever. They were not bad, but they were not pious. Their object was the overthrow of dogmatic religion, and bringing in the advent of Rationalism. Luther was not the friend of the poor. He was a middle-class champion, and the church he founded is the church of the upper and middle classes. Contrast him with Xavier and Loyola. Lutheranism is national, non-expansive, and unfruitful.

Watch, now, how the masses remain untouched by Protestantism, except in the form of the Salvation Army. The Reformation was introduced in England as a political move, and because the Pope would not consent to the divorce of Henry VIII.

The Reformation has failed. Protestantism is split up into its 400 sects. To say that union is strength, and the converse, is the merest truism. Since the Church of Rome revived in England, under Cardinal Wiseman, its progress has been rapid and incontestable.

The prime object of the Reformation was to destroy the Pope. He is stronger now than ever. Stripping him of his temporal dominions was the one step needed to strengthen his spiritual power in the present era.

"Luther shook the world." For our part, we fail altogether to see where the shake came in. Luther was an able man, of the bourgeois type, but he had little religiosity, little of the Thomas à Kempis, wherein is enshrined the true power of religion. What is the effect of this "shake" in Europe, not to speak of Asia?

We read the other day of a great religious philosopher, one Hanbul, or such a name, dying in Bagdad somewhere about Luther's time. He had a funeral of 400,000 persons. His influence was greater than that of Luther. The secret of power in religion is self-denial, of which there is little or none in the life of Luther. It is accompanied throughout with the praise of men.

Luther's reform paved the way for Strauss, the Kulturkampf, and the Chancellor's attack on religion, from which he has prudently drawn in his horns. He has gone to Canossa, though he said he would not, and has bowed to the Pope, sending the Crown Prince to wait on him. By-the-way, this phrase about going to Cauossa originated from a Pope, in time of yore, having compelled a proud monarch to come and do penance at that little town. Leo XIII. stands as a rock in a weltering sea. "Super hanc scopulum ædificabo ecclesiam meam" are the words round the inside of the dome of St. Peter's.

The commonest nonsense talked is that about the greatness of England being traceable to the piety of Luther, or to any form of piety. Christ never promised, as the reward of following Him, the acquisition of great earthly dominions, the conquest of India by the sword, the heaping of riches, or anything of that kind. We may say that, like the ancient Romans, we have prevailed by our morality; but the real explanation will probably be found in circumstances, and the Silver Streak of the Channel.

Blaine on Congress.

EVERYTHING comes to the man who waits. The Old Prisoner bored through the stone wall with "this little pen-knife" for "twelve long weary years," and "in twelve more years I shall be free! Ha, ha! Free!"

James Gillespie Blaine has been intriguing twelve long weary years for the American Presidency, and in twelve more years—! But James is not young. He tried for the Presidency when Hayes so unexpectedly came out, and again when Garfield turned up in the same manner, and for the third shot against the successful Cleveland. As a bid this time, Mr. Blaine wrote the history of the United State Congress during his experience of over twenty years past. We take this work in conjunction with General Beauregard's Memoirs regarding the Civil War.

That War can now be seen looming up through the whole history of the United States. Benton's "Thirty years in Congress" will take us over the period in which Webster, Clay, and Calhoun struggled. Blaine emerged in politics when the War was almost on the *tapis*.

Taking contemporary records of that time, we find that nothing happens but the unforeseen. General, then Colonel Sherman, though a Democrat, and opposed to the war, was the only man who foresaw the dimensions it would assume. When he declared before a commission of inquiry that a levy of 250,000 men was required, Secretary Cameron said he must be crazy, and "Crazy Sherman" was the newspaper headline after that throughout the States—"Poor Sherman," "A Good Man Gone Wrong," and so on Blaine, of course, does full justice to Lincoln as head of his party, the Republican. Another very able man dealt with is the Secretary of War, Stanton. He is almost stronger than Lincoln as a figure in the war record.

"Pooh, pooh, it is too ridiculous to imagine that in this enlightened country and generation there can be a civil war." Such was the burden of the public talk before Sumter. Bull Run was the first great awakener. Then organisation began. Blaine records the struggles of the majority, in Congress, to keep down that party which said, "Let the erring sister go." He himself has borne a high character as an orator, his style being full of impulse and vigour. Blaine and Conkling are about the two best political speakers in the Union.

The failure of Generals M'Dowell, Pope, Hooker, and Burnside, and the negative merits of M'Clellan, imposed a terrible strain on the defenders of the War in the Senate and House of Representatives. But then slavery had to be rooted out. What is the use of pretending to fancy that at any time the cause of Liberty and Equality was ever for a moment really in danger? No, no, it marched on, independent of support or opposition. The result had "got to come." Lincoln fenced with slavery, but the force of events rushed away all the floodgates.

Mr. Blaine, of course, is a man who believes in management. "One, sir, who might circumvent God." Providence is very well, but there is a Thurlow Weed, or a Silas Ratcliffe, or an Elijah Pogram who really "sways the harmonious mystery of the world." The Great Republican Party was the Providence in America. Therefore, Blaine ought to have been elected President.

But, alas, the Republican party waxed fat and kicked, like Jeshurun. It was near kicking over the straps in that desperate and impudent attempt to secure Grant's third term, which would have initiated a period of disaster for the country. The *New York Herald* raised the cry of "Cæsarism," and it was well grounded. Grant was the centre of a shady and suspicious ring. The Belknap, Babcock, Schenck, and Orville Grant frauds stank too much, and only as samples in the public nostrils.

Then Grant was sent on his trip round the world, to be rehabilitated. The idea was to run him again for the Presidency after Hayes, but the spell was broken. It is more agreeable to turn to the public services rendered by the soldier.

Grant in the West, with his capture of Fort Donelson, struck the first effectual blow to revive the North, which became slightly hopeful as well as doggedly obstinate. M'Clellan, in the East, was a soldier's idol, but lacked initiative. He forged the sword which Grant ultimately wielded. Grant's capture of Vicksburg, the key of the Upper Mississippi, was a staggerer for the South, and irresistibly denominated him as the coming commander-in-chief. On reaching this position he transferred himself to the East, the main theatre of operations, between the rival capitals of Washington and Richmond, so dangerously close.

Beauregard shows us many points of that strenuous opposition in which he was one of the leaders, with Lee, Stonewall Jackson, the Johnstons, Hood, Bragg, and the dashing cavalry generals such as Stuart, Forrest, Morgan, and Mosby.

Blaine depicts vividly the effect in Congress of the Confederate successes. All throughout his suggestion is of what might have happened if this other thing had not happened. To us, however the whole is a pre-arranged drama. When the green curtain rose upon Sumter, the last scene at Richmond was already set, and the final *tableau* sketched, where Lee surrendered to Grant by the blossoming peach trees at Appomattox.

Lee fully understood and practiced the maxim that it will never do for the army which is attacked to stand wholly on the defensive, an infallibly demoralising process. His two principal sorties, so to speak, from the South, were those which culminated in the repulses of Antietam and Gettysburg, each of which battles, like Gravelotte, was waged for two days. Meade's victory of Gettysburg had a tremendous political effect, which would have secured for him the command in the East, but for Grant's headway.

Badeau, in his "Life of Grant," points out the embarrassment which resulted. Lincoln could not cashier

Meade, nor could he retract the steps which had been taken to give Grant supreme command. Thus Meade was left in command of the Army of the Potomac, or the East, while Grant, as commander of all the Union armies, attached himself in preference to the army of the East. This double leadership hampered operations. Grant could not help but take control of Meade, and all his orders had to be filtered through Meade. The instinct of a military student tells him this is prejudicial, even although he may not be able to point out how, in a special case, it is so. Badeau mentions an instance where, on the urgent representations of Sheridan, an order by Meade was overruled by Grant. Yet Meade was an able general, and more than a divisional one.

The closing strokes of the war, the week's battles in the Wilderness, Cold Harbour—an inland place, by-the-way—and Spotsylvania, were terrific in the using up of human life by the relentless Grant, who was nicknamed the Butcher. "You cannot make omelettes without breaking eggs," said an old military officer somewhere, but this was a horrible holocaust.

After Garfield's election Blaine took his defeat in good part, and became a member of the Cabinet. He was with Garfield at the railway station when Guiteau fired the shot. We think Blaine must be a somewhat hardly-used man. How comes it that Garfield, the Civil Service reformer, picked him as his right hand minister, and how comes it that he could not agree with President Arthur?

We have an unconquerable leaning for the dramatic side of affairs, the picturesque *tableaux*. The most telling scene which Blaine recalls is that in Ford's Theatre, Washington, when Wilkes Booth, after shooting Lincoln from behind in the stage box, leaped on the stage during the performance of "Our American Cousin." His spur caught in a United States flag, draped in front of the box, and this flung him so that he broke his leg. Yet he brandished a dagger, and shouted "sic semper tyrannis!" after which he ran to the stage door, where a theatrical carpenter named Spangler was holding his horse. Booth galloped away, and might not have been afterwards caught, but for the flag throwing him.

Von Busch's "Bismarck."

MORITZ VON BUSCH is Bismarck's Boswell. He fills up the interstices in our knowledge of the most remarkable man of this generation.

Hezekiel's Life of Bismarck, with its graphic little engravings, presents Bismarck, as a young man, in a short cut beard all round his face, besides the familiar moustache. He returned to the beard a couple of years ago, but it appears he has been shaving again.

During the intrigues before and in the course of the war between Russia and England and France, Bismarck was a Prussian diplomatic agent at Frankfort. Recently published correspondence shows that he had a decided influence in the temporising policy of Prussia, so severely criticised by Prince Albert, in letters published with Sir Theodore Martin's Life of the Prince Consort.

As Ambassador at St. Petersburg, Bismarck obtained that ascendancy over Prince Gortchakoff which he used afterwards with such effect. It helped to keep Russia back in the wars of 1866 and 1870. Gortchakoff wanted this kindness to be repaid by Bismarck's good offices in the complications of 1877-8. The good feeling between Bismarck and Gortchakoff was marred by the independent attitude which the former adopted. At the Berlin Congress he was master of the situation, arbiter between Gortchakoff and Beaconsfield.

After his Russian experiences, Bismarck was Ambassador at Paris. He cajoled the French Emperor, and obtained a full knowledge of how the Empire was riddled and worm-eaten. Metternich has cynically admitted in his memoirs that he was only luring the first French Emperor on to his doom in the negotiations which preceded Austria's alliance with Prussia, Russia, and England. We ought to apply the lessons of history to present experience. Klaczko's work on the "Two Chancellors" ably delineates the struggle in which Bismarck obtained the whiphand, and got to windward of Gortchakoff.

Bismarck's apparently brutal candour hides the subtlety of—well, we ransack the creation in vain. Look how he played upon Austria, as a pipe, drawing her into the war against Denmark. He rightly judged that the vapourings of England, the absurd despatches of Lord John Russell as Foreign Minister, meant nothing. England and France combined could then have placed an effective bridle on the mighty German. But fate opens the career to the man.

The war of 1866 against Austria grew naturally out of the affairs of 1864. Bismarck appears to have sketched out his whole course beforehand—the humiliation of Austria and France. How cleverly he held France back in 1866. The French Emperor judged that Austria would be victorious, or, at all events, that his opportunity would be to step in as umpire between exhausted combatants.

Out of this war again, grew that with France. Bismarck remained at the helm of Europe.

While he was Ambassador in Paris, he stood one evening on a balcony with a brilliant circle. Some one remarked on the beauty of the Dome of the Invalides, tinged with gold by the setting sun. "It is like a Prussian helmet," said Bismarck.

Prosper-Merimée relates how he strolled with the French Emperor and Bismarck on the sands by the seashore, at Biarritz. Bismarck was magniloquently unfolding his schemes for the rearrangement of Europe, for he talked ever with seeming recklessness. The Emperor pinched Merimée's arm with glee, as much as to say, "What a bombastic fool!"

A dozen volumes are published of Bismarck's Speeches in the Reichstag. He has spoken in both Houses of Parliament, as Thiers used to address both the Senate and Legislative Assembly in the earlier years of the present French Republic. Bismarck's Parliamentary speaking is quite original. The quarter of a century of his experience in this line has not moulded him into any macadamised form, like the stereotyped stylo of the House of Commons. He is as blunt, rugged, impulsive, and peculiar in 1885 as he was in 1861. These qualities come out most in his speeches to that branch of the Reichstag which answers to the Commons, where he figures by far the most often. He is fond of interlarding English and French, with German expressions taken from the vulgar dialect, the essence of which is so expressive as to be untranslatable. He sits at a little table by himself, jotting down his ideas on appropriately big sheets of paper, with a big blue pencil. Lasker, the Jewish Liberal, was his most effective antagonist, indeed, the only one who has shaken him. But the German M.P.'s are poor fellows. There is nothing of the free atmosphere of debate, like that in the House of Commons, or an Australian Legislature. The members speak essays, or prefer to read them. Burke used to be called the "Dinner Bell of the Commons." German Parliamentarians are nearly all of the Dinner Bell school. They are too nervous and decorous for anything like a real debate. One sighs for a Clemenceau, a Pelletan, a de Cassagnac, among these stolid foolscap men. It is a School of Pedagogues, with a Great Bear in the midst.

The Oriental Bank.

TREMENDOUS groans greeted a Mr. Adcock when he declared his opinion, at the Oriental Bank shareholders' meeting, in the Melbourne Exchange, that "Ten years would be occupied in winding up." As Hamlet says, "Though we do most potently believe the thing, it is not expedient to be here set down." Yet it is always best to study the blackest side in these affairs. With a bank in Chancery, estimates of time may be liberal, particularly with a bank like this, a London octopus, extending feelers to China, India, Australia, and the Mauritius.

Up to the last few years, Melbourne was a model city in banking. Our associated banks, the Union, Australasia, New South Wales, E. S. A., Colonial, National, London Chartered, Oriental, Commercial, and Victoria, presented an apparently impregnable front. They were supposed to form, indeed, one national bank, on the soundest foundation, mutual antagonism, tempered by an agreement as to rates of discount and interest.

When the Provincial and Suburban, and Australian and European, went to smash one after another, there was any amount of moralising on our admirable associated banks, but the downfall of the Oriental breaks the spell. The movement in favour of a National State Bank has been immensely strengthened by this catastrophe.

It is certainly a great reproach to the Government of this country that a mass of bank-notes, those of the Oriental, should have been allowed in circulation, and that, with a thunderclap, it should be announced that every one who held an Oriental note must find the same turned into waste paper. Look at the numbers of working men who were robbed by that stroke. The case afforded another illustration of the extraordinary patience of the poor dumb beast, Proletariat. A visitor to our shores, Miss Genevieve Ward, happened to "strike oil" with her first six weeks at the Melbourne Princess' Theatre. Her takings went into the Oriental Bank, and remain there. This is sheer swindling—under the auspices and protection of Government.

The Victorian Agent-General failed to give the slightest warning about the position of the Oriental Bank. By some inexplicable hocus-pocus, the rumours in London affecting this bank were kept from percolating over the telegraph wires to Melbourne.

A painful feature in the case was that the Melbourne management, had been successful. A large number of excellent officials were thrown on their beam ends, after building up a profitable business. This was cruel, the sort of thing which discourages men, and breaks them down. The Oriental premises are now occupied by the Bank of New Zealand, which is working up a good Melbourne connection, like the City of Melbourne and the Federal.

An attempt to wind up the Oriental business in Melbourne, locally, failed. It was opposed by Mr. Watson, the largest Melbourne shareholder. Mr. Watson made a large fortune in Sandhurst mines, and has chiefly invested it in Melbourne property. He took the crash philosophically. About the most dramatic scene in connection with the downfall of the bank was the spectacle of another fuming Melbourne millionaire, at nine o'clock in the morning, with a horse and dray backed into the Oriental vault door, from which the safes containing his securities were hurriedly extracted. We will not forget, either, the distress of a well-known Melbourne solicitor, who made an affecting and impromptu appeal in court to the Equity judge, urging that he might be permitted to redeem £20,000 belonging to a young lady relative. It had been innocently laid within the

maw of the Oriental Bank. Protest was useless. Away the money went to London.

This Oriental Bank crash has done a great deal of harm to the associated banks. Confidence in them is, we will not say shattered, but shaken. It is felt now that every tub stands on its own bottom. A quarter of a century ago, when a run took place on a Melbourne bank, then quite young, the other banks supported it. Money drawn out only went back straight, like an endless chain. The depositors tired of the game, though they kept it up until ten at night. The incident is still remembered of Sir John O'Shanassy jumping on the counter and haranguing the excited mob.

The terrible financial earthquake of the Glasgow Bank was watched here with complacency, but a whisper about any Melbourne bank will be enough to raise a panic nowadays. But no criticism, or sarcasm, will make auditors do their duty. They are under the thumb of bank directors. All is so nice and bland. Not for worlds would humble Mr. E. Andoe, the accountant, offend Sir Gorgius Midas, the Cock Salmon and Gold Bug of Finance. Mr. E. Andoe has a large family. "All is perfectly right, Sir Gorgius."

It is not that Mr. E. Andoe is dishonest. But he is in the same position as the stage banker in the play of "The Game of Speculation." Mr. Affable Hawk flourishes a handful of flimsies and says, "There is a million." The stage father hands over "a plum" in ready cash as his daughter's dot, without a moment's hesitation.

Now, you know, this is just like the position of your bank auditor. Parchments and papers are flourished before his eyes, with the statement, "These are the securities." "Oh, the securities! Very good; quite right." Until auditors really examine and weigh securities auditing will be only an empty farce. We have written about this until we are tired.

Apropos of banking, we would like to say a word about the building societies, which dabble in it. They are practically unchecked and uncontrolled. The word Permanent will turn into Evanescent. What a contemptible member of society is the building society enthusiast! The man who can only find his evening recreation at a building society! Rooting his snout in the hog-wash. These are they who devour widows' houses, and for a pretence make long prayers, for which cause they shall receive greater glorification. Cruelty which a Christian man dares not perpetuate individually he will effect as a member of a building society committee, where it is spread over a number of shoulders. Mr. Spenslow, in "David Copperfield," would have been so glad to promote David, but "Jorkins, sir, is inexorable." At the same time, David had reason to believe that Jorkins was a purely mythical partner.

When Miss Kelly was acting in America, she had cause, one evening, to question the solvency of her manager. So she demanded £50 arrears, to be paid into her lap before the curtain went up. The money was duly counted over to her, while the other performers looked on with their mouths watering. They knew the result. No salaries for *them*. This rose to our mind in reading that Mr. Justice Chitty ordered that the Victorian Government should receive nearly half-a-million, in one gulp, out of the Oriental Bank.

Lady Bulwer Lytton.

RUNNING a magazine may not conduce to profundity or accuracy, but it cultivates and sharpens amazingly the instinct to know what will fetch your public. Glancing in the window of a Collingwood odd and end shop, not a place of "pack-thread" and "cakes of roses," but of rusty hammers, centre-bits, gimlets, bunches of keys, and so forth, we espied a row of dingy and dusty old-fashioned novels, in half obliterated and well thumbed picture boards. One of them was "Very Successful," by Lady Bulwer Lytton, with a rubbed out illustration of a drawingroom *tableau* on the outside. "That's my dart," says Larrikinos, when he sees "Ned Kelly, the Ironclad Bushranger, and Lola Montes." With some such an exclamation, your Reviewer exchanged a shilling for "Lady Bulwer Lytton." Once get the right catch-line, and you can write *apropos* of everything, and a good many other things. We might even rope in the anecdote of Lola Montes, playing at the Bendigo Theatre, in the "Little Devil" during a real thunderstorm. The real lightning shivered a plank on the stage. Lola said to the manager, "You are introducing powerful effects." But we won't digress by bringing in such an irrelevant episode.

Lady Bulwer Lytton's novel, "Very Successful," is positively the worst we ever—tried to read. Perhaps it made a success thirty years ago, for this copy is inscribed, "New Edition." Some kind lady friend presented it to some other kind lady friend, but what the other kind lady friend died of is not stated—perhaps tetanus. It cost us a full hour of Sabbath morning to scamper through "Very Successful" in bed.

Yet there were three or four ideas in it. As soon as persecuted Mrs. Pember turned up, in Chapter I., we said, "Lady" Bulwer Lytton." Right you were. But her son Harcourt scarcely fitted in with the present Earl. He, that is Harcourt, went to the Crimea, and wrote to his mother from "The Heights of the Alma."

Sir Titaniferous Thompson, and other bad characters, kept appearing in succession, and at each one we said, "Here's Bulwer at last," but we were always wrong, until Sir Janus Allpuff arrived "With the head of a goat on the body of a grasshopper." His wrinkled countenance contained the Mountains of Hypocrisy, and was as expressive as that of the Irish Comedian which was termed a Map of Connaught. The "puffs" said his

wrinkles were caused by novel writing, but the afflicted wife knew better.

Then there was his friend, Sir Jericho Jabber—no mistake about Disraeli here. Lady Bulwer has him on the hip over that hollow speech where he claimed the admission of Baron Rothschild to Parliament, because the founder of Christianity was a Jew. The authoress depicts him at a dancing party, exclaiming how divine it was, because David danced before the Ark! But Dizzy, in his more juvenile effulgence, is sketched best of all at Lady Blessington's, in "Willis's Pencillings by The Way."

We laid down "Very Successful" for a moment, or say stole three minutes out of the sixty, to reflect on the amazing development of Beaconsfield. He was fair game for the Willis's and Lady Bulwers, but yet he wrote his name by the side of that of Pitt, with his six years Premiership, and the impress of his hand in India, Afghanistan, and Egypt. Strange that the Viceroy of India, whose wires he pulled, was Lady Bulwer's son! Isn't it a marvellous world? What changes we undergo between the acts!

Again we recalled the circumstance of that mysterious and superb wreath of flowere laid on Beaconsfield's coffin, and coming from the aged Lady Bulwer! She lived only a year or two after him. Surely there was a glow of pride in her bosom at the last conjunction of the names of Disraeli and Bulwer!

Yes, time brings revenges, and glorious ones, the heaping of the coals of fire—not of malice, but of generosity, forgiveness, and love! We can never believe that Lady Bulwer would have issued the letters which a pitiful and petty spiteful woman lately tried to force upon the public. The ambition o'erleaped itself, and fell on the other side. Our sympathy is with Lord Lytton. He did not blacken his mother, though he spared his father. Nevertheless, by the inexplicable windings of fate, he has been the real instrument of drawing forth the stinging and hateful—practically libels—of Lady Bulwer's female friend. The scandal is stopped—where it is. All of us must feel ashamed of the avidity with which we rushed after the garbage. The son of Edward Lytton Bulwer and Rosina Wheeler has yet an important part to play on the political stage.

It is not to say that because "Very Successful" is a shocking bad novel, that it contains nothing good, and even instructive. It is rather an infuriated tract than a novel. We were much impressed with a passage on the Slave Trade, carried on with English girls, who are decoyed to Belgian and French houses of ill-fame. Lady Bulwer republished a lengthy and appalling letter, written by a lady to the *Times*, on this subject. We mention it because the matter was revived again in the *Times*, only about a year ago, showing that the evil is still rampant, and, of course, it has been going on for all these years!

The Salvation Army.

IF the Salvation Army is to go up like the rocket, and come down like the stick, it has certainly not yet reached its apex, zenith, and apogee. Col. Ballington Booth's visit to Australia reveals the miraculous progress made by the Army at this end of the planet. There was a meeting, a few months ago, in connection with the Bishop of Melbourne's fund, for Episcopalian evangelisation. Sir George Verdon made a scathing attack on the rich members of the Church of England, for the way in which the fund was starved, and their shamefully penurious manner of supporting anything of this description. Bishop Moorhouse makes no secret of his pecuniary embarrassments in regard to Church Extension. His hands are tied, and doubtless the invincible economy of Churchmen led him to the resolution he arrived at about a year ago, to sever his connection with the diocese. But, on the other hand, look at the great sums which the Church of England has been able to realise, for luxurious local church building, by such masquerading devices as the Old English Fair, at the Melbourne Town Ha 1, and that sickening parade of folly, at the same place, the Christmas Snow Cavern, a Carnival, or a week's Fancy Ball, only minus the dancing. At South Melbourne, St. Luke's Church has lately been chopped in half, and part of the site sold lor shops, facing Clarendon-street, indicating a decided decline of business.

Contrast this stagnation and rottenness with the Salvation. Array. General Booth determined towards the end of 1882 to open the campaign in Melbourne. He selected a young captain, James Barker, had him married to a young lady captain, and packed the couple off, the very next day, to conquer Victoria. Barker and his wife go to a spot known as Collingwood Flat, in the vicinity of Melbourne, kneel down on a Sunday, and trust to luck and the Lord. They flung themselves on the working classes. "Hallelujah!" "Come in Crowds!" was the invitation. The people crowded, and jingled up their cash profusely. Barker began to appoint captains, and build barracks, in an apparently reckless style. As for the financial difficulty, why, that appeared to be the smallest part of it. He now has splendid barracks all over the country, and his weekly newspaper, the *War Cry*, circulates 30,000, yielding a profit which pays all the officers. The Army has a complete printing plant, and an imposing Head Office in Melbourne.

The secret of all this is proceeding on the same basis as Jesus, of whom it was written that "the common people heard him gladly," and "the poor have the gospel preached to them." If the common people do not hear the Church gladly, there must be something rotten in the State of Denmark. "The poor ye have always with

you." Our modern clergy add, "Yes, and they are a confounded nuisance." The very essence of Christianity is democratic and communistic. On these lines, Major Pollard, in New Zealand, has done a similar work to Major Barker. In Sydney and Adelaide, pauper Salvation Army officers have succeeded in a like manner. "Silver and gold have we none." Audacious collections are made, and the working people rush to fill the coffers. The captain's stipend is £2 a week, and the lieutenant's £1 10s.

This Army has fearfully deepened the rift between the working class and the churches. It exposes, with a calcium glare, the reliance of the ecclesiastical organisations only on the monied part of the community, who yet squeeze out clerical support with the utmost reluctance, and in ridiculous proportion to their means.

Religion is of no value if it is only to be available for the educated, and if a man must receive an expensive education for obtaining the ability to expound it. The black-coated and white-chokered man is like a red rag to a bull in the eyes of the working people at large. He looks like an embodiment of idleness and imposition. We heard a Salvation Army captain, at a great meeting in Hotham, set his congregation in a roar with his rebuke to a soldier who had been delivering something like a sermon. "Oh," ejaculated the reverend captain, "we are going to get him a nice long-tail coat and a white choker!"

Imagine the consternation in a church if the minister called on the audience to testify. Yet what more natural than that the possession of religion in the soul should force people to tell others of its benefit. The clergyman works up excitement with a representation of the broad way to destruction upon which almost everyone outside the church is travelling. The congregation swarm out, and remark that it is a nice day, and the sermon was very good indeed.

Of course, all this has been urged before, times out of mind. So has the anecdote been told of the preacher and the actor. "How is it," said the preacher, "that people listened unmoved to us when we treat of realities, and you lash them into such excitement with mere fiction?" "Why," replied the player, "we treat fictions as if they were realities, and you treat realities as if they were fictions."

The clergyman must take his tone from his congregation. "As thy day is, so shall thy strength be," is a good saying, but it will not hold good when, with one hand, a clergyman hurls undiluted truth at his hearers, and with the other he tries to raise his household in the social scale. Genteel instincts and

Black Thursday.

A BOYISH passion caused my emigration to Australia. There is nothing so burnt into my memory as a foolish scene in an arbour hung with clustering Cloth of Gold roses, in Gloucester. Like Eneas and Dido in the cave, Louisa Philipeau and I were weatherbound by a shower. I can still scent the roses as they were freshened. I plumped out a proposal, which had long been on my mind, and was contemptuously rejected.

Being then twenty-one years of age, I concluded that there was nothing worth living for. I would expatriate myself to the desolate places of the earth, to the wilderness where no man was. Therefore, I shipped, in the *Harpley*, for Melbourne, greatly to the distaste of my beloved father, who was a widower, and most affectionate to me. He had plenty of money, and my prospects in England were first-class. I never told him about my luckless proposal. My idea was the romantic one of conquering a rapid independence, and coming home again to claim the beautiful Louisa, who monopolised my thoughts. Distance lent enchantment to the view. My passion only grew the more desperate during a residence of nine months in Melbourne, so that I took my passage in the ship *Golden Sea* to London again.

This vessel was to sail on a Thursday, and when the day came round it proved to be that awful one which lives in history as Black Thursday. I was, however, packing up my things to go on board when a letter from England was placed in my hand. The Black Ball liner *Marco Polo* had come in very early that morning. This was the first letter I received from home. I knew my father's handwriting, but a dozen lines of the letter was all I ever read:—

"Wolfslair Lodge, Chittleham, Gloucestershire,

"12th December, 1850.

"MY DEAR SON,—

I have an agreeable surprise for you, to learn that last Saturday I had the felicity of being united in the bonds of matrimony to a charming young lady whom you know well, Miss Louisa Philipeau, who is now Mrs. George Aylwin, and my beloved wife. I am sure, my dear son, George, you will be delighted to—"

Under an impulse of rage, I tore the letter to shreds, and rushed out of the house, amid the glare of that fearful day. Sheets had been hung from the verandah. I tore one aside, and dashed through the garden, and out of the gate. The smoke of the bushfires had already begun to invade the city, rolling in upon it like cannon

smoke. The air was hot as a blasting breath from a gas furnace. I remember wandering out to the ti-tree scrub, and then lost consciousness under a sun-stroke, for I had gone without my hat.

I came to myself by night, lying at the bole of a great red gum tree. The air was still oppressive, and the smoke as a fog. The calls of the laughing jackasses, from tree to tree, with their loud "Ha, ha!" and "Ho, ho!" as the witches of Walpurgis Night, had awoke me. I was helpless, and cried like a child praying for death. Until dawn I remained on the spot, and a Ranger picked me up, taking me to his little white cottage, which was then the only dwelling in the forest on Richmond Hill, now one mass of mansions, villas, and cottages.

My passage to England was forfeited, but I would not have gone. After a daze lasting for weeks, I gradually picked myself together, and decided to strike for the goldfields. As I bowled out of Melbourne, towards Broadmeadows, on the box seat of one of Cobb's red coaches, swinging on its thick leather springs, or straps, and drawn by six galloping horses, I felt I was beginning life all afresh. My backward glance at Melbourne is still imprinted vividly on my mental vision. The young Queen City was lovely in the blue haze, but I remember I thought it looked like a cemetery, and I turned with relief to the expanse of green fields and the flocculent sky.

I went to Ballarat first, and when the myriad of tents broke on our view, from the coach, with the busiest scene and human beehive imaginable, a clergyman, who was a passenger by the coach, said, "Eighteen months ago I was riding over this ground then wild forest. A shepherd said to me, "The stillness here, sir is so awful that I feel I cannot bear it!"

I got a billet at the Magpie Flat, then a marvellous arena of mushroom activity, with a thick township, every trace and vestige of which has disappeared! Yes, the Magpie Rush might have been a dream, for all that remained. My experiences, however, are mostly connected with Bendigo or Sandhurst. Here I became a regular digger, after a few months at Mount Alexander, or Castlemaine. This was then an astonishingly lively place. It was an indescribable spectacle to watch the myriads of lights from the tents of an evening, from the hill. All around they resembled the sky turned upside down.

On Bendigo I became more settled. To some extent I joined in current dissipations, and well knew the Shamrock Concert Hall, when Thatcher was in vogue, with his topical songs. At the theatres I saw Brooke, Coppin, Rogers, Mary Provost, Sisters Gougenheim, Emily Glyndon, Kate O'Reilly, Kate Warde, and all the other favourites. Under female influence, and the powerfully eloquent sermons of the Rev. Joseph Dare, I joined the Wesleyan Church, and was made a class leader. I married a young Wesleyan, with whom I have lived happily ever since, and we have a large family.

So the old romance was worn off, like a face from a coin. I corresponded hardly at all with England. A strange feeling came over me when my father sent me a daguerreotype of his little daughter, and it was an object of interest to my own little daughters. How like she was to her mother—the very image!

Years rolled on. My father died. His wife died. I wrote home particularly to learn what became of the orphan girl, their only child, who was fifteen years old when left alone. I found she was not very comfortable. My wife urged me to send for her. Louisa was her name.

She wished ever so much to come to me in Australia, but considerations as to settling her property kept her back for five years. She was twenty years old when she took her passage by the ship *Walmer Castle* for Melbourne.

Of course I must go to the metropolis to meet her, and this was the first time I had been to Melbourne since I left it in 1851. The elder members of my family had been, but I never cared to go. Any attempt to describe the change would fall so far short of the imagination of the reader that I will only suggest the transformation.

With a singular tumult of feeling I walked down the Sandridge railway pier, clustered with ships, and saw "*Walmer Castle*, London," painted on the stern of one. Louisa awaited me there. She came running down the gangway before I reached the ship.

What a perfect new edition she was of her mother! The very same creature to whom I proposed in the Cloth of Gold rose arbour! But the new Louisa was infinitely more amiable and loveable, as she clung to the arm of the grizzled old miner—not so very old, though.

"So you are my brother!" exclaimed the delicious Louisa full of life, and laughter, and joy. "I think I must call you papa."

Well, I cannot tell you what a light this Louisa has been to our home, and how fond we all are of her. We have been a little sombre, you know, but Loo is so vivacious. A piano had to be got for her. I am sure that the education she has given my little girls far outweighs all they ever got at the State school.

And now I have penned this little chronicle on her wedding day. We know not whether to laugh or cry. My daughter Lizzie was married last November, and my daughter Lena is going to be. Louisa will live at Iron bark, and I am sure she will not altogether desert her poor old father—brother.

Recollections of Yates.

"If this should meet the eye of the Emperor of Russia, we warn that potentate—"so runs the opening sentence of a leader penned by Mr. Fiatt, editor of the *Little Pedlington Independent*. The same journal declared that the poems of Miss Cripps were "superior to Milton, but not quite equal to those of the Rev. Joshua Jubb."

As members of the profession made up of those who have failed in literature and art, as—ahem!—critics, we ladle out fame in full tureens, but are not always satisfied as to the consistency of the soup. A cynical disposition may lead us at times to take liberties, as the Pianketank Corporation did when they entertained the French naval officers at a banquet. Admiral Badaud operated on the turtle soup tureen with a richly-chased silver ladle, gold-lined. The first dive brought up a frog. "Sacre! what is dis?" "Oh, we thought you liked them. There are forty in the bowl."

Denmark is a prison. We are all enveloped in our Little Pedlingtons. In our Mutual Admiration Society we talk of a Browning, a Carlyle, a Tupper, a Tracy Turnerelli. The literary world is the biggest Mutual Admiration Society. It creates blowflies, which buzz loudly in the bottle. When a John Stuart Mill goes to the Westminster constituency, or a Fawcett to that of Hackney, he is amazed to find how he is discounted.

Denmark is a prison. But Mr. Edmund Yates does not visit Denmark for three months for Lady Stradbroke's paragraph on Lady Lonsdale. He knows very well that the world—the real world—has been inquiring, "Who is he?" Edmund is too wise a bird and too old a journalist to stand on his dignity and say, "Not to know me argues yourself unknown." He knows how slow is the permeation of a reputation through all the strata of the community, and outside one's own coterie, be that the whole Pedlington of the literary and artistic world. It is said that even Mr. Gladstone did not become universally known till within the last ten years.

So Mr. Yates tells the World who he is in an Autobiography, which he is bound to follow up with an amusing chronicle of Three Months in Denmark, Clerkenwell, Newgate, or somewhere. There will be fresh material opened up for those little weekly passages at arms between "Edmund" and "Henry." "No, Edmund, Wales does not wear magenta socks." "No, Henry, the diet is not unmitigated hominy and burgoon."

It is time that we waltzed a little round the Autobiography. The grand achievement of Edmund's life has been the creation of the *World*, which revolves on its Atlas every week, subject to Lord Chief Justice Coleridge. And oh, how Yates did whip it into the L.C.J. over that Mildred affair. What a delicious morsel to roll under the tongue. The L.C.J. scarified Edmund, and Edmund peeled and ate the L.C.J. altogether.

The *World* comes naturally on top in our mail budget. The endless series of Celebrities has interested us for years, and contributes a portrait gallery which is as indispensable to our mental furniture as the immense theatrical gallery of portraits is to the London Garrick Club. The Garrick—that reminds us of Yates on Thackeray and *vice versa*. But, Edmund, "Thack." was a generous man. Notice his generous reference to Dickens in the "Newcomes" and the "English Humourists." On the other hand, we find nothing about Thackeray in Dickens—before the kindly-written obituary.

Yet, Edmund, we do share with you in that unconquerable love for Charles Dickens. He is the greatest of novelists, far and away, the next fictionist to Shakespeare. He is immortal. The green wreaths are still laid on his grave. "Lord, keep my memory green." That of the author of "David Copperfield" shall not perish, even although smart Mrs. Carlyle said it was "poor stuff," and grim old Tom found "Pickwick" to be rubbish.

There is no man on earth with the journalistic instinct stronger than Yates, who has the points of the Bennetts, Ville-messant, Delane, and all those accomplished cream-skimmers. A *World* may come out with nothing from his pen—it may—and yet the impression of one pen will appear throughout. Even "Atlas" is a contributor's emporium. Yates keeps a marked copy of the *World* with a mysterious number on every article and paragraph. Each contributor has a number, which is registered. Therefore he knows exactly what each writer can do, and what the speciality of each practitioner in the very difficult trade of—well, we won't say Jenkins.

Cardinal Manning—well, never mind, we will dip into Edmund's first vol., and the luscious reminiscences of the old Adelphi. Yates is not unreasonable in the extent of his devotion to the palmy days of the drama. We lately took up a book written when Edmund Kean was in his prime, and it said the palmy days of the drama were gone for ever.

Yates' father was manager of the Adelphi, and as versatile an actor as ever lived. He would piece out the parts among O. Smith, Bedford, Wright, and so on, and take whatever he could not fit anybody else with, whether juvenile lead, heavy, old man, light comedy, low comedy, eccentric, tragical, comical, or tragical-comical—historical, pastoral. Mrs. Yates, Edmund's mother, was a superb actress. Ask a very old stager about the "Green Bushes," with Mrs. Yates as Geraldine, Mrs. Fitzwilliam as Nelly, and Madame Celeste as Miami.

We recollect that when Mr. and Mrs. Bracy (Clara Thompson), the popular Opera-bouffe artistes, were acting in Melbourne, they would not allow their children to go to the theatre at all, and it was the same with Mr. and Mrs. Yates and their little Edmund. But Teddy found out quite accidentally that his father was an actor, for an old gardener said to him, "Ah, didn't your pa do 'Robsperry' fine." Alas, alas! we have been there.

Yates is not so fruitful in good stories as Lord Malmesbury, but the good lord has not the fear before his eyes of being sent to Denmark, on account of a miserable little par, for which he pays "three quid" to a par-ess—we mean peeress:

*Some must watch—for woman's bile,
And some must weep—in Durance Vile.*

So runs the *World* away.

Irving in America.

HENRY IRVING'S tours in America have stamped him as a great actor, and not a mere London fashion. A memoir of him, by Mr. Daly, affords the particulars of an arduous uphill career.

J. H. Brodribb, stage name Irving, began life as a clerk, but at eighteen he was on the stage, making a poor exhibition of himself as the Duke of Orleans, in "Richelieu." The veteran Hoskins, now of Melbourne, rendered him valuable assistance. He was also considerably indebted to Creswick. Irving relates how he once stood outside the Liverpool theatre, without a friend, an engagement or a sixpence. He acted with Edwin Booth and Toole in the English provinces. At Manchester and Edinburgh he fixed his position as a leading man.

In 1866 he obtained a very favourable show at the London St. James' Theatre, as Doricourt, in the "Belle's Stratagem," a part in which he is very popular, but he did not then make a deep impression. He also played Young Dornton, in the "Road to Ruin." His standing declined, rather than otherwise. He had to act Compton Kerr, the villain, in "Formosa," on its original production, at Drury Lane, the hero being acted by J. B. Howard. Irving was the original Robert Redburn, in the "Lancashire Lass." In Byron's "Dearer Than Life" he acted with Toole, Wyndham, Brough, Clayton, and Miss Neilson. Irving appeared to settle permanently into villains, as Macready did when struggling upward against John Kemble and Young.

His impersonations of Mr. Chenevix, in "Uncle Dick's Darling," and Rawdon Scudamore in "Hunted Down," were noticeable, but a splendid chance came with the part of Digby Grant, in the first production of Albery's "Two Roses." Turning up the criticisms of the period, we notice how Montague's and Honey's characters are singled out, while the critics are cautious about praising Irving. The force of use and wont, in these affairs, is remarkable. It is doubtful whether Irving's acting was essentially better when he revived the play a few years back, but of course he almost monopolised the butter, while the chicken and champagne—but no critics are admitted to the nights and suppers of the gods, in the premises of the old Beefsteak Club, behind the Lyceum.

In 1871 the Lyceum was managed by Colonel Bateman, belonging to the same regiment as Colonel Mapleson. Bateman was an eccentric old fellow, who had started his two little daughters, at the tender ages of ten and twelve, acting Richard III., Richmond, Macbeth, Macduff, and all that round, as old Marshall educated his two little sons, Fred and Edmund, who were contemporary with the Bantam Batemen. The eldest Miss Bateman, Kate, like Rose Edouin, grew up into a leading actress. Isabel Bateman became the Ophelia to Irving's Hamlet. There is another sister, Virginia, acting.

Well, "Papa Bateman," as he was called, had a good deal of the Vincent Crummies about him. "My daughter, sir," "still harping on my daughter." His infant phenomena were trotted out with all the pertinacity displayed in the case of the young lady who recited the "Blood Drinker's Burial." We used to know a Mr. Deorwyn in Melbourne, and every theatrical city has its Heavy Father. Bateman's long experience led him to believe that there was "stuff in this Irving." He engaged Irving, as leading villain to the great Miss Bateman. She played Fanchon the Cricket, and Irving acted Landry. The piece failed. Irving was put up as Jingle in Albery's "Pickwick," but even here he only shared the honours with Addison, as Pickwick, and Belmore, as Sam Weller. Irving's versatile talent was also displayed as Jeremy Diddler, in "Raising the Wind."

Eckmann—Chatrion's "Polish Jew" had been played with enormous success at the Cluny Theatre, Paris. Bateman thought of it as a card for Irving, although an adaptation in London had not hit the town. Leopold Lewis wrote a fresh version of the play, in three acts, entitled "The Bells," and Irving flung himself with all his force into the study of Mathias, feeling that it fitted him to a T. Bateman spared no expense in putting the piece on. The melodramatic music was a particular feature. The composer and conductor was brought over from the Cluny to the Lyceum. "In Preparation—'The Bells'" appeared on the bills for a long time, while Irving arduously rehearsed the great last act, and Bateman exclaimed "It will go, Henry." "It will strike them between wind and water, and knock everything higher than a kite."

At last, the *Times* advertisement read "Lyceum. This evening. 'My Turn Next.' After which 'The Bells.' To conclude with 'Pickwick.'" Irving's heart beat high that evening. "This is the night which either makes me, or

foredoes me quite." There was a full audience. The first act went rather tamely, till the final tableau of the white horse and sledge; the Polish Jew, in his furs, driving, and Mathias following, with uplifted axe. The second act was one of undecided expectation. In the third, Irving gripped the audience with a vyce, in the awful scene of the trance, under the hands of the mesmerist, when Mathias confessed the murder before the judge and court, in presence of his astounded friends and relatives—yet it is all a dream.

When the scene closed again, and the actor rushed forward, in shirt sleeves, from the curtains of his bed, there was such a tumult in the theatre as has scarcely been paralleled since Edmund Kean made his hit on Shylock, at Drury Lane, nearly sixty years before. The audience stormed and raved when the green curtain slowly fell on the death of Mathias. The actor had scored his "one niche the highest," and his fortune was made, when Bateman hustled him out, still in his shirt sleeves, flushed and panting, through the proscenium door, in response to the roar of the whirlwind.

Critics said "The Bells" was too painful, but it filled the canvas, and crowded houses were the rule at the Lyceum. It ran 150 nights, and Irving soon resigned Mr. Jingle to Chas. Warner. As Charles I., Richelieu, and Eugene Aram, Irving sustained his fame. Three years after the production of "The Bells," he essayed his first Shakspearian character, Hamlet, with overwhelming success, the run being 200 nights, which Wilson Barrett hopes to exceed. It would have sounded incredible to Macready that "Hamlet" could ever run 200 nights in London, and the "School for Scandal" 400 nights, while 1200 nights was reached by "Our Boys."

Irving did not obtain full swing at the Lyceum till he took the management, with the financial assistance of Baroness Burdett-Coutts, the proprietress. Perhaps, his most expensive production was "Romeo and Juliet," now rivalled by Mary Anderson's new setting of the piece, at the same theatre. Terriss, now the Romeo, was Irving's Mercutio, but of course the *habitués* would not have been satisfied with Irving in such a small part, though he knows well enough he is a bad Romeo, and only got worse throughout 180 nights of the sickly atmosphere. It was like stale lolly, but an effeminate, and one might almost say a depraved fashionable public gloated over Irving and Terry.

Irving has played, at the Lyceum, besides the pieces mentioned, in "Othello," "Macbeth," "Vanderdecken," "Iron Chest," "Lyons Mail," "Corsican Brothers," "Lady of Lyons," "The Cup," "Queen Mary," Aide's "Philip," "Louis XL," "Richard III.," "Merchant of Venice," "Much Ado about Nothing," and "Twelfth Night." He and Booth were both off colour, in their acting, as Othello, but both shone as Iago. In the order of excellence, Irving's best characters are;—Louis XL, Mathias, Charles L, Richard III., Digby Grant, Hamlet, Iago, Richelieu, Shylock, Benedick. This indicates the limitation of his powers. He is the modern Lemaitre—distinctly French in his style.

When "Irving—' The Bells,'" appears under the gaslight over the entrance to the Theatre Royal, Melbourne, there will be the greatest crush ever known in Bourke-street. Barry Sullivan, however, might possibly run him close, for a first night here.

Current Engineering.

A SURVEY of the great projects in the world may be likened to that of the atelier of an eminent sculptor with all his fragments. There are usually a mass of works in various stages None are wholly abandoned.

The Channel Tunnel between England and France is being proceeded with insidiously, as one may say. The vertical borings are down. The horizontal ones, through the chalk bed, or strap, are whittled at.

De Lesseps announces that the Suez Canal is to be widened, doubled in breadth, and the works will shortly be begun. Meanwhile the Panama Canal is persevered with, and will occupy at least seven more years. Eads, the eminent American engineer, does not abandon his project of a ship railroad across the Panama Isthmus. His plans include a sensational picture of a great British ironclad, like the *Nelson*, being dragged across the Isthmus by half-a-dozen twelve-wheel locomotives on six parallel lines of rails. The thing does not look impossible. The ironclad is braced up with shore-poles as in dock.

The Jordan Valley Canal scheme has dropped for the time being. This is a proposal to furnish a connecting loop of navigable ocean through Palestine, from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea, thus turning the flank of the Suez Canal. Jerusalem and Damascus would almost become seaport towns, while the Lake of Tiberias, and many scenes of Bible story, would be obliterated. Immense cuttings would have to be made at each end of the canal, and it is a mere question of expense and paying. The ships sailing through Palestine would be a new miracle.

The flooding of the Sahara with the Mediterranean, a French project, is hung up for the present, but has received the approval of De Lesseps, after a survey of the ground to be cut away. Here, again, the only question is of revenue. There is a similar project on the Pacific coast, with regard to a tract of California.

The Euphrates Valley railway scheme, connecting India with Asia Minor, Calcutta with the Dardanelles, is in abeyance. Russia pushes forward her railways into Asia. When will China be opened up to the Western

engineer? Imagine the railway system which there awaits to be developed amid a population of four hundred millions. Nothing is heard just now about the great Australian continental railroad. Some light railway works have been pushed into Upper Egypt in connection with Lord Wolseley's expedition.

The success of the Mont Cenis and St. Gothard tunnels through the Alps has led to a third tunnel being definitely resolved upon, and we believe it is commenced.

The most important undertaking lately completed in India is the huge railway bridge at Attock, over the Indus, on the north-western line. This line is purely military. Though it cannot help being useful to commerce, it is not expected to pay. It affords the means of rattling up large bodies of troops and war material quickly to Peshawur, for service in Afghanistan. However, the commerce through the Bolan Pass, from India into Afghanistan, is estimated at near a million sterling in value annually.

The difficult work of tunnelling under the Hudson river, at New York, for a railway, horse traffic and pedestrians, goes slowly on. This accomplishment will eclipse even the mammoth Brooklyn suspension bridge. The work has been in progress this decade, and will take another.

Bartholdi's colossal statue of Liberty, executed in Paris as a lighthouse to the entrance of New York harbour, will soon be fixed up, and rival the antique Colossus of Rhodes.

The great Canadian trunk railway is pushed ahead. This is a rival to the Pacific line, in extent from ocean to ocean, but it can never obtain the celebrity of the Pacific railroad.

The new submarine telegraph lines mooted—reinforcing the wires between England and America, demand notice, as fresh ties of amity. The greatest feat of telegraphy on record is when Archer's win in the Epsom Derby, on the American horse, Iroquois, was known in New York before he had dismounted from the saddle. St. Petersburg is connected by land telegraph with Vladivostock, on the eastern coast of Asia, a distance of 3000 miles, or, roughly speaking, as far as from New York to San Francisco.

The Mersey Canal, from Liverpool to Manchester, is in difficulties, but will be accomplished. The railway bridge over the Frith of Forth is the most extensive work progressing in Great Britain.

In harbour clearance, the tremendous submarine blasting operations at Hellgate, New York, are noticeable, and have severely tested engineering skill.

Bazeilles—sedan.

SUCH is the title of the latest contribution by General Lebrun, who was engaged at Sedan, to the history of that disaster. Generals De Wimpffen and Ducrot wrote their several versions. The German view is embodied in the history by the general staff edited, if not written, by Von Moltke. When M'Mahon was wounded at Sedan, the command devolved upon Ducrot, as next in seniority, and he held it for an hour and a half, when De Wimpffen, who had just arrived from Algeria, produced a memorandum from the Minister of War, Palikao, appointing him to the command in case of anything happening to M'Mahon. Thus, at this awfully critical juncture, the French army had three Generals-in-Chief within two hours, which may afford a commentary on Lincoln's saying—"Never swap horses while crossing a stream."

It is curious that the war maps, published at the outset of the contest, gave Germany as the arena. The French were to march towards Berlin, however they might be arrested. The Prussian Army, after mobilisation, hung awaiting the onslaught, and then plunged forward in its three divisions. The Crown Prince drove in the French at Wissembourg, and M'Mahon was routed at Worth. Almost concurrently Frossard and De Failly suffered at Forbach and Spicheren. Moltke thenceforward proceeded with the regularity of a problem in Euclid.

M'Mahon retired upon Chalons, where he was reinforced by Canrobert. The whole French army might then be roughly described as divided into two—one part under Bazaine, and the other under M'Mahon. Affairs were so serious that the Minister of War was urged to retire M'Mahon's force, of 100,000 men, upon Paris, and of course it would have spoilt the siege which followed. The Administration judged that this would be too great a confession of weakness, and possibly cause the downfall of the Empire so they directed M'Mahon to go to the relief of Bazaine, then getting beleaguered at Metz.

The position of the game did not allow of M'Mahon driving straight from Chalons to Metz. His army had to travel in an acute angle north to Montmedy, and down again to Metz. About the apex of the angle he fell into the clutches of the Prussians; and Sedan, the birthplace of Turenne, became the worst blot on the map of France.

Books like General Lebrun's are powerful aids to the Republic. It is another cairn to the memory of Gambetta, and this reminds us that the Government has just determined on the erection of a splendid monument to that statesman. It will probably be situated near the Louvre. The prize design, which has been accepted, is a striking triumph of the combined genius of the sculptor and the architect.

A Frenchman has said, "Every foreigner has two countries—his own and France." Indeed Paris is the huge Coliseum around which the nations have sat in wonder. We approach the centenary of the Great Revolution, the

most remarkable and encouraging event in history. Its crimes were a revenge on the aristocrats who had made Europe an area of murder plots of throne, with scent of war and scaffolds everywhere. Three or four hundred were punished for the murder of millions.

The Republic is the only government possible in France. The Revolution laid a basis of rock, upon which the two Empires and the three Kingships were fragile tenements. They came down with a run when the winds blew, and the floods rushed. The Count of Paris knows this.

The Farmers' Ball.

THE Shire of Wyndlass certainly included more able medicos than myself, but none so popular. They even elected me to the Shire Council, where the leading figure was Mr. Goller, also a pillar of the Primitive Methodist chapel. Goller was a nuisance at the sittings of the council, and every "Commytee." He loved to wallow in muddy water as much as a rhinoceros or a hippopotamus, which latter creature he somewhat resembled in appearance. Then we had the squatter, Mr. Greassy, and his crawling, slippery factotum, Mr. Harvey Duff. The estate agent, the publican, and the benevolent Mr. Hansen, who furiously represented the poor selectors, all helped to keep the Council board alive at night. Their latest achievement has been a deputation to the Minister of Railways. This meant a jaunt up to Melbourne, and a week's jollification, seeing the pantomimes and all the fun at the expense of the ratepayers.

At the end of a stormy meeting, Mr. Huille, our quiet member, suggested that the social side of shire life had been neglected of late. He was sure that a Farmers' Ball would prove a great success. The Farmers' Ball is a resort come to when the marriage market lags, in a shire extending over forty square miles.

All agreed except Goller, who went of in dudgeon, and preached a sermon the next Sunday night, in which there were withering references to those who "whirled in the mazes of the giddy dance" on the edge of a volcano.

But the shire went crazy over the Farmers' Ball, and anyone could see it would be a big thing.

On the eventful night the Shire Hall was brilliantly lighted. Senior-constable Burley had injunctions that horses' heads were to set down in the direction of the creek, and take up to the mallee. The ball fetched up all the droll vagabond characters, all the sundowners, roustabouts, and bushwhackers for miles and miles around. Of course Shorty Ordish came, with his concertina, and did you ever see any country place without its Yorkey? Shorty had been the hero of the Shearers' Ball, in the woolsheds, the week before, and came up here in the sarcastic vein. Jack Birdsey, who kept the "Royal," opposite the Shire Hall, had some Buskers in the bar, with tambo, bones, and banjo, singing "Dem Golden Slippers," when I drove up in my buggy, and contemplated an amusing scene.

The carriage people came. Burley was in a terrible fluster on the arrival of Mr. Greassy's landau, with its pair of greys, their buckles shining under the lamps. Out stepped the fair "bits o' muslin," as Shorty called them. There was also a masher from Melbourne, who looked on after the style of Leech's young swell contemplating Punch and Judy—"Much above that sort of thing, ah!" The wags took him off with glee.

There came, too, the spring carts, shandrydians, even drayloads of beauty and barege, while many ladies and gentlemen arrived on horseback, more piquant than anything. The Misses Leveson were the belles, four blondes and two brunettes, all in fluttering blue veils, and forming a cavalry squadron of Amazons. They fluttered the hearts of the young farmers and no mistake.

"Now, ain't it a dashed shame?" said Shorty.

"All them going a-begging," added Yorkey.

The music arrived—cornet, piccolo, kettledrum, violin, violoncello—all from Melbourne, and professing to be stars of the Opera House and Bijou. Some of them were not bad with their powers of suction.

And here was Mr. Nangle, the M.C., "a fellow, sir, with a feeling of his business." "Choose your partners, gents." "Down the middle; up the middle."

The first dance—a quadrille—was to the tune of a medley from "Patience," which some of us had seen so amusingly represented by the Stawell amateurs. I was humming to myself in concert with the music, "If you're anxious for to shine in the high æsthetic line, as a man of culture rare, you must gather up the germs of the transcendental terms, and plant them everywhere," when someone touched my arm, and told me I was wanted—nothing unusual for a doctor.

I took a farewell glance at the ballroom, thinking perhaps I was off for a twenty mile ride through the bush. The music had changed in the quadrille to "Single I shall live and die," which sounded rather inappropriate in the unmistakable nuptial atmosphere which was engendered, such a whirl of delight!

I came outside and found the business was professional. In the first instance I was asked to go over to the Primitive Methodist church, about twenty yards from the Shire Hall, on the opposite side of the way.

Well, it takes all sorts to make a world. The æsthetic strains which floated lusciously through the

illuminated windows and chinks of our wooden Shire Hall were contrasted with the musical rattling of the Buskers, while a great crowd held a free and easy fair in the road between the two places.

Goller had devoted his energies to bringing off a tea-meeting at the chapel, on this very night and I strolled over there just as the congregation was settling down for the speeches after tea. The chapel was quite full, for this was war time. The children of light rallied in full strength. I must say that on the whole I rather liked their appearance. Here were serious fathers, demure, but happy mothers, and Sunday school children being brought up in the way in which they should go.

Nothing astonished me more than the difference in Mr. Goller from what he was at the Council table. Have you never noticed this astonishing Protean quality of some men? I am sure you must have done so. Whether Councillor Goller or Preacher Goller was the real Goller I could never determine until I saw him as Paterfamilias Goller, in the bosom of his large and fine family. Then I must say he was the good and genial hippopotamus. I once knew a legislator whom I set down for a shocking ass until he showed me all round the immense carriage factory of which he was the brain and soul.

The little chapel looked quite as well as the ballroom, there being a profusion of decorations in green boughs, wreaths, and flowers. "God bless our home," was the motto on the wall behind the pulpit. Pleasant, fussy women were bustling about with their dresses tucked up, carrying away teapots, cups, and saucers, plates, cake, and the rest of the *debris*.

Mrs. Tuckwell, the minister's wife, was positively the nicest woman I ever knew, except my wife. "Oh," she said, "I'm so glad you've come. They have sent for you to go and see poor Elsie again, though I do not think it can be any good."

I had my horse taken out of the buggy, and saddled, and off I went for a ride through the woods. My thoughts did indeed sway from gay to grave as I rode along. As I left the township the noise at Birdsey's, the dance music at the Hall, and a vigorous hymn, "Where the surges cease to roll," at the chapel, all strangely commingled. The sky had clouded darkly, and I cantered along with nervousness in apprehension of the tempest which began to break upon me. In a clearing I paused, while the rage broke of as desperate a thunderstorm as ever I saw. The trees were racked by the wind; vivid blue lightning electrified the scene, and the crash of thunderclaps reverberated through the boundless forest. Then the din paused, and I rode forward in moonlight.

Nature was all at rest when I stepped across the W—creek with the horse's bridle over my arm. I went to a cottage on the hill-side, where a light was dimly seen through the green window blind.

On entering, I saw one of my familiar patients just passing out of the world. It was Elsie Bennett. Her beautiful, pallid face lay on the pillow like a sculptured face on a tomb. Poor girl! What suffering she had undergone for years. Around the bed knelt her relatives, while venerable Brother Sanderson wafted a prayer for us all to Heaven with her soul. The room bore many many evidences of Elsie's love of God. The flower-pots, with their violets, mignonette, and fuchsia, inside the window, were some; so was her little black harmonium, with the well-worn music book upon it; so was her beloved little library, hung against the wall; and the canary in its cage, with the cloth thrown over, and the pictures from illustrated papers covering the whole walls.

Her mother showed me the hymn-book which Elsie had been reading when she was taken ill for the final spasm, and it was turned down open on a side table, just as she had left it. One verse on the page had been marked with a pencil:—

*"My soul now pants for Heaven's freshening rills,
Laved pure as swansdown in the crystal tide;
One glowing thought my aspiring spirit fills—
'Tis this, "I shall be satisfied."*

Ripon and Dufferin.

IN our article on "'Viceroy Ripon," we expressed fervid admiration of the spirit in which he had governed India, and, although he is now under an official cloud, we retract nothing. It must be remembered that Mr. Gladstone dictated the policy. Nowadays, the Liberals and Conservatives of India are in telegraphic communication with London, and every ripple of feeling finds its way there at once. "The key of India is not Afghanistan but London," to adopt Lord Beaconsfield's expression.

The Calcutta Exhibition did a great deal to strengthen the bonds of union between India and Australia. Messrs. Bent, Bosisto, and Woods, Victorian members of Parliament, went there, and have since become the mouthpieces of Australian views on that magnificent and inexhaustible country. Mr. Bosisto's lecture on

Australia, to the Calcutta Chamber of Commerce, excited considerable interest. At this end he has been equally effective in dealing with India.

The long list of able Governors-General furnished to India is the strongest indication of the calibre of the peerage. The names of Cornwallis, Bentinck, Dalhousie, Canning, Lawrence, Mayo, Northbrook, Lytton, Ripon, and Dufferin, among those who have handled the sceptre of Hastings, suggest various policies, and high tide marks of ability. Lord Dalhousie initiated the great railway works, and it has occurred to us that Lord Ripon has launched an analogous undertaking in regard to the mind of India and its government.

Our last article was *apropos* of Lord Lytton's attack, in the House of Lords, upon Lord Ripon. Indeed, their policies were in the most violent and glaring contrast. Lord Lytton painted the disorder implanted in India with all the skill of a literary artist, combined with the virus of an ex-Governor-General, whose policy had been overturned. Lords Selborne, Northbrook, and other Liberals, defended Lord Ripon, with arguments which appeared to us to be common sense as against special pleading.

For many years Lord Ripon's name was mainly associated with Freemasonry, as Grand Master of the Order in England. His successor was the Prince of Wales. Lord Ripon resigned through religious convictions, which led to his joining the Roman Catholic church. On this account Mr. Gladstone's selection of him as Viceroy of India was much canvassed. We opine that the conversion of Lord Ripon had something to do with the course he took in India. It certainly influenced Mr. Gladstone, to some extent, in choosing him, in order to conciliate the Catholic party, which virulently opposed Gladstone in politics, through his attacks on the Vatican, and the general tenor of his political life in that regard.

Lord Ripon, we say, went to India to carry out a policy which would be the antipodes of Lord Lytton's. The pendulum had swung right round with Beaconsfield's overthrow. One could not imagine a Lytton carrying out the orders of a Gladstone. Even such men as Hartington or Northbrook, from the Liberal side, would never have plunged in with the daring of Ripon. So that much lies with the instrument. Lord Ripon's adherence to the Catholic Church was a step not prompted, as might have been supposed, by his terror at the advance of the Proletariat, but by his growing sympathy with the working classes. This is abundantly manifested by the noble, generous, and self-denying spirit in which he proceeded to make himself an object of obloquy to the upper classes by his course in India.

In the first place, he took off the gag which Lord Lytton had imposed on the native Press. *Puck*, the New York *Punch*, lately had an engraving of Uncle Sam showing Bismarck how to deal with Socialism, by giving it free speech. But then the object of a tyrant is always to maintain a dynasty, not to make a people happy. Lytton brought Russia into India in one way, by his surveillance of the native Press. To be sure there are some Sepoy Fenian rags; but the real healthy and most intelligent part of the native Press may be trusted to stifle their influence. Lord Lytton, however, wanted to crunch liberty as well as licence. We are convinced that his coercive and costive policy would have led to a frightful explosion, and that judicious liberalising is the means to avert anything of the kind.

Lord Ripon introduced the beginnings of Local Government. The Nabobs may rage as they like, but this must come. The question has been set simmering. Lord Dufferin will not return to the Lytton system. His instructions are to adopt a middle course. Irritation has to be calmed for the moment. The march of Reform will not be stopped. Both parties watch Lord Dufferin jealously. We notice the unusual manner in which Lord Ripon has welcomed Lord Dufferin in Calcutta, quite effusively, indeed. They performed over again the scene of Richard II. and Boling-broke entering into London. Ripon was Richard, and Dufferin Bolingbroke. The suffrages of the cultured English were lavished on Dufferin, but Ripon had the homage of the poor millions, represented there by the sympathetic dusky thousands.

Lord Dufferin's appointment has met with the approval of everybody. He will play his *role* well. Probably it will be a peaceful term of office, but the gunpowder has been laid. Our Indian railways, bridges, and canals are not intended merely to keep the people in subjugation. No, they are measures of education. Their corollary must come in freedom.

The measures of Local Government were the most vitally important proposed by Lord Ripon, that is to say, by Mr. Gladstone, but the most disturbance has been caused by the proposed legal reforms, to place Englishmen in India on an equality with natives. It must be remembered that the privileges possessed by Englishmen there do not extend to other Europeans or Americans.

Lord Mayo may have been the beau ideal of an able Viceroy, but those bracketed in our affections are Canning and Ripon. We know Ghollah and Chunder in Melbourne. They have warm friends here, as they have in England. And this reminds us of the loss of the masterly and chivalrous Henry Fawcett. Never again will that sonorous voice be listened to, as it enchained the House of Commons with the whilom forbidding subject of Indian finance, in the same manner as Gladstone's budgets had given taxation quite a poetic aspect. Gladstone, Fawcett, and Ripon—true friends of India! We are right glad of the visit of Lord Randolph Churchill. It will do "Randy" a power of good, and India, too.

India is no longer dark. We cordially thank our friend, Dr. W. W. Hunter, the Hayter of India, as Government Statistician, for his admirable "Gazetteer." His labours have been prodigious in formulating and tabulating the anatomy of mighty Hindostan.

The unimpeachable power evinced by Lord Dufferin in the different atmospheres of Canada, St. Petersburg, Constantinople, and Cairo, is a guarantee for the skill with which he will guide the helm in Calcutta.

Soudan Gordon.

ABOUT five years ago there was a portrait of Chinese Gordon in *Vanity Fair*. All we recollect about it was that he had on a very conspicuous yellow necktie, in compliment to China, and was labelled as the most distinguished living Englishman. Since then he has pursued a course of getting his name up. Piety and pig-sticking, spitting Arab cockchafers, have been ingredients. Our readers have probably looked up Egmont Hake's memoir of him, and the smart boil down by Forbes. After trial gallops in the Crimea he won great events in China. Then the English Government shelved him as being too clever. Next he burst out in the Soudan, with his miraculous power of wielding men. Again came a relapse. Gordon was played out. Besides, his religious notions were so utterly absurd in an age when no one believes in futurity. They were enough in themselves to keep him from any practical employment. Plenty of Wolseleys and Robertses were available.

We have been trying to strike in at the commencement of the Soudan embroglio for the purpose of this article, but find we must hark back to Egypt. The dual control, England and France, nicely balanced and poised, was broken up by the intrigues of Arabi. But who pulled the strings which worked the Arabi marionette? Any name beginning with a B? The modern Boney Bogie has a lot to answer for.

Gambetta had very pronounced ideas about Egypt. The Prince of Wales is reported to have said that if Gambetta remained six months more in power there would have been a general war. Gambetta was determined to fling a French army into Egypt, with or without England. The British were left to act alone, pound Alexandria, and crush Arabi. It was all over but the shouting. Mr. Gladstone declared how comfortably and patly the English forces were to be withdrawn from Egypt.

But the beginning of strife is as when one letteth out water. Your smug and business-like Gladstone is a mere straw on the torrent. Arabi's adherents managed to foment the Soudan trouble. European influence was there, too, without a shadow of doubt. The nations love one another so much. This Soudan war is Egyptian. Egypt, like Richelieu in the play, eked out the lion's skin with the fox's. It is a patriotic war. The sympathy of all Cairo is with the Mahdi, who plays the same game that Te Whiti tried to play in New Zealand.

The situation bears some degree of resemblance—a suggestion of resemblance—to that in Russia when invaded by Napoleon. The Czar said he would engulf the invaders in the snows. The Egyptians say they will engulf their invaders in the sands. The affair has to be fought out as a war with Egypt, let that be kept in mind, and you will imagine how near it is to a conclusion.

The successes of Graham did not outweigh the disaster of Baker. The event to be obliterated, however, is that unparalleled holocaust when Hicks Pasha's ten thousand were slaughtered. This suggested our paper on "Xenophon's Ten Thousand," showing how brilliantly they were extricated from difficulties to which those of Hicks were child's play. Hicks, though, fell into Chelmsford's fault at Isandl wana, of over-confidence.

The fate of the Gladstone Cabinet trembled in the balance when they resolved that some desperate *coup* must be adopted in the Soudan. Gordon was visiting Brussels at the time. They decided to send for him. The time and the man met.

Gordon was summoned as the adviser. He made the astounding offer of going alone to Khartoum, in the heart of the Soudan, and thus trying to rally all the friendly influences. The real pinch was in the fear of the Gladstone government that more garrisons—which included helpless women and children—would be massacred. They knew the British people would not stand much of that kind of thing.

Gordon's heroic, superb feat of the lonely trip to Khartoum can only be appreciated as we follow the march, or rather voyage, of Wolseley's army. Mr. Gladstone thought Gordon ought only to walk up the hill and down again, after the fashion of dodging politicians. Gordon, however, was in for notoriety, fame, immortality. He knew well enough how to play his own cards, and take his revenge for long years of neglect and contumely.

He gazed right over the heads of Gladstone and Co. and all political intriguers, upon the English people. Gladstone said, "Die, you fool." Gordon said he would see about that. He trusted to the instinct, sympathy, and passion of the nation. Gladstone's hand was forced. He had to despatch the expedition. Here let us drop a tear over the worries which harass the closing years of the statesman. Out, brief candle.

Although this war happens to be waged in a desert region, suitable to the Arab, or rather Egyptian tactics, the Soudan presents glorious tracts of country for settlement, with forests, rivers, and rich soil. The Wolseley expedition is part of the general scheme of the world for the redemption of Africa. That continent is waking

up all over and shaking itself England, France, Germany, Italy, Portugal, all have fingers in the pie.

Austral Handbooks.

"MAORILAND" is a handy half-crown guide issued by the Union Steamship Company of New Zealand, and we have glanced through it with pleasure. A new "School Geography," by Mr. Sutherland, is positively the most sensible one we ever saw, and that not merely because it starts from Australia as the sun and centre of the Universe. This is Artemus Ward's principle, "The world revolves on its own axle-tree onct every twenty-four hours, subjeck to the Constitution of the United States." However, we heartily congratulate Mr. Sutherland, whose book will find its way into all the schools. It is really interesting and complete.

Dennis Kearney, the San Francisco Sand Lot orator, who, by the way, hailed from Australia, used to say, "God bless the Little Reporter, the only friend the working man has got." Forty years ago there was a little fiery-headed and spectacled reporter, Mr. Garryowen, going about Melbourne, and lately he has been pouring out his Recollections with reckless profusion. A friend of ours obliges us with an enormous volume of Garryowen's articles, clipped out of the Melbourne *Herald*. They will doubtless be republished in a book, but in the process of adaptation from the newspaper to the volume they will need that operation which roused the ire of Mr. Puff, in the *Critic*, when his tragedy was so heavily lopped by the stage manager—"We have had to apply the pruning knife a little, sir." "The pruning knife! Zounds, sir, the axe!"

Garryowen's copious reminiscences, so far, only excavate the decade previous to 1851, and they possess a most fascinating charm to the old colonist. For instance, take his references to Sir John O'Shanassy, of whom an aged lady once said to us, "I remember him as a butcher's man, bringing round meat in a tray to my door." When he had a butchery shop, a friend of his, named Winter, came round and looked at some rich joints of beef "My word," says Winter, "there is grass where that comes from." Hearing that it came from the Ballarat district, Winter took up there the squattage known as Winter's Freehold. The goldfields broke out, and Winter made a fortune in supplying meat to Ballarat. But this did not satisfy his good fairy. A magnificent seam of gold was struck on the estate, and combined with beef and mutton to realise the dreams of Plutus. "The sudden and gorgeous drama" of the Victorian goldfields yielded no more splendid part for an actor than that allotted to "Jock" Winter.

The "Year Book of Australasia" furnishes us with an admirable sketch of the History of the Merino, just the very thing we have been looking for. It shows how this aristocratic sheep sprang from Asia Minor, perhaps a couple of thousand years ago. The Greeks and Romans fostered it. The Romans implanted the Merino in Spain, from whence all the Merinos now known on the face of the globe are traceable. For seventeen and a half centuries the Merino was kept in its pristine purity in Spain. There were two varieties, the Escurial and the Negretti. When the Spaniards loosened their monopoly in the last century, some of these sheep found their way to Saxony, others to France, others to England, where George III. established the Hampton Court flock.

A small flock was taken to the Cape of Good Hope. A few of these—five ewes and three rams—were the nucleus of the first Merino flock in Australasia—Macarthur's, at Camden, New South Wales. This was ninety years ago. In a future article we intend to track the whole history of the Merino thenceforward.

Another large industry suggests itself to us—that of Queensland sugar—with which Melbourne sugar is intimately associated. We propose also to deal with this more at length in our next. It seems that the canny Queensland sugar planters are to obtain the opportunity of buying back their estates, from the Melbourne capitalists, at half the figure which the Melbournites gave for them. Mr. Griffith's democratic ministry has almost put an extinguisher on the importation of Kanaka labour. Public feeling on both sides is terribly virulent. The agitation is revived for intercolonial free trade, with an especial eye to Queensland sugar, which pays a heavy duty in Victoria.

"Hayter's Year Book," issued by the Victorian Government Statist, "swells wisely," as Sam Weller said of the old lady, after her thirteen cups of tea in the Brick Lane Branch of the Ebenezer. Hayter says the population of Australia in 1985 will be one hundred millions. This is simply calculated on the present rate of progression, at compound interest. European Powers take note—please be careful.

We are never weary of repeating the words of the veteran Russian Admiral Aslanbegoff, at the Melbourne Town Hall, when he came round in charge of those sharkish cruisers, the *A frika Vestnik* and *Plastoun*, just to show us how our commerce could be played ducks and drakes with. Said the Admiral, "But, gentlemen, while I admire your grand resources, I am convinced that they could only have been developed, as I see them, by the unrivalled energy of the English people." He had just arrived from the through railway trip of 600 miles from Sydney to Melbourne, spying the cream and entrails of the land.

The Admiral's remark rises to mind as we take up Gordon and Gotch's "Australian Handbook," a wonderfully comprehensive publication, with more knowledge packed into its compass than is held by any other book of like size in the world. This brings us to a subject which we have been playing round, and evading,

for in sooth we desire to say the exact right thing about annexation. But we are in the position of Mr. Justice Biledowl, of whom Councillor Plausible said he had not made up the thing he called his mind. It is all very well to fume and rage, but we cannot launch an ironclad or a battalion. Besides we are not satisfied that we have been aggrieved, in spite of the lashings of an irresponsible press.

Does the whole world belong to England? Yes, if she can take it. There is no right but might. The world is every one's oyster, to be opened with the sword. England has picked out the plums of the world, the very eyes of the potato. Yet she wants the whole cake. She will not get it, that is the long and short of the matter.

Here we have all Australia and all New Zealand. Is it reasonable, is it Christian, to object to Germany taking even an entire New Guinea or Samoa, and France a paltry New Hebrides? The opposition has been a good deal worked up by interested missionaries, who would hurry the nation into blood and carnage for copra and palm oil. Mr. Service, the respectable merchant who heads the Victorian Government, has been posing as a fire-eater, and we understand he has a certain draper, known as General Softgoods, who is Minister of War, and anxious for to shine in the military line, as a rival to Sir Joseph Porter, who stuck to his books and never went to sea, and so became ruler of the Queen's Navee, after polishing up the handle of the big front door.

Don't storm—don't pull the office down about our ears—we support the attitude of the New South Wales Cabinet, which is, of course, based on public opinion in that province. Victoria is doing the frog and the ox business. A fly lights upon Lord Derby's nose, in the shape of Mr. Murray Smith, and we believe that Sir Archibald Michie says, "If I had been there, the Germans would never have dared to do it!"

Becket.

MR. FROUDE'S writings, since his History of England, have been in the nature of an anti-climax. Even his "Cæsar" bears only the same relation to the history that Trollope's "Cicero" does to his Barchester Novels. Froude has spread himself over a multitude of topics, in his "Short Studies" and long studies, but he has done nothing in them that other men cannot do at least as well, and thus the master of English prose is wasted.

His visit to Melbourne naturally leads the student to refer again to his matchless History. When Gambetta, as a budding advocate, fired off his first flowery oration, or somewhere about his first, Cremieux said, "My dear young fellow, that resplendency won't do, unless you apply it as the polish of a broad, sound, and rational superstructure." Gambetta was thenceforward careful to observe the caution of the veteran barrister. Now the beauty of Froude is that, in the history of England, the style sets forth a mass of new facts, laboriously gleaned among the dusty archives in the court records of Spain and elsewhere. In his subsequent writings, he has only used the materials familiar to other men. Therefore he presents an upper side without the under. He is an Abanazar who polishes up old lamps. Perhaps, like Carlyle exhausted with "Frederic," Froude tired upon the "History," and was glad to be emancipated from its stiff old harness. But toil and sweat are the indispensable concomitants of a success worth having. It is painful to contemplate the number of abortive things Mr. Froude has done, upon which his unrivalled talent has been thrown away. The whole Carlyle memoir business was utterly unworthy of the historian of England. His "Carlyle" will never be a classic. Why should he ever lay pen to anything short of a classic? Henry Irving does not descend to Horatio.

Another literary artist laboriously working up the anti-climax has been Tennyson. His highest level is reached in the old volume which contains "Locksley Hall," "The Palace of Art," and "The Two Voices." Prosperity has been his misfortune, choking, stifling prosperity. His poetry has become that of nauseous perfumes and Tyrian dyes. The Sir Lancelots and Sir Galahads are only appreciable by the reader of a thousand a year and upwards. They have not permeated in the least to the masses of the population. The sickly, namby pamby stuff is as perishable as a twenty guinea bonnet. It is the tulle and gros grain of poetry.

In "Queen Mary," "Harold," and "Becket," Tennyson has struck out for something better than the taffy of the "Idylls of the King" and "Holy Grail." To be sure "Becket," the best of Tennyson's longer dramas, is far inferior to Shakespeare's—or somebody else's—"Titus Andronicus," but it is not distinctly bad. There are gems in it, though Tennyson has not the pinions to reach to "Becket." It recalls what Sydney Smith wrote on the "ponderous limnings" of a certain eminent Rev. Dr. Rennel, in a sermon on the French Revolution. The subject so exalted the mind of a reader that he was worried and annoyed by the writer's failure to fill it. In other words, the thoughts outstripped the page, and, as Sydney Smith says again, "Although we cannot act the smallest part in a farce, we have a perfect right to hiss Romeo Coates."

Mr. Froude's papers on Becket, in the earlier numbers of the *Nineteenth Century*, doubtless suggested Tennyson's treatment of the subject. By the way, Douglas Jerrold wrote a five act drama on Becket, and it was acted at a London minor theatre, about half a century ago. The London *Spectator* more than insinuates that Mr. Aubrey de Vere's "Becket" is a superior play to Tennyson's, but what is in a name?

Our readers will not stand poetry. We only took up this subject of Becket for some historical reflections. The cramped work of Tennyson soon leads one to fling the book to the other end of the room, like King Dick,

when the good bishops have departed. Becket looms up large, and bursts the green withes of Tennyson, whom we leave on the cushions of the House of Lords.

Becket leads us on to Wolsey and Richelieu. Where they were inferior to Becket was in their lack of religion. Wolsey had little, Richelieu none at all. Massinger, in his "City Madam," introduces a sordid character, Luke Frugal, suddenly transported from grinding poverty to the possession of a vast fortune. A powerful scene depicts his gloating over the bags of gold, in his newly-acquired strong room. His nature is overwhelmed, he sinks prostrate before his gold-god.

The comparison of Becket with Luke is incomplete, but it affords a clue to the idea of this article. Becket was a chivalrous man, and won his spurs as a soldier and Chancellor of England. The tone of his mind was apparently invincibly secular. Richelieu turned from a soldier into an ecclesiastic merely because his elder brother would not accept a bishopric, and this, by the way, was the reason why Bishop Selwyn went to New Zealand.

King Henry thought that, by making Becket Archbishop of Canterbury, he would transform the office into a virtually secular one. Massinger's Luke passes for a humble, pious, unselfish Christian, until the deluge of wealth proves him to be a cruel miser. We can never tell how circumstances will alter men. Look at Robespierre, and his abhorrence of the sentence of death at the outset of his career. The late Pope Pius IX. and his Liberalism when he took the Papacy may also recur to mind.

The grasp of Richard III. at the Crown of England, as pictured by Shakspeare, "Now do I feel the golden circlet round my brows," was forecast by Becket's anticipation of the heavenly crown. History affords no indication of his mental processes, and Tennyson is far too inferior a dramatic artist to be able even faintly to indicate them. He never gets beyond the outside. In fact his Becket is a shadow, but he succeeds better with Henry.

Becket's view of the treasure chamber was that of Heaven. The earth shrunk to a pimple. He perceived that the highest game to be played in life was that of ignoring every bauble that life can afford. He did not need to go through the experience of Charles V., but would start with the hypothesis and axiom that the whole world was a St. Anthony's cell, and every gratification a temptation save that of pride. The true philosopher was he who pointed to Alexander the Great, and said, "This is pride;" after which he pointed to Diogenes in his tub, saying "This, too, is pride." Becket's washing beggars' feet before breakfast was pride, and not wholly unlike Carlyle's description of Marie Antoinette's relieving the poor—when they came picturesquely in her way.

Yet he is the most conspicuous figure in English history up to Cromwell. This lies in his obstinate withstanding of the monarch with the terrific enginery of the Church. He even went beyond the Pope, dominated the Pope, and foreshadowed Savonarola. In those days the clergy had real, tangible power. They had claws to enforce any clause. The people were with them and this is tremendous. Now the clergy have lost the people, and are only figure-heads. If any one wants to feel the true meaning of the change, this awful revolution, let him refer to M. Lavollee's new work on "Les Ouvriers," the European working classes. In two large volumes, mounting to 1200 pages, he has only dealt with Germany, Russia, Scandinavia, Italy, Spain, and Switzerland. France, England, and the United States remain to be examined by this painstaking and convincing writer, who, by his insurmountable statistics, evinces the crushing progress of the levelling forces.

Federation is in the air. It means the carrying out of the principles of the International in a perfect alliance of the working classes throughout the world. Can the Faineants afford to allow Henry George to be devoured by the masses at sixpence a copy? The fundament is shaken. Happy will be the day when the very soldiers refuse to turn their weapons against their fellow men, and prefer to point them against the tyrants.

The religious instinct is planted so deep in human nature that the working classes will be won again by men who believe in religion, but never by a clerical class which believes only so much as is required for its bread and butter. They are stage soldiers, endued with the old red-coats of men who have fought in the Armageddons of the past. This is a time for the gladiator of God to step into the arena with the pluck of Becket.

We say the pluck of Becket, but the ground on which he chose to fight was hopelessly bad, according to Tennyson and History. However, we daresay the saint, if ever anyone has a chance of speaking to him, will pooh pooh the idea about the trouble being all over the wicked priest, the seduced damsel, and the murdered father. There is a cock-and-bull air about that story.

The London Shows.

LET me take your readers in the hansom of the imagination for a scamper round the London plays. We will arrange them in one big variety programme, giving each its turn. It takes me a Friday evening and a Saturday afternoon to surround the lot, as the Irish policeman says when he advances upon the mob.

To begin with, we skip out of our trap at the Criterion, and enter a theatre where prosperity reigns. "The Candidate" is just getting under way, and the audience already simmers with hilarity. Charles Wyndham is on

the stage, the perfection of touch and go. The humour of the scene is much enhanced by the opposite style of the cool and impasto Mr. Giddens. Surely I saw him in Melbourne, some years ago, in "Fidelia, the Fire Waif"

Yes, and stepping out again, at the Vaudeville, I see another Melbourne man, Mr. Mackintosh, a native of Melbourne, though he never acted in your city. He sustains the part of Deacon Hoggard, in "Saints and Sinners," and a characteristic portrait it is, like all that Mr. Mackintosh does. Thorne sends word that he wishes to speak to me for a moment, and thereupon I trip through the side door from the dress circle to the stage, where I have a little chat with Mackintosh, who expresses his desire to see Melbourne again, but apparently his London engagements will preclude him.

Now we hie to the Strand, and glance at David James, as Middlewick, the butterman, in "Our Boys." They say Irving is so weary of "The Bells," that he is determined to relinquish it, and Macready used to stipulate in his engagements that he should not be called upon to play "Rob Roy." "Any news from Australia about Fred Marshall?" inquires James, remembering the clever comedian who replaced him at one time in "Our Boys," for a few nights.

But we must hurry away to see the principal scene of "The Ironmaster," at the St. James' Theatre. Of course we have read Mrs. Kendal's dramatic and didactic lecture on the Drama. Very nice indeed, but this powerful scene in "The Ironmaster" is not overnice, with the bride repelling her husband. And didn't I see Mrs. Kendal in "Impulse?"

Our jaunt, however, is to the tune of "Do not Linger." Just drop in and see the original "Ironmaster," "Le Maitre de Forges," in the French Plays, at the Royalty. Jane Hading, and Jacques Damala, Bernhardt's husband, have come over from the Paris Gymnase, with the impersonations which they gave there for 300 nights on end. Mdlle. Hading is very good.

Off we go to the Olympic, where "Called Back" has been transplanted from the Prince's. Another old Melbourne friend, Kyrle Bellew—and another, Alice Dunning Lingard. Beerbohm Tree's Macari is a perfect piece of acting.

Next, to the Olympic, where Righton keeps the people laughing in "The Twins," by the author of "Confusion." From this our driver gets the direction of the Hay market. We arrive there at the nick of time to see the finale of the great scene of "the three men," in "Diplomacy." Forbes Robertson's acting as Julian Beauclerc is eccentric and extravagant, but is much applauded. I think it answers for a performer to flout the critics. Bancroft's Henry Beauclerc is diplomatic to the core, and Barrymore, from the States, is thoroughly excellent as Count Orloff. I cannot find a stall to recline in, but stand during the *entr'acte* music just to see a little of Mrs. Bernard Beere's very capable Countess Zicka, and Brookfield's fine study of Baron Stein.

Away now to the Adelphi, where Chas. Warner is caught as Ned Drayton, "In the Ranks," going through the scene of the capture for the 389th time. From this, for an entire change, we rush to the Promenade Concert, at the vast Her Majesty's Theatre, where Foli, in full operatic costume, is giving a scena as Mephistopheles, in "Faust." The great brass band of the Guards' Regiment then plays in splendid fashion, but there is not a magnificent attendance in the auditorium.

That will do for the evening, and we bring down our act drop with the picture of Thespis loading up his cart for the Victorian goldfields. Our programme for the Saturday afternoon *matinee* shows how this form of entertainment advances in favour in London, as in New York. Here we have Mary Anderson, Wilson Barrett, and other eminent people doubling their labours on the Saturday. Miss Anderson plays Juliet twice in the day, and Barrett does the same with Hamlet.

But we start with Covent Garden Theatre, occupied by a circus, under the management of William Holland, the "People's Caterer," a gentleman with a Napoleon III. moustache, extra wired. He ushers us into a stage box, from which we view an enormous theatre, thronged with an excited audience of about three thousand. In the midst is the circus arena, laid down in very thick matting, so that the thuds of the horses' hoofs, and the familiar kicking of the sides of the ring, are not accompanied by any spray of sawdust. Signor Lightnino is just finishing his miraculous act, six horses galloping round the ring, all naked, one after another, and the Signor standing on the last one. "Hi! Hi!" Off he jumps, and bows profusely as the numerous grooms, in Mexican uniforms, catch the horses and lead them out. The band gives a flourish, and then changes its tune as a huge elephant comes trotting into the arena. It is dressed up as a big boy, in a blue jacket, monster frill, and white trousers. The people roar like the ocean.

The scene changes to the aristocratic Lyceum, with Mary Anderson and handsome Terriss in the balcony scene of "Romeo and Juliet"—very luscious, indeed. From this we roll away to the Court, and just see a little of Arthur Cecil's finished acting in the small part of the Old Lawyer, in the comedy of "Young Mrs. Winthrop." Then to the Savoy, for a few minutes' laugh at Grossmith, in the "Sorcerer." Next to the Comedy Theatre, where we witness that strange and repulsive sight of Florence St. John, in the "Great Mogul," toying with two real and not small boa-constrictors, as they twine about her arms in the scene where she impersonates a show-woman at a Fair. Frederick Leslie, who acted and sung "Rip Van Winkle" so cleverly, is the showman.

Now for metal more attractive—Wilson Barrett's "Hamlet," at the Princess'. We have hit the exact right time, just as the ting of the prompter's bell sounds, and the flats draw back for the Closet Scene in "Hamlet." What a superb set is the stage interior, entirely subduing the mind to the purpose of the play. Cooper enters as Polonius, and Miss Leighton as the Queen, quite young looking. Polonius withdraws, and in rushes Hamlet, youthful, impulsive, glowing. The scene enthral. The crowded house is wrought up by genuine power to the climax where Barrett screams, "A king of shreds and patches!" Lights down. Chord. In bursts the Ghost—another Melbourne acquaintance, substantial Jack Dewhurst.

The inevitable calls for "Barrett! Barrett!" are ringing in our ears, as we drive off to Drury Lane, for the finale. Indeed, we are beginning to feel it a task. Crashing music breaks upon the ear as we enter the circle. The Pageant of the Lord Mayor's Show occupies the stage in the Drury Lane pantomime of "Whittington," upon which Augustus Harris' outlay has been over £30,000. Performances every afternoon and evening! Twelve a week! How the toilers, and especially the children, must relish Sunday! Eight hours of Pantomime every day!

The Lord Mayor's Show quite eclipses the Transformation Scene, which comes not long after it. This used to be the culmination of the Pantomime, but it is dying away. Will the Drury Lane pantomime expire, too? Possibly Blanchard, who has written about thirty Christmas Pantomimes for Drury Lane, will see it out. No other West End theatre has a pantomime this Christmas.

I forgot a jotting of Terry and Nelly Farren as the Ghost and Prince in "Very Little Hamlet," at the Gaiety. The Empire, Astley's, The Alhambra, The Grand, The Surrey, Standard, Britannia, and the shoal of Music halls, help to divert London's four-and-a-half millions. But I cannot slice myself and my hansom in two, and witness all the gambols of Behemoth, or a fraction of them.

Robespierre, Danton, Marat.

ABOUT two years ago we noticed M. Taine's "Jacobin Conquest," the second of his volumes on the French Revolution. The third volume has been published, finishing his studies on "Les Origines de la France Contemporaine," which began with his "Ancien Regime." The thorough research and lucid style of M. Taine have been happily described as combining the best features of German and French authorship.

In "L' Ancien Regime" he painted, with all the colour of a Makart, that condition of society which Talleyrand so vividly set out in one saying, "People who did not live before the Revolution do not know what it is to live at all." The tone was bric-a-brac, and we fancy that high society in Paris, London and New York has again reached the exquisite pitch of enjoyment of the court of Marie Antoinette, so that a Robespierre would consider it once more ripe for the razor.

The publication of Mr. Jennings' "Memoirs of Croker" reminds us that Croker wrote a series of powerful articles in the *Quarterly Review* on the French Revolution. Republicans like Macaulay, Brougham and Jeffrey, might well be expected to entertain an animus against Croker. "That which pleases long and pleases many, must possess some merit," and Croker, who was for half a century the personal friend of the Duke of Wellington, can hardly have been truly summed up, in Macaulay's words "a bad, very bad man."

Mr. Croker was infused with the spirit in which Burke viewed the French Revolution when he termed France "Cannibal Castle." This may rise to mind as we read Taine's accounts of the villainy perpetrated at Lyons, Rouen, Marseilles, Bordeaux, Toulon, and other cities. Alison, Carlyle, and the rest of the English historians, have exhaustively treated Paris, but, to understand the Revolution in France, Taine must be read.

We laid our own groundwork in a study of "L' Ancien Moniteur," the twenty volume reprint of the leading newspaper of the period. This gave us a profound impression of the ability and wisdom embodied in the Constituent Assembly, which framed the Constitution begun in 1789. Nevertheless, it could not save France.

Gibbon's "Rome" was styled a romance as it came out, and the same was said of Carlyle's "French Revolution." But these works bear the utmost riddling of investigation as to their facts. There never was a more painstaking and accurate writer than Carlyle. The minute, pictorial touches with which almost every page of his "French Revolution" is studded, are all referable to chapter and verse in the chronicles.

Robespierre is the central figure of the Revolution, and Mirabeau only breaks up the ground for him. The drastic, thoroughgoing fashion of Robespierre is the pattern taken by modern extreme Radicals. "To this complexion must we come," said Croker, viewing the progress of Liberalism in England. Whether or no such be the case is the whole problem being worked out. The question is whether abstract principles can safely be applied to the conduct of a nation which has been built up by "precedent on precedent." Croker would take no leap in the dark. He sacrificed his political career to this obstinacy.

Danton was a cheap edition of Mirabeau. It is instructive to read in the reports of the Convention of the contempt with which Marat was treated, at the outset, as a member. Bradlaugh, if allowed in the House of Commons, would have a standing to which Marat's, in the Convention, was infinitely inferior. They laughed at him, snubbed him, but yet the fellow knew he had the keys of power in his hands.

Two million fresh voters have been admitted in Great Britain by the new Franchise Act. This is the next considerable gulp after the mass admitted under Disraeli's masterpiece, the Reform Act, 1867-8. Where is finality? Nowhere short of manhood suffrage. Upon that the British Crown must cast the die.

All throughout the sessions of the French Constituent Assembly, the Abbe Maury and M. de Cazales, as members, withstood the tide of innovation, foretelling its results with exactitude, but they were overborne by the generous eloquence of Mirabeau and the immense majority of Liberals. Taine fitly demonstrates the utter weakness, and the false, soap-bubble illusions of the Girondist party, which tried to succeed to the inheritance of Mirabeau.

Sara as Theodora.

YOU ask me for an "Esquisse" from Paris, but what you mean by an "Esquisse" I scarcely know. I will allow the pen to run. Theodora is the star of this Christmas season.

Behold me outside the great Porte Saint Martin Theatre, on the first night. The sky is dark and cloudy, with spits of rain, but they do not damp that innumerable throng. The line of vehicles looks endless. Quite a host of Gend'armes is employed pouring oil upon the waves of populace.

But my business leads me to hurry to the stage door. I enter, together with a youth charged with handboxes for Madame Bernhardt. A few steps bring me to the ample stage of the theatre, now dimly lighted. There is the buzz and hum of preparation all round. Carpenters, in white suits and paper caps, have still a few taps of the hammer to give to the opening set, the Palace of Justinian. Two curtains are down before the stage, the picture canvas drop curtain inside, and the red curtain outside it. The stage is a promenade of Romans, ladies and gentlemen, upon the painted cloth on the floor, representing a tessellated brown and white pavement.

I take my station with my back to the curtain, and survey the scene, which has a peculiarly dead and flat look, through the lights being down. The myriad of gas jets are only beads all along the "floats" overhead, and the lines of pipes up and down just inside the proscenium.

Beside me is the stage manager, with M. Coquelin, of the Theatre Francais. We criticise the fresh and painty work of the scenic artists, a magnificent palatial interior, built up all round the stage. The audience without keeps up a roar, like the sea. I peep through at them by the familiar hole in the side of the stage picture frame. The house is packed, and every seat has been sold at a high premium. Craving expectancy is written on every one of the three thousand faces.

The manager touches a little silver gong-bell on a table after consulting his watch. The tap of the leader of the orchestra is heard. The violins have been tuning, the trumpets giving premonitory throat music, and the kettle-drum a gentle rattle. All at once the orchestra bursts into the strains of the overture to "Semiramide." The outside red curtain rustles up over the picture drop, which is exposed to the audience with the customary applause. The lights flash up on the audience side, and the drop-curtain, from our side, looks like a seamy map.

A lady, in morning costume of the present day, comes running through the assemblage of antique Romans. It is Madame Bernhardt's maid. A hurried interchange of words between her and the manager. Then the manager rushes through the crowd with the lady.

"Clear the stage!" All not concerned go off, but those who remain are the most numerous, the Roman Ladies and gentlemen variously posed. At the wing stands Gamier, as Justinia, a noble figure. The stage lights glare up. The picture stands confessed in all such beauty as there may be on a close inspection of artistic daub. The actors and actresses, too, look rather sepulchral.

The music ceases, and the theatre is hushed as the heavy roller of the curtain ascends with its folds. M. Sardou appears from somewhere behind, and brushes me as he hurries to the front. Gamier is loudly applauded. All are on the *qui-vive* for Sara Bernhardt, as Theodora. I see her come slowly down the stage inside the wings, and she says something to M. Marais who plays Andreas. It was he who supported her as Macbeth in England and he also played Nana Sahib when she acted in Richepin's Indian piece, but Berton acted Boris Ipanoff to her "Fedora."

A fine portrait could be taken of Sara Bernhardt as she stood just within the centre arched door, ready to go on. The lithe and long fingers of her left hand trifled with the battening of the woodwork inside the scene. She was nervously biting the knuckle of the first finger of her right hand. No one dared to speak to her as she indued herself with her part. She was the Empress Theodora, a right royal figure, tall and slim, clad in clinging white silk fringed with gold. Her auburn hair was worn in a tight bandeau, clasped on her head. Above this was fixed the little regal gold crown. She recalled her lines without any manuscript, and was gently whispering them over. She paused for a moment, and glanced at a bracelet on her wrist. There she stood as motionless as a statue, with her eyes downcast. The rich music of Garnier's voice was meanwhile heard from the state. There was a pause, and Sara disappeared in a moment through the door.

It is impossible for me to describe the storm of acclamation which followed; the surpassing genius of the

public idol was recognised, in spite of her faults, which loom the largest when you know nothing of her. To be sure, the excitement had been wrought up in the most clever manner imaginable.

I walked round to the edge of the proscenium, and studied the method of Madame Bernhardt. It was some minutes before she could lose herself and become the artiste. Though I did not see the audience, I could feel the weight of their presence like the pressure of the air all round the actress. The stillness was perfect. Sara began to develop her playing, with the stiffness of her bare arms, clenched hands, and the shrug of the beautiful shoulders, indispensable to our actresses in scenes of tension. The suppleness of Bernhardt was reserved for later scenes of fascination and insinuation, of which I have not time to write.

Her delicious voice has no parallel on the stage. It is comparable to Frontignac wine, or the richest golden amber Tokay, with inexpressible *finesse*. The charm of her acting is embodied in the French word "*sympathique*." Her face is strangely youthful in its thin oval, with an artificial complexion, which is a blending of peachbloom and the salmon hue. Her long thin eyes have an incline to the almond. In my next I may tell you further about a performance which has arrested the notice of all Paris.

Besant on the Novel.

MR. BESANT'S lecture on the art of novel writing leads us to some reflections on the history of the English novel.

Its beginnings are traceable in France and Spain. "Don Quixote" among novels is as "Don Giovanni" among operas. In England we may start from "Robinson Crusoe." From this we bound to "Gulliver's Travels," and thence on to Fielding, Smollett, Richardson, in indicating those novels which are read at all in the present day. The "Castle of Otranto" was the obvious suggestion of Mrs. Radcliffe's once popular tales of mystery. They were outdone by Mrs. Shelley's horrible "Frankenstein," and we suppose there are traces of Mrs. Radcliffe in Poe and Bulwer.

We lately found Miss Burney's "Evelina" fresh reading on a dip into it. Godwin's "Caleb Williams" has not passed out of circulation. Miss Austen keeps her lame pristine with "Pride and Prejudice," "Sense and Sensibility," and "Emma." Lister's "Granby," and Ward's "Tremaine" are very occasionally taken up. They were precursors of Disraeli's "Vivian Grey," and more particularly of Bulwer's "Pelham." Miss Inch bald's "Simple Story" is a pretty thing. Nor can we forget "The Vicar of Wakefield."

But the modern novel begins with "Waverley." Scott is the fountain. A current from him appears in Dickens, with a far stronger one from Smollett. Thackeray has more of Fielding, with dashes of Balzac and Richardson. We cannot discern so much Balzac in him as he professes to have drawn.

Of the great French masters Dumas is more read in England than all the other Gallic novelists put together, except Jules Verne. However, we ought to put it the other way, and say Verne is more read than Dumas and all the rest put together. We will never forget the delightful novelty of broaching "Round the World in Eighty Days," and "Five Weeks in a Balloon." There is only one popular translation of a novel by Balzac—"Eugenie Grandet." Eugene Sue's "Mysteries of Paris" and "Wandering Jew" maintain an English circulation. Not more than two or three of George Sand's novels do so. English novelists have any amount of impunity in tapping the French reservoirs. Daudet, though, is a good deal read in English. Zola and Gaboriau advance in English circulation. Ohnet's "Ironmaster" has found its way across Channel.

A vein from Scott was worked out by G. P. R. James. Others have been industriously exploited by Ainsworth and James Grant. Mrs. Bray was a moonbeam of the Romantic School, and it has been found worth while, recently, to reprint her novels.

Bulwer was German, French, and English, a catholic genius. We can see his pickings from Scott, Fielding, Dickens, Balzac, Ainsworth, Goethe, Kotzebue, and everyone. This was the secret of the level he maintained in never getting written out. The contrast with Dickens is marked. Dickens, an observer, is not assimilative in regard to literary matter. Research did not aid his powers. A career of difficulty and poverty would have kept him at the high level. We see him rising up to "David Copperfield," and then sinking.

Dickens is traceable in Ainsworth, Marryat, Lever, Reade, Trollope and George Eliot, more or less. But we may as well say that every subsequent English novelist has some imprint from him. The Novel, as an abstract, may be looked upon as one thing from one mind. It is a snowball, but it mysteriously melts.

In disposing of our batch of old novels, we have a word for "Ten Thousand a Year," which is as smart as anything. It is worthy of Dickens, but Albert Smith never was. Shirley Brooks took a line which was worked more amply by Trollope. Mark Lemon was not noteworthy. Jerrold's talent was peculiar, acrid and vigorous. Nobody reads him now.

The women novelists have made a prodigious mark in the last twenty years. Mrs. Trollope, Antony's mother, has dropped into oblivion, with her 114 novels, all written after she was 50 years old. Miss Edgeworth is a name, and nothing more. George Eliot towers above all, ranking with Scott and Dickens. The Brontes are

little read.

Miss Braddon has marvellously kept up her prestige. She is inexhaustible. "Ishmael" is the best of her progeny. Mrs. Wood has slacked off. We don't read Mrs. Riddell nowadays, Rhoda Broughton maintains her standing. "Ouida" is unique, and nauseous to our palate as phosphorus. Miss Yonge still trickles with the pen of innocent debility, and so does Mrs. Craik. Miss Sewell and Miss Kavanagh were of the same school, Mrs. Oliphant, a woman of terrible fecundity, is almost as masculine as Trollope or Payn.

Shakspeare destroyed all his scaffolding. So did Dickens and Thackeray. Scott obtruded it somewhat. He is the only first class novelist we can call to mind who has done so. Who can tell anything of the genesis of "Don Quixote," "Gil Blas," or any masterpiece? Second class writers are always fond of displaying their scaffolding. Payn is beginning at it. Reade had no occasion to preserve a quarter of his materias, except for the fear that people would not know how hard he had worked.

We relish Trollope's recipe for producing novels between five a.m. and eight a.m. This is the secret of writing a "Prime Minister" or a "Is He Popenjoy?" Scott worked in the same hours, but never on Trollope's procrustean system. It just produces a Trollope. But his earliest and best work was done on the more free and easy plan, which is indispensable for running out the pure lees.

Wilkie Collins cannot be overlooked, though it is a cruel fate which prescribed that the inventor of a "Woman In White" must deteriorate in his cocooning. Yates, Le Fanu, and several others, have chiefly followed Collins as a model. The malign and sinister power of the author of "Guy Livingstone" is dead with him. Blackmore's "Lorna Doone" is almost in the first flight of the novels of the century. Black is a mechanical novelist in light comedy, and keeps nicely on a candied line. He is as full of cobweb as a spider. Or we may call him a nice lace-maker. We cannot stomach George Macdonald. It is the John Halifax business spun out. Give us the tune that goes manly, and for this you sometimes have to go to the women.

The best two novels of the past two years were "Democracy" and "The Breadwinners." They were both anonymous. We would not be surprised to hear that they were both by the same lady. A lady is the author of "The Leavenworth Case," which has only been eclipsed by "Called Back." We take it, however, that Crawford's talent is superior to that of Fergus or Anstey. We had almost forgotten to place Robinson, Murray, and Gibbon, in the chronicle of glory. But it will not do to lump with them our lecturer, Besant.

The craving for powerful novels is as strong as earth-hunger. Plenty of room for another Dickens. Perhaps the nearest approach to him, among contemporaries, is that racy sea-novelist, Russell. As we close this article many names crowd upon us. Cooper, Mayne Reid, and Aimard should be mentioned. Who was it that said "When a new book comes out, I take up an old one?" But we cannot sing the old songs. What is wanted is the old spirit in new work.

New Orleans.

WHEN in Melbourne with the show I promised you to write when we struck any place of particular interest at the moment. We decided to try New Orleans for the Exhibition season.

The city can now be reached by three routes—seaward, up the Mississippi; landward, down the Mississippi; or again across Continent from San Francisco, the lines being open right through. We sent our traps down river, from Vicksburg. I joined from New York, by sea.

As our mammoth paddle steamer, with the beam engine, beat up the Gulf of Mexico, I was thinking of the stagnation of times in old Spain. The Spaniards were settled on the shore of the Gulf for two centuries without discovering that the Mississippi existed, though its mouths poured out with the volume and diversity of those of the Ganges and Nile. The Mississippi was discovered from the land.

Passing a multitude of steamers and ships, we steamed up the embouchure for New Orleans, a distance of 103 miles from the ocean. The country is almost as flat as a pancake, with cotton plantations, sugar plantations, jute plantations, swamps, and tangle, a realisation of the Atchafalaya River in the "Octoroon." The Monarch of Waters, the mighty Mississippi, slops along languidly and muddily, with sludge from the flood freshes tinging it yellow. Any quantity of driftwood races and eddies on the current.

After a rich red sunset we had a majestic night scene, under the stars, while the plashing of the paddles indicated that we were making headway for the Crescent City, as New Orleans is termed, from its occupying the outside of a great scimitar bend of the river, its Brooklyn or Shoreditch being on the inner side. The lights of other steamers were like fire-flies on the river.

We approached New Orleans at sunrise. The immense city, which occupies more space than any on earth, I believe, is not impressive. It is not altogether unlike Calcutta, and yet more resembles Yeddo. There are no eminences to relieve the vision, as in Melbourne. A square twelve miles each way will not embrace the whole of New Orleans. This straggling city spreads over 150 square miles. Its population is about 220,000.

We hawsered into our place in the wharf line, which presents its seven miles of shipping and steamers on

both sides. Here the ocean traffic mingles with the fleet of superb Palace steamers from down the river. New Orleans is protected by dykes from its river, like Holland from the sea. The city is mostly below high water level of the Mississippi. The dyke is called the Levee. It extends all along, like the Thames embankment, with a breadth of 100 yards. This is the shipping line of business, livelier, in the export season, than London Docks.

The city slopes away from the Levee. There is nothing to correspond to Broadway or Bourke-street. The life of the city is spread out more than anywhere. The consequence is a general air of languor; the climate resembles Sydney, with a close heat, clammy and sticky. Romance pervades New Orleans. The American, French, and Spanish elements predominate, with an infusion of all other's from under the sun. The state of Louisiana and City of New Orleans were settled by the French. Afterwards this territory was handed over to the Spaniards. The French then obtained it again. A few years subsequent Napoleon sold Louisiana to the United States. Thus General Jackson obtained his chance for whipping the English.

The Exhibition Building is much on the ground lines of that in Melbourne, but not so substantial. The opening ceremony was very like the Melbourne, under a similar transept, with a multifarious band of music massed on the tiers behind the stage. New Orleans is enthusiastically musical. The performance was glorious. As regards the Exhibition itself, the cotton is, of course, the main feature, but the tremendous and unprecedented floods have wrought such destruction within the last three years, that the cotton display would have been far excelled before their occurrence. Sugar did not suffer to anything like such an extent, and has been the prime paying industry of Louisiana of late. The jute factories bring up Indian reminiscences, and are going ahead famously in consequence of the fibre processes invented here. There ought to have been Australians looking up the sugar and jute.

Melbourne, the Paris of the South, will have its carnival in future years. We remarked that over our Mardi Gras processions there, which made such a sensation. The New Orleanists are getting up a dazzling street phantasmagoria for the Exhibition. It will be at night, by torchlight, with a bewildering succession of triumphal cars, pulled by a host of gaily-caparisoned mules. The pageant is to embody mythological subjects on a gigantic scale, with tableaux of living figures, men and women, on the cars, brilliantly illuminated with the portable electric light.

Statistics show that it took nearly fifteen years after the end of the Civil War for New Orleans to recover the financial position which it held in 1860. That is to say in 1879 its revenue had only mounted again up to the pitch it had reached in 1860. The war made a radical change in New Orleans. Every Southerner was ruined. The city is now like Ninon de l'Enclos at the age of sixty. Traces abound of the sumptuous luxury of this Paradise in the last generation.

Religion in England.

DR. STOUGHTON'S two volumes on the History of Religion in England, from 1800 to 1850, are not very deep. They do not trace religion to the stomach or the liver. The staple is agreeable gossip about clergymen.

Surveying the religion of this century, in England, the most striking feature is undoubtedly the Tractarian movement, which broke up the way for the Church of Rome to get a footing. The names of Newman, Manning, and Faber are of the chief prominence in English Catholicism, but there has been, and is, a vast amount of unrecognised ability in the clerical ranks of the Church. We mean unrecognised outside the Church itself, for its ecclesiastics do not appear before the public.

From the position of a Newman, we descend through all the grades of Ritualism. Its mild, and, so to speak, orthodox form was illustrated in Keble and Hook. All the divisions of the Church of England in the present day, High, Low, and Broad, are characterised by great energy. There is little or no room for such easy-going prelates as Bishop Bathurst, of Norwich. This gentleman receives much more gentle treatment from Dr. Stoughton than he did from Dean Stanley, in the little memorial of his father, who succeeded Bathurst in the Norwich Bishopric.

It is a sign of the times that Bishop Temple, one of the authors of the Essays and Reviews, has been advanced from the see of Exeter to that of London, in succession to such a straitlaced ecclesiastic as Bishop Jackson. Energy, we say, is the common mark of such divergent characters, and views, as those of the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Bishops of Peterborough, Durham, Manchester, Liverpool, Litchfield, Bedford, Ripon, London, and Rochester. The Church of England is adopting fresh and aggressive measures to reach the lower classes. The Church Army, however, is regarded very doubtfully.

The Presbyterian Church is undergoing a remarkable upheaval. Chalmers and Guthrie would be aghast to view it. We notice that while the new "Encyclopædia Britannica" reprints Macaulay's article on Dr. Johnson, the theology contributed by Dr. Chalmers formerly has gone by the board, and is replaced by Robertson Smith and Company. There is no such aggressive and revolutionary liberalising movement in the Church of England to-day as there is among the Presbyterians. This is referable to German influence. It seems indispensable for the

young ministers to imbibe at the founts of Delitsch. Some stop there, and more don't.

The Wesleyan Church maintains a wonderfully solid front. We have a strong sympathy with this body, and discern in such men as Punshon, Rattenbury, Perks, Coley, Osborn, Rigg, Jenkins, Waddy, and many others, lately passed away or still living, efficient powers in helping to keep society leavened with true religion. This Church's firmness in dogma is the central source of its power. It stands almost as united as the Church of Rome.

The trouble of Wesleyanism is not heterodoxy, but worldliness. We do not know what amount of hypocrisy there may be. The conference records are singularly amicable on doctrine. Every man believes and preaches on the straight plank. But what worries the clergy is the sliding scale towards the fashionable party, the innocent card-table, the round dance, the concert and the theatre. Alas! Riches choke the word.

The Congregationals, or Independents, verge towards Unitarianism. Emerson said that every Denomination had its peculiar face. Contrast the anxious look of the Wesleyan with the comfortable and self-satisfied visage of the Independent. The Baptists produce more noteworthy men, but here again you see the effect of firmness in doctrine. Right or wrong, this produces the clergy of strong nerves, and those who make an impact on society.

We could not leave Mr. Spurgeon out of a list of the first three preachers in this century. Just consider the severity of the test applied to him, in the publication of 1500 of his sermons. Beecher is of higher mental calibre, but, we take it, he has never wielded such a deep spiritual power as Spurgeon. Spurgeon could never have recovered from a Tilton case. Beecher holds more of the attitude of a social statesman. His liberal divagations of late have strengthened the cause of orthodoxy in America. People connect the creed with the man, and *vice versa*. Talmage is a posturer, but exercises a wide influence for good, with his sledge-hammer.

George Eliot.

THE book of the season is the "Life of George Eliot," by her husband, Mr. Cross.

Mary Ann Evans, professionally known as George Eliot, was brought up in one of the Midland Counties, where she accumulated a large stock of observation on rustic life, low and high. Her religious views, as a young lady, were profoundly evangelical. She gradually became enlightened or corrupted, as the case may be put. A residence in London with John Chapman, of the *Westminster Review*, contributed to her emancipation. She translated Strauss' "Life of Jesus." In this she took up the work of a young lady who began it, but received an effective marriage offer, which diverted her attention.

In regard to marital relations a woman can do as she pleases if she has money, and genius almost absolves her. Miss Evans became the wife of Mr. Lewes, who had a wife living. It did not signify. A George Sand or a George Eliot is outside the common rule. Indignation is confined to the women who have no money or genius. Another reading of "What in the captain is but a choleric word, in the soldier is rank blasphemy." George Eliot teaches the teachers who expatiate on the poor fallen woman.

This is a sort of thing we care not to write about, but the humbug is so transparent.

We were thinking over the books of the century, in England, and ranged them thus:—"Marmion," "Childe Harold," "Waverley," "Pickwick," "Sartor Resartus," "Macaulay's History of England," and then come a cluster almost in one batch: Buckle's "History of Civilization," "The Origin of Species," "Colenso on the Pentateuch," "Tom Brown's School Days," and "Adam Bede." These five outweigh all the rest. They were flung out almost in one burst of a rocket, about a quarter of a century ago.

The depth of Miss Evans' affection for Mr. Lewes was evinced by her quick marriage to Mr. Cross. There is something unpleasant about the purely intellectual air of these marriages. It is not heavenly. It is a sort of soul cremation. But neither on this will we linger.

Miss Evans had the same kind of absurd admiration for Mr. Lewes that John Stuart Mill had for Mrs. Taylor, afterwards Mrs. Mill. Yet Lewes is credited with having recommended his "wife" to try fiction. She sent the first of her "Scenes of Clerical Life" to Mr. Blackwood, who soon perceived that it was a trump card for his magazine. "Adam Bede" followed, and achieved a prodigious *eclat* "The Mill on the Floss" was somewhat of a falling off "Silas Marner" was more of a success, and is considered by some critics to be the best of George Eliot's novels. "Felix Holt, the Radical," did not reach a high standard.

Opinions vary greatly on "Romola." We found it unreadable. The current of criticism appears to be settling upon it as a good chip of history, but an indifferent novel. We relished "Middlemarch" in its day better than anything of George Eliot's. With "Daniel Deronda," again, we could not meddle. The style is insufferable. However, it is impossible to fix a criterion of taste with the novel as you do with painting. Mrs. Cross's poetry was all below par.

Like George Sand, she was amiable and modest, and did not shine in society—unless she chose. She was passionately fond of classic music, and played the piano well.

Quite unusual preparations are being made for reviewing Mr. Cross's biography, in all the periodicals. We must give the cream in another article.

National Temperance Congress.

THE report is before us of the National Temperance Congress, held last year at Liverpool. We would like to see something of the kind in Australia.

A brewer restored Dublin Cathedral. A brewer presented the Church of England, in Victoria, with a Clergy Sanatorium. A brewer is the champion of the religious crusade against the Victorian Education Act. The Mayor of Melbourne is a liquor merchant, and the last Mayor was a maltster.

We are struck with the extraordinary hold which the liquor interest has over the clergy, the press, the magistracy, and the constabulary. The maxim of the press appears to be that the most valuable members of the community are the liquor-seller and the theatrical manager. It is impossible to insinuate a word into any one of the Melbourne newspapers about the terrible danger of the Melbourne theatres in the event of fire. What would happen if the front premises of the Theatre Royal caught fire, during a performance, or the ramshackle premises at the back of the Opera House, or the Bijou Theatre, which is all upstairs?

We attended the annual licensing meeting of the Melbourne City Bench, last December, and could not help noticing the depraved look of the trade in general, as there massed together. Yet the Bench seemed to be overwhelmed with its respectability. Only two hotels were nipped out, with infinite trouble. Infamous places were left to carry on. The impression conveyed was that the Bench did all they could to avoid punishing liquor-sellers. "Vested Interests" is the word. We ourselves are afraid to write. With a handful of truth we only dare to open a little finger. The Old Man of the Sea, in the shape of the Alcohol Trafficker, sits firmly on the shoulders of the taxpayer, wielding every engine of the law, besides the forces of piety.

Hartley Williams.

MR. JUSTICE HIGINBOTHAM startled the town with his lecture on Science and Religion, which led to the whole proceedings against the Rev. Chas. Strong, who presided. Now Mr. Justice Williams is afield with a similar attack on Christianity, in a pamphlet.

Mr. Williams is a young judge, son of an old judge. He has made his colleagues a little uneasy with his bicycling, his patronage of cricket and rowing, and his pronounced opinion on British sentiment with regard to Queen Victoria. Now he breaks out in a fresh place. The judge has always kept himself simmering in warm water, but he is a favourite. The only time he fairly caught it (but he has not caught it yet this time) was in his sympathetic sentence of Sieber, a young Hungarian, who romantically shot at a young lady in a hotel. His Honour said it was a case of too much Kotzebue. So a local poet wrote:—

*"When the murderer is not practising with his revolver,
Or meditating on a project new,
Of theologic problems he's a solver,
And a student of the works of Kotzebue."*

The perusal of this verse is said to have so tickled the fancy of the judge that he started at once on theologic problems himself. Another verse of the ditty ran:—

*"When the garotter is not practising with his fingers,
Or extracting the mouchoir from beauty's robe,
He relishes sweet Opera Buffy singers,
And gloats o'er Bishop Moorhouse on poor Job."*

Our judge thought Job was played out, and took a wider field. He is awaiting, with gusto, a worry from the fox-terriers of the pulpit.

Herat.

THE Powers are always at war. In the balance of power each watches every other. England's troubles in the Soudan afford Russia's opportunity to steal a march on India by threatening Herat, which is the most commanding position in Asia, the ganglionic centre from which the roads radiate to Persia, Tartary, Afghanistan, and India. Of Herat may be said, in one sense, as of ancient Rome, "All roads lead to Herat." Therefore it is termed the Key of India.

Lord Beaconsfield's policy was to grasp Afghanistan, and make his "scientific frontier" beyond it. Fifteen millions sterling were sunk over this enterprise, abandoned by Mr. Gladstone. One cannot help reflecting on the instability of English political counsels. How was it that a leader, such as Lord Beaconsfield, could pledge the people to an enterprise which was hateful to them? Surely the government of Eng and must be, in reality, not responsible, but the most irresponsible of all. We see this again in the purchase of the Suez Canal shares.

But the grand element of safety to England is the Nihilism of Russia. Although the hypocrisy of diplomacy necessitates expressions of sympathy with the Czar, English statesmen cannot view with dissatisfaction the sapping at the core of the strength of the Colossus. What is the use of extending the Russian frontier, and adding to the huge unwieldy dominion?

Yet fate drives them on. Russia must invade India, as a Nemesis for the British conquest. The life of Clive shows rapine, treachery, and greed. The seeds were then sown of Russian invasion.

Lord Dufferin is plunged into a position of terrible anxiety. He has to act. The details of his work can only be faintly imagined. Of course the population of India sympathises neither with Russia nor England, except in so far as the sensible people prefer King Log to King Stork.

Russia has a tremendous advantage in the base of operations, swarming down from landward. England's disadvantage need only be suggested, in having to ship all her British troops to India. We remember that there was once a mutiny of the Sepoys. The Russians are civilising Central Asia. Would England do it?

It is characteristic of the different styles of the two nations, that while England has a "Frontier Commission" at work, Russia pushes along its soldiers. The Asian policy initiated by Peter the Great moves on with the stealthy steps of Tarquin's Ghost.

Madame Clovis Hugues.

THE *cause celebre* of Madame Hugues, for shooting Morin, presents many difficulties in arriving at a correct judgment.

A Madame Lenormand, who appears to have been a foolish kind of elderly woman, had excellent cause to suspect her husband of infidelity with a number of females. She placed the matter in the hands of Clerget, who keeps a private inquiry office. This man employed Morin as a clerk and detective. Clerget and Morin plied Madame Lenormant with a quantity of supposed evidence about her husband's relations with Madame Hugues, wife of Clovis Hugues, a member of the Legislature. We cannot ascertain whether there was any acquaintance between Lenormant and Madame Hugues. At all events the charges seem to have been grossly fabricated.

M. and Madame Hugues are prominent members of the Secularist, and indeed Anarchist party. They evinced their sympathy with Louise Michel, who is now being ground to death in prison. Rochefort was a leading figure in the press box at Madame Hugues' trial.

When Morin's charges reached the ears of Madame Hugues, about three years ago, as we judge, she called upon Madame Lenormant, who said, "Pooh, pooh, my child. What does it matter? My husband has so many mistresses that one more or less does not signify." Madame Hugues, however, said it was a very serious matter for her, and wanted to get a retraction from Madame Lenormant. They could not settle this. Madame Hugues took a loaded revolver with her, in calling upon Madame Lenormant, and was only prevented from using it by the interference of M. Hugues, who accompanied her.

Failing to obtain satisfaction, Madame Hugues began an action for libel against Madame Lenormant, Clerget, and Morin. Madame Lenormant died. Clerget absconded. The proceedings were continued against Morin alone, who was sentenced to two years' imprisonment for libelling Madame Hugues. This was two years Ago. Morin appealed. Through the vexatious delays of the law the appeal has been kept hanging on to the present time.

Madame Hugues admits that she made up her mind to shoot Morin at the very inception of this case, but she was afraid that the act would give colour to the accusation against her. Her proceedings throughout have been most deliberate, without any excuse on the ground of momentary passion. About a fortnight before she shot Morin, she had walked about for a day with a loaded revolver, looking out for him on the public thoroughfares.

On the day of the tragic occurrence there had been proceedings at the High Court of Justice over the case of *Hugues v. Morin*. When the parties came out of court, Morin, according to Madame Hugues, darted at her one of his usual triumphant and insulting looks. She had the revolver loaded in six chambers, up her sleeve. She drew it forth, and fired all the chambers successively at Morin who lowered his head, and put up an arm as if to protect it. Three of the shots hit him. He was carried home, and died ten days afterwards. M. Hugues was close by when his wife fired the shots. We suppose he made some effort to stop her, but after it was done he said, in the style so peculiarly French, "My child, thou hast well done."

The trial was rattled on with a rapidity unknown to English law. There was no intermediary procedure at a

police court. The benefits of the bi-cameral system of inquiry were strikingly evinced by its absence in this case.

The trial was before three judges and a jury of twelve. M. de Glajeux acted as presiding judge, and the others are described as almost dummies. Much obloquy has been bestowed on M. de Glajeux, a ferrety little man, who hunted Madame Hugues, in examination, with all the bloodthirstiness of a tiger, so they say. He presided at the sensational Fenayrou trial, when a husband, his wife, and his brother were convicted of murdering the wife's paramour. In that case his network closed around with the accompaniment of public sympathy.

It appears to us that M. de Glajeux carried out his duty with a fearless contempt for an excited public. An accused person in France has scarcely any of the English safeguards. The prisoner is cross-examined not only by the prosecuting counsel, but also by the judge. M. de Glajeux is famed for his skill in trapping prisoners.

His duel with Madame Hugues was described by the dramatic artists present as simply magnificent. There was the keen little judge, with a Jack Ketch cap on, exchanging rapier thrusts with a large and fine-looking woman dressed in black, including a velvet mantle and a small black bonnet, which displayed to the full her Jewish-looking, pale, fat, but handsome, visage.

Where the judge had her on the hip was over the post-cards. She said her crime (excuse the word) would never have been committed but for a shoal of post-cards sent to her and her husband by Morin. They were villainous, and some grossly indecent. Morin never could speak after he was shot, but he wrote, "I never sent the post-cards." None of them were in his hand-writing. Madame Hugues' very thin answer to the judge was that the postcards must have come from Morin's friends, if not from himself, and were at his instigation. They continued to flow in upon the Hugues even after Morin's death.

A glaring scandal was the audience in court turning the place into a theatre. The crush was tremendous, although an endeavour had been made to regulate the admissions. The whole thing was a disgusting exhibition of the blow-flies of society—its judges' friends, ambassadors, ambassadrices, authors, actors, actresses, and all the rest of the idlers about the ship.

We have mentioned the Radical proclivities of Hugues and his wife. These were enough to divide society into two camps, each represented by its newspapers. Madame Hugues has two children.

The presiding judge insisted on having the trial finished in one day, so that it lasted till near two o'clock in the morning. All this helped to work up the desperate excitement. Madame Hugues was acquitted, after the jury had deliberated twenty-five minutes. Only six were straight out for acquittal, two being for a conviction, and the other four wouldn't vote at all. We presume they had the terrors of some kind of avenger before them, such as follows the Irish juries. If a government could not protect us we would certainly refuse to jurise on its cases.

The minimum sentence for Madame Hugues' offence would have been five years. It is believed the jury would have convicted if they were assured that the sentence would be light. The prosecuting counsel hinted to them that the sentence would probably be commuted. Altogether we are surprised at the irregularity of French courts, as brought out in this case. The style is the same as we joke at on the stage.

Talking of sentences, we have often thought that juries ought to impose them. A convict's term depends on the mere whim of the judge—perhaps on what he had for dinner.

We ought to have stated higher up that the accusation by Morin, against Madame Hugues, referred to a period before her marriage, when she was Mdlle. Rayonneau. She is twenty-nine years of age.

Khartoum.

OUR article on "Soudan Gordon" was in type before the news arrived of his death. We took up the pen to hack it in conformity with the altered position of affairs, but decided to act the Pilate, "What I have written I have written." Our expectation then was that Lord Wolseley and General Gordon would return together in triumph to London. But the gods have ordered otherwise.

The demise of a great man very properly modifies criticism, poured out in the heat and rush of events. At the same time, it does not alter facts. With all admiration of Gordon, as the first Briton of his day, we must persist in saying he was a dangerous man. Genius and fanaticism allied form a gunpowder combination. We wrote before in cold blood, and must not go back on it under stress of enthusiasm.

A word about the Mahdi. The original Mahdi was a Caliph of Bagdad, father of the renowned Haroun Alraschid, of the Arabian Nights, and flourished eleven hundred years ago. His piety gave him a character like that of Saint Louis of France. He put milestones all the way from Bagdad to Mecca, and did ever so many other pious things. Besides this he was a noted conqueror of the enemies of the One True Faith.

A cunning old politician, Mr. Dailey, seized the nick of time to proffer a New South Wales contingent to Mr. Gladstone. He will not quarrel with us for saying he had not the remotest idea it would be accepted. All Australia was startled when the news came of acceptance. Victoria, of course, played the After Game, but was,

unluckily, too late. However, Mr. Service has admitted Mr. Dailey's superior wit with a very good grace. You see the two veteran politicians played a card game. Service plumped down the Jack of Annexation, Dailey trumps it with Soudan.

Great Britain has its forty millions, in a cramped space. Why don't we hear of a quarter of a million volunteering for the Soudan? Why are there none at all? Dailey's action was evidently a piece of claptrap. Beaconsfield fetched up the Sepoys to Malta, and Gladstone fetches the cornstalks from Australia. But, in their ignorance, the English statesmen think that the acceptance of the Sydney volunteers is a grateful compliment to Melbourne!

Our preachers and Moollahs lead off the cry of "Revenge!" and "Blood!" but surely the Arabs are patriots? What would we say to a Mahdi Gordon in our midst?

Gordon's splendid fortifications at Khartoum make a regular Herat of that place. Must England hold it? If the English leave the Soudan, they will have to raze this stronghold.

The Iberia.

NOVELISTS are often puzzled for a title. They write the whole book and it is only at the last moment that a name can be fixed on. It was so with our first number. We had jointed a Review together, but it was the deuce and all to find a title. "National," was decided on, when, with the perverseness of the dumb prophet father who wrote, "His name is John," we splashed the pen over the printed page with "Imperial."

We have won the affection of the Royal Colonial Institute in London, as has been evidenced in touching little ways, very flattering to us, but, as the Frenchman said after a dubious looking story, "I don't mean vat you mean." Our Imperial is not their Imperial. We must give them a galvanic shock by declaring that Imperial Federation is a chimera.

Magazines are written and published with prodigious toil and worry with an aim. Theoretically it is to advance great principles. Practically it is to yield a dividend. A sage once remarked that you have to get up on one side of the saddle, and when you are astride you can balance yourself. Our title was picked from a conviction that the young men of Australia were wholly out of political sympathy with their fathers. Years ago we could discern the nascent military spirit. We staked our all upon it. Doubtless the bias has been perceptible.

The awfully momentous nature of the proceeding, in the despatch of an Australian contingent to the Soudan, was not fully realisable until the *Iberia* steamed away with them through Port Jackson. When those soldiers were torn away, so to speak, we felt as if there had been something like a tidal wave. In a former number we depicted the scene as our familiar ocean steamer, the *Orient*, bore up to Ismailia with the Guards on board. It never occurred to us for a moment that, in a year or two, the scene would be outdone, from an Australian point of view, by such a sensation as the departure of the *Iberia*. Such excitement was never before witnessed in Australia. It recalled, but far surpassed, that in Sydney over the funeral of Wentworth twelve years ago.

Now all Australia is arming up, as if the Soudan was on our own frontier. This shows the military spirit which underlies our devotion to out-door sports—cricket, football, rowing, racing, and bicycling. The Victorians are determined to go to the Soudan.

We discerned all the fire, all the fever, at the presentation of prizes in connection with the Rifle Association at the Melbourne Town Hall, in February. The left-hand half of the floor was occupied by the red coats, the right-hand side by the blue jackets. They were all alive, all agog, brimming over with the Soudanese Greek fire. The air was electric. It is no use lifting our mop to dam back the Atlantic.

Nevertheless the whole business is hateful to us. Because Gordon is killed Australia must fly to the Soudan! Meanwhile England is torpid, indifferent, unconcerned, and classes poor Gordon with poor Burnaby, Earle, and Stewart. The fact is the Australians want to fight for the pure love of fighting, and seize on any excuse. Nor will any amount of disaster flatten them. "We don't want to fight," say the English. "Wedo," say the Australians, "and insist on fighting. We don't care whether it is Arabs, Germans, French or Choctaws."

This sentiment, you know, is shockingly mischievous. It proves that there is no democracy among the young Australians. They want absolutism—and they will have it. No nation ever yet went begging for a dictator. Australia is impatient of the whole political system fastened upon it.

But the gentlemen of the Royal Colonial Institute must not confound a love of fighting with a love of Great Britain. The Australian means to have independence. He is exercising his arms.

Seriously, we are sorry this expedition has gone. It does not bode well for the British connection. It is a bit of filibustering. A great deal of misery will result. Our expectation is that the Australian contingent will be plunged into the thick of the fighting. Their losses will be heavy. Sickness, too, will slay more than battle. Gladstone and Derby think that it is only a flash in the pan. They are mistaken. Australia is in for it. The gaps in the ranks will have to be filled up with fresh shipments of men after the Australians have found their Abuklea

and El Teb. Australia must be taxed for the Soudan war. The cry of the widows, orphans, and a host of dependents will wring our hearts. We have tripped into war with a light heart, like Ollivier. Our soldiers will be so many obstinate Gordons. We can play the Gladstone here at home, but will be forced to back them up while the taxpayer stands aghast.

This expedition recalls Cavour's move of sending the Sardinian contingent to the Crimea, and thus obtaining a voice in the councils of Europe. It is more effective than sending Australian members to the English Parliament.

Frontier of Events.

The telegraph places us in such immediate communication with the great nerve-centres of the world that correspondence is superseded.

In the London Budget, the narrow escape of the Cabinet is the prime item. Mr. Gladstone's retirement may be looked for. Perhaps Lord Hartington is the coming Premier. Neither Lord Salisbury, nor Sir Stafford Northcote, nor any Conservative leader, inspires personal confidence. Granville will never achieve the blue ribbon, except as a warming-pan. Churchill is too young to come to the fore as yet. Chamberlain will be Premier some day.

Bismarck's malice is apparent in the Russian advance upon Herat. "Shall I yield?" inquires De Giers. "No!" replies Bismarck. This Russian move means retaliation for the English Blue Book publications, in response to German Colonial annexation.

Bismarck said very bitter things of Lord Augustus Loftus, while Ambassador at Berlin. Lord Ampthill was more to his taste. Now he appears to have found a bugbear in Sir E. Malet. The Diplomatic Tension, as they call it, is over the Blue Book publication of an interview between Bismarck and Malet. A great deal depends on the tact of the British Ambassador at Berlin. Even the Russian invasion of India depends on it in no small degree.

General Lewal is the new French Minister of War. He replaces General Campenon, who followed General Thibaudin, an inveterate Republican of the Lannes and Augereau pattern. Campenon retired because he would not coincide in the aggressive Chinese measures proposed by the Ministry.

General Campenon has grasped this occasion to make political capital, by an expression of his opinions, as outspoken as that famous speech of General Skobelev, in Paris, when he declared that war between Germany and Russia was inevitable. Campenon says that the French army must not be dissipated abroad, in view of its grand object and aim—the *Revanche* upon Germany. Of course M. Ferry is keenly annoyed.

A caricaturist depicts John Bull as an organ grinder, with Italy as his monkey.

There is nothing quite express to hand about the Geographical Congress at Berlin relative to the Congo and Africa in general, although it is not one of the most recent events. Mr. Stanley attended, but not purely as an English representative. Where is De Brazza? The Congress has arbitrarily chalked out the dominion on the Congo, somewhat to the disadvantage of England.

Bismarck's ultimate aim is to secure an alliance with England, his expressed view being that with the best army and the best navy, Germany and England ought to rule the world. He wants to overthrow Gladstone, who, with his Republican sympathies, clings to the French Alliance—as we do. It may be remembered that the Beaconsfield Government, just before its downfall, concluded an alliance with Germany and Austria, directed against Russia and France. Gladstone broke it down at once.

Echoes from Piccadilly.

Dvorak is the musician of the moment.

I assure you Jane Hading is Sarah's formidable rival.

General Gordon's birthday was January 28th., age 52.

Battenberg will hardly relish the Mother-in-Law business.

The German Emperor's tenure of life is vitally important just now.

Professor Huxley ought to take a run out to Australia and recruit.

The "Private Secretary" is still the most amusing play in London.

Sarasate is the only violinist, and witches London with his luscious bowing.

Heard anything of Berlioz in Melbourne yet? Damnation of Faust? Messe Solennelle?

Read Henry Chaplin on "Hermit," the racehorse, in the new periodical, *England*.

Patti's £400 a night, and so on, has made a failure of the Covent Garden Italian Opera Season.

Miss Fortescue is not married—yet. Garmoyle travels leisurely home through the United States.

Wolseley's eye troubles him, and, like Gambetta, he has only one, having left the other in the Crimea.

The question is whether Augustus Harris will try "Theodora" at Drury Lane, with Mrs. Bernard Beere.

The curious want to know how much Sankey pocketed over the hymn-books, but Moody wouldn't take any. Have you received the score yet of that fleshy, secular, successful oratorio, Mackenzie's "Rose of Sharon?" Like Napoleon, Scott, Buckle, Garfield, and most other great men, Chinese Gordon owed everything to his mother.

Please tell me who Mr. Henniker Heaton is. Ginx's Baby Jenkins has retired, and now comes another buzzing gadfly.

Who is to command in Egypt if Lord Wolseley bites the-dust? Sir Red vers Buller? This young General is Chief-of-Staff.

"Edward VI.," "Edward VII.," so is the succession settled. The young Prince will be no Hal, and takes Germany as his model.

Will Wilson Barrett go to America, with "Claudlan" and "Hamlet?" I think so. What fresh realm is left in London for him to conquer?

President Cleveland and Henry Irving were lately present at a performance, by Joseph Jefferson, of Goliathly, in "Lend Me Five Shillings."

The religious world in France draws a moral from the financial circumstances which worried Edmond About to death.

Capital likeness of Sir Salmon, in *Vanity Fair*. He is looking up. No more occasion to entertain poor Blue Bloods, of the Teck tribe.

General Sir F. Roberts is kept very quiet in his Madras command. Perhaps he will come with a rush. Will he ever be wanted again in Afghanistan?

A nice little business that of the dynamitards—blowing up Parliament Houses. What, oh, what would old Guy not have done if he had dynamite?

Our youngest general is Sir Herbert Stewart, aged 42. In his boyhood he was a crack of Winchester school as a wicket-keeper and forward football player.

We have been much impressed with the funeral of our excellent Bishop of London, Jackson. The whole grave was lined with moss and flowers, making it quite a thing of beauty.

Yates is making capital by writing letters from his prison to the *World*. He aptly nicks off Fred Burnaby by likening his appearance to an Italian baritone, rather than a dashing Guardsman.

Goschen has withdrawn his name from the Liberal clubs, and all but throws in his hat with the Conservative party. He will be wanted, as Chancellor of the Exchequer.

Mrs. Langtry has made a *fiasco*, appearing as Princess Georges, at the Prince's. The play, by Dumas, is too gamey. Besides, it was badly done.

And they say the Bancrofts have cleared £100,000 by theatrical management. Contrast this with the failure of a man like Chatterton—the manager, not the poet. Where's the secret? How were the Bancrofts launched at the little Prince o'Wales'?

Alex. M'Kinley and Co., Printers, Queen Street, Melbourne.

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Contents.

The Imperial Review.

Froude's Carlyle.

SIR FRETFUL PLAGIARY, in the *Critic*, traces detraction to the "Good Natured Friend." "If one is praised, it is a foolish vanity to be gratified with it, but if there is abuse, why, one's always sure to hear of it from some-'d Good Natured Friend, or other." Carlyle found a Good Natured Friend in Froude. We suppose he used to snub "young" Froude awfully. Froude would rub his hands, like Newman Noggs, and chuckle, "A day will come, ha! ha!" Obviously there was a rankle. Generosity is not written on the visage of Froude. He is not a kindly

Boswell. If Boswell had only painted all Johnson's mental warts and wrinkles, as Froude has done with poor old Tom—the literary Caliban of genius—the famous Life of Johnson would have become an unpleasant pathological study—like the Memorials of Carlyle. We have been celebrating the Johnson centenary. Froude has effectually prevented the celebration of a Carlyle Centenary. Johnson would have been forgotten but for Boswell, who embalmed himself and his friend together.

Mrs. Carlyle challenges our sympathies strongly. She flung away her life, and might have become a happy mother of a family—the sun and centre of a happy home. Instead of this, she committed the fatal mistake of allying herself with the genius who treated her so cruelly.

Carlyle's philosophic influence has almost died out. His philosophy was radically false. The bulbous-brained young men of thirty years ago were gone over Car-r-lyle, with a strong roll of the "r." Common sense, expediency, cheerfulness, and brightness in life, were all to be abandoned for a dismal creed, made up of the everlasting No! mixed with Hero Worship of force, and indeed, fraud. The intellectual world has cast off this rubbish, leading into Serbonian bogs and all the Phlegethon of Mud, as the philosopher would say.

Carlyle resented Jeffrey's attempt at trimming his bushy thoughts. He plunged more and more into his exasperating style. This was pure affectation, like the disfigurements' of Irving's acting, the strut and the gasp. Cunning Carlyle found that it paid. He insisted on his wens, magnified them, and when he was most unintelligible the worshippers said he was most glorious.

His early papers, Encyclopædia contributions, and some of the essays, are written in an excellent style, broad, Saxon, honest, and clear-toned as a bell. But he becomes a Paganini, and rasps on one string. His admirers got the taste for *Pate de Foie Gras*—diseased Goose Liver. He gratified them to the full, culminating in the "Frederick" which, apart from style, is one of the two or three real great English works of this century.

We are working off the yeast of our dislike to Carlyle, but will do justice to his merits before we have done. Setting aside his bastard German diction and his false ideals, there is to be found the man of research and accuracy. He never makes a mistake.

"Sartor Resartus," in its earlier numbers was almost enough to give the *coup de grace* to Fraser's Magazine. This work will infallibly die. It is a piece of literary Wagnerism which sets the teeth on edge and sharpens files. And we say that its philosophy is false. The wickedness and hollowness of the present age has been the theme of writers ever since the year one. Meanwhile, the world is carried on by practical and useful people, and continually improved. But writers are like actors, each has his line.

Carlyle's was the "O. Smith." A writer finds that the atrabilious suits his pen, and accordingly he pours out the bile for a livelihood.

While the "Frederic" is Carlyle's most ambitious effort, the "French Revolution" is his only work in which the style fits the topic. Doubtless we echo the sentiment of the bulk of our own readers in saying that the "French Revolution" is his only readable book. It is unique in English prose. At the same time, like Gibbon's "Rome," it is minutely accurate. Carlyle's "Cromwell" is a rhapsody so very inartistic that posterity will shelve it in favour of some biography the essentials of which can only be drawn from this remarkably conscientious work by Carlyle.

"Frederick the Groat" occupied him thirteen years, only reckoning from when he began to write it. Its inception was a high tribute to Carlyle's sagacity in foreseeing the development of Prussia. The work cost him infinite toil and pain. However, this is the condition of greatness. All the jargon of the writing cannot choke or stifle a book with such an imperishable texture. Even military critics cannot pick the slightest fault in its technicality.

Carlyle was a historian. His speculations are vague and wild. The collation of facts, vivifying the past, was his forte. We are sorry that he was moulded by German rather than by French influences. The gold has to be taken with the quartz. Here was the best endowed English mind of his time. Education and circumstances happened unfortunately. Yet labour smashed and crashed through the forest to an ultimate professional success. The result is a name only. There is not the faintest tinge discernible of Carlyle's philosophic influence in current literature.

Maxims of War.

THE Art of War is the Art of Life, because benevolence is always ready precisely when it is not wanted. The only Right is Might.

"The Will is the Man." This is the first maxim. When a friend of General Grant's went to Mrs. Grant, and told her that her husband's military operations were on an impossible basis, she went on with her knitting, and quietly said, "Oh, but you know, he is such an obstinate man." That was the secret of Fort Donelson, Vicksburg, and the Wilderness.

Bacon writes that in war we require the hundred eyes of Argus to plan, and the hundred hands of Briareus to execute; caution in strategy, celerity in tactics. First the blow and then the word. This is illustrated in Russia's advance upon India. England has illustrated it frequently and habitually. A conspicuous instance which occurs to mind is Nelson's destruction of the Danish Fleet, at Copenhagen, to prevent it from falling into the clutches of Napoleon. Admiral Courbet's bombardment of Foochow, the Russian destruction of the Turkish Fleet at Sinope, and the English bombardment of Alexandria, come within the same category.

We all remember how the split between Beaconsfield and Derby was precipitated by the British Fleet steaming through the Dardanelles, and menacing Constantinople. England and Russia were both ready to pounce on the prize. Of course, possession is nine-tenths of the law. So again with Herat. It belongs to Russia just as much as to England, in fact, to whoever is strong enough to bind the strong man.

Totleben and Kinglake agree that Lord Raglan and St. Arnaud, with the Allied Armies, could have marched straight into Sebastopol, after the victory of the Alma. A delay of only a few days enabled Todleben to improvise the defences which necessitated a disastrous siege of two years.

"In War, The Moral is to the Physical as three to one." This is Sir W. Napier's favourite maxim in writing of the Peninsula War. It was evidenced there strikingly enough, with the ill-welded armies of Junot, Victor, Massena, Soult, Ney, Marmont, and Jourdain, variously defeated by Wellington, at Vimiera, Talavera, Salamanca, Vittoria, and the other battles of this war. However, the British experience in India is much more pertinent to the axiom.

"Nothing happens but the unforeseen," Some individual, though, will invariably be found to possess the secret of Achilles' vulnerable heel. When Wellington fortified the inexpugnable lines of Terres Yedras, he stood quite alone in the opinion that they would be of any avail against the overwhelming mass of the French Army, which was to drive the English to their ships. Yet he persevered for months in this dismal work. We recall a graphic letter by Lord John Russell, where he describes how he rode with Wellington along the lines, and watched the myriad tents of Massena's Army spread out below.

The eagle eye of Wellington gazed brightly, cheerfully, and confidently on the spectacle. The corner was then rounded. Massena had to retreat, and be pursued.

The war maps, hurriedly issued by English publishers on the outbreak of war between France and Prussia, in 1870, gave Germany as the arena of conflict, with only a small slice of France. But Trochu had given the warning. So did Bismarck ten years before, when, as French Ambassador, he dilated on his audacious projects to Napoleon III. There never was a falser maxim than "Forewarned is Forearmed." It is just the very way of lulling an antagonist into false security to tell him exactly what you mean to do.

Grant expressed his admiration for, and envy of, the magnetic power in influencing men possessed by General Sheridan. At Five Forks this was the power which captured a key position equivalent to Quatre Bras or a little Herat. While planning the operations which led up to this capture, Grant was fully sensible of their extreme difficulty. He has related how that, on giving Sheridan an alternative course to pursue, in the event of failure, he noticed the chagrin on Sheridan's face at the suggestion of the possibility of such a thing. "But you'll not fail," said Grant, warming up. Sheridan seized his hand, and exclaimed; "General, that's what I like to hear you say!" However, to achieve this success, he had to fling himself off his horse, grasp the standard as it fell from the hands of a man shot down, and lead the rally on foot.

Sheridan's ride from Washington, when he turned his flying and disorganised troops upon the enemy, and beat General Early in the Shenandoah Valley, is an achievement which is unique in the chronicles of warfare. Somebody may be able to refer to its parallel—we cannot. This forcibly illuminates the saying of Wellington that he estimated the presence of Napoleon as equal to 40,000 men.

Cromwell at Dunbar, Napoleon at Austerlitz, and Wellington at Salamanca, all conquered by seizing the movement to strike when the enemy was executing an unwise extension. It was an opportunity like the foam of ocean, "a moment white, then lost for ever." There is all the regularity of mechanism in studying these grand operations. Jomini, as a young Swiss lieutenant, astonished Napoleon by a transparent analysis of his principles, which even Napoleon himself could not have enunciated so plainly.

The Nursery Garden.

OUR note-book refers to a Nursery Garden in Brisbane, where the assemblage of varied plants, growing in the open air, is more diversified than at any other spot on the surface of the globe. Meandering through this Paradise of Acclimatisation, we branched off with a reverie on the plantation of little baby trees, in serried rows, ranging through the Gum, Pine, Oak, Elm, Palm, Sequoia, Redwood, Wellingtonia, and all the majestic kings of The Forest.

In a delicious summer day's ramble through the Gippsland woods, we nipped up one of the myriad of tiny stringy bark trees, and reflected on how we had thus spoilt a life which might have extended as far into the

future as the execution of Charles I. is in the past. At Hatfield Park, the seat of the Marquis of Salisbury, we are shown several oak trees said to be a thousand years old, and the cedars of Lebanon bear their record of two thousand.

Our Gippsland jaunt extended over a bush fire area, where all round, as far as the eye could reach, the forest was a tree-cemetery of great blackened trunks, prone, upright, or leaning on each other's shoulders, a realisation of what we once saw in a theatrical spectacle called the "Cataract of the Ganges, or the Burning Wood of Himalaya." The ground was almost foot-deep in ashes and cinder, steamy after rain. But this sight was not so painful as another in which we wandered, a large forest of fine trees all bleached as white as skeletons. It suggested Dante's grim Inferno.

We have been much impressed by engravings in *Harper's Weekly*, showing the fruits of destruction in the American forests. The finest speech Sir Julius Vogel ever made was that in which he introduced the New Zealand Forest bill. In Victoria, the devastation has been frightful, especially in saplings for mining purposes.

Yet there is another side of the picture. The last bush fires in Michigan were worse than any known in Australia. They denuded vast areas of trees. But it is said that the earth will be so fertilised, by the thick showers of ashes, as to yield a magnificent agricultural country, excelling Nebraska and Arizona.

We have heard Mr. Fitzgibbon, the Melbourne Town Clerk, recall how he rode with Governor Latrobe over Royal Park, as chalked out, and Latrobe dilated on his generous provision of lungs for the city, in Royal Park, Fitzroy Gardens, Carlton Gardens, the Botanical, and Studley Park. But how Royal Park has been mangled with the abortive Model Farm, the abandoned Industrial School's workhouse, or rather Gaol, the railway, and the villa frontages. Even the Zoo is an infringement. What we love is the ample sylvan Park, the Walmer, Longleat, Kinross, or Lus-combe, of dreamy British reminiscence. Mr. Fitzgibbon in his praiseworthy antagonism to the villa Runemups, has shown how the London Corporation had to buy hack Epping Forest. Even the dog of the poor Cit feels that he must have a bite at grass sometimes.

Let us heartily congratulate Mr Guilfoyle on his triumph at the Melbourne Botanic Gardens, with their quartette of refreshing lawns, the velvety grass kept green all the summer. Amid suburban greenery we find *Review* pabulum as abundant as hay under the sharp and flashing knives of the chaff-cutting machine. Mr. Hodgkinson, too, is splendidly vindicated in the Fitzroy Gardens, where the superabundant foreign trees are so picturesquely varied by the slashed flower-beds, in the grass, of bright scarlet geraniums and white carnations. Observe, also, how Carlton Gardens have become a thing of beauty and a joy forever. Since the Exhibition was built there, a wilderness of kerosene tins, brickbats, and bottle-ends has been magically transformed into a luscious garden.

Years ago Baron Von Mueller took us over the hill of the Prince's Bridge Reserve, and proudly displayed the 1600 young pine-trees he had planted, as a forest in which young and old Melbourne would recreate in the Twentieth Century. Alas! they were torn up. Government House, that compound of Osborne Palace, and a railway locomotive now occupies the site. Nevertheless the Baron was wise.

One's imagination is fed vividly by the *al fresco fetes* so popular at the mansions of the wealthy around Melbourne. We conceived our romance of "Semiramis," with its magnificent festival by night in the illuminated Hanging Gardens of Babylon, from Sir Thomas Merino's ball at Toorak, where the thrum, rasp, and tootle of the band, in view of the lights of Melbourne, wreathed witchery round the garden, hung with Chinese lanterns, as the shadows of the dancers flitted on the canvas of the marquee, and the carriages came crushing up the gravel.

Edmond About.

EDMOND ABOUT suggests the enlargement of our friend Edmund Yates, but of course we proceed to write of the brilliant Frenchman.

"One thing thou lackest." Is not this our sentiment in reviewing the career of Edmond About? Why did that effulgent literary sun set in thick clouds? The eulogies at the open grave were not marked by the exuberant hope which has been witnessed at the interment of a poor soldier of Marechale Booth, from Valmy.

Reading and memory both furnish us with instances of the profound effect of the Funeral Oration at an open grave. One of the most touching was at the grave of Sir Charles Napier, when his brother, Sir William, stood up before the mass of soldiery, and said, "Comrades, there lies one of the best men, one of the best soldiers—"after which he broke down. In Australia we can never, no never, forget the splendid oration delivered by Sir James Martin over the grave of Wentworth, at Vaucluse, surrounded by all Sydney, on the green slopes, overlooking the blue Pacific Ocean, whose waves laced the strand not far from the Australian patriot's tomb, cut in the solid rock. Again, we would recall the cheap funeral of a French Refugee in London, where a meagre number of Monsieurs, shivering in capes, gathered in the flaky snow of winter, but the impassioned orator could not be cooled. "La Liberté" "La France!" "La Patrie!"

It was a sight to mount on a little eminence amid the throng round the grave of Edmond About, in the autumn afternoon, and gaze round upon the mass of upturned faces, including all the Literary World of Paris. The orations did not rise to the occasion. We wanted the abandon of a Gambetta, a Rochefort, a Pelletan, or a de Cassagnac. These steely scientific tones of the speakers cut the air in a hard frozen manner.

About was as clever as any Frenchman. His "Grèce Contemporaine" pointed a good beginning. He destroyed a beautiful ideal, the figment of which is still cherished by the ardent young-souled Gladstone, on the hover between his septo and octo. About's Greece was not Byronic. He attempted the same crushing work for the Eternal City, in "The Roman Question." Here the nut was harder to crack. The Pope's last man-of-war ship, the *Immaculate Conception*, was only sold at Toulon five years ago.

About was the man who meant to rise. He does not evoke our respect like the proud and noble-minded Lanfrey, who, as a journalist, refused all favours at the hands of Napoleon III., and wrote the destructive *Life of the Great Napoleon*. About, Emile de Girardin, Villemessant, Feuillet, and the host, swam with the tide of Imperial favour. All honour to Victor Hugo and Lanfrey!

Voltaire went to negotiate politics with Frederick the Great, but the monarch only chaffed, and wrote lampoons on the margin of Voltaire's State Papers. About hankered after office, but Emperor and Republic alike laughed at him. He was very good at making egg-flip.

"Tolla" is his "Waverley," as a novel writer. Looking over the long range of his morocco-covered books, beside our similar sized ranges of Victor Hugo, George Sand, and Saint-Beuve, we pick out "Le Fella," "Trente et Quarante," "Progrès," "Les Causeries," "L' Oeille Cassée." By the way, how handy and compact a French popular library is, with everything the same size. As we glance at "Cinq Mars," "Proverbes," "Les Trois Mousquetaires," "Nôtre Dame," "Consuelo," "Le Nabab," "Le Fella," and "Autour du Monde," it seems as if De Vigny, De Musset, Dumas, Hugo, Sand, Daudet, About, and Verne are all one.

We have hinted that there is something lacking in About. Indeed, it is the grand quality of Manhood! When the career is summed up, with all this suppleness, cleverness, audacity, what does it amount to? The audacity, mind you, is all calculated within the limits of safety. If About is arrested in Alsace-Lorraine, it is a journalistic *coup*. As a writer, he is inimitable, as a man slightly below par.

We fancy that, as War Correspondent, in 1870-1, he took it in the same easy manner as Sala, relying more on his hand than his eye. This school of correspondent is fading out. It received its first blow when Captain Hozier so entirely outdid Russell, in the Austro-Prussian Campaign of 1866. Forbes, Stanley, M'Gahan, O'Kelly, Cameron, Herbert, and Melvin, are the stamp required now.

After the great war, About founded the *XIXe Siecle*. In this paper he rendered immense service to the cause of Gambetta, as against MacMahon, in frustrating the conspiracy to overthrow the Republic, for the Comte de Chambord, as king, of course to be followed by the Count of Paris. However, the foundations of the Republic were laid too firmly in 1789 ever to be uprooted. Other Governments, erected upon them, have only been, or only will be, ramshackle. The centenary of 1789 is to be celebrated by the magnificent Paris Exhibition, outdoing all precedent. Let the monarchs bite their bridles, chafe, and foam as they will. Aye, and bite the dust, too.

And we remarked that About's finale was clouded. The proprietary shareholders of his paper accused him of peculation. It is said he wished to die, and did not care for any remedies to be applied to his diabetes—Napoleon III.'s disease. The rocket burst. We judge not, except to say that Edmond About, a generous, hearty man, with priceless intellectual gifts, worshipped success as the end of life. He was a loving husband, and excellent father to his eight children, brought up in the lap of luxury, and now left to fight the world. His ideal was the same as that of Delane, Yates, Janin, Villemessant, Girardin, the Bennetts, and the most eminent journalists. They have their day—and cease to be.

George Eliot's Life.

WHEN the Beecher-Tilton scandal was at its height, the religious press made some outcry about the full detail of the reports. A New York newspaper justified them. It argued, in effect, "This is a matter which more vitally affects the community than any that can possibly arise. Here you have family honour and a clergyman both involved. What is the use of reporting it so that nobody can understand the actual offence? If we soften the statements, the report is untrue. The horrible thing is not the reporting of these affairs, but their occurrence. Turn up all feculence into the light of day. That is the process of deodorisation and sanitation."

The same question has been raised in Melbourne. We have a divorce court, but only for those who can afford to pay. The expense of putting the divorce drains on the boards is considerable. If a man is a woodcarver or a paviour, if a woman is a mangier or a washer, the wrongs must be suffered without remedy, but when there is coin, the public must be outraged as a necessity in doing justice between man and wife. A person with £100 a year has no feelings, but if it be a £1000, lawyers and judges will weep, if need be.

Mr. Cross wants to slide round, and glide over, the all-important incident in George Eliot's life. But there is an instinct in the reader which declares that it ought to be told, that is to say, if the Life be written. Otherwise, the effect becomes that of treating it as naught, which is mischievous. Besides, it is an indispensable key to the Life. We find failure in the soul, a sinking, and melancholy, which Conservatives will insist in explaining as the consequence of a lapse. We like not to use the word Magdalen, but Providence appears to have said to this amiable, good, and gifted woman: "There is a flaw, the tinge of which cannot be blurred out, and which prevents you from attaining the ideal of a St. Theresa."

The more we think of the central incident of George Eliot's life, the more we perceive that it must be thrashed out, and fought out, on the battleground between those who maintain the English view of the sexual relation and those who maintain the view that it is a matter of indifference. If George Sand or George Eliot can act in such and such a way, your own daughter, or wife, may also, without doing wrong, and here lies the pinch.

As you look at your young and innocent daughter, and cast her horoscope, you say, "Spare her from becoming an eminent actress, opera-singer, artist, or even novelist. I want her to be the simple British matron. I care not to judge anybody, but let me be wholly on the safe side." When one hears a family man praising the stage, the home-thrust is, "Would you like to see your own daughter there?" Mr. Burnand has furnished the unanswerable reply.

George Eliot drew her admirable father as a youngish man under the guise of Adam Bede, and as an elderly man, in the character of Mr. Garth, in "Middlemarch." He was true to the core, like Carlyle's father. Mary Ann Evans—George Eliot—lost her mother when she was seventeen, and it is always a graver loss to part with a good mother than a good father. Mary Ann became deeply evangelical. She was diverted from this by an association with a family named Hennell, and a Mr. Bray, who manufactured ribbons and sceptical books—one at all events. Some aspiring young lady was engaged in the translation of Strauss's "Life of Jesus," when she became engaged herself. Miss Evans took up the translation early in the first volume, and went through with it. We suppose no one will quarrel with her for having independent opinions.

A few words about George Lewes. A lively, mercurial little man, brimful of cleverness, he early developed a strong bias for journalism and the drama. He acted Shylock once in Liverpool, if we remember aright. He came of a theatrical stock, and we are not sure that he was not a regular actor for a brief period. Under the name of Slingsby Lawrence he translated two pieces from the French for Charles Matthews, and that performer appeared in them with success. One was Balzac's Mercadet, under the title of the "Game of Speculation," in which Matthews acted Affable Hawk. The other was "The Cozy Couple," from Octave Feuillet's "Village."

Lewes married a handsome lady, and we have a dim reminiscence, which may be incorrect, that she was connected with the stage. Yates, in the *World*, calls to mind that he visited them at their home, which seemed to be a happy one. Lewes joined the staff of the *Leader*, a very smart periodical on French lines. Whitty, who died in Melbourne, and wrote the "Friends of Bohemia," was another principal contributor. Thornton Hunt was editor. He carried out the free and easy principles of the *Leader*, by going wrong with Lewes's wife. We believe Lewes condoned the offence, and this precluded him from getting a divorce when she gave way to bad habits afterwards, necessitating a separation. There were two sons of the marriage, and Miss Evans acted as a loving mother to them during her long connection with Lewes. We have read somewhere, too, that there were a couple of daughters, but are not sure whether this is accurate. Was there an arrangement by which the father kept the sons, and the mother the daughters?

Lewes wrote two inferior novels. The latter half of his life was devoted to more serious things, a rather indifferent study of Goethe, a superfluous "Life of Robespierre," and numerous heavy volumes of ill-digested philosophy. He has not left anything permanent. The fatal word "clever," is over all he has written. He was an able man, but too broad and Catholic in his studies to make an enduring mark. It would not be accurate to characterise his work as splendid superficiality, but this age demands specialists. He was too facile in writing.

Lewes contributed to the *Westminster Review*. So did Miss Evans. She had been driven from her home, and quarrelled with her father, through her liberal opinions. The development of a mind of course cannot be checked by family considerations. Miss Evans lodged with Chapman, the proprietor of the *Review*, and she became its sub-editor.

At the mature age of 36 she chose to elope, in a manner, to the Continent, with Mr. Lewes, in very much the same way as Madame Dudevant, "George Sand," ran away from Paris to Italy with Alfred de Musset. But George Eliot and George Lewes lived happily together for over twenty years.

We meant to have written some criticism of her novels, but it would only amount to padding, and we want to cram the *Review* as full as the young lady's trunk, which had to be jumped upon.

Makart, Nittis, Lepage.

EUROPEAN ART has suffered in the past year the loss of four men of genius, in Makart, Nittis, Lepage, and

Munkaczy.

The last named, the painter of "Christ before Pilate," we take to be the most eminent of the quartette. Makart was the most brilliant. In Munkaczy we discern something of the mind of Doré, who, to our thinking, is far and away the greatest art genius of the present century. No artist that ever lived, not even Michael Angelo, has displayed the wealth of conception, together with prodigality of execution, combined in Doré. His imagination only needed to be chastened, and his technique schooled, to make him the foremost artist in the history of the world. We may say that more than the gifts of Raphael were there The palette wanted richness; the multiform gifts, concentration.

One cannot find the qualifications of Doré in contemplating all the varied ability of Munkaczy, Makart, Lepage, and Nittis, placing them in the order of artistic caste. In the two first, the Hungarian and the Austrian, there is the strong influence of Piloty as a master or exemplar. It is to be regretted, even from the art standpoint alone, that Makart had no religion. Infused with piety, he might have made a name by the side of Raphael, Guido, Domenichino, and Giorgione. His colouring is equal, if not superior, to Raphael's. All that is wanted is the soul. But that is everything. You remember what Coleridge is reported to have said. "I think I could write like Shakespeare if I had the mind." Whereupon Lamb said—but it is too good—. "You see, all he requires is the mind."

Royal and aristocratic patronage was the ruin of Makart. His divine art was choked and stifled with wealth, so that he became a mere upholsterer and depicter of "The lust of the flesh, the lust of the eye, and the pride of life." Sir Frederick Leighton works chiefly, though not altogether, on the same low basis. Millais has thrown himself away on portraits. Orchardson takes a cynical, false motive for a picture of such skill as his "Marriage of Covenant." On "The Entrance of Charles V. into Antwerp," Makart lavished his magnificent coloration and immoral taste. In his "Cleopatra on the Nile," there is the same exuberance, with the indispensable underlying vicious sentiment.

Nittis was an almost unique painter of the fleeting aspects of busy life. Fortuny is his nearest of artistic kin. Nittis delighted in accomplishing what might be called a free hand photograph in the moist, vivid colours of actuality, of a scene in the street, with every movement in a myriad arrested on the very hang. Though his art was essentially French, he discovered his most prolific field in London.

Bastien Lepage was a thoroughly healthy artist, with the highest technical skill, in a secondary walk. Eminence in the first line can only be attained in heroic subjects, with the grand style which has been the law from Praxiteles to Turner. Country life, with a bias for figure subjects, was the *forte* of Lepage. We say that artists in this groove, beautiful and innocent as it is, can never rank among the very foremost. The German artists take higher and nobler flights, in theme, than the French. The literary school of Zola is reflected in the French art of to-day led by such painters as Bonnat and Bougereau.

The success of Lepage proved that the current views could be flaunted by an independent artist. In England we have none so eminent of the same type. He comprised excellencies from Corot, Crome, and Linnell, with the human interest which they could not afford.

With all its faults, the French Salon is infinitely superior to the Royal Academy, and to any display of current art in Berlin or Vienna. The Germans have a pure ideal, but lack nature. Their treatment is classical, polished as fine as a needle. All is Greek, and we find it refreshing to turn to the French, where nature is slavishly copied.

It seems to us that the germ of modern greatness in art is planted in France. Time will produce another Raphael, as well as another Homer and Shakespeare. When modern civilisation and society have been subverted, Art, Antæus-like, will touch its mother earth.

Mansel and Maurice.

HENRY IRVING tells a story of a very bad actor, whom the audiences in a certain town would not allow the manager to dismiss, because he was so kind to his mother. This is somewhat of the opposite principle to that enunciated by the Rev. Sydney Smith. "Though I cannot act the smallest part in a farce, I have a perfect right to hiss Romeo Coates." Labouchere again, the fulminator of *Truth*, will not allow that Mrs. Kendal is a greater actress than Sarah Bernhardt, by reason of her being so good at home.

There are constant appeals from the public acts to the private life. Mr. Gladstone may bungle the Soudan, but then look how nicely he reads the prayers behind the eagle lectern of Hawarden Church, where, by the way, his son, the Rev. Stephen, enjoys a trifling pittance of about three thousand per annum. Yet the G.O.M. did put his foot in it by roaring over the whimsicalities of Charles Wyndham, in the "Candidate," at the Criterion Theatre, just when the news of Gordon's murder, at Khartoum, was rushing over the nerves of the telegraphic wires, to thrill England. But then he had the Franchise Bill in the other pocket.

What are we writing about? Well, generally on the topic that the individual must be divorced from the act.

The publication of the "Life of the Rev. F. D. Maurice" has been followed, in the *Quarterly Review*, by an article on his great antagonist, the Rev. Henry Longueville Mansel, D.D., who succeeded Dr. Milman as Dean of St. Paul's. Mansel is shown to have been a most admirable and pious man, besides possessing an ability which was transcendent in ecclesiastical circles. Mansel and Maurice have long departed from this planet. Both were noble characters, and it is a pity they fought over religion like Kilkenny cats. Let us proceed to indicate how far-reaching and vitally important was their antagonism. It should be added, however, in fairness, that the violence and virulence were so much on the part of Mr. Maurice, that he made it an affair of personal hostility, and Mr Mansel at last ignored him. Mansel wrote that he would answer all attacks save one—but that happened to be the most desperate and penetrating.

The mind of Mansel was somewhat of the order of Bishop Warburton's, the author of the profoundly able but paradoxical "Divine Legation." Great powers, and immeasurable subtlety, are brought to prove the truth of something against which the intellect revolts, and we are perpetually troubled with doubts as to the author's sincerity. This is the explanation of the bitterness of the truth-seeking Maurice against the superb dialectician Mansel.

The contention was over Hansel's Bampton Lectures, his subject being "The Limits of Religious Thought Defined and Explained." We must confess that at the time, and for long afterwards, we failed to understand why Maurice's feelings should be so deep over the matter, but reflection has shown us that it is the very pivot of the battle between Liberal and Conservative Theology.

Mansel's starting point was "The Finite cannot comprehend the Infinite." Now everyone will assent to this as a bald proposition, but when Mansel came to define it, he set up the back even of such a conservative theologian as Dr. Thomson, the Archbishop of York, and author of the "Laws of Thought," something akin to Mansel. In the "Life of Maurice," Dr. Thomson is reported to have said that Mansel's Lectures were enough to make a man an atheist. But bishops do not expect to find the habitual exaggerations of friendly converse published in books.

The crux between Mansel and Maurice may be embodied in the question, "Is there one morality for God, and another for man?" With Maurice the human conscience is a supreme judge. Mansel limits its authority. The conscience is only a limited function, given for earthly purposes. Such, at least, appears to us to be his teaching. It provoked a very strong expression from John Stuart Mill, to the effect that if he was condemned for following his conscience, to Hades he would go.

The gravamen of the whole thing is the inspiration of the Scriptures. Mansel, by an opportune instinct, came out with his lectures just on the eve of the birth of Colenso's first volume on the Pentateuch, and the Essays and Reviews, which were almost contemporaneous with such tearers of the mind as Buckle's History of Civilization," and Darwin's "Origin of Species." Maurice and Robertson were the chief liberalising clergymen of that era—that is to say of the milder type than Bishop Coleuso, and Dr. Temple, who afterwards became Bishop of Exeter, and is now Bishop of London, having played the Galileo a little. "It moves for all that," said Galileo, on his knees, and perhaps London's bishop says with Hamlet, "Although I do most potently believe it, I hold it not expedient to be here set down."

Mansel's bold contention pushed home, would be this: "Old Testament occurrences, which you object to, on man's morality, are justified on God's morality. So with occurrences like the Immaculate Conception, the Miracles, the Resurrection, the Atonement. They are outside human judgment, beyond the limits of religious thought, as I define and explain them."

Now there is undoubtedly something—a tinge, at any rate, of the Jesuitical in this. One only needs to suggest how a freethinker—we mean an untrammelled thinker, even Orthodox—will batter down such an argument, to the satisfaction of all other such thinkers. But then Mansel is impregnable to the Deductionists. It is not difficult to enter into the irritated feelings of Maurice and his ultimate attitude of uncompromising—contempt, we had almost written.

Charles George Gordon.

LIKE Napoleon, Scott, Buckle, Garfield, Gambetta, and most other great men, Gordon owed all to his mother. There was a large family. One of Gordon's elder brothers is still in the army. His devoted sister has become a public character.

In the Crimea, Gordon was distinguished, like Wolseley, for reckless bravery. Wolseley left an eye there, and is a one-eyed man, as Gambetta was. When Wolseley was laid out, covered with wounds, on a stretcher, the doctor said he would never fight again, but he muttered that he would. This reminds us of John Lawrence, who, when given over, as a young man in India, obstinately refused to die. Sir F. S. Roberts owns the Victoria Cross, for desperate personal gallantry, as a lieutenant, in the Indian Mutiny.

When Marshal Lannes was in Spain, operating against the English, he crouched along in the trenches,

under heavy firing, and heard a sergeant remark on his timidity. Lannes, who had been a private soldier, was of unusual physical strength. He instantly dragged the sergeant out of the trench into the open, where the lead rained around. A similar instance occurred with Gordon. A sergeant was handing up gabion baskets out of the trench to a private on the mound, exposed to the Russian firing. The private complained. Gordon sent him below, and took the dangerous duty, together with the sergeant.

Gordon's career in China was so clever as to be beyond the reach of words to do justice to it. The Rebellion had been chronic for several years. Two rival governments existed in China. Perhaps Gordon saved the present dynasty. What business he had there at all, however, might fairly be a matter of discussion. If he had flung in his fortunes with the rebels, no one could blame him, any more than for supporting the Imperialists. His comrade, Burgevine, did go over to the Rebels, but is only characterised as foolish.

Gordon, in short, at this period, was a holy swashbuckler hiring out his sword, though regarding glory more than coin. Had the Rebels overturned the dynasty, China might be opened to Western commerce by this time. Gordon's powerful help, of course, went to establish the government of Conservatism. The mere fact of Gordon being a pietist has led the religious world to glorify his every act, and he becomes a Cromwell.

The essence of his theology appears to us to be a mixture of Evangelicalism, Buddhism, and Mahometanism. His Christian feelings did not interfere with his thorough militarism, at all events, any more than in the case of Stonewall Jackson. He would blow up a thousand Arabs with his Khartoum mines, and forward them to Eternity without the slightest compunction. We don't know whether there was a special Enabling Act for their souls.

In the process of forming one of the British Cabinets, an influential squire said, "For heaven's sake, do not let us have any geniuses in it." Gordon was a genius, and was therefore distrusted by the powers that be in England. And that distrust was justifiable. The whole Khartoum business is a shocking *fiasco*. There is the apotheosis of Gordon, and placing his name almost in the plane with Napoleon, but his edifice crashed down in all the massacre which he had gone to prevent. The situation could not possibly have been anything like so bad if he had come away from Khartoum when Gladstone wanted him to do so, in safety.

Gordon, indeed, took upon himself the role of Dictator to England. He overrid the British Cabinet. This sort of thing is a prerogative of genius. "They have got to come," said Gordon, as he pegged down at Khartoum. Such conduct explains the policy of the Government in keeping down its generals. Mark how Roberts was sat upon, after his fine exploit of the "march in the air" from Cabul to Candahar. Wolseley is the safe man, but it has required all his prestige to combat the antagonistic influence of the Duke of Cambridge, who was annoyed to the quick on being compelled, by pressure, to advance Wolseley, before the campaign of Tel-el-Kebir, from the post of Quartermaster-General to that of Adjutant-General, at the Horse Guards.

Gordon's former government in the Soudan, following Sir S. W. Baker's, was a splendid failure. Practical failure might be predicated of anything undertaken by a man with the ideas of Gordon in his later years. Such enthusiasts cannot find the right focus of action. The time is out of joint to them.

But Gladstone's employment of Gordon was an immoral act. Any plunge would be undertaken to save a threatened Cabinet. The Ministry disliked Gordon, and held him in contempt, as a practical man. The *Pall Mall Gazette*, catching at any straw interviewed Gordon, and the result was an unexpected sensation. The great Baby Public of England, turning ever like a weathercock, cried out, "Gordon, Gordon!" Mr. Gladstone rubbed his hands. Here was a chance. Send the crazy man off to the Soudan. He would do nothing, only come back when the storm was over. Trust to luck. Mr. Micawber is the saint of Ministers, "Waiting for something to turn up." Gordon turns up, as the trump card, just for a nine days' wonder.

All honour, though, to the magnificent pluck of the hero. That lonely ride over the desert, to Khartoum, kept the public eye on him like the laying of birdlime. It even eclipsed the glorious circumstance of Lord Granville taking his railway ticket, the Duke of Cambridge opening the carriage door, and Lord Wolseley carrying his portmanteau. Childers, the Minister of War, would have been strong enough to carry little Gordon too.

The halo of piety which surrounds Gordon envelops a freedom of action, on his part, fully equal to Cromwell's. He had no scruple in war. He wanted to make Zebehr Governor of the Soudan, as a measure of safety. Why did Mr. Gladstone, and the whole Cabinet object? Because Zebehr is about the most anointed and polished ruffian living. He is the master slaver of Central Africa, but Gordon would have worked hand in hand with him—as a measure of safety.

Napoleon's Correspondence.

It was a labor of love by the late Duke of Wellington to publish his illustrious father's despatches, and he issued almost a score of large volumes, at a heavy loss. One Noble Earl, however, is said to have found in them his sole reading. He was like the classic devotee, who said that if you read Homer once, Homer would be all the

books you need.

Napoleon left a prodigious mass of correspondence. Napoleon III. decided on having it published, and Prince Napoleon, Plon Plon, was the head of a commission which waded through it. Twenty volumes were published, embodying 24,000 despatches and a number of private ones were left out. The Hon. Captain Bingham has lately published an English translation, very much compressed, for the general reader.

In surveying this large field, we select the department most congenial to our taste, and the temper of the time—Napoleon's military correspondence. We would take the opportunity to write of some of the generals who figure in his letters. These are made piquant by his unreasonable, impatient, and exacting disposition.

The most eminent French Revolutionary Generals, Moreau, Pichegru, Hoche, Marceau, Dumouriez, were moved, by Fate, out of Napoleon's road. Bonaparte soon discerned the peculiar qualities of Berthier, who became his Chief of Staff, and is prominent in the correspondence. He was of no use as a commander. In that capacity, Massena is recognised as the best who served under Napoleon, and was styled the Spoiled Child of Fortune. Wellington placed him next to Napoleon. Massena undertook his campaign in Spain with the greatest unwillingness.

Murat bulks considerably in the letters of Napoleon, of whom he was the brother-in-law. Murat and Ney, "the bravest of the brave," a pair of Scobeleffs, bore the highest reputation of any for courage. As leader of the cavalry, Murat was the Sheridan of the armies, Kellermann the younger, Nansouty, and Milhaud were his principal henchmen. Ney is credited with having participated in a hundred engagements, and habitually ran himself into danger. Yet he was never seriously wounded.

In his first great Italian campaign, Napoleon was mainly assisted by Massena and Augereau. The last-named was a Red Republican, like Jourdain and Lannes. They did not refuse the titles which accompanied Marshals' batons. In Napoleon's Egyptian successes, his right hand men were Kléber and Desaix. At Marengo, the battle was said to have been won by Kellermann's cavalry charge.

Soult bore off the honors at Austerlitz, and Davoust at Jena, by the correlative and all important victory of Auerstadt. Marmont, Macdonald, Bessières, and Oudinot, came much forward at this period. Ney had the strike at Friedland, and Macdonald at Wagram. Marshal Clarke, like Berthier, obtained the baton for administrative qualities.

Among the first generals employed by Napoleon in Spain was Junot, who had been a sergeant under him at Toulon. English soldiers have been called Lions led by Asses. Wellington had a very low opinion of his officers, as compared with the French, who were brimful of intelligence. His subordinates came from the aristocracy. Hill, Beresford, Lynedoch, Picton, and Craufurd, were fine soldiers, but the Iron Duke would willingly have exchanged his regimental officers for Frenchmen of the stamp of Victor, Lannes, and the other distinguished French marshals who rose from the ranks. Even in the present day it is assumed that the English private soldier is not possessed of the innate qualities which would enable him to become a Wolseley, Roberts, Stewart, or Graham. Why not? But the English Revolution will place the Marshal's baton in the private's knapsack. It would be strange, indeed, if there is such an essential difference between the French and English temperaments that, while natural military gifts are equally spread over Frenchmen, they are confined, among Englishmen, to a narrow, privileged caste, and the millions below are clods.

The most remarkable career among Napoleon's Marshals was that of Bernadotte, who began as a common soldier, and ingrained Republican. He was brave as a lion, but sulky, and received many lashes from the pen of Napoleon. Yet he finished his life as King of Sweden!

Cæsar knew every one of his common soldiers, and Napoleon had many a time weighed anxiously in the balance every one of his generals. The first blow he received, by the loss of an eminent one, was in the assassination of Kléber, whom he had left in charge of the army in Egypt on his surreptitious departure. Kléber was stabbed by a native, as Lord Mayo was in India. Kléber's fate would be somewhat like that of Gordon.

Next came the loss of Napoleon's favourite, Desaix, who fell at Marengo. Desaix had much of the Gordon about him. He was worshipped by the Egyptian fellahs, for his nobility of character and generosity.

Austerlitz, Jena, Eylau, and Friedland, passed over without the loss of an eminent French leader. Lannes then succumbed, with the loss of both legs, just as Moreau was killed afterwards, when directing the allied forces against Napoleon. Napoleon was profoundly grieved by the death, in action, of Duroc, and almost at the same time came that of another favourite, Marshal Bessières.

Berthier mysteriously died through a fall from an upstairs window. Junot went out of his mind. The charmed lives of Ney and Murat ended violently, though not in battle. Ney was coolly shot by a file of French soldiers, for his treachery to Louis XVIII., when he said he would bring Napoleon in an iron cage, like Bajazet before Tamerlane. Murat was shot by Neapolitans, -as he landed to reclaim his kingdom of Naples.

The wrench to the loyalty of the French Marshals was when Napoleon came back from Elba. Masséna was in charge of Marseilles, and candidly told the Emperor afterwards that it would not have done for him to go that way. Macdonald remained firm to the Bourbons, although he had to gallop away alone from his troops, who

were in Napoleon's path. Davoust was made Minister of War, by the restored Emperor. Grouchy, one of the new school, spoilt Waterloo. Soult was the double-distilled tergiversator. Nevertheless, he flourished in prosperity and riches up to the edge of the present generation. Poetic justice is very capricious.

The Melbourne Corporation.

It is no use declaiming against the spread of our bloated city our Paris, our Babylon, our Tyre and Sidon. Fairfield Park, Grace Park, Black Rock, Sandringham, Gordon Park, Loch Park, and a hundred others, are chopped up from the aristocratic domain to the mincemeat of the villa and the cottage. The city grows quite out of hand. We feel more and more the necessity for a Metropolitan Board of Works, and those other measures which will give homogeneity to the mass, composed of Melbourne's heart and the multifarious local bodies. There is a contour survey supposed to be in progress, with a view to comprehensive proceedings.

We seem to be constructing tentacles of the octopus, before the main body. One is the Harbour Trust, which may be congratulated on the work it has done, and is doing. The wharf extension has been enormous on both sides of the Yarra river, which will yet rival the glorious Clyde. It is only about a couple of years since the first full-rigged ship came up, and last year there was the triumph of seeing a four-master in hospital at one of the south docks, though, to be sure, it had to come up the river almost on its keel. The Trust is cutting away at Sir John Coode's Canal to the Bay. In ten years we ought to see the P. & O. and Orient steamers, and big clippers, right up to the city, as in Sydney.

Another important tentacle is the Tramway Trust. The wire system, Hallidie's, first tried in San Francisco, and which has since become known in Chicago and so many other American cities, will be used on the line from Melbourne to Richmond, with which we commence, and the trenches are being cut. The Melbourne Tramway Company has secured grand terms for its monopoly. Our Tramway Lords will be desperately rich men.

Another tentacle is the Gas. Here again there is one monopolising company doing pretty well as it pleases. The Gas Conference, supposed to control it, is a farce. The burgesses are handed over to the Metropolitan Gas Company, bound hand and foot. With the sympathy of the general consumer, we declare that Melbourne gas is habitually bad, and care not for fifteen-candle analysis. As for the meter, wet or dry, it invariably befriends the company. Gas bills are the greatest mystery going.

But really we did not start this article with an idea of working off the bile. We meant nothing but a genial chat on the city councillors.

Ex-Mayors of Melbourne never appear to regard the mayoralty as the apogee of their career, after which there is nothing municipal worth living for, and Fiji turtle-eating for. Glancing round the cosy benches of the Corporation, we see those Past Mayoral Grands—Amess, Bayles, C. Smith, Paterson. Monbray, Dodgshun, Meares, Ham, Pigdon, and O'Grady, still mingling in the fray, with expectants like Lee, Stewart, Wilks, Bowen, Zevenboom, and the gallant young levers, the junior member, who stands alone in representing the Young Man of Forty element, like Chamberlain in the English Cabinet. The ladies would plump for levers, as Mayor.

Well, these City Fathers do their business excellently, though some get demoralised on the word "Commytee." The late Mayor, Mr. C. Smith, took a wider view of his social responsibilities than usual, and retired with special expressions of goodwill on that score. In particular his Children's Fancy Dress Ball was completely new here, in emulation of the Lord Mayor of London. It achieved the most brilliant social success of the year. Four hundred photographs, in character, of the little guests, were presented to the Mayoress, Miss Smith, sister of the Mayor, and in years to come they will form a curious memento of citizens and citizenesses occupying responsible stations in society.

Among the heroes of the past, in Corporation history, John Thomas Smith, seven times Mayor of Melbourne, is pre-eminent. He was a singular type of the man who comes to the front in a gold-digging time, and doubtless San Francisco can turn up his parallel. They keep his bust at the Town Hall, but all the gloze of the artist cannot render it handsome. "Jacky Tommy," the vulgar called him; and he introduced the first donkey.

In writing of his free and easy manners, we should mention that he was in every way a most estimable and conscientious man, like his old friend, Mr. Coppin. But all the old friends of Mr. Smith will pardon us for embalming him in a little good-natured fun about those eccentricities which made a most unctuous comedian of him, while they did not impair in any way a character which stood as high as any in the community.

Mr. Smith was sent home to England, and had an interview with the Queen, who did not knight him, much to the indignation of Melbourne at large. Nevertheless, his loyalty remained unshaken, but we fancied we discerned a tinge of cynicism about him, on the last occasion when we travelled with him in the Prahran train. He had withdrawn from the rich cushions of the first-class to the second, where, in his inevitable white hat and white choker, he smoked a white clay pipe, about two inches long, and turned upside down. We have heard of the sensation he created among the masher officials of the Civil Service, when he was Minister of Mines, by

going down into Collins-street in his shirt sleeves, on a hot day, for a quiet smoke.

A better, kinder, juster, and more acute magistrate never sat on the bench, but, like "Bendigo Mac," he would make incisive and original remarks. A Melbourne newspaper once reported him as saying to an astonished prisoner, "How do you make your living, eh? On the cross? Come, none of your tiddly-winking."

Yet, a more distinguished member of the Corporation was John O'Shanassy, and we cannot help regarding him as the most able man Australia has yet produced, even before Wentworth and Higinbotham. Above all, he was admirable for that firmness of principle, which would never waver a jot for any temptation of place or power.

About a dozen full length portraits, in oil, line the walls of the Council Chamber. There are fine ones of Governors Latrobe and Sir Chas. Hotham. Lord Malmesbury, in his recent memoirs, relates how unwillingly Hotham, the naval captain, accepted this Governorship. He was plunged into a fearful seething ocean of troubles. The goldfields broke out, and Government broke down, culminating in the rebellion of the Eureka Stockade, Ballarat. Citizens were killed, so were soldiers, and Hotham was worried to death at Toorak. He is kept in memory by the populous suburb of Hotham.

Law Reporting.

AMONG the new books before us is a "History of the Law Reports." It is, of course, intended for the profession. We are not.

No heresy is involved in the statement that the English law, at the beginning of this century, was an outrageous mass of iniquity. Rather more than fifty years ago Lord Brougham exposed the villanies of the law in a parliamentary speech which lasted six hours, being all that time occupied by the mere statement of facts. Most of the abuses to which he alluded were rectified before the time when Sergeant Ballantine was at his zenith. Yet that veteran pleader, looking back in his published recollections, says he is astounded at the abuses which have come under his own cognisance.

Are we to conclude that the law is now purified and perfect? Nay, it is still a hot bed of injustice. We write from long experience of courts, hundreds, almost thousands of cases. To be sure, we have racy memories of Ireland, Aspinall, Dawson, Michie, Purves, and a score of brilliant barristers, together with respectful memories of Stawell, Barry, Molesworth, Fellows, Stephen, Higinbotham, Holroyd, and the Williamses as judges but all this does not blind us to the essential iniquity of the instrument they wield.

The English common law is scattered over about a quarter of a million of books. Who is sufficient for these things? Why, of course, nobody but the expert. He decries any attempt to codify the sacred law. "Fie! 'twill discredit our mystery," as Boulton, the pander, says in "Pericles." Men like Lord Selborne or Lord Cairns, who earn their £20,000 or £30,000 a year as high priests of the nefarious temple, could, with a year's work, draft a rough codification of the whole law. But this would not suit their policy, which is ever to darken knowledge by the multitude of words.

Napoleon found the French law just in the same entangled, mazy state. He pooh-poohed every objection of the mystery men. His action was like that of the Czar Nicholas of Russia, while the railway engineers were squabbling before him over the route between Petersburg and Moscow. He coolly ruled a straight line with his pencil on the map and the railway took that line.

Napoleon only emulated the Emperor Justinian, who had codified the Roman law. Justinian is a kind of saint in legal circles. The thing to be done, however, is to execute the same work. It is idle to say that the work is impossible. New Law Courts are built, but we want new law. The lawyer was made for the litigant, not the litigant for the lawyer.

The most damning blot upon the history of the law in Victoria was the action taken by the Legislature in passing the Land Act of 1869. It was expressly placed outside the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court, which of course, meant that, in the opinion of the Legislature, the law was mischievous. In this case, parliament had been goaded by the partiality of the judges of the period.

Hatred of the law permeates all classes of society, from the workman to the merchant. It is strange that no Tribunal of Commerce is erected in Melbourne. The law has to be evaded by references to arbitration and such devices. But why is not the law such a pure and righteous instrument that every man, with a just cause, rejoices in it? On the contrary, it is the delight of the rogue. The honest man avoids it all he can.

Possession is nine-tenths of the law, and money is nine-tenths of justice. There is a rush for the eminent barrister, because he has the power to distort the minds of juries and judges. He is the individual best able to pervert the course of justice. If you have a thousand pounds available you will get superfine law. You may obtain second-class law for five hundred, say, and so downwards, but if you have not money you cannot get law. The rich man can appeal to the Privy Council, and so can the poor man—if he gives five hundred guineas security for costs.

The central principle of the law, its rigid fixity, is false. There is an iron Procrustean bed laid down, to fit which the quivering limbs of the victim must be lopped off. The mental procedure of an upright judge is in trying to square the law to his innate notions of abstract justice.

Perhaps we are going a little too far here. Fair and softly. The first thing to be done is the complete abolition of technicality: The wherefore, whereas, nevertheless, and notwithstanding. All is done in a jargon purposely contrived to be unintelligible to the lay mind.

With regard to the Criminal Law, we would insist on juries imposing the sentences it is most unfair to leave the liberty of the prisoner just convicted at the discretion of one man, the judge, who may award a sentence which is cruelly heavy or ridiculously light. We recall two special instances. One was when the late Judge Macfarland sentenced a young man to four years for stealing a coat. Another, the opposite extreme, was when the late Justice Fellows excited the ire of the whole country by sentencing a gang who stole gold from a mine to only six weeks.

Mommsen's Rome.

YOUR only pungent writer is the prejudiced one. Every one has predilections. To us, German literature is a desert, relieved by few oases, of which Mommsen's "Rome" is the greenest. After many years of waiting we are treated to a new volume.

The Bishop of Sydney, Dr. Barry, lost his splendid library by a disaster on shipboard, which carried to the maws of the sharks, algae, and globigerinæ, all the tomes of the Fathers, with poor South, Tillotson, Sherlock, Atterbury, Simeon, and the rest of the unctuous bishops. This, though, was not so bad as the sermon case of a Canadian prelate. He transported a full sermon tub from his old field of labour in England to the new one in America, but, alas! his new house was burnt down, with all the old sermons.

A few years ago Mommsen's unrivalled library was destroyed by fire. The catastrophe was worse than that wreaked by Mrs. Peter Taylor—John Stuart Mill's servant girl, when she lit her fire with the precious manuscript of the first volume of Carlyle's "French Revolution."

Buckle relates how that when he first viewed the entrancing field of universal knowledge, he thought he could grasp the whole, but he soon found what a poor little pocket-handkerchief allotment he could surround. Gibbon is enviable for the completeness both of his survey and his accomplishment. As Sydney Smith says, we have to remember we are not Antediluvians.

Mommsen's dream as a young man was that of writing the whole History of Rome. He would be Niebuhr and Gibbon in one. His first volumes, issued not very far from thirty years ago, showed that a genuine historian had sprung up. Like so many other geniuses, he has been hampered by the necessity of working for bread. Critics have asked how it is that a man capable of taking such a bird's-eye view, and, indeed, eagle vision of affairs, should be condemned to literary toil and drudgery, which almost spoilt the great work of his life. But perhaps this discipline is essential. For years Turner had to "wash in skies" for amateurs' drawings. Look, again, at poor Deutsch, in the British Museum.

The real essence of the hatred of Mommsen, by Bismarck and the powers that be in Germany, is that he is a democrat to the backbone and spinal marrow. With this his History of Home is saturated though it lurks in artful concealment. All throughout his criticisms we are conscious of an oblique reference to modern society, a trick which Froude employed, rather clumsily, in his "Cæsar," a skimble-skamble work, not much better than Anthony Trollope's "Cicero."

Thinking over Mommsen, we find the plumb-line bottoms on land—the Agrarian question. He is a precursor of Henry George. Rome is great with a bold and independent peasantry. Mommsen suggests, though he never says it, that France is the stable state, while Germany and England are inverted pyramids.

"This is the best history of the Roman Republic," wrote the *Edinburgh Review*, when Mommsen first came out, and we may add, "It is the only one," for dear old garrulous Livy is not even a Macaulay.

It is surprising what unexplored fields remain in history. Commonplace writers find that an era, or a character, is worked out, but a fresh writer arises who takes, perchance, the most obvious and palpable feature. All becomes new. So it is with Mommsen's fine and clear-cut portrait of Cæsar. Who else has painted Cæsar? We place Mommsen's Cæsar beside Shakespeare's Brutus.

He suggests the dramatist, too, in his Sulla and Marius, superbly contrasted personages. They represent the endless conflict, the eternal see-saw, between aristocracy and democracy, patrician and plebeian. When aristocracy languishes, some Sulla, Bolingbroke, or Disraeli flings his hat into the scale, and again the forces are equalised. The same gentleman is quite ready for the other side of the scale, if need be. Cæsar was the successor of Sulla; Pompey of Marius.

You have read of Lassalle, the dashing socialist, who was patronised by Bismarck. He fell in a duel, over a lady. Once he was standing, with a lady, in front of a full length pier-glass, and exclaimed, "How would we

figure as Emperor and Empress, eh?"

Unless Mommsen is blessed with the years of a Ranke, he will be able to do no more than stand on the Pisgah of his republic, and view, as a Canaan, the glories of the empire. No man—not even Gibbon—could dissect them like him. Indeed Gibbon simply yields to the glamour. Niebuhr laid the foundations. Mommsen has built a basement. Possibly Germany may have a stronger than either in reserve, to historise the Empire, analytically, as a record of the people, and not merely of the gorgeous pageant of Augustus, Tiberius, the Antonines, Nero, Caligula, Trajan, Severus, Domitian, Julian, Caracalla, Justinian, and Constantine, Rome, the Eternal City!

There has been so much written about Mommsen's portrait of Cicero that we will only say it is very like the Grand Old Man.

J. M. Grant.

WE are always afraid of being provincial, and yet there are subjects where the keen, and apparently exclusive, provincial interest may involve a principle of moment to the world at large. The demise of James Macpherson Grant rips up, in our mind, the whole history of Land Legislation in Victoria.

Henty, Batman, and Fawkner, our pioneers, created the settlement in defiance of the dictum of the English Government, that this portion of Australia was unfit for human habitation. When the Imperial Parliament handed over the huge amount of property, in the Australian lands, to local disposal, it was not a matter of generous liberality, but the shuffle off of troublesome obligations. Those lands belonged to the whole English people, not to the handful of adventurers casually gathered here. They were not even English—altogether.

When the goldfields broke out, the bowels of the land were costive. "Unlock the lands!" cried the people, but nobody could find the key. Victoria was really more than once on the verge of revolution, and we have referred elsewhere to that desperate spit of rebellion at the Eureka Stockade. All the grievances formed one bundle, whether over Gold or Land.

J. M. Grant came first into notice as attorney for the defence of the Eureka rioters. He did not undertake this as a mere piece of business, but it engaged all his patriotic sympathies. His spirit was so entirely conquered by devotion to his country that he could give but a fag-end to the nucleus of the finest professional practice in Melbourne. Those splendid abilities, and that impetuous soul, must be devoted to the people, the same people that the Founder of Christianity toiled amongst, and loved, when it was said, "The common people heard him gladly." "The poor have the Gospel preached to them." Grant was all for the poor man.

With fiery impatience, champing the bit, and galled by the curb, he watched the battledore and shuttlecock battles of O'Shanassy, Haines, and Nicholson. "There must be something, more drastic than this," said Wilson Gray, Grant, Heales, Syme, Owens, and Don. The noble Wilson Gray, the Gordon of Victorian politics, led off with the demand for Free Selection before Survey, and Deferred Payments, as the basis of Land Legislation. It took fifteen years fighting to secure it, in 1869, when the people had been robbed of the eyes of the country.

O'Shanassy posed as the Liberal leader. He had sprung from nothing, worked himself up by unrivalled powers, but he ultimately followed the same course as Wentworth, and ended as a firm Conservative. Like Cranmer, he was fit to burn off the right hand that gave the Victorian people Manhood Suffrage.

Grant was trying to divert his attention to his private affairs, and keep his mind pinned on law, for the benefit of his rising family, when Wilson Gray and Heales fairly launched the struggle. Like his brother-in-law Gaunson, the troublesome member of to-day, he viewed politics "with one auspicious and one dropping eye."

Mr. Nicholson, as Premier, secured a Land Act, a hybrid affair, which satisfied nobody. The fitful Premiership of Mr. Heales was the first chance of the Democracy. Mr. Brooke, his Land Minister, introduced the Occupation Licenses, a manifest straining of the law. Grant prompted this step.

A coalition of the Conservative forces overthrew Mr. Heales, but Mr. O'Shanassy, who headed the new Government, was the most liberal among the Conservatives. Grant watched the proceedings of the Cabinet with a distrust which he never concealed. They professed to give the country a Liberal Land Act.

O'Shanassy, Duffy, Ireland!—What a combination, as Premier, Minister of Lands, and Attorney-General. Duffy meant well, O'Shanassy did not mean badly. How was it that the Act failed in such an abominably disgraceful manner, involving disasters to the country which are not done with yet?

Two million acres of the finest land in Victoria were dummied away to the squatters, and O'Shanassy and Duffy became enemies for life. Grant was furious. He flung away every consideration but that of public duty. He consecrated himself to the cause of the wronged people of this land.

Himself a lawyer, his motive principle was hatred of the law. He perceived that it was only a cover for the rich to rob the poor. Although the O'Shanassy Administration had made such ducks and drakes of the public estate, they could not be ousted. Democracy, however, was gathering up a tremendous and irresistible backwater. It came with a torrent. Mr. M'Culloch, as Premier, had to yield, and become its passive instrument

under the enginery of Mr. Higinbotham, his Attorney-General. Mr. Heales was Land Minister. His death caused a demand for Grant which could not be gainsaid, and we beheld the right man in the right place, as Lord of the Soil.

Mr. Grant was a man with grave faults, but strongly possessed with the ideal of "Peace and happiness, truth and justice" for the whole nation, as the cardinal motive, the very core of politics. He would stand no nonsense. If the law had been shamefully twisted so as to plunder the people of the richest part of their country, he would twist it the other way. Thus he invented the famous interpretation of the 42nd Clause, the real commencement of liberal land legislation. We never heard anyone speak with so much authority and mastery in the Victorian Legislative Assembly as Grant, introducing his Land Bill.

His likeness to General Grant, the late President of the United States, was often remarked, and his administration was unfortunately too much like that of General Grant. His mind could not descend to details, nor did he do justice to himself with his habits.

Moliere.

SOME years ago, the management of the little Vaudeville Theatre, in London, was disheartened by the failure of a new piece, upon which authorship and upholstery had both taxed the exchequer. For a stop-gap they put up the "School for Scandal," with old scenery and dresses, and it ran 400 nights. We think "Moliere" was on the back of one of our covers, as an article to come, but it was pigeonholed and dusty. We took it off the roster. What could be said fresh about Moliere? Is he not embalmed in stiff brocade, from Voltaire to Saintsbury?

Yesterday we were revolving and balancing in mind a sentence from Buckle, where he says that the writer is wanted with a new stand-point, some literary Archimedes, who will fulcrum the lever in another place. See, now, if we cannot make a fresh start with Moliere.

It is strange that the two greatest names in the literature of England and France are those of playactors, Shakespeare and Moliere. Both were favourites at Court, Shakespeare with Queen Elizabeth, and Moliere with Louis XIV—Louis the Superb. Each had a trifle of the snob about him, and perchance a faint suspicion of the cad—but we withdraw that.

Moliere's ignorance of Shakespeare's plays was unfortunate. The author of "Le Misanthrope" must have been lifted a stage higher by Hamlet, Lear, and Macbeth, while the "Merchant of Venice" would have infused something more into L'Avare. No one supposes that Shakespeare could ever have shot a higher bolt than he did, but we feel convinced that Moliere did not score his one niche the highest with the works mentioned, and Tartuffe, L'Ecole des Femmes, and Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme.

The philosophic current of Moliere's mind was as marked as that of Shakespeare. But look at the poisonous and choking atmosphere in which he lived. We have a most interesting edition of Moliere, published just on the verge of the outbreak of the French Revolution. There is a fascination about the copious notes through this circumstance, and the complacent unconsciousness of any volcanic movement at hand which will dynamite an order of society unbroken for eight hundred years, just as that in England has grown on from William the Conqueror to Queen Victoria, also eight hundred years.

Perhaps the most catching of these notes is one in which the speculations of M. Rousseau are referred to, in the same way as Henry George is written about at the present day. The writer says: "But France is too deeply wedded to its monarchy, and to those noble institutions which have stood the test of ages. In vain do such authors," etc. Rousseau had been writing in a very deprecatory style of Moliere, as snob, cad, and all that was bad, from the common people's point of view.

However, the balance can be held nowadays. We can admire Moliere, as we do Homer, Virgil, Horace, and Shakespeare—by the way, Virgil is the prime snob. A careful student of Homer can discern the underlying ridicule behind the vauntings of Achilles, Agamemnon, Ulysses, Hector, and Diomed. We can see clearly that this noblest of all poets is a lover of peace, harnessed unwillingly to the war chariot. He appears to try all he can to lay on the gruel of slaver so thick and slab as to be absurdly and palpably overdone. Yet his patrons would persist in gulping it all in. Tennyson is superior to Milton, but not quite equal to Swinburne. Roberts is superior to Wellington, but not quite equal to Wolseley.

Shakespeare says: "I have to put in some snobbery, and I'll do it with frankness, and without any humbug." But Moliere seems to gloat in it—though it must be only seeming. He would say to his cronies, "I must give the King, Le Grand Roi, another dab of the butter-knife." Louis, however, treated him with the same genuine kindness which the First Gentleman in Europe, George IV., extended to his favourite comedians.

Shakespeare and Moliere drew much from the same sources, the Italian fictionists. We may give a paper on Boccaccio, one of Shakespeare and Moliere's chief wells. Boccaccio is reported to have considerably purified his stories from the sources whence they came. A late Duke of Marlborough gave £2260 for one dirty little old volume of Boccaccio. We suppose he would have given £5000 for one of the sources.

The purity of Moliere's writings is wonderful. It is the best indication of the noble strains in his nature. Nevertheless, though Shakespeare is occasionally coarse, we cannot help feeling how immeasurably the tone of his works is above that of Moliere. Shakespeare invigorates. We cannot say that Moliere deteriorates one's mind, but there is an oppressive atmosphere of courtliness, artificiality, over-refinement, and those things which are not good for the spirit.

Then there is the lack of sound, healthy humanity. The lurking melancholy of Shakespeare is only that which we are not angry to find in our own minds. We are not displeased with our mentally vulnerable heel of Achilles, because it is the reminder, in the midst of our summer happiness, that "This too, shall pass away." We are, indeed, afraid to be all content.

Dean Milman decried Thomas-a-Kempis, because he said that such a monotone of abasement and mournfulness was un-Christian, and not the spirit of the Bible. This is correct. One's general impression of the Bible, all that is called up by the word Bible, is not a wail in the minor key, but the full rounded and complete notes of the whole organ.

The Misanthrope is Moliere's finest work, and the key to all. There is no abandon in his comicality. It is that of the French comique we see at the theatre, or the circus, as distinguished from the roast beef and plum pudding Old English fun of Grimaldi. The portrait of Moliere, with his round thick nose, sallow visage, heavy black eyebrows, and searching eyes, indicates his genius. He is strikingly like Irving's make up for Mathias, in *The Bells*."

Excelsior Classes.

NEW YORK'S problem is its Hoodlum, Baltimore's its Plug Ugly, San Francisco's its Tough, and Melbourne's its Larrikin.

About ten years ago a Mr. Samuel Manger, in Fitzroy, gave his Christian and teetotal energies to the work of establishing a Lifeboat Crew, in connection with the Band of Hope, something which was a faint precursor of the Salvation Army. The Crew was formed of boys who were to be preserved from shipwreck by drink. Among them was a little lad named William Groom, who carefully observed the methods of Manger, and determined upon initiating a gigantic movement to dynamite larrikinism.

Arrived at man's estate, Groom began by collaring half-a-dozen boys in the streets of North Fitzroy, and with these young strangers he started weekly meetings at a chapel. However, he would not have any religious element in his class, and to this resolve he has adhered all throughout, so that he receives little support from the clergy.

In twelve months' time he had wrought up his class, termed the Excelsior, to forty members, these boys being wonderfully imbued with respect and affection for their teacher. All along he has displayed absolute genius, and it rises buoyantly to the occasion when he has fourteen hundred boys to manage, instead of forty or four.

About a couple of years ago he brought off the first public *soiree* of the Excelsior Boys at their meeting house in North Fitzroy. Invitations were sent to all the Melbourne newspapers but only one responded—the *Herald*. The representative of this paper wrote the thing up so lengthily and enthusiastically that public attention was arrested by an evident solving of the problem which troubled it most.

Mr. Groom's methods are so peculiar and variable that we hardly know how to describe them. He finds that the boys of each quarter in Melbourne and its suburbs have their characteristics, not only individually but in the mass. In one locality the bias is for gymnastics, in another for elocution, and so on. As the Mayor of Melbourne, Mr. Carter, aptly said at the monster *soiree* of the Excelsiors in the City Hall, Mr. Groom's aim is proper education, drawing out what is in the boys.

At the little gathering in North Fitzroy, where Mr. Groom first introduced his pupils to the public, there was universal surprise to notice the control which he had established. People could not understand how a group of wild boys, collected at random, could be reduced to such complete submission without the cane or any coercive measures whatever. The same thing was noticeable when Mr. Groom showed over a thousand of his boys massed on the orchestra tiers of the Melbourne Town Hall. They might be applauding vociferously, but you could almost hear a pin drop the moment he held up his hand. These were rough boys who had volunteered at random from Melbourne City, Fitzroy, South Melbourne, Richmond, and Toorak, such being the places where the Excelsior Classes were then in operation in April last. What an answer to those reformers who can find no remedy but the lash. Shame on them!

The first newspaper notice of the North Fitzroy class, already referred to, had the effect of bringing to light a similar movement initiated by Mr. W. Forster, of Toorak, under the title of the "Try Society." As he said, "We wanted to try what could be done." His procedure was very like Mr. Groom's. Both of these excellent men have been moved by the same sympathy, and they naturally hit upon much the same lines.

Forster and Groom joined their forces, and the result has been the splendid development of the Try Excelsior Classes. Mr. Groom's second annual demonstration marked a leap from a little hall in North Fitzroy to the Fitzroy Town Hall, where 200 Excelsior lads, of the local class only, made a deep impression with their display. We can never forget that evening, and especially the time when the Excelsior Banner was brought in and the 200 boys, all together, delivered Longfellow's "Excelsior," partly in recitation, partly in song.

Here are things worth living for; a vindication of generosity and sympathy in the government of boys and men. Mr. Groom has been compared to Professor Sample, whose displays of the racy type, with horses, have excited so much interest here.

Well, Mr. Forster took up the business side of the movement, while Mr. Groom attended to the teaching. We have mentioned how the Fitzroy class spread up from half-a-dozen to 40, and to 200. It now numbers something like 500. Altogether, Mr. Groom's boys do not run very far short now of a couple of thousand, and yet most of the Melbourne suburbs are untouched, while nothing has been done outside Melbourne.

The public must do its duty. Collingwood, Hotham, Richmond, Prahran, Ballarat, Sandhurst, and all the centres of population must have their Excelsior Classes. Messrs. Forster and Groom maintain that they require Excelsior Halls, solely devoted to this movement. Why not? Mr. Groom has drafted the plan of a hall, with its class-room, gymnasium, reading-room, and so on. The matter is yet nebulous and inchoate, but, as Cromwell once said, "We never rise so high as when we do not know where we are going."

The Excelsior demonstration at the Melbourne Town Hall was glorious. Messrs. Groom and Forster had so fought their way up that His Excellency the Governor, and Mr. Service, the Premier, were present, together with the Mayor of Melbourne. There was a free and easy character about the display which we liked. The boys gave their gymnastics, songs, dances, and elocution—which included three original compositions. They were remarkably able, and all expressive of the devotion of the lads to the "Excelsior."

We cannot help contrasting the behaviour of these boys from the poorer class, with the disgraceful rowdyism of the under-graduates at the Melbourne University. Bishop Moorhouse, as chancellor, could not quieten them, in the presence of His Excellency the Governor. But Mr. Groom's thousand pupils were hushed, as we have said, in a moment, merely by the uplifted hand. Perhaps the contrast presented itself to the mind of Sir Henry Loch.

Mr. Groom's strongest claim is afforded by his city class in Lonsdale-street. It co-operates with the useful and beneficent work of the Scots' Church District Visiting Society, at their hall, under the direction of the Rev. Charles Strong. We ought to have referred higher up to the Toorak Boys' Camp, organised by Mr. and Mrs. Forster, under whose direction their local class enjoyed over a week of tent life at Picnic Point, Brighton, by the sea, at holiday time.

For many months Mr. Groom carried on his Excelsior Classes while he followed the trade of a journeyman hatter, but a committee of subscribers set him free to devote all his energies to the Excelsiors. Among the numerous gentlemen who responded at once to Mr. Forster's appeal, in this regard, were Bishop Moorhouse, Messrs. Service, Berry, Sargood, and Coppin.

Mr. Forster urges that the Gordon Memorial subscription might well be applied to a Gordon Hall for lads, in connection with the Excelsior classes. We all know how deeply Gordon was interested in the poor boys. He would be the first to object to such a meaningless, useless thing as a statue, which, like the Burke and Wills Monument, and the Wellington Statue in London, might have to be moved on, as a nuisance and obstruction, by the generation which knows not Joseph.

Westminster.

"THE key of India is not Candahar, but London," said Beaconsfield, in his last House of Lords' speech. I suppose the impressions of the events in Afghanistan and the Soudan must be more vivid, more moist as it were, here in London than in Manchester, Glasgow, or Melbourne. Truly we have been kept stirring. Another remark of Disraeli occurs to me. "Some men live in the past, others in the future. I live in the present."

As I survey the seething mass of the House of Commons, over the Want of Confidence debate, after the fall of Khartoum, and death of General Gordon, my eye-glass is naturally focussed on Mr. Gladstone. The career of a statesman is one of continually striking a mean between conflicting exigencies. The whole universe is in unstable equilibrium, and so are its politics.

We think of Gladstone as the Grand Young Man, the inspired young Tory prig, who so excited the ire of Macaulay with his Church and State notions. He was the Lord Randolph Churchill of the days of Peel, though not a bit like Lord Randolph Churchill. Then begins his struggle with Disraeli, whose remembrance we conjure up, as he sat on the Opposition bench, stony as the Sphinx, his lustrous dark eyes lazily surveying Gladstone while Gladstone thumped the green despatch box on the table, and quivered with the rage which was condensed in his catlike, and almost viperish face.

But what magic there is in that sonorous silver voice! When Palmerston died, Gladstone told the Commons how he had sat entranced through five hours of a summer's evening, while Palmerston, in 1850, unfolded the Foreign Policy of England in regard to the once famous Pacifico case. It was then that Palmerston uttered his immortal declaration that the Englishman said "*Civis Romanus Sum*," wherever he might be placed upon the earth's surface. Wherever he was, he knew that the irresistible arm of England would be stretched out, if need be, for his protection.

Now we have all the persuasion, all the craft of Gladstone employed to ward off the sword of Damocles, hanging by a single hair over the Cabinet. Mark the adroitness of his reference to Gordon. He calls him a hero, and is cheered. Yet critics, the next day, can plainly read a damning with faint praise between the lines of that artful speech. Gladstone says:

*"The time is out of joint, oh, spite of spite,
That ever I was born to set it right."*

I remember the zenith of his career. It was in 1872, that marvellously prosperous commercial year, with the people's William as the helm. He was then the glorified and aureoled statesman of the poetic and unparalleled financial statements. One or two of us in the journalists' gallery can turn back to 1852, when Disraeli's Budget, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, was so mercilessly torn to rags by the brilliant Gladstone. Then followed the magnificent surprise of Gladstone's first budget as Chancellor of the Exchequer. There was something Miltonic infused into figures. Sir Gorgius Midas, the man who swallowed sovereigns like water, or golden Tokay, felt that he himself, as a financier, was a great tone poet. He was like Mons. Jourdain, who talked prose all his life without knowing it.

Budget followed upon budget in Gladstone's career, piling up the edifice of a Palace of Vathek, soundly based on gold. He complains now that Fate did not give him Khartoum and Gordon when he was the Grand Young Man, and so on till 1872 came in 1885. Up to seventy years of age, he can never have believed that man was born to trouble, as the sparks fly upward.

He looks now frightfully harried, as he reclines on the newly-patched cushions with their new brass stud nails, just where the dynamitards blew up his seat. He almost says, "Would I had been there!"

Perhaps my eyeglass is next caught by the courtly Granville, in the Speaker's gallery, front row, where Hartington lends him an ear, from the inside, and keeps nodding his head, as much as to say, "Oh, yes," "Oh, ah," "Just so," while Granville's dexter finger taps the mahogany rail.

Childlike and bland is the broad, square, cream-coloured visage of Lord Granville, fringed with its silvery hair and closely cut crisp, grey whiskers. Here is an aristocrat to the back-bone, a Soapy Sam of politics. His smile is unvarying, even if he bestows a nod on Mr. Bradlaugh, who watches the debates in such a hungry, vulpine manner. To be sure Bradley, as they call him in the comedy of *The Candidate*, keeps a very stiff upper lip, long and bulging, but contrast the turmoil of his existence with Lord Granville's, who is as composed when he watches the exciting battle of the House of Commons, which imminently threatens his own loss of the Foreign Office, as he is while perusing "*Le Maitre des Forges*;" in the superb library at Walmer. Did this genial, snug, and smug old gentleman ever know one moment of real anxiety?

But such can never snatch the highest prize—yes, they can—witness Lord Melbourne. However that is a long time ago. Easy young men cannot even be bishops nowadays. Who, then, are the men marked for the highest distinction?

Amid the heated haze of the chamber, where our dazed vision, under the electric light, sees a nimbus round every head on the crowded benches, we wander back to Lord Hartington, the firm, quiet, and composed. He will lead the Conservatives yet as their Premier, for he can never, except under Gladstone's control, work in harness with cleanly-shaved Chamberlain there, the little flower garden at his button-hole. Chamberlain is to be the Gladstone of the future, and Hartington the Disraeli. But then Hartington is getting somewhat on towards sixty. It is a fact. Time won't linger. Hartington is not so young as he was when Gladstone took office this time, and more by token, as he was when Gladstone retired from the leadership of the Opposition in his favour. How these old politicians do hang on!

But Randy, where are you? Away in India. You are decidedly wanted on the battle field at this crisis. There is no one to lead the Prince Rupert Cavalry charge, and hurl Gladstone over at the right moment.

Sir Stafford Northcote is only a business man. He is not able to drive the sword home, even if he were not restrained by his former secretariat to Mr. Gladstone. Sir R. Assheton Cross and W. H. Smith are of the same school—very good bricks and mortar in an Administration. We sigh for Lord Cranbrook, as the Gathorne Hardy of old in the Commons, a splendid Hussar of the Forum.

Hugh Curly-Headed Childers and Vernon Harcourt are the Gog and Magog of the Cabinet, terrible big

fellows, big-brained, and broad-browed too. We don't know whether the story is true about Childers being found perusing State important papers under a cigar in a London music hall, perfuming them with his Havannah, as Kinglake discovered Napoleon III's practice from the odour of the Crimean War documents in the Tuileries.

Cricket Almanac.

THE finish of the cricket season affords the best opportunity for gauging the Australian Eleven.

Spofforth still maintains his pride of place, as the bowler *par excellence*. Palmer, also, is indispensable. Beyond these two, the team may perhaps be fairly debateable, although hardly anyone will object to the inclusion of Scott and M'Donnell. Murdoch may retire when the Australian team for England is made up in 1886. Yet we cannot afford to leave him out. Boyle will probably be an absentee, though he has habitually been more effective on British than Australian wickets. A. Bannerman must surely be kept in. Blackham is regarded as a little off in his wicket keeping, through disablement. However, his batting, in 1884-5, was better than ever. G. Giffen maintains his indisputable claim to a place in the Australian Eleven. Bonnor's may be somewhat doubtful, in view of the rising players.

Well, then, for the Australian team, we nominate: First, Spofforth; second, Palmer; third, Murdoch; fourth, Scott; for both as batsman and bowler he is bound to come forward. As fifth we place G. Giffen, another double-handed man, in the two most important departments. Sixth and seventh come Blackham and M'Donnell. Eight, we would undoubtedly place Bruce, of Melbourne, and chiefly for bowling, of which there can never be too much. He is a splendid bat, too, unequalled in the Melbourne Cricket Club. There must be new blood sent to England. Cricketers are something like play-actors. The English public want change. The faces of Murdoch, Spofforth, Bonnor, and Bannerman, are as familiar as those of W. G. Grace, Ulyett, and Emmett. Besides, look how grandly Scott came off. Victoria urges the claims of its Bruce, Worrall, Trumble, Walters, Lewis, M'Shane, Duffy, Trinnick, and Morris, while New South Wales has to advance Moses, Pope, and ever so many crack players, eager to drive their virgin bats into long English scores. That praiseworthy little paper *Cricket* tells us how Australian doings are watched in England.

Among the Australian veterans who have been in England, but stood out of the last eleven, Horan is the only one with any claims, but he is not likely to take the trip again. Ninth on our list of the champion team, we place A. Bannerman, whose steadiness cannot be dispensed with. He puts a little more steam into his batting now-a-days, and it becomes less of a dismal business with this obstinate sticker. After all, cricket is a play-game. We relish the flashes of a Bonnor, Massie, or M'Donnell, even if there is an extra run out, or catch out, now and again.

Tenth and eleventh must come, Bonnor and Moses, who has fairly earned his place, by century scores, and the kind of play which is most attractive. Twelfth, we throw in Walters, just the kind of man who would come off on an English tour. Like Bruce at the Melbourne Club, he caps the whole South Melbourne Club both in batting and bowling, and further, last season, he took the prize for fielding. We have not the slightest hesitation about putting him in. Thirteenth is Worrall, who would infallibly rise to the situation in England. For fourteenth and fifteenth we say Trumble and Pope.

The team thus consists of Murdoch, Spofforth, Palmer, Scott, Giffen, Blackham, M'Donnell, Bruce, A. Bannerman, Bonnor, Moses, Walters, Worrall, Trumble, and Pope. We are not afraid to trust the honour of Australia to a party like that. There would be plenty to come and go upon, in every line of the game. For dashing bats there are Murdoch, Scott, M'Donnell, Bonnor, Moses, Pope, Giffen, Blackham, Bruce, Bannerman, and Walters. Your bowling would be safe with Spofforth, Palmer, Bruce, Giffen, Trumble, Scott, and Worrall.

Meanwhile the winter game of football monopolises the attention of our athletic youth. Attendances of 10,000 and over pay to witness the contests, in the Melbourne environs, between clubs like the Geelong, Carlton, Essendon, South Melbourne, Melbourne, Hotham, Fitzroy, Richmond, University, and Williamstown. Instead of Murdoch and Blackham we hear of Baker, Kerley, Aitken, Lawlor, Young, Muir, and all the hosts of forwards and backs.

Glance at Russia.

It is irritating, nay exasperating, to search at the present day for a compendium of information on any subject. Our friend Mr. Baynes, editor of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, informs us that he will be nine months reaching Russia. Meanwhile, we have to take the whipped syllabus of Mackenzie Wallace's "Russia," and the hard bluestone, or schist, of the Statesman's Year Book. To be sure, our other friend, Mr. Knowles, of the *Nineteenth Century*, may give a lordly wave of his hand to his myriad volumes, the catalogue of royal and

noble authors, and say "It is all there," but we are not Antediluvians! We have not time to search for needles in bottles of hay.

"Thus far shalt thou come, but no farther, and here shall thy proud waves be stayed." Wherever this may prove true, for the time being, in regard to Russia, it is a growing, and comparatively speaking, infantine power, the young Hercules, not strangling snakes, but grasping the throats of the chickens of John Bull—besides Turkey.

Roughly stated, it is a thousand years since Russia was planted, two hundred years since Peter the Great was the first Emperor, and a hundred years since Catherine II. gave the Empire its second strong civilising impulse. We are inclined to rank the famous Will of Peter the Great with Mother Shipton's prophecies, but no doubt it embodies the national sentiment, which urges the acquisition of Constantinople and India.

Before Peter's time, Russia was looked upon, by European powers, with the contempt which we might now bestow upon the Shah of Persia, or even the Ameer of Afghanistan. The building of St. Petersburg was a complete and successful defiance to all the laws of political economy. It was built with forced labour, and inhabited by forced occupants. Wallace tells us that the approach to St. Petersburg on every side, except up the magnificent broad blue Neva river, is through hundreds of miles of bleak wastes and wild forests. The straight railway to Moscow is 400 miles. This is the length which has to be sentried for a journey by the Czar, two thirds of the trip from Melbourne to Sydney.

The diplomatist De Talde, in the play of "Les Danischeffs," expresses the contrast of a superb and aristocratic St. Petersburg Salon with the world outside in the depth of winter. "Within we have Java or Sumatra, and without are the snows of Russia." Violent contrast is the whole law of Russian Society. The Slav party embodies the revolt against Western innovation.

Napoleon said, "In fifty years Europe will be either Republican or Cossack." His instinct led him to strike a blow at the heart of the Russian Empire, while the instinct of England led it to uphold Russia, and assist in crushing Napoleon. The last official letter written by Lord Palmerston was to Lord John Russell, *apropos* of the aggression by Prussia and Austria, in Schleswig-Holstein, in 1864, and Prussia's advance in 1865. He wrote that the growth of Prussia was not a bad omen, as indicating the erection of a strong barrier against France and Russia.

War between Russia and England will dissipate the Alliance of the Emperors of Russia, Germany, and Austria. The time is not ripe for Germany to seize Holland, which would involve a French seizure of Belgium, and Austria's grip of Constantinople.

A few words on the Government of Russia. In Austria there is a limited monarchy, almost equivalent to Great Britain, under the name of an Empire, and Disraeli wanted to give that name to Great Britain. His creation of the Empire in India was the first step.

The political institutions of Germany rank between the Liberalism of Austria and the utter Conservatism of Russia. We all know how Bismarck has been hampered and worried by the Reichstag, although nominally he, under the name of his Imperial master, can do as he please.

In Russia there are four Councils of State, which are fitly expressed in English by the name Boards. The most important is called the Council of the Empire. This is formed of an unlimited number of members, appointed by the Emperor. It includes all those advisers whom he thinks qualified to adjudge on the highest matters of State. These gentlemen, numbering forty or so, virtually decide on peace or war.

Second in importance comes a body more analogous to the British Cabinet, with Ministers of Finance, War, Public Works, Education, and so on, headed by the Chancellor, M. de Giers, who is, of course, the leading personage, also, in the Imperial Council. Third comes a body which is the Municipal head, and fourth is the Synod, dealing with religious establishments.

Sir George Napier.

THE three brothers Napier, Charles, William, and George, all became generals, after careers of much vicissitude and multifarious danger in the British army. Charles, the hawk-faced enemy of Lord Dalhousie, was the conqueror of Scinde, and sent the news of it in the shortest despatch ever written, one word, "Peccavi," "I have Scinde." His victory of Meeanee over the Beloches, was won against the longest odds on record.

William Napier became the biographer of Charles, and author of the "History of The Peninsula War." Very troublesome men were Charles and William Napier. George was of a quieter cast, but a tiger for bravery, like the others. The family was credited with possessing the nine lives of a cat. Charles, desperately wounded, fell into the hands of the French, and had long been given up for dead when he turned up as an exchange, fresh as a daisy. William carried, for the latter half of his life, a bullet in his back, which embittered his temper, and put an extra edge on his admirable history. George was badly wounded, too.

It is sixty years since General Sir George Napier wrote his military reminiscences, only for the gratification

of his own family One of his sons, a well-known General Officer in the army, has justifiably published the bulk of the memoir. Sir George does not profess to compete with his brother's history, but merely furnishes side lights on the Peninsula War, and other operations.

He entered the Dragoons at fifteen years of age. Colin Campbell, afterwards Lord Clyde, was only fifteen when he fought as an ensign at Vimiera. Such officers found their Sandhurst College and Shoe buryness in active warfare, from their youth up. They did not have time to play the Game of Kriegspiel, which Lord Chelmsford practised with such disastrous effect in the Isandula region.

Not with standing the splendid record of Abuklea, the quality of British soldiers is at present regarded as rather an open question in France, Germany, and Russia. They were held very cheaply all over Europe when Wellington went to Portugal, to commence his superb career there. His Indian record, high as it was, did not give him anything like the reputation now possessed by Sir Frederick Roberts, although Assaye was far more brilliant than Roberts' perfectly accomplished march from Cabul to Candahar, followed by the collapse of Ayoub. Roberts rose to the possibilities, but Wellington, in India, had much higher possibilities to rise to. Roberts must have a slap at the Russians to equal them.

Never the less, we say that Wellington—or more properly General Wellesley—did not achieve a very high English reputation, much less a European one, by his Indian deeds. By-the-way, the names of Wellesley and Wolseley are very much alike, and we will add, further, that Lord Wolseley is transcendently higher in esteem than ever General Wellesley was. Yet, with all respect, it must be said that his opportunities have not enabled him to accomplish so much as General Wellesley did before entering upon the Peninsula War.

The finest passage in Sir George Napier's book is the description of a scene at sea. The transports carrying troops from England to Portugal, the future heroes of Talavera, Salamanca, and Vittoria, including Lieutenant George Napier, approached the spot where the Battle of Trafalgar was fought. Here they met a large fleet of British men-of-war. It was just a year after the Battle of Trafalgar, and this fleet was the very same one which had conquered there. The emotions roused by the situation can be imagined. The fleet hove to in line, while the transports passed by. Soldiers and sailors mingled their hurrahs. The noble Admiral Collingwood, who had fought at Trafalgar with Nelson, stood at his ship's stem, and waved his hat as the troop vessels passed, all cheering him.

This occurrence strangely symbolised the epoch of the war. The naval sensations were over with the Battles of Copenhagen, the Nile, and Trafalgar. The curtain was just about to rise upon the struggle between France and England on land.

The Eureka.

"BOY, thou hadst a father," said Justice Shallow to Master Slender, and it was another way of saying that there were strong men before Agammemnon. "Alone I did it" is too apt to be the exclamation of Young Victoria on viewing his cloud-capt towers and gorgeous palaces—yea, the great globe itself

We have before us a remarkable photograph of Strutt's drawing, which represents the Victorian Parliament in St. Patrick's Hall. The portraits are recognisable of Sir James Palmer, O'Shanassy, Miller, Hodgson, and numerous others. We find a strange attraction in the picture.

A course of reading which interested us deeply was all throughout the debates of the old Legislative Council, from 1851 to 1856. The dominating calibre of O'Shanassy soon asserted itself He and Fawkner, the founder of Melbourne, led the Democrats. Mr., afterwards Sir James, M'Culloch, who became the Radical leader, entered the Council as a Government Nominee, which indicated devotion to the Conservative interest.

In the most trying crisis of its history, Victoria was governed, for these five years, by only one Legislative Chamber. It never required any more. The old Council was two-thirds Representative and one-third Nominee. Yet the newspapers affirmed that the so-called Representatives were half of them virtual Nominees. The territory was arbitrarily districted out, so that half the Representatives were elected by the people and the rest by the sheep and bullocks.

The other Sunday we made a pilgrimage to the Eureka Stockade, that is to say, the site of it, at Ballarat. Here is the spot where the knell was sounded of the feudal system in Victoria, aye Australia. Here the tocsin of liberty clanged out. This is the only sacred ground of all our continent

We thought the spell still lingered over it, surrounded as it is by deserted gold holes for the clear space of three-quarters of a mile. A square bluestone memorial is just put up there, with four immense 95-pounder cannons upon it What the thing means we are at a loss to imagine. Does it signalise the triumph of the soldiery or of the people?

The whole scene of the Eureka strife rushed upon our imagination. The waste around recalls a cemetery, covered with mounds of turned-up clay, upon which not a blade of vegetation will grow. There is not a meal for a sheep in the square, or round, mile. Looking into deep holes we wondered who dug them.

Thirty-one years ago this was an arena of busy life, a human beehive. All over the Eureka was a sea of tents. The Stockade had been built, our national zareba, to defend the patriotic diggers against the English soldiery. We are here on a Sunday. The battle was on a delicious Sunday morn, December 3rd, 1854.

Ballarat was all in a fume of excitement. We gaze to-day over at the Queen City afar off, so beautiful with its eminences and houses, poppet-heads, hills turned inside out in gravel, and broad Sturt-street in Ballarat West up the ascent in the far distance, the strip of foliage down its middle. We fancy we can faintly hear the carillon from the bells of the Town Hall tower.

Presto! It is old Ballarat, dingy, brown, with more tents than houses. The grim miners, in the Eureka Stockade, look to their guns and revolvers, and up at their Australian national flag of the Southern Cross, fluttering in the breeze overhead.

"Steady boys!" shouts the General, Peter Lalor, now Speaker of the Legislative Assembly. "The soldiers are coming I" "Hurrah!"

But the Fortieth Regiment of English red coats gives its hoarse hurrah too, and swarms over the logs, amid the crackle of musketry, and in the white smoke. The affair is over in a few minutes. The Australian flag is torn down with insult, trampled under foot, and carried back in mock triumph through Ballarat. Numerous men are killed and wounded on both sides. The soldiers are said to have used their bayonets with merciless cruelty. It was as bitter as the strife between the Guards and Arabs at Abuklea.

Then ensued the trial of the patriots at the Supreme Court. They were acquitted, amidst shouts which marked the birth of the Australian nation. All that is worth having sprang from the Eureka. It gave birth to the Land Convention and to the Corner in the Victorian Legislative Assembly, which, from a cloud the size of a man's hand, spread till Democracy ruled Victoria, the spear-head of Australia.

Battle of Waterloo.

In former numbers we gave a series of three articles—"Quatre Bras—Ligny," "Eve of Waterloo," and "Waterloo." We will now endeavour to gather up the skeins in one, after the refreshment of a glance over the careless, fascinating pages of Thiers.

His "Consulate and Empire" is illustrated mainly by Philip-poteaux, who died lately, after finishing his magnificent panorama of the Franco-German War, now exhibited in Paris. We never saw such powerful and graphic engravings as some of these, designed for Thiers, by Philippoteaux. That which seized the most upon our imagination was one of General Foy giving Napoleon the first information about Wellington's construction of the lines of Torres Vedras, and baffling of Massena. The scene is in the Emperor's cabinet, at the Tuileries, by lamp-light. Foy has his back to the reader, while Napoleon confronts him, with a visage of the utmost tension. Foy has just arrived, after a hurried posting from Spain.

Another fine picture is boldly allegorical. The congress of Vienna, with the English, French, Russian, Austrian and Prussian representatives, is discovered in the greatest consternation, as if a shell had burst on the table in their midst. The explanation is afforded by a vision above them like that of Belshazzar. It is the French Eagle, escaped from Elba, and speeding over the sea.

When Napoleon had mastered France, he swooped up and surprised Wellington and Blucher in Belgium. Dividing his army in two, he entrusted the left to Ney, while with the right he overthrew the Prussians at Ligny. This was a scattering defeat. Blucher was driven to Wavre, at a tangent which appeared to be a fatal separation from Wellington, with whom he ad maintained touch before Ligny.

Ney's task was to grasp Quatre Bras—Four Arms—the junction of four roads. He could have done it, but for mistakes by which d'Erlon's corps, of 20,000 was kept marching and countermarching, between Napoleon and Ney, without aiding either. Wellington was very weak at Quatre Bras when attacked, but had time to secure the position, and fall back at his leisure upon that he had chosen for battle, at Waterloo. Ligny and Quatre Bras were fought at the same time. A day intervened before Waterloo, with almost incessant rain. Wellington set out his line of battle with deliberation. His back was most dangerously placed to the thick forest of Soignies, with only one road through it—that to Brussels. His line, extending two miles, rested on the right—westerly—upon the Chateau of Hougomont, which his troupes occupied. Near the centre was the farmhouse of La Haye Sainte. Only a third of the allied forces were English. Bivouac fires struggled into a glimmer, through the misty haze of the night, as visible from the French lines, but the French slept in wet rye-fields, without fires.

At sunrise, the deploying of the French, as witnessed by the Allies, was the finest tableau any soldier on the field had beheld. Both armies were along ridges, and would descend into a gently-sloping valley, but rough with bosses, and cut up with little gullies.

All day long the battle raged at Hougomont, which included the chateau, a little farmhouse, garden, orchard, and a wood. The French were unable to capture the place, but they took La Haye Sainte. The battle has been divided by critics into five distinct acts, all forward moves by the French, beginning with the attack on

Hougomont. The second was a furious assault on the allied left centre. The third the capture of La Haye Sainte. The fourth was afforded by Marshal Ney's persistent cavalry rushes upon the right centre, where the English squares were rooted in the ground. This was like Gubat, only the French could never do what the Arabs did—chip off a corner of the Englishmen's square, and get inside. The cuirassiers were hurled and flung away in vain.

The last act by the French was the advance of the Guard—all the reserve. This became imperative through the coming on of the Prussians to the French right. Wellington advanced also, to meet the French, and there was a shock which did not remain undecisive for twenty minutes. As Quatre Bras had been lost by the absence of d'Erlon's 20,000, so was Waterloo lost by the absence of Grouchy's 30,000, gone to Wavre after the Prussians, who managed to leave them behind in the sharp turn to the field of Waterloo.

Histrionic Memories.

THE first Melbourne theatre was a bandbox called the Pavilion behind the Union Hotel, not far from the Bull and Mouth in Bourke-street. This shanty was in after years used as the Canterbury Music Hall, before the Coliseum was built, as the 'Frisco Bella Union of Melbourne. The Queen's Theatre, Queen street, followed the Pavilion.

Mr. Coppin came from Tasmania, forty years ago, with a dramatic company, which included Mr. and Mrs. C. Young and Mr. Rogers. Mrs. Young was a Miss Thomson, and at fifteen years of age she married Chas. Young, a comedian. She is now known in England as Mrs. Hermann Yezin. The Youngs went to England about twenty-eight years ago. Both succeeded in London. Mrs. Young obtained a divorce, and Young returned here. He ultimately died in Sydney.

Rogers was a splendid comedian, and unequalled in Sir Peter Teazle. He had been a soldier, and developed his rare talent in Garrison theatricals at Hobart. In later years he was rivalled by the veteran Lambert, from London. This actor left six volumes of manuscript reminiscences, and John Dunn also left a manuscript autobiography, which his son-in-law, Marcus Clarke, at one time thought of publishing.

Mr. Coppin was the first to introduce a carpet on the Melbourne stage. He also introduced G. V. Brooke, who opened 31 years ago at the Queen's, as Othello, supported by Fanny Cathcart and R. W. Younge, whose specialty used to be villains of the Iago and Paul Lafont type, but he has since become a low comedian, and his Middlewick, in "Our Boys," is familiar throughout England. His brother, F. Younge, came to Australia four years afterwards. He was killed by a railway accident in England, after his powers as a comedian had been fully recognised at the Prince of Wales' theatre, under the Bancrofts.

Before Brooke's time, the favourite tragedians were Nesbitt, Morton King, and Shearcroft. King became an auctioneer, and was an M. P. for many years. Once the members of Parliament gave a dramatic performance at the Melbourne Theatre Royal. King played Shylock, in the "Merchant of Venice," and Coppin was the Launcelot Gobbo. Among other members who took part were Messrs. Carpenter, Howard, Lock, and Wilkie.

Richard Capper, mechanist and actor of the Queen's, died recently, aged 86. He had been a stage carpenter at Drury Lane, in Lord Byron's time. Capper published a book of half-a-dozen five act plays, which he wrote in the solitude of the Plenty Mountains. They are the oddest things we ever read, and we are not sure but we may be able to steal some thunder from them yet, though it is queerly buttered. The scenes are laid in ancient Babylon, Egypt, and such places. We roared over the unutterably strange and clumsy fun of "Mr. Sanchoniatho, a Babylonian Costermonger," and "Mrs. Sanchoniatho, wife to Sanchoniatho." The author, as a mechanist, elaborately explains that this humour is only brought in for "carpenters' scene, first grooves," so that the terrible events of the tragedy may be suitably prepared in the back grooves.

Bishop Perry brought out iron churches from England, and, not to be behindhand, a gentleman in irreproachable black prompted Mr. Coppin to bring out a galvanised iron theatre. It was built on the Lonsdale-street and Stephen-street corner, the site of Rowe's Circus—but a word about the circuses. The pioneer was Noble's, at the eastern top of Bourke-street, afterwards known as the Salle de Valentino, opposite Parliament House. Rowe came from San Francisco with his circus. Afterwards there came the troupe of ladies, gentlemen, and horses from Astley's, London, and Astley's Amphitheatre, a wooden place, was built for them in Spring-street. This edifice has since been known as the Princess' Theatre.

Well, Coppin's Iron Pot, as it was called, the Olympic Theatre, opened with G. V. Brooke, who was there supported by an admirable company, including Mesdames Heir, C. Young, Brougham, Miss Herbert, Messrs. Coppin, R. Younge, Rogers Heir, C. Young, Leslie, and L. J. Sefton.

Meanwhile, the great Theatre Royal, Bourke-street, was rapidly built, and opened in 1855, with the "School For Scandal," supported by Mrs. C. Poole, Messrs. Rogers and Henry Neil Warner, a fine actor, in Brooke's style. When the "Corsican Brothers" came out, these two actors were the rival performers in this piece at the Olympic and Royal. But the Royal soon fell into the hands of Mr. Coppin. Fanny Cathcart, afterwards known

as Mrs. Heir, and Mrs. Darrell, was a prime favourite. Miss Herbert was the wife of Sefton, who became a manager in England.

In 1858 Melbourne found a new idol in Ellen Mortyn, whose Hester Grazebrook in "The Unequal Match" is still affectionately bracketted with Fred. Younge's inimitable Blenkinsop. Then came Avonia Jones, daughter of the Count Joannes, who was so mercilessly taken off by the acting of Sothern, in the "Crushed Tragedian," written by H. J. Byron. Yet Joannes, so long the butt of New York, once witched London with his Hamlet.

When the Princess' was turned from a circus to a theatre, it was called the Royal Amphitheatre. It has been known as the Princess' nearly thirty years. There it was that the Sisters Adelaide and Joey Gougenheim made their brilliant success with a company which included Miss Emily Glyndon, Rogers, Messrs. Warner, Rogers, G. F. Rowe, and Milne. Their performance of the Irish Heiress is still borne in mind. With extravaganzas like Fortunio and Ganem, they emulated Madame Yestris. Then George Fawcett Rowe took the management, and made great hits in burlesque, with Julia Mathews. Among their best pieces were Pluto and Proserpine, Aladdin, and Endymion.

Barry Sullivan is so warmly remembered in Melbourne that his welcome now would not be much inferior to that of Henry Irving. Sullivan's management of the Theatre Royal for two years was, without exception, the most creditable in Melbourne annals. As an actor he pleased all throughout the legitimate drama, and we only "caved in" when he sang the "Wonderful Crocodile," as "Long Tom Coffin," in "The Pilot." But the cherished memory of the Melbourne stage is that of Joseph Jefferson, as "Rip Van Winkle," "Asa Trenchard," "Caleb Plummer," and a score of other parts. What a cast was presented with the "Octoroon," never equalled in the world.

Strolling along the Collins-street Block, the other afternoon, we saw a smallish white-haired gentleman, leaning on the arm of his tall daughter. Though he was a stranger, we did not need to be told that this cross between Shakspeare and Orion Horne, with the rasping, saw-metallic voice, was Dion Boucicault, the modern Lope de Vega, author of 400 plays. We thought of the night, forty-three years ago, when, as a blushing youth, he was called before the curtain at Covert Garden, when the *première* of "London Assurance" had been finished, with such *eclat*, by Mrs. Nisbett, Madame Vestris, Farren, Mathews, Harley, Anderson, Bartley, and Keeley. Only James Anderson survives. And "Di" delights Melbourne as "The Shaughraun."

Echoes from Piccadilly.

THE *Daily News* has come out with a proposal for the reconstruction of the Cabinet, on Radical ideas. Messrs. Gladstone and Childers are the only members to retain their present billets. Sir W. Vernon Harcourt is to be Lord Chancellor, Mr. Chamberlain Home Secretary, while Dilke and Trevelyan are to be advanced. Lord Hartington is Foreign Minister, but Earl Granville remains in, as President of the Council, to wield the House of Lords. Lords Selborne and Northbrook are weeded out, for the writer's aim is to minimise the peers.

On the other hand, the Conservatives have been flirting about a list of their ministry. The loss of Cairns leaves a gap in the Lord Chancellorship. Salisbury is, of course, Premier, while Cross, Smith, and Beach resume their places at the Home Office, Admiralty, and the Colonial Department. Sir Stafford Northcote, with a peerage, is Foreign Minister, Mr. Goschen, Chancellor of the Exchequer, Lord Cranbrook, Minister of War, Lord Lytton Secretary for India, and Lord Randolph Churchill Secretary for Ireland. But our Paul de Cassagnac, Randolph Churchill, would hardly be satisfied with anything less than the War Office.

The young African explorer, Thomson, has bracketted his name with those of Stanley, Livingstone, Schweinfurth, and Speke, by the achievements recorded in his attractive book, "Through Masai Land." He is only twenty-six. Under the auspices of the Geographical Society he spent fourteen months, from March 1883 to May 1884, in piercing a hitherto unknown region of Eastern Africa, from Zanzibar, on the coast, to the Victoria and Albert Nyanza Lakes, the sources of the Nile. The results are most valuable, filling up the map of Africa. Among his discoveries are two mountains, 12,000 feet high, and he delineates tribes never before seen by a white man. The style in which he handled his gang of Zanzibar ruffians was worthy of the Prison Brigade of the Salvation Army.

Perhaps the most deeply interesting of his discoveries is that of huge, artificial, mountain caves. They indicate a former mysterious civilisation there, as in North America and Cochin China.

The late Lord Lytton's "Brutus," at the Princess Theatre, turned out a disastrous failure for Wilson Barrett, who has fallen back upon the "Silver King." His part of "Brutus" sunk into a secondary place beside the vigorous Tarquin of Mr. Willard. Wyndham, at the Criterion, continues his brilliant success with "The Candidate." Pinero has made a great hit with "The Magistrate," at the Court.

A finished performance of "Masks and Faces" celebrates the end of the Bancroft *regime* at the Haymarket. Here we have a progressive actor in Mr. Brookfield, who may become the Coquelin of the London stage. Everybody looks forward to the return of Irving and Ellen Terry at the Lyceum. Irving has long had an absurd

notion that he can act Coriolanus, and its production has been whiffed about from time to time, but is never likely to see the light. He has studied Mephistopheles, and would do it splendidly. However, his ambition, for the present, appears to be restricted to embodying the "Vicar of Wakefield," merely as a complement to Ellen Terry's "Olivia," in a rich setting of Wills's play, on the *tapis*.

Burnand's diatribe against the stage has been followed by the "catch on," as the Yankees say, of his "Mazeppa" at the Gaiety It has succeeded as well as "Blue Beard," the "Forty Thieves," or any of the well-known trump cards of the Masher's Paradise. "*Pecunia non olet*," say Vespasian, Hollingshead, and Burnand.

Then, again, Gilbert and Sullivan have struck oil with the "Mikado," at the Savoy. This follows on to their lucrative array of "Trial by Jury," "The Sorcerer," "Pinafore," "Pirates of Penzance," "Patience," and "Iolanthe," and restores the lustre a little dimmed by "Princess Ida."

Talking of the stage, is it not a commentary on "one law for the rich and another for the poor," to see how Lord Durham, because he possesses £20,000 to squander, can have his stage rigged up at the Law Courts, with the solemn farce of judges, barristers, attorneys, and a spun-out trial to scandalise decent people? What a villainous, moated old beldame, what a wicked old harridan, what an abominably venal, lying virago is Justice! She looks into a man's hand and asks, "How much money have you got?" She is like the circus clown who goes into fits as long as the brandy is forthcoming for his relief. At last the ringmaster says, "There's no more brandy," and the clown says "Then there's no more fits." The litigant says, "There is no more money," and the answer is "Then there is no more justice." Apply this in Melbourne, too.

So do Bradlaugh and Henry George go on rubbing salt into the green wounds of the social sores, and probing the ulcers. The people are urged to look to Herat and the Soudan, but they grimly set their teeth, take the bit in them, and say that they will begin at home. Yet the English Government has been within an ace of allying itself with the Russian Nihilists and Dynamitards, for surely they would never say they wanted to slaughter the ignorant subjects of the Czar, his soldiers, and stay their hand at his own sacred person! Why, they would even blow up the Russian soldiers in mines, or anything.

A most significant item is the announcement that an International Exhibition is to be held in Constantinople; and be it remembered that the Parliament of Turkey has been in operation for five years.

Among the new books, Mr. Pater's "Marius, the Epicurean" has been well described as "John Inglesant, in Ancient Rome."

Lord Cairns, it seems, was a bit of a sportsman, notwithstanding his evangelicalism. He was fond of hunting and fishing. Nobody says anything about Miss Fortescue's £10,000 damages, but the scandal must have gone far to break his heart.

Jules Ferry is fifty-three. He came into notice as a journalist, twenty years back, by his furious attacks on Baron Haussmann, Prefect of the Seine, an office which Ferry held himself in the Provisional Government, after the fall of the Empire. The Communists held him imprisoned for three days, and treated him cruelly. In after years he became Gambetta's henchman. At length he rose to be Premier, as the puppet of Gambetta, then President of the Chamber of Deputies. When Gambetta formed his Ministry, he was astounded at Ferry's resolutely standing out. Gambetta died. The prophets were unanimously agreed that his successor must be picked from Simon, Freycinet, Say, Waddington, Clémenceau, or Challemeil-Lacour. Ferry rode a waiting race, came through his horses, and achieved the longest Premiership under the new Republic. Disraeli said, "A man may resolve to be great; but only a woman can make him so." Madame Ferry is a very handsome, brilliant, and accomplished woman, a Queen of the Salon, like Lord Palmerston's wife. Ferry is stronger, at this moment, than any other French statesman.

Salas "Journey Due South" treats of France, Italy, and so on. His "Australia" will be caustic. Smythe gauged him as a lecturer.

Perhaps the climax of realism was attained when the painter de Neuville got a live horse from the knacker's, and snot the animal in his studio, so that it might fall naturally, affording him a model in a battlepiece. Pity he couldn't shoot some soldiers, too.

England and India.

A WRITER in the *Journal des Debats*, Paris, furnishes cool statistics to prove that the loss of India, "The Peacock's Tail," would be no real damage to England. India only transacts with Great Britain an eighth part of the whole British import and export trade. If India was independent, or belonged to a Foreign Power, nobody supposes that this trade would be extinguished. Would it be materially affected, even this eighth?

Then, again, the import trade, to India from Great Britain, has increased 26 per cent. in the last five years. But the same trade, from France to India, has increased 50 per cent., and from Germany to India 80 per cent. Yet more striking are similar comparisons with reference to the export trade, from India to England, and other

nations. While that to England has only advanced with a mild percentage, corresponding to the imports, the export trade from India to Russia has increased 1800 per cent. in five years! Ever since the abolition of the East India Company, the Government of India has been carried on without profit to the British Nation—that is to say, State Exchequer. What, then, is this magnificent prize upon which bankrupt Russia is swooping?

But, say the Russophobists, Russia would manage in a very different style, and wring riches out of this region—it would make India perspire clots of coin, gold mohurs and silver rupees by the million, to be transmuted into roubles. Stay. Germany would have a voice as well as England. There is chronic enmity between the Russian and German people, and none between the Russian and English people. You remember that flaming speech by Scobelev, in Paris, declaring that war must come between the Slav and the Teuton. To be sure, he said that the war between England and Russia, over India, was inevitable too, but that he declared to be only a matter of policy, not sentiment.

If the key of India be in London, there is a minor key in Berlin. If India would be worth anything to Russia, Germany knows it. Suppose that Komaroff defeated Roberts before Herat, grasped the fortress, and swarmed his army down upon India. Would there be no German army on the western frontier of Russia?

The balance of power was never more nice and exact than at present. But Russia has no idea of a conquest of India, under the existing condition of the world at large. We mean that Russians of the calibre of de Giers, Ignatieff, Schouvaloff, Lessar, Gourko, and Komaroff, have no such an idea. They mean, however, to distend the balloon of their power to its utmost capacity. They will infringe, as far as possible, on Afghanistan. The result of war between England and Russia would probably be the obliteration of Afghanistan, and the establishment of a coterminous Anglo-Russian frontier.

Russia would like to drive England to seize Herat. By so doing we would make Afghanistan hostile, and have to conquer it like the Punjaub. Imagine the expenditure, and the forces required. India is under tutelage by England, with a view to its National Independence. This must be the distant outcome. Lord Ripon was commissioned to take the tentative steps in planting Local Government, and the Ilbert Bill was an attempt to remove legal distinctions between conquerors and conquered. The Russian thundercloud will lead Lord Dufferin to some concessions.

Komaroff's attack on the Afghans was a politic stroke, to neutralise the effect of the Durban at Rawul Pindee, the interview between the Ameer and the Viceroy. Thus the Elephant flouted the Whale.

Herat.

WAR throws a calcium glare upon the out of the way places of the earth, and spreads the knowledge of Madagascar, Tonquin, Chili, Khartoum, Shendy, Berber, Candahar, and Herat. Some time ago we wrote, in this magazine, of the campaigns of Alexander, from the articles by Admiral Jurien de la Graviere, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. Alexander reached India *via* Herat. He has been credited with founding it, but doubtless it existed before. The masterly judgment of the conqueror, who picked the site of Alexandria, would not overlook the strategical importance of Herat. Its value is comparable to that of Khartoum, at the confluence of the Blue and White Nile.

Like the land of Egypt, the valley of Herat owes all to its river, the Heri-rud. The city is the junction, or knot, of no less than nine roads, the most important of Central Asia. Four of these roads are westward, into Persia. They are the highways to Teheran, Ispahan, and all the cities of that nation.

We write of a territory of magnificent distances. When the centres of population are mentioned to which the roads from Herat lead, it must be remembered that the distances are of 300, 400, 500 miles, and the like. Thus the south-east road to Candahar is 370 miles, and the east road to Cabul, 550 miles. Northerly, the roads from Herat lead to Merv, Bokhara, and Balkh.

Herat is about a mile square, entirely enclosed by a mound of earth, varying from 40 to 60 feet high. On top of this is a brick wall, about half the height of the mound. Outside the mound are the ditches. All these works are in a state of neglect and delapidation, like the great wall of China. It is a moot point, among military authorities, whether Herat is really a strong place or not. Some estimate that it can easily be rendered impregnable. The question is as open as the fighting qualities of the ironclads. *Colossus* and *Rodney*. Outside Herat there is a considerable artificial mountain, piled up by one of the besiegers in antiquity, after the example by which Alexander captured a stronghold on the way to Egypt.

Herat is altogether in a very tumble-down way, but it had the reputation, 600 years ago, of being the finest city in the world. It has two streets, which have divided the reputation now possessed by Broadway, in New York. One Broadway is from north to south, the other from east to west. The city is thus cut into four divisions, which are the basis of the municipal government. The Broadways, called bazaars, used to be covered in with sumptuous architecture, domes, cupolas, and so on, but all has gone to rack and ruin.

It is maintained that any civilised power which occupies Herat can make the district of Khorassan, of which

it is the capital, self-supporting, for there are splendid deposits of iron, with all the materials for making gunpowder; and the kindly fruits of the earth, including corn, are produced in such lavish abundance that Herat is called the Garden and Granary of Asia.

The population of Herat is about 40,000, poor and struggling, and compounded of people as different as Irish, Scotch, French, Germans, Italians, and Spaniards. It is the most cosmopolitan Asiatic place inland. In the dark ages of Europe, and bright of Asia, the population of Herat reached a million and a half, but the enclosure within the walls can only have accommodated about 100,000. The vast bulk of the residents must have lived outside the walls.

The Empress Eugenie.

By far the most interesting book in the Paternoster Row announcements is "The Recollections of the Empress Eugénie."

It was in a conservatory at a State Ball that Napoleon III. unexpectedly proposed to Mdlle Eugénie de Montijo, this young and dashing Spanish lady, with the suspicion of a reputation as an *intrigante*, in which line her mother was full blown. The lady had another daughter, in favour of whom, it is said, Eugénie was thrown over by a good "mark"—a Marchese—and first-class match. Eugénie was in a desponding frame of mind—the worm i' the bud had begun to prey on her damask cheek—we don't know the materials of damask; peach bloom, violet powder, or patchouli—when this astounding turn of the cards came. She was as much taken aback on landing the prize salmon as Queen Victoria was when, as a trembling girl, she fainted away in the arms of her mother, under the portico of Kensington Palace, after being summoned at five o'clock on a fine summer morning, to hear of the death of William the Fourth.

We don't know what sort of an "Ask Mamma" Eugenie fluttered out upon the Emperor's plunge. But, of course, there was no "Ask Mamma" at all. An Emperor must be clinched at once. His divagation might be only the result of some pique, and Mother Montijo would have called her daughter the quintessence of a fool if she had hesitated for the most infinitesimal fraction of a second, as denoted by the keenest chronometer ever devised by Breguet, Bennett, or Benson.

Two ladies named Howard and Bellanger, one English and one French, had to be moved out of the road before the tall, slim, elegant, and beautiful Spaniard could be comfortably established at the Tuileries, as Empress. Mother knew, or guessed, all about these things, but "my poor, dear, innocent girl," of course—how could she? Once the barouche of Marguerite Bellanger was conspicuously and impudently driven across the track of the landau of the Empress. Hola! hola! Where are the Gendarmerie? Where is Mouchard, with his myrmidons, Reveillon and Cagnotte?

Our lamented Grenville Murray could tell us all about such stories, but we love not to linger on them. Suffice to say the Emperor was a good—French—husband. Eugenie was as good as any English wife.

Eugenie! We respect you as much as any queen that ever lived. They might call you a devotee—even a fanatic; but you had the spirit and the faith to insist upon visiting the hospitals when pestilence stalked through the land, appalling every heart by its terrors—except hearts like yours, leonine in bravery, and fortified by religion.

"And now," says the Empress, "I can calmly view my approaching dissolution, for I feel that I have the sentence of death within myself I have striven to bring every thought in submission to "the Evangile," even while I have been compelled to exhaust the treasures of Worth and Epinglard, set the fashions, and figure, for political reasons only, as the dazzling centre in the State-Box of the grand opera, or at the Courses of Longchamps."

The Empress will acknowledge to faults of awful moment, and may tell you that the worst was when, at the council of the Emperor, and his ministers, she insisted on the war with Germany. "Gentlemen," she said, "this is my war." Oh, my war! The war of Wissembourg, Spicheren, Forbach, Worth, Sedan, the Fall of Paris, the captivity at Wilhelmshohe, the broken-hearted death of the husband at Chiselhurst, and of the only son in Zulu Land.

Disraeli in Power.

AN opportune work is the "History of Two Parliaments," by Mr Lucy, published by Cassell. The two Parliaments are Disraeli's from 1874 to 1880, and Gladstone's, from 1880 to 1885. We have the first volume, dealing with the administration of Disraeli. The names of Beaconsfield and Gordon are the idols of the British nation at present.

Disraeli had brief tenures of office in 1852 and 1858, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, under the Earl of Derby, and a somewhat longer innings in 1867-8, when he drove through the Reform Bill. Lord Malmesbury, in

his Memoirs, brings out the friction between the easy-going Derby, who was in fact an admirer of his rival Palmerston, and the ardent, pushing Disraeli. In 1868 Dizzy enjoyed a fitful premiership, being quickly deposed by Gladstone, who then ruled for six years, till Disraeli returned to power, in 1874.

Mr. Lucy's is the second history of the Disraeli Administration 1874-80. The other was written by the Rev. Mr. Clayden, with what the Liberals termed a crushing indictment. The points chiefly attacked were Disraeli's Afghan, South African, and Egyptian policies.

The situation of 1878 has rolled round again, with the Lion's tail stiffened, and the Bear on his hind legs. Beaconsfield's attitude throughout the whole crisis was that of the Sphinx. *Punch* depicted him as such, steadfast, unmoveable, with the stony eyes devoid of all expression. Press and Parliament might storm, rave and beseech, but the badger could not be drawn. Everyone felt the power of this silence. It won the respect of France, Germany, Austria and Russia, besides that of England.

Disraeli concentrated in himself the whole power of England. It was a storage of electric force. "Beware!" was the word which expressed the sense of this attitude throughout the world. Everyone—even the Russian, said that the prestige of England had been restored.

The Eastern Question mounted up and up in intensity. Every eye was on Disraeli at the helm. "Speak!" implored London, Paris, Berlin, Vienna, Constantinople, St. Petersburg. "No," said the Sphinx. "I do not argue; I strike, First the blow and then the word. England does not fear a second or a third campaign. She is not a Bankrupt Power. Beware!"

The purchase of the Suez Canal shares was a stroke unheralded by a word. The withering rhetoric of Gladstone could not change the situation. Greenwood, of the *Pall Mall Gazette* went to the Earl of Derby, as Foreign Secretary, and said, "Half the Suez Canal shares are in the market, and being hawked about Europe. The English Government ought to buy them." The thing was pooh-pooed at first, but Beaconsfield saw the advisability, nay, the necessity of the step. So the Rothschilds advanced eight millions, and the announcement came like a thunderclap, that this transaction had been effected, without a word being spoken to the House of Commons, which holds the purse strings of the nation.

Imagine how Gladstone, the Financier, squared his shoulders and lashed into Beaconsfield. But it was no use. The Commons ratified this unconstitutional and daring piece of business. It told the French that they could not rule in Egypt. Beaconsfield's aim was always to cement the alliance with Imperial Germany and Austria, and when it had been fully effected, not until near the end of his tether of power, Salisbury characterised the news as "glad tidings of great joy." Gladstone quickly burst it up, and flung himself into the arms of France and Russia. The outcome of this is that Germany, Austria, and Russia are in a strict league, and France has almost joined it too, while England stands all alone among the five great Powers.

Strange that Lord Derby should have been the Foreign Minister of Lord Beaconsfield, and come to hold the Colonial Office under Mr. Gladstone. The secret history of the Beaconsfield Cabinet is beginning to be unveiled, how Derby restrained his chief from measures which might have plunged Europe into war. At last the tension between them became too highly strung, when Beaconsfield ordered the British fleet to steam through the Dardanelles, to Constantinople. Derby retired.

This rupture was severely felt on both sides. Beaconsfield never could forget what he owed to Lord Derby's father, and their own friendship had been of the closest. Lord Derby entered upon the course which landed him as a member of the Liberal Party, and colleague of Mr. Gladstone.

Mr. Lucy unfolds the circumstances of the Treaty of Berlin. War looked inevitable, when the interposition of Bismarck brought about a conference. Beaconsfield and Count Schouvaloff, the Russian ambassador in London, arrived at a private settlement. This was signed and sealed before ever the Conference of Berlin began. Unfortunately the London Foreign Office was so indiscreet as to employ clerks, at tenpence an hour, to copy State documents of the greatest moment. Mr. Charles Marvin was one of those clerks. He copied the Secret Treaty, and sold it to the *Globe* newspaper for £50.

What a hubbub! The Government absolutely foamed at the mouth. Lord Salisbury, the Foreign Minister, tried to deny the authenticity of the disclosure on some quibble, but it was no use. The sting was taken out of the conference, the edge gone off it. It was all a carefully rehearsed play, entitled "Bamboozle." Marvin was to be prosecuted, and what not, but they could not punish him. His fortune was made. He had talent to back up his audacity, and is now a recognised writer of ability, on the Eastern Question in particular.

Mr. Lucy paints the closing scenes of the Beaconsfield Administration artistically. There was Gladstone's dash into "The Heart of Midlothian," the stronghold of the bold Buccleuch. What emotions overwhelmed him as he paced the wood of Dalmeny on the eve of the general election. Then came the tremendous verdict. Gladstone, the "sophistical rhetorician, intoxicated with the exuberance of his own verbosity," as Beaconsfield styled him, again sprang into the saddle. The Queen tried Granville and Hartington. It was no good. Gladstone must be sent for.

"This too shall pass away!" So said the Eastern sage, in Prosperity and Adversity. In the National Pantheon,

when this generation is old, will be inscribed the names of Gladstone, Beaconsfield, Gordon—all men who have deserved well of their country. Each will have a niche in the Westminster Abbey of great, glorious, and indestructible England. For, look you, all these struggles testify to the vigor and health of our national life, as that of no trembling France, or iron bound Germany, or Vesuvian Russia.

We may add a recommendation of the biographies of Disraeli by Messrs. O'Connor and Hitchman, both violently coloured, the former Liberal, and the latter Conservative.

Anne Boleyn.

MR. FRIEDMANN'S "Anne Boleyn" may lead us to reflect once more on a career which excels that of Mary Queen of Scots in its picturesque tableaux.

"Without fault before the Throne," could fairly be taken by Bossuet as the text of his Funeral Oration upon the Queen of Louis XIV. Anne Boleyn, in a previous generation, had been a sparkling star at the vicious court of France. Yet she was unsullied, undimmed. She had the game to play of keeping Henry VIII. on the string for years, while the drama of the English Reformation was being consummated.

Wolsey is the central actor. Intrigue defeated itself, and his house of cards fell down, so that he made enemies of every one of the conflicting interests he tried to conciliate—Henry VIII, Anne Boleyn, Catherine of Arragon, and the Pope. In the first stage of the Boleyn crisis, his game was to—but we can convey it best in a reminiscence of Sir Pertinax Mac-sycophant, in Macklin's "Man of the World." His son Egerton is enamoured of a low-born Miss Constantia. Says Sir Pertinax to the Rev. Mr. Sidney, "If ye could only contrive to bring them thegither, why, in a week or two he'd no care for her." The clergyman fires up, "How, sir I Do you think so meanly of me?"—and so on. Sir Pertinax replies, "Hout tout, mon, if ye're so squeamish about obleeing a patron, ye'll nae rise in the Kirk, sir: ye'll nae rise in the Kirk!"

Anne Boleyn was not to be had by the deep laid plot of Wolsey, who hoped that her inexperience, and the King's passion, would find a way for him out of the embarrassing situation in which he was placed. Young Anne Boleyn took the same piqueing course as the mature Madame de Maintenon—Veuve Scarron—did with Louis XIV, who occupies the central position in French history that Bluebeard Henry does in that of England.

We have a photo of Cetewayo, in a paget coat, grey tweed trousers on his immense hams, and a waistcoat over his starched white shirt, with a neat scarf and pin. This is better than his acrobatic Zulu undress. Similarly do we desire that King Henry may moult the little hat, with its ostrich plume, the velvet coat and thick ermine edging, the gorgeous gilt white frilled waistcoat, the gartered hose, and all the other trappings, so dear to such romantic artists as Sir Walter Scott, Ainsworth, and Bulwer. We imagine Royal Harry in sober Regent-street broad cloth, with a "belltopper" on the photographer's ormolu table beside him, like H.R.H. The Prince of Wales.

After all, no one presents the real flesh and blood Henry with such vraisemblance as Froude. Besides perceiving his faults, we feel, and sympathise with his anxieties. Froude asks, reasonably, whether the whole legal and constitutional apparatus of Anne Boleyn's condemnation, for adultery, could have been brought to bear, herself innocent, merely to gratify the king's whim for her maid Jane Seymour, who succeeded Anne Boleyn as Anne had been maid to Queen Catherine.

Looking at Maclise's graphic painting of the Play Scene, in Hamlet, it struck us that Shakespeare's incident of the king rushing away, might have been prompted by the occurrence, or the tradition, of Henry VIII. hurriedly leaving the Tournament, when Norris picked up the little cambric handkerchief of Queen Anne Boleyn, flung to him, or accidentally dropped, on his victory in the Joust.

Our article was not immediately suggested by Mr. Friedmann, but by meeting with just one sentence from Froude's vivid sketch of Anne's execution, quoted in Fry's admirable handbook to "London in 1885." We fancy that Froude took the hint from the splendid finale of Ainsworth's "Windsor Castle," with the illustration, by Cruikshank, of King Henry reining up his white palfrey, on its haunches, in the glade of Windsor Park, as he notices the puff of the cannon smoke from a turret of the Castle, indicating that the axe of the Calais Headsman has fallen, and the beautiful head of Anne Boleyn lies in the basket. The King posted off to his sweetheart, Jane Seymour, and married her next day. But Anne Boleyn was the mother of Elizabeth.

The Police.

AFTER the break-up of the Kelly gang of bushrangers, a Victorian Police Commission investigated into the whole management of the force. Without being invidious, and mentioning names, we may sum up the result as a general condemnation of the head quarters. A serious flaw now appears at the other end of the scale, in the admission of undesirable recruits, who have brought great scandal, as will be evident when we bunch together a number of cases which have occurred lately.

After the last of the English troops left Melbourne, we formed a small regular force, which was afterwards dropped in deference to democratic sentiment, but has been reconstituted. Mr. Francis, as Chief Secretary, acted upon a recommendation, from the military interests, that the police and gaol warders should all be recruited from this force, as an inducement for men to join. The system proved a failure. It was found that the training of a soldier did not fit a young man to become a policeman. The soldiers acquired fast habits in barracks, and there was a great deal to be unlearned. A police sergeant once said to us, "These men are no good for six months."

Consequently the plan was broken up. Recruiting for the police was thrown open. The difficulty over the soldier-police-man was that of the square peg in the round hole. Graver faults have been developed under the present *regime*, whatever it is. We merely urge that the Chief Secretary must give his attention to the securing of young men of good moral character for the police force.

The time of one officer, Superintendent Sadlier, appears to have been occupied almost for weeks together with complaints against young policemen. Let us summarise a few glaring cases, which all occurred, or rather we will say were brought to light within less than two months during the present year.

The worst was that against a policeman accused of falsely charging a young woman as a street-walker, because she frustrated an attempt on his part to seduce another woman. In the dignified pages of a Review we prefer to understate a matter of this kind rather than to charge the picture sensationally. The affair was fully reported at the Melbourne Police Court. It was afterwards gone into by Mr. Sadlier, without the hamper of court rules of evidence. Whatever might be said for the constable did not come to light, and he resigned.

In the case of the suppression of an infamous house kept by a woman named Loftus, this year, abundant evidence was afforded to the city magistrates, proving that it flourished under the favour and protection of the police. Eleven wretched women were brought up at the police court in one batch, and the den was broken up, after irresistible evidence of its infamy, carried on for many months. A respectable master butcher in the vicinity deposed that when he complained to the police they threatened to "run him in." He swore that, quite lately, he had seen two policemen, in uniform, dancing on the footpath, in front of this low house, with female occupants of it to the strains of street musicians.

The publicity given to this case dragged forth some yet viler particulars. A senior constable knocked at the door of the house referred to, on official business, at a late hour of the night. Two policemen were sleeping there. They escaped at the back, and were pursued to the Russell-street barracks by the constable who had knocked at the front. This, of course, resulted in an official inquiry, with some hard swearing. The offenders were dismissed.

Another case, yet more serious in the aspect of public safety, was afforded, where a policeman charged a young man with assisting at a disturbance in West Melbourne. The defendant maintained that he was not there at all, and obtained an adjournment on bail. Meanwhile the policeman met him, and threatened him with dire consequences if he did not own up. The young fellow, however, brought evidence upon which the magistrates unhesitatingly accepted his statement, and discharged him.

A week or two afterwards the same policeman was sent on duty on Saturday night, at the Eastern Market, to prevent rioting which occurred there through young roughs meeting with the set purpose of fighting. A police inspector there found the constable intoxicated in uniform, and on duty, or at all events believed him to be so. A scene ensued before a crowd of the public, with the policeman abusing the inspector, and three or four other policemen hustling the culprit off. The next day he resigned from the force.

Two other cases occur to us, involving three policemen, the accusations against them being that while they were under the influence of drink, they tried to make arrests, and disturbance resulted. The instances above given will suffice, although others will occur to every newspaper reader.

More and more it is impressed upon us how every evil centres round the Drink traffic. Magistrates and police are hand and glove with it. Apparently, it is the regular thing for a police officer to retire into a public house, as an honourable finish of his days. Four hundred hotels, in Melbourne, sell liquor on Sundays, Every Thursday there is the farce of bringing up two or three in the Police Court, as the only culprits. But then a liquor-seller is Mayor, and another has built a magnificent clergy sanatorium, for which he has been presented with a testimonial containing the photographs of Bishop Moor house and all the clergy of the Church of England. Thus, even the forces of piety are harnessed on to the Juggernaut chariot which destroys the flower of our population.

The Hon. J. B. Patterson recently made a splendid point, speaking on the Education Act. A brewer had been put forward, as the champion of religion, to overthrow this noble measure, in favour, we suppose, of his own measures. Mr. Patterson referred to an experience in his recent travels. In one city he saw a church beautifully restored, by the munificence of a certain gentleman, who had also built a fine school, and owned a very extensive brewery. A Yankee visitor furnished the comment, "Why, this fellow beats all! He provides Education, Salvation, and Damnation!"

In the course of the Police Commission, some dreadful evidence was given by members of the Police Force

about the corruption of the hotels. The most important of these witnesses was afterwards terrified into toning down his statements. He found, indeed, that to be direct and honest is not safe. It was more than his billet was worth to tell the truth. Why is this so? How is it that the "Old Man of the Sea," in the shape of the drink trafficker, sits firmly on the shoulders of the poor taxpayer, controlling Parliament, clergy, magistracy, and police? For one thing, it should be insisted upon that the policeman is a total abstainer from alcoholic poison.

The liquor-seller should be regarded as a social evil. Yet there is positively no business held in more honour. A gentleman who has since achieved a seat on the Licensing Bench once said to us: "A magistracy was offered to me while I held an hotel license. I said to myself, 'Here am I getting my living by making poor fellows drunk, and then I'm to sit in judgment on them.' Well, I couldn't do it." However, as a mere owner of public house property, he can do it. All these things tend to the low tone of the police. They are far too much of a bye-word for their unreliability in the witness-box; so that police evidence, instead of bearing the very Goldsmith's stamp of truth, is generally looked upon as the most suspicious. Then we have the allegations about the employment of the Phizgig, or put-up thief—the persecution of youths and men tarred with the gaol brush, who try to be honest, and—but we really do believe that these points are overstrained. Some people will wonder how terraces of houses have been built on seven shillings a day. However, the point we jar upon is the liquor interest. This was at the bottom of the whole Loftus case, the den being connected with hotel property. It is a terrible task to root out even the worst public houses; and this can never be accomplished until the public has been flagrantly scandalised by the flaunting indifference of the lessees and land-lords. For years and years the robberies and debauchery of the "Deadhouse" and the "Playground" go on before the innocent public can be roused.

Since the foregoing was written, a case has occurred perhaps more serious than any. A policeman has been dismissed the Force for a false and malicious accusation against a brother policeman, that the latter suggested a division of the plunder in case they should discover a "plant" of money stolen from the National Bank, in the robbery under arms, at the Simpson's Road branch. We have given so many facts that further comment is needless.

Among the Licensed Victuallers' the sacred expression, "The Trade," means as much as "The Church." We attended the mass meeting of the publicans, at the Victoria Hall, as an outcry against the new Licensing Bill. Listening to those eloquent Bonifaces, Messrs. Stutt, Eicke, Pugh, and Meader, we felt ashamed of ourselves, with something of Moses' feelings. "Take thy shoes off thy feet, for this is holy ground."

Russo-Afghan Question.

THE strong bar retained on behalf of the acquisition of Herat includes Hamley, Rawlinson, Malleeson, and Marvin. Colonel Malleeson has just published a little volume, in which he instructively summarises all the phases of the Russian advance in Asia.

After the Crimean war, Russia flung 150,000 men into the Caucasus, and spent three years in breaking the power of Schamyl. A base was thus gained for those Asiatic operations successfully carried on by many generals, including Tchernaieff, Kauffmann, Lazareff, Skobeloff, and Komaroff Bokhara, Tashkend, Samarcand, Khiva, Merv, were absorbed. Malleeson harks back to the first Afghan war with England. This was preceded by a war between Persia and Afghanistan, in the course of which young Eldred Pottinger so cleverly defended Herat on behalf of Afghanistan. It appears that there was also a brilliant British officer on the Persian side. Pottinger is compared by Malleeson to Gordon in Khartoum, and also suggests Todleben in Sebastopol.

England deposed Dost Mohammed as Ameer, and was compelled to reinstate him after a disastrous campaign, the worst on record for the British prestige. When England was involved with Russia, Persia seized Herat, but England compelled the disgorging of the morsel by a war with Persia. Thenceforward Afghanistan became very friendly to England, up to the time Shere Ali demanded the guarantee of a full alliance, in consequence of Russia seizing Khiva. Lord Mayo, the Indian Viceroy, met Shere Ali at the glorious Durbar of Umballa. He could not give the Ameer the satisfactory guarantee required. The cold and unsympathetic Lord Northbrook, as Viceroy, further estranged the Ameer. Lord Lytton could not mend the gap. Shere Ali welcomed a Russian Embassy, and refused to receive an English one. War broke out. England regained her ascendancy.

General Hamley must exclaim, "Save me from my friends," with Colonel Malleeson's absurd references to him as the Great Strategist, The inference is that Moltke runs Hamley very close, and Hamley only wins by a head. What would Malleeson think if Hamley was to write him up as a chronicler before whom Cæsar paled?

The Electrician.

IN the supplement to the *Scientific American* we find an address by Mr. Preece to the Society of Electrical Engineers, in London, agreeably and instructively describing a trip to America, last year, for the meeting in

Montreal of the British Association for the Advancement of Science.

Mr. Preece's best wrinkles are relative to Electricity, of course. At Chicago, where the burnt child dreads the fire, he finds that there are electric indicators all over the city, connected with the central or local Fire Brigade Station. You pull a handle, and here is the chain of events: The Fire Bell rings, the Fire Engine horses are unhitched by electricity from their stalls, and trot, of their own accord, ready harnessed, to their places in the shafts. Besides all this, the pull of the handle whips the bed-clothes off the ready-dressed firemen who are lying asleep, opens a shoot below the bed, and runs them straight down to their proper places on the Fire Engine! No wonder the Brigade turns out in less than no time.

Mr. Preece reports that there is twice as much telephony in New York alone as there is in the whole of England. Americans will insist on the overhead wires, for telegraphy, telephony, and electric light. The consequence is that the cities are becoming abominably cluttered up with wires. The corporation of Philadelphia has fulminated a threat that on New Year's Day 1886 their officers will go round the city and chop down every one of the forest of poles, with their mazy wilderness of wires. Architecture is spoilt, all over the States, in the main thoroughfares. Then there is the frightful danger in case of fire, as evidenced at the Milwaukee Hotel, where people who flung themselves from upper windows met with a cruel death through being sabred by the wires. The difficulty is that the fire escape cannot be properly used.

Thirty-two companies have the right of laying overhead wires all over New York. There are six independent lines of poles along Broadway. Serious accidents have occurred through electric light wires snapping and dropping upon telephone wires, the wires for lighting being charged with very high currents. In one case a gentleman's residence was utterly wrecked through an accident of this kind. He had the telephone laid on. The electric light current came in, and played up worse than a gas explosion. Mr. Plush, the able Chief Telegraph Electrician in Philadelphia, has devised a new "cut off," by means of which the telephone wires become neutralised on an overcharge.

Mr. Preece says that every house he visited in the great American cities had the telephone laid on, so that the fire brigade, or a doctor, or anything else, could be summoned in a few minutes. He finds amazing smartness at the Telephone Exchanges, and it is a regular thing to join subscribers in five seconds from the first call.

In the city of Buffalo the telephone is paid for on the same principle as the telegraph in Melbourne and elsewhere, that is to say so much per word, above a minimum which is required as a guarantee. This gives local satisfaction, but Mr. Preece did not meet with the system in any other city. Everywhere else the subscriber pays a regular figure, and uses the telephone as much as he likes. We fancy the Buffalo system will spread. It looks unworkable, but the contrary is proved.

Victor Hugo.

So the mighty master of romanticism is gone. As an infant, like Voltaire, he was so puny that they never expected him to live. Yet he outlasts Dumas, Sandeau, Buloz, Gautier, Janin, Lamartine, Carrel, Girardin, Balzac, George Sand, and his contemporaries in general, besides lights of the next generation, like Gambetta and About.

Which item, amid the massive work of Victor Hugo, floats to the surface in our mind? It is "The Hunchback of Notre Dame," with its old Paris, animated by such figures as Esmeralda, Quasimodo, Gringoire, Claude Frollo, and Captain Phœbus. Notre Dame is Hugo's masterpiece. It excels anything by Scott. Next we would rank the play of "Marion de l'Orme," and third that of "Le Roi s'Amuse." "Hernani" and "Ruy Blas" come hard after. The volcanic genius of Hugo blazes throughout these plays like Byron's throughout his poetry. The lava, the ore, is in one molten mass. Hugo's other plays follow in a descending scale.

His poetry, to our idea, ranks after his best plays. "Les Crépuscules" and "Les Feuilles d'Automne" are the only specimens of French poetry that attract us at all. Saving "Notre Dame," we do not admire his novels. The second best is "Les Travailleurs de la Mer." The overstrain in "Les Misérables" rushes to wild burlesque in "L'Homme Qui Rit."

His vast power is exercised in an unpleasant manner. The spirit outspoken in "Les Misérables" affords the key note of all he has written. In England, he influenced Dickens, Bulwer, and Ainsworth, but it is the tone of Dickens we relish, not that of Hugo. Nevertheless, "Notre Dame" is the novel of this century. The finest scene in it is that where Frollo, in concealment, watches Phœbus making love to Esmeralda. Here the power is almost exactly similar to that exercised by George Sand, in the climax of "Indiana." "Zola" is in reality a development of Hugo, though styled antagonistic.

M. François Hugo's translation of Shakespeare surely bears the impress of Hugo. It came upon us like the refreshing discovery of another Shakespeare, to read such splendid translations as those of "Hamlet" and the "Midsummer Night's Dream." Students who are *blase* with Shakespeare should try to read him in French or

German. But the spirit of the German language is so much like our own that it is in the more difficult French translation, perfectly done, that the sense of freshness captivates us most.

In these revolutionary times, men grow more democratic with age. Look at Gladstone. Garibaldi finished up as a Nihilist. Hugo ordered his body to be conveyed to the grave in the paupers' hearse—but then he left £200,000, the bulk invested in *Perfide Albion*, where Napoleon III. also made himself financially safe. How they are droll, these French! Poor Cobden lost all his savings in Free America.

Masson's Richelieu.

WITH all its fictitious ingredients, nothing brings Richelieu so truthfully before the imagination as Bulwer's play, which appears to us to be the masterpiece of the acting drama. Professor G. Masson now furnishes us with a study of the unique Cardinal, who eked out the lion's skin with the fox's. We must have De Vigny's "Cinq Mars"—on the table too.

The fascination of French history begins with the seventeenth century. Voltaire's "Henriade," the achievements of Henri Quâtre, is a moon beside the sun of Virgil's "Æneid," but scintillates with talent in every line, and we liken it to a Damascene blade of tempered steel. It suffices for our history of the period. Then comes the reign of Louis XIII. Richelieu steps upon the scene, that gaunt Don Quixote-like figure, aquiline in visage, with the thick white-peaked moustache, turned up *a la* Charles the First, the streaming grey hair, the eyes like live coals. "I fling my red robe over all," is the saying attributed to him, with regard to mistakes and even misdeeds.

Among stage pictures, you may recall that overpoweringly graphic tableau in Louis XI., when, in the ruddy glare of the rich state bed-chamber. De Nemours, in glittering armour, springs from the bed curtains upon the ape-like monarch, and thrusts the drawn sword to his throat. Another vivid picture is where the genius of Bulwer and Irving combined places before us Richelieu in grim reality, tenting young Mauprat to the quick, so that the warrior raises his gauntlet, and Huguet appears from behind the screen at the rear, with his musket levelled.

This is the imaginary, but we feel it lets us deeper into truth than the dry record of known actuality. Then the "Joseph, ha, ha! You shall be a Bishop, Joseph!" as the Cardinal and his ghostly bowing factotum walk out at the side, as close to us as possible. We lament the loss of John Ryder, who was the Joseph to Macready, Phelps, Vandenhoff, Brooke, Creswick, Sullivan, and Booth. And may we be permitted to insert a reminiscence of Irving's "Richelieu," on a raw winter's night, in Chicago, as a powerful contrast of old world and new?

We harp upon the play, more than upon Masson. We like the lath and plaster of history. Bother the moral. Give us the man and the woman. The words of Mercury—truthful Masson—are harsh after the songs of Apollo—claptrap Bulwer. But then, you know, the claptrap which one has to piece out with the myriad-minded mirror of the imagination is an indispensable ingredient in the real history. When the claptrap oozes forth, as fact, we recognise its supreme importance. An instance comes to our mind from the memoirs of Madame de Remusat.

Awfully solemn was the time when Napoleon announced to Josephine that they must be divorced. Yet we have a notion that the affair was as carefully rehearsed on both sides as Gilbert and Sullivan's "Mikado," or the "Berlin Conference"—or shall we say the Herat difficulty?

Napoleon and Josephine had their interview alone in a boudoir. A throng of whispering courtiers was outside. The Count de Bassano did not put his eye to the keyhole, neither did the Due de Montefiasco apply his courtly ear to the chink under the door. Suddenly there was a thud! The Emperor, pale as death, opened the door. The Empress lay senseless. Two gentlemen carried her down a winding staircase to her own room. They were cut to the very soul. The Empress whispered to the gentleman holding her bust, "Don't squeeze me so tight."

What a flood of light is flung upon the career of Mazarin, when everybody in France can know that he was secretly married to the Queen Mother. The greatest political ecclesiastics in history are Becket, Wolsey, Richelieu, and Mazarin, two English and two French, but doubtless the celestial roll of a quarter million cardinals includes many of equal calibre with Richelieu, the foremost in grasping brilliant chances—and getting them.

Here is an era of French history we feel inclined to launch upon, with sketches of Louis XIV., Bossuet, Condé, Turenne, Mazarin, Colbert, and something more analytic about Richelieu, grace to Masson.

Richelieu's most pestilential foes, all inimical to the general public interest, were the Nobles, the Jesuits, and the Huguenots. After crushing them he was generous, like Cæsar. His defeat of the nobility followed that of the English Barons by Edward IV., so graphically depicted in Bulwer's best novel. All these things were preparatory to the reign of the common people in England and France.

The Congo, Soudan, Egypt.

MR. STANLEY announces the publication of two large volumes, embodying his work of the past five years in the region of the Congo. A territory ten times as large as England has been placed under his jurisdiction, as International Commissioner, by the Berlin African Conference, of England, France, Germany, Portugal and Belgium. All the information hitherto published about Stanley's doings since 1879 has been in the way of mere fragmentary scraps. His new work, copiously illustrated, will excite more attention, probably, than anything he has yet written. Where is De Brazza?

A bookful of "Letters from Khartoum," by the late Mr. Power, the *Times* correspondent, is published. They are his private letters to his family. He displays the most profound sympathy with the Arabs of the Soudan, under their persecution by the Egyptian Government. There is, of course, a quantity of fresh intelligence about Gordon. The Mahdi sent a message of congratulation to Gordon on his arrival at Khartoum. Power exposes the villainous rapacity, extortion, robbery, and cruelty of the Egyptian taxation in the Soudan. The Pashas have become extravagantly rich. One Egyptian, who went there at £2 a week, is reported to have risen from that, in three years, after such an extraordinary fashion, that he had become a Pasha, worth £60,000, all gathered in farming the taxation. Yet this is what Gordon went to bolster up. But Power shows us graphically the agonies of mind by which Gordon was torn. He and Sir Samuel Baker had been the chief instruments in fastening the iniquitous rule of Egypt upon the Soudan. See how England has been placed in a false position. It has always been supposed that she is the sympathiser with oppressed people.

Cassell and Co. are re-publishing, in cheap parts, the very fine pictorial work, by Ebers, on Egypt. This is the modern and antique Egypt of Cairo, Alexandria, the Pyramids, Thebes, Luxor, Philæ, Dendera, Karnak, Chosroes, Thothmes, and the wonder world of that region, as brought out by the labours of Denon, Belzoni, Champollion, Wilkinson, Lepsius, Lane, Mariette, Brugsch, &c. The 800 engravings in Ebers are superb.

The Soudan has been a Balaclava charge for the war correspondents. The remnant are getting ready their books. Mr. Williams has attacked Sir Charles Wilson for failing to rescue Gordon, through his wasting four days. We first heard of this charge in a letter from Suakim to Melbourne. Lord Wolseley obviously supports it. The impetus gained by the successful rashness of Stewart, in the dash to Gubat, died away. Generals who can "snatch a grace beyond the reach of art," the Stewarts, and the Skobelevs, are rare.

Again the Powers are baiting England about the Suez Canal—joint control, and so forth. All this means combination against Great Britain. Lord Palmerston's instinct led him to oppose the idea of the Canal, tooth and nail. He and his school had, before this, done all they could to damp the unlucky Waghorn, who opened up the Overland Route. "Bother the short cut to India, we don't want it." The value of Gibraltar is reduced to 50 per cent. By so much the more does the Mediterranean become a French lake, and the English fleet there is terribly expensive. Then there is the Russian Lake of the Black Sea, with its convenient guts of the Bosphorus and Dardanelles. England seems to stretch out a weakening arm along the expanse to India. It has to be kept mailed. Robert Stephenson was wise when, as advising engineer to Lord Palmerston and England, he reported that the Suez Canal was an impossibility, after walking over the whole Isthmus. Yet the will of De Lesseps burst it through. France triumphed, but is virtually turned out of Egypt.

And the Mahdi is with Mahomet. He was almost as much a political character as Arabi Pasha. Religion was his lever. Bonaparte became a Mahometan in Egypt. The English become we don't know what in India. The *Sydney Bulletin* once had the irreverence to write, "The Mahdi is mad, and Gordon is mad." The Mahdi cost New South Wales only £400,000. Allah Akbar! If New South Wales spends half-millions thus Mahdily, it will be N.S.F. when she goes to the Children of Israel for loans. For they have been there themselves—in Egypt. Suakim and Berber railroads don't pay. Such is the opinion of Sir Jahalaleel Methusalem, and the people of England. The rails would do nicely for another line from Melbourne to Echuca. Please send along.

England is not without its Mahdis and Moollahs. Not long ago the Archbishop of Canterbury solemnly blessed a murderous ironclad, because it was launched by a Princess.

Society in London.

MADAME ADAM is a clever Parisienne, who has started, and carried on for some years. *La Nouvelle Revue*, a rival to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. One of her best writers is M. Vasili, whose books on Society in Berlin, Vienna, and Paris are very pungent and clever, particularly that on Berlin. He incautiously announced his intention of writing one upon London Society, and now he has been forestalled by some Mr. Labby Yeats, who calls himself "A Foreign Resident," and issues a book on "Society in London."

It used to be said that two of the best known old Australians in London, Mr. Edward Wilson and another, were bosom friends, but never could agree on any one point, except that a revolution in England was inevitable.

Madame de Stael wrote that no successful revolution was ever carried through without the support, at the commencement, of a portion of the aristocracy. The names of Mirabeau, Talleyrand, and Philippe Egalité will rise to mind. When Marie Antoinette and her Court patronised Beaumarchais with his "Marriage of Figaro," in the festivities of Little Trianon, they did not perceive that the mordant satire of Beaumarchais was co-operating with the writings of Voltaire, Rousseau, and the Encyclopædists, in sapping the foundations of the Monarchy.

"Progress and Poverty" itself is not half such a crushing and grinding book against the aristocracy as "Society in London." Nothing more devilishly ingenious has been published since Chesterfield wrote from Paris that he saw around him all the signs of an impending Revolution.

This author, the "Foreign Resident," wields to perfection a style of obliquity and implication, the strictly moral *double entendre*. Snake, in the "School For Scandal," flatters one of the ladies with an assurance that Mrs. Candour "lacks that mellowness of sneer which distinguishes your ladyship's scandal." The "Foreign Resident" has all this quality. His book is all on a tippup, like a Palais Royal farce in five acts. The comedian Tousez was described untranslatablely as "*un brûleur des planches*," one whose presence "scorched the boards." The Foreign Resident scorches the Salon, and smears Petroleum over the Drawingroom. The moral which he perpetually insinuates, though never utters, is, "Working people, regard the maggots of the dunghill.

Taxpayers—here are the Drones."

The book is an elaborate impeachment of Society and high life, as hopelessly corrupt and rotten. A sting lurks in every sentence. This rapier is infinitely more effective than the stiletto of the late Grenville Murray. The pillules are all sugared, but they enter the liver as a dart. Yet Society laughs!

Stung with his forestalling by the "Foreign Resident," Count Vasili—whoever he is—publishes some atrocious libels on the Queen, Mr. Gladstone, and other distinguished English personages, in *La Nouvelle Revue*.

In the lowest deep,
A lower deep.

Cannot we throw off this horrid incubus?

Now we have the *Pall Mall Gazette* threatened for exposing immorality in high places. The revolution marches on. The Gospel Purity Society drags out the names of kings, princes noblemen, and clubbists. A purifying hot-wind is required in the aristocratic slums and gutters, where the stagnant water displays its vivid iridescent hues. A judge, on circuit, dies in a bagnio—but this is not legitimate news. That stops at his sentences on vulgar criminals, with due moralization.

Escott's England.

MR. ESCOTT has compressed his "England" from two volumes into one, and much improved it. Without attempting even to sketch the work, we will write of some ideas which its perusal may evoke.

Twenty years have passed since Jevons raised the alarm about the proximate exhaustion of the English coalfields. Tyndall supported him with the statement that "the life-blood of the nation is ebbing away." Nevertheless, since that time the output of English coal has enormously increased. Some scientists hold that the exhaustion is immeasurable, and others that a substitute will turn up long before it occurs. Tyndall combats this. Coal, he says, is the last word in fuel, but the really inexhaustible fields are in North America and China. Doubtless the lack of coal, to work its iron, has kept Ireland in darkness.

Other thoughts raised by Escott are with regard to landed property. He is specially interesting in his details on the management of vast estates, such as those of the Duke of Northumberland, Duke of Cleveland, and Earl of Derby. Strange to relate, there was no modern census of the ownership of land in England until 1876, and it is even yet incomplete. However, there is crushing material for Henry George, the socialist dynamitard.

Again, we have been led into a train of thought on the miraculous development of travelling during the past half century. The thorough maintenance of the great English highroads only dates back a couple of hundred years. The regular stage coaches are very much more recent. As for the railways, they seem to be laid with one flash, when we contemplate the whole ages of English History.

Sir John O'Shanassy said that as sure as ever the question of Australian Federation was raised, that of Imperial Federation would be drawn, as a red herring, across the trail. Thus it has proved. Escott is one of the federalists, in a professional way. The headquarters are at the Royal Colonial Institute, London, where every Nobody from Australia can *pose*, in the land where Mr. Millais paints Mr. Simon Fraser as "An Eminent Victorian Statesman." Such are the statesmen at two thousand guineas apiece.

We can sympathise with Professor Seeley's "Expansion of England" without believing in the chimera of

Imperial Federation. It is impossible to make Australia feel vitally concerned in the independence of Belgium, or to care much whether the Russians or the English possess Herat. We marched an Australian Contingent up the hill and down again, ferried them over the water and back again. New South Wales taxed herself liberally, and will be in a great hurry to repeat it, merely to gratify the filibustering propensities of the young Australian Jingo, who do want to fight, and don't care what they fight.

While New South Wales rushed to the Soudan, all the forty millions of the English population, with its 150,000 drilled volunteers, never moved a finger. What a hollow thing, then, was this supposed demonstration of Imperial sentiment! We will actually do more for England than England will for itself. The Enabling Act is the first step in Australian Independence. The federated English speaking people will include the independent nations of the United States, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. So long as the rupture is not in blood, independence will not mar sympathy.

Although Mr. Escott confines himself to Little Britain, our minds will struggle and swell to the Greater. Lord Salisbury is Premier, and Lord Lytton's extravagantly grandiloquent lines upon him, in "Glenaveril," are strangely *apropos*. "Thou hast it—Thane of Cawdor." Instead of Gladstone tempered by Chamberlain, we have Salisbury tempered by Churchill. This is rather more than despotism tempered by epigrams. Gladstone slips his neck out of the collar with all the adroitness of the venerable politician. Lord Salisbury's position has been very difficult indeed. However, he clutches the strings for the General Election, but then he is so proud and unbending that Churchill will never be able to fuse with him in a Disraeli policy, to spread birdlime for the Tory democracy. Ireland scarcely enters into Mr. Escott's England. Troublesome Ireland! Kept loyal by 60,000 armed men. Is the game worth the candle? Emmet's portrait adorns the cottage walls of Ireland, with his last words, "When my country takes her place among the nations of the earth, then, and not till then, let a memorial be placed over my grave." The statues of Brutus and Cassius were the more conspicuous by their absence from the Roman forum. No statue yet to Emmet. The Prince and Princess of Wales take a nervous tour, and the Mayor of Dublin is conspicuously disloyal. Nor will they sing "God Bless the Prince of Wales" in the Limerick theatre.

Sir Henry Taylor's Autobiography is that of a long lifetime spent in the Colonial Office. The private opinion of Mr. Gladstone, as to the impossibility of Imperial Federation, is well enough known. Taylor shows that Disraeli held the same opinion. It is the sentiment, too, of the Colonial Office generally, and of all statesmen and officials who have had to do with the practical aspects of the question. Sir H. Taylor is himself one of the most emphatic witnesses. Goldwin Smith struck the true keynote, nearly a quarter of a century back, with his book on The Empire. The Australian Governors have already been reduced to political nonentities, the Agents-General in London being virtually ambassadors.

We have been touching up this article at three or four sittings, with demurrers and replications, and so we can bring in a reference to Mr. Chas. Marvin's enormously circulated pamphlet of "The Russians at the Gates of Herat." It puts the case even more strongly than Col. Malleon's "Russo-Afghan Question," noticed in a foregoing article. Mr. Marvin's *brochure* focuses the information given in his numerous larger works bearing on this subject. The most startling point he brings out is that a coach and four horses can be driven all the way from the Russian settlements on the Caspian to the British frontier in India, *via* Herat. The hills on that line are, according to Lessar's survey, a mere bugbear. We are in the habit of confounding the Russian advance from a more northerly direction with this easy route. On the other route there are, indeed, insuperable looking difficulties in the huge mountains. The line of the Paropamisus has been supposed to fence in Herat, but the Paropamisus melted before Lessar, into pleasant and negotiable great rounded hills.

Mr. Marvin's pen sketches, together with the portraits, of Alikanhoff and others, are most opportune. Altogether, we never met with such a suggestive pamphlet. Lessar is a coming man. He has made his mark as a diplomate in London, as well as in the capacity of an engineer and surveyor on the Afghan frontier.

Haweis on Music.

THE Rev. H. R. Haweis publishes "My Musical Life," a chatty embalming of his tuneful recollections. He ranges over Mendelssohn, Balfe, Wallace, Costa, Hullah, Macfarren, Bennett, Benedict, and all the masters and queens of song.

In Goring Thomas, composer of the operas of "Esmeralda" and "Nadeshda," we have a fresh and strong composer, holding his own against the memories of the "Bohemian Girl," "Satanella," "Lurline," and "Maritana." That fleshy, so-called oratorio, the "Rose of Sharon," stamps Mackenzie as a worthy rival. Sullivan throws himself away on the class of work which Rossini, as he tapped off Offenbach's "Grand Duchess" on the piano, termed "one-finger music."

Gounod almost belongs to England. His "Redemption" is a grand work, followed up by his "More et Vita." In opera he never could reach again anything like the mark of Faust, though his "Romeo and Juliet" is liked in

France. His "Polyeucte", and "Tribut de Zamora" were elaborate failures.

France is to the front with composers. Planquette gets £12,000 for an indifferent work like "Rip Van Winkle," although he has scarcely the luscious depth of Audran. The "Lakme" of M. Delibes was made a great hit in Paris by Mdlle. Van Zandt, whose star has paled there. Massenet's "Roi de Lahore" was a more ambitious work. Another leading French composer is Saint-Saens, whose latest opera is "Henry VIII."

The revival of the compositions of Berlioz, especially in London, indicates that this great French composer of the last generation is becoming enrolled among the immortals. His genius has not to lay dormant for two centuries like that of Bach, with whom, Beethoven, and Mozart, he is destined to live.

Wagner has quenched everything in Germany. At all events, our musical contemporaries there do not send a ripple to England or France. But Hungary yields the gifted Dvorak, who has rushed to the front in London in a manner which recalls Mendelssohn's visit, with his ever-memorable and matchless "Elijah."

Sunny Italy is almost as barren of rising musical originality as America or Australia. Verdi, the versatile assimilator of Rossini, Donizetti, Meyerbeer, and Wagner, is working hard in retirement, apparently with the same spirit which animated Turner, the artist, in accumulating a mass of paintings for posthumous display.

Mr. Haweis' narration of the struggles, privations, and patience of Wagner is sympathetic and touching. When his "Flying Dutchman" had failed in Paris, he was so reduced that he had to sell the libretto, to which new music was set by a composer named Fouche, and the work thus improved had a success. Imagine the cutting indignity of this, the iron entering into the soul of the mighty composer. It is hardly necessary to add that the music of Fouche has been stripped off and flung into oblivion, and the glorious inspiration of the master restored.

Sir Julius Benedict has gone. A sixth-rate composer, but a thorough artist, with a Catholic appreciation of old and new, Mozart, Rossini, and Wagner. It mattered not to him whether a composer was Italian, German, French, or English. He did more for music in England than any Professor since the immortal Handel, whose "Israel in Egypt," with its score—that is to say twenty—of magnificent choruses, has been the central glory of his Centennial Celebration.

The Civil Service.

THERE is a host of persecuted gentlemen in Victoria, the Civil Servants, who have lately formed themselves into an Association to protect themselves from grinding tyranny. Such an association was never thought of until the abolition of political patronage. Its motive is evidently afforded by the severity of the Civil Service Commissioners.

Popular prejudice, in regard to the Civil Service, is expressed in the words of our friend Chingaring, the piano tuner, "I'm going to keep a bulldog in my yard, and let him loose whenever a Civil Servant comes near the place." In Melbourne, the words "Civil Servant" are synonymous with improvidence and impudence, dashed with incompetence, more or less.

There was an outcry when the *Argus* published, a month or two back, a full list of the Civil Servants, their ages and salaries. This was abominable. "For the information, sir, of my grocaw, and my bakaw, my butchaw, and my tailaw." Hideous! Matches were broken off, they say, and the Jewry returned most unfavourable verdicts.

Some years ago a searching inquiry, by Commission, took place in New Zealand upon the whole Civil Service. The report laid down a principle which we venture to think correct, viz., that in each sub-department there is only required one man of ability, surrounded by mere clerks. In short, the idea of M. Catalani, husband of the famous operatic artiste, is right in his case. "All you require is my clever wife, and four or five puppets."

The whole basis of the Victorian Civil Service is false and mischievous, in the systematic grading upwards of everybody. Everything comes to the man who waits. Dunderhead and Nincompoop only have to hold on. This is the system which has required reform in the British Army, promotion being blocked. Compulsory retirement is, therefore, enforced under conditions which often look hard, but yet the mischief is felt to need still more drastic measures.

The tools to the men who can use them. Let us pay well for ability and professional skill—but the *rationale* of a Civil Service Association is something to protect incompetency. If they want a motto, we give them Antient Pistol's, "Base is the slave who pays."

Squatting Recollections.

GEO. ROBERTSON AND Co. publish a new and popular edition of Mr. Curr's "Squatting Recollections, 1841-1851," and it covers a very interesting field.

We are never tired of quoting a remark by the veteran Russian Admiral Aslan beg off, at his reception, by

leading Melbourne citizens in the Town Hall, after arriving by rail from Sydney, traveling New South Wales and Victoria. "But, entlemen, while I admire the magnificence of your resources, am also convinced that they could only have been developed, as I see them, by the unrivalled energy of the English people."

Mr. Wentworth refused a baronetcy, and is said to have been impressed with the idea that he ought to get a peerage. He urged that a territorial aristocracy should be founded in Australia, and there is no doubt that this was the ambition of the pioneer squatters, animating them throughout the hardships they underwent. It appeared at one time that they would be able to fix their grasp on the soil, converting their precarious leases into freeholds. Hence resulted the fiercest struggles of Australian, and especially Victorian, politics, with that earth hunger which was the basis, likewise, of the Patrician and Plebeian feuds in Ancient Rome.

We have long been gathering up the reins to write, with some authority, on the Merino. The study is fascinating of how these sheep were preserved in Spain for two thousand years to flower in perfection in Australia. The annual show of the Australian Sheep Breeders' Association at Goldsbrough's Wool Stores, Melbourne, in August or September, gives us an opportunity of clawing fleeces, examining yolk and staple, pile and density, and discussing all the questions of "combing," "hot-water washed," and "greasy."

When the show is over, the sales of stud sheep begin, under the hammers of Gibson, Peck, and other artists, in the warehouses of Goldsbrough, Cunningham, Synnot, and Clough, which are filled up with sheep pens. All Australasia is represented in the mass of bidders, and of the auction room it may fairly be said, "There's millions in it." The atmosphere is strongly charged with electricity, as the auctioneer calls out, "Fifteen hundred guineas bid for this glorious ram—going fifteen hundred!"

It will not be out of place to add here a notice of the little pamphlet, "Year Book of West Australia," compiled by the Hon. John Forrest, C.M.G., the distinguished explorer, who is now Commissioner of Lands and Surveyor-General. He points out that his colony is a third of Australia. Its area of 1,060,000 square miles only includes 3700 square miles which are alienated in fee simple. Come, now, who says we are getting exhausted? Come on, ye hungry millions of Europe! Mr. Forrest's little blue book is brimful and running over with interest. By the way, Lady Broome, the Governor's wife, has published some timely chat about West Australia in her "Letters to Guy." Rottneest is a delicious little island, whither Governor Broome and his family flee from the cares of State, like Sir George Grey to Kawau. We wish we had a Rottneest.

A monster company is floated to take up the territory of the Fishers in Northern South Australia. It is only about two-thirds the size of Great Britain. Only that and nothing more. A special object is the encouragement of young Jackeroos with capital, so that their Mammas will be easy. Oh, don't we know the Jackeroo! You have heard of the green hand at sea. Well, he's a Jackeroo, only he bestrides a yard-arm instead of an old stock-horse.

The London Shows.

AFTER a trip to Paris, glancing at Sara Bernhardt's Theodora, in the Porte St. Martin Theatre, and Dumas's play of "Denise," supported by Mdlle. Bartet and Coquelin, at the Theatre Francaise, I may whirl my hansom once more round the Shows of London.

As a musical item, I have chiefly to lament the death of Herr Damrosch, who so successfully conducted the German opera season in New York. He died in that city, just at the apex of his triumph. His productions there of Wagner's masterpieces were memorable, including "Tannhauser," "Lohengrin," and the "Walkure," all with a perfect *ensemble*, which, to the artistic mind, outshone the electric star of Patti at the rival opera house. But Patti's *entrepreneur* reaped the dollars in San Francisco and other American cities.

Carl Rosa's English opera season, at Drury Lane, supported by Madame Roze, Messrs. Maas, M'Guckin, and other distinguished artistes, has been very prosperous. His trump cards were Goring Thomas's "Nadeshda," and Massenet's "Manon." Another musical novelty of London is Gilbert and Sullivan's "Mikado," enjoying its run at the Savoy, and booked for a year, like "Patience" and "Iolanthe."

Irving is back at the Lyceum, with Ellen Terry. Her husband, Charles Kelly, the actor, died just as she reached England from America. They fell in love while playing the lovers in "New Men and Old Acres," at the Court Theatre, thirteen years ago. The dream did not last long. Ellen Terry was previously married to Mr. Watts the artist, whose paintings are remembered for their force of imagination. Her daughter, a grown-up young lady, has acted under the name of Miss Ailsa Craig. Miss Terry's father attended Mr. Kelly's funeral. Kelly was a good leading actor.

Miss Terry and Mr. Irving are acting in a luscious revival of Wills's "Olivia," founded on the evergreen "Vicar of Wakefield." Terriss has returned to his allegiance, and is indispensable as Squire Thornhill. Irving's Vicar reminds a Melbournian of Canon Chase. This drama suits the current lackadaisical taste.

Wilson Barrett, at the Princess, was almost nonplussed by the "facer" of the collapse of "Junius." After a revival of the "Silver King" he has fallen farther back, on "The Lights o' London." It is believed he has a notion of trying "Othello."

The Bancrofts have, for once, made a mistake in putting up "Katherine and Petruchio" at the Haymarket. Mrs. Bernard-Beere, Brookfield, Kemble, and Forbes-Robertson are thrown away upon it. The bill, however, is filled out with "Sweethearts" and "Nan the Good-for-Nothing." In these strongly contrasted pieces Mrs. Bancroft is delicious.

The Adelphi has struck oil with Sims' "Last Chance," a melodrama in which Charles Warner takes the lead, as he did in "Drink," "Never Too Late To Mend," "Michael Strogoff," "Taken From Life," and "In the Ranks." This powerful actor-meditates a trip to Melbourne for the benefit of his health.

Quite a chance hit has been made with Byron's "Open House," at the Vaudeville, and the managerial mind is eased for a long time. Thorne and Farren act very well in it, but it is a flimsy thing, which has caught on like "Confusion." Toole has not been so fortunate, at his little theatre, with "The Shuttle-cock," left unfinished by Byron and finished by Sterry.

The Kendals, after their failure in "As You Like It," have dropped back upon "A Quiet Rubber" and "The Queen's Shilling," two pieces which they ran together before "Impulse." They are preparing a risky thing by Sardou, which Mrs. Langtry is also said to be studying.

This lady has been acting in Sardou's "Peril," at the Prince's Theatre, with great praise. The unpleasant piece will be remembered in Melbourne as "Friends." Coghlan plays the inevitable wife's lover of the French drama. Beerbohm-Tree's Sir Woodbine Grafton has won universal admiration as a character study, quite distinct from his acting in "Called Back," as that was distinct from his comic performance of the "Private Secretary." This is a coming actor. He is working up, as Irving did, in the time when the latter played in "Uncle Dick's Darling," and "Hunted Down."

The Criterion Theatre, with "The Candidate," and the Court with "The Magistrate," both swim in the full tide of public favour. Burnand's "Mazeppa" has given a spurt to the Gaiety.

Lord Cairns.

It is remarkable that the two most eminent subjects of Queen Victoria who have died within the past four years, or since Beaconsfield's demise, were Evangelicals—General Gordon and Lord Cairns. Mr. Gladstone, the most eminent living Englishman, is of the same type, though less pronounced. This trio is composed not of clergymen, but of a soldier, a lawyer, and a statesman. Then we have Lord Selborne, and the late Lord Hatherley, to set off against the jurists who are so violently anti-theological, and led by Sir James Fitzjames Stephen.

Lord Cairns was similar to Gordon in his complete possession by the spirit of religion. With both it was the bringing of every thought in subjection. Cairns regularly spent half-an-hour in private prayer before the Cabinet councils, at the time when the tension between England and Russia was so critical, in 1878. Lady Cairns said this was the explanation of his being so calm, when all the other ministers were irrepressibly excited. He would insist on maintaining his hour of private devotion in the morning, even if it restricted him to only a couple of hours' sleep after an exhausting parliamentary debate. While studying for the Bar, he rose at four, and his religious exercises occupied him till six, when he began his legal work. These particulars are only samples from the unbroken tenor of his life.

He was the peacemaker who accommodated the differences between Mr. Gladstone and Lord Salisbury, over the Franchise Bill, a few months ago. Ever since the Beaconsfield Cabinet went out, he has been the tempering medium. The nation has owed much to him in this period.

His end was that perfectly beautiful peace which all must desire. We remember a very impressive passage in a sermon by the Dean of Llandaff, on Dean Stanley's passing away. The watchers round the bed perceived that for a time the soul hung wavering as it were, between the two worlds. While Lord Cairns lay unconscious, with life ebbing away, his family joined in prayer that a few lucid moments might be vouchsafed. They came. He died in the full possession of his senses, with a cool testimony on his lips to the security of his faith. Resting his head on the shoulder of Lady Cairns, his last words were "Eternal Life. Eternal, Eternal Life."

Beaconsfield spoke of the intellect of Cairns as "transcendent," a strong word for a cynical, free-thinking associate to use, and one who had trodden the arena of politics with Lyndhurst and Brougham. This reminds us that Lyndhurst died a thorough Christian. Lyndhurst and Cairns were indisputably the foremost legal intellects of the nineteenth century.

Among all the Christian prattlers, we cannot find one in a thousand with any sense of the meaning of words when they talk of making the best of both worlds. The pietist is to live 1,234,567,890 years in the next world, and millions, billions, sextillions, and nonillions more, yet observe how he risks the chances of this time, to sail as close as possible to the wind in securing the height of enjoyment during, perhaps, only one year that he will have to live here. The fact is there is a lurking fear in everybody's mind that no future life is provided at all. Pious people go on the principle of fire insurance, and cut the premiums as fine as they can.

In Lord Cairns we have a man of the highest excellence, but he lived in the height of luxury. He prided himself on being a magnificent shot, and with justice, for he once brought down three stags dead with three successive shots. He could not bear the cruelty of not shooting the poor things dead, but then, you see, he would risk it. Not a word had his evangelical friends to say to him about the iniquity of this; but please observe how horrified they would be if a costermonger went to see "Ada, the Betrayed," acted at the Mary lebone Theatre.

A timely little Memoir of Earl Cairns has been published, by a Miss Marsh. It further accentuates the amiable features of his character as we have been gratified to set them down. A very significant anecdote is given of his business success. After his admission to the Bar, he sedulously attended his chambers every day from 10 to 4, although no clients came for a very long time. One Saturday afternoon his friends wanted him to go down the Thames with a pleasure party, but no, he would not leave his office. At a few minutes before four o'clock he was summoned in a hurry, and not for any of the bogus business of Dr. Robert Sawyer, M.D., late Nockemorf. It was an important legal job, through a veteran counsel being out pleasuring. This incident was the whole foundation of Cairns's professional success.

From August to October in each year he lived at his noble Scottish mountain estate of Dunira, with his family, and his residence was at delightful Bournemouth for the rest of the year, when he could steal away from London. In paying over £11,000 or £12,000 to Miss Fortescue, we fancy that Lord Cairns regretted that he had not adhered to the injunction, "Lay not up for yourselves treasures on earth."

We wish to stand well with the religious world, and hope it will be perceived that, while piercing those joints in the armor which are found in every man, we recognize in Lord Cairns a very good one. Miss Marsh records that Lord Cairns said to a friend, *apropos* of his riches, "They don't satisfy!" and the friend saw a higher hope in his clear, blue eye. And the London *Record* says it was a peculiar privilege for him to die so close to Easter Sunday, spending it in heaven. But he would rather have spent it on earth.

Coursing in Australia.

The Waterloo Cup, Purse, and Plate, distributing £1000 in prizes, have just been decided, with numerous other events, at a three days' meeting, at Diggers' Rest, about 18 miles from Melbourne, to the north. This is not far from the seat of the Hon. Sir W. J. Clarke, Bart., Rupertswood, Sunbury, and he is an enthusiastic supporter of Coursing.

The Diggers' Rest Coursing Ground is called the Oval. It is very extensive, 200 acres as we estimate, all fenced in with a hare-proof fence. An inner space, about 100 acres, is enclosed for the sport. The rest of the ground is devoted to the preservation and propagation of hares, under a curator who lives on the plantation, the whole concern belonging to the Victorian Coursing Club. The number of hares is practically unlimited. They are driven into a "kraal," from which, by a mechanical arrangement, they are let out one by one as required for the courses.

All visitors are jealously kept to the Stand enclosure, fenced with wire. Here we have the Press Box, Signal Flag post, Luncheon Marquee, and the familiar concomitants of a meet for horse-racing. The betting ring is in full vigour. The day's outing costs about half-a-sovereign, including railway, admission, and lunch, so that the sport is somewhat exclusive, but there are large attendances, conveyed by a couple of special trains.

The hares all run almost precisely in the same line, though it crosses an open field, and the courses are minutely visible with a lorgnette. The Judge, in red hunting costume, follows on horseback, and the Slipper is also in scarlet. Only about one hare in four is killed. They escape to the Preserve, through a brush fence protected by sacking, which keeps back the greyhounds. Doubtless a number of the hares, like English foxes, get practised, in the "sport."

It is shockingly cruel, for all that. There is a Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, in Melbourne, which is extremely solicitous about anything in which the poor man is concerned. They draw the line at the pursuit of the fierce carnivorous hare—and indeed at everything where the offender is wealthy. But clergymen attend the coursing matches. They would not go to the vulgar baiting of a timid bull or a bear. The hare enjoys being coursed—by strictly respectable people, who crimp cod and skin eels alive. An outcry rises from Christian philanthropists if common people course just one rabbit, or three or four urchins chevy a puppy after a cat. Such depravity is horrid; but the sport is glorious when, in the Waterloo Cup, fifty squeaking hares are torn to shreds by beautiful and aristocratically-owned greyhounds. Subscribers to the Cathedral must not be offended.

WE wish to say a word about Emmet's Holiday Book. We have read most of the numerous contributions with pleasure. They are by ladies and gentlemen connected with the theatrical profession. Among the little sketches which particularly took our fancy are those by Miss Bishop, Miss Vivian, Messrs. R. Stewart, Baldwin, Kinghorne, Power, and Vincent. Mr. Baldwin's "How I was Hanged" is very graphic.

THE *Calcutta Review* for July well maintains the prestige of this long-established magazine, with which the

imperishable names of Lawrence and Kaye are connected, in the past. It deserves to be known in Melbourne, and more widely circulated, in London.

Alex, M'Kinley and Co., Printers, Queen Street, Melbourne.