The Arguments of Protectionists

By Professor Fawcett.

6. It is argued by protectionists that a protective import duty is ultimately almost entirely paid by the foreign producer, and it is therefore supposed that protection secures the double advantage of compelling foreign countries to contribute to the home revenue, whilst at the same time encouragement is given to home industry.

This argument is supported with much ingenuity by a well-known American economist, Mr. Francis Bowen. It is contended by him that if America imported £40,000,000 worth of manufactured goods when an import duty of 10 per cent. was levied, and if when this duty was raised to 35 per cent., only £20,000,000 worth of good? were imported, the government would not only obtain a larger revenue from the smaller importation, but England in consequence of the falling off in the demand for her goods would be compelled to sell them at a lower price. It is therefore urged that the effect of a protective duty is to enable a country to purchase foreign produce at a cheaper rate, and consequently the country which maintains protection is placed in a position to make a better bargain with those from whom this produce is bought. In this reasoning the fact is altogether ignored that although the price which the English may obtain for their goods is somewhat less than it was before the duty was raised, yet this reduction in price is extremely trifling compared with the extent to which the price is raised in the importing country in consequence of the increase of duty; therefore those who purchase the article in America, although they may find its price not advanced by the full amount of the duty, yet the advance will be sufficient to cause by far the greater part of the duty to fall upon those who consume the article in America, and not upon those who produce it in England.

In order to show this, let it be assumed, following the example given by Mr. Bowen, that 100,000 pieces of woollen cloth, the value of which in England is £1,000,000, are exported from England to America when the import duty is 10 per cent. Suppose the cost of the carriage of this cloth is £1 a piece, and the duty being 10 per cent., will also be £1 per piece. Consequently the price at which the cloth will sell in America will be approximately £12 a piece because the price must be sufficient to provide a compensation for the cost of carriage and for the duty. If the price were more than sufficient to do this it would be more profitable to sell cloth in America than in England, and the price would be inevitably forced down by those who had cloth to sell being naturally anxious to secure the advantages of this extra profit. If, on the other hand, the difference in the price of cloth in the American and English markets were not sufficient to pay the cost of carriage and the duty, then it would be less profitable to sell English cloth in America than in England, and English manufacturers would consequently refuse to export cloth. When the duty is raised from 10 per cent. to 35 per cent., a piece of cloth which was worth £10 in England would have to be sold in America not at £12 but at £14 10s. because the difference between its price in the two markets must be sufficient to cover the duty as well as the cost of carriage; the cost of carriage is still £1, but the duty having been raised from 10 per cent. to 35 per cent., is £3 10s. The protectionists however are no doubt right in their contention that with this great increase in the price of English cloth in America, there would be a considerable falling off in the American demand. Accepting the hypothesis on which the argument advanced by Mr. Bowen is based, let it be assumed that the importation of English cloth into America is reduced from 100,000 to 50,000 pieces. This diminution in the demand for cloth would undoubtedly affect its price in England, but the reduction would inevitably be small when compared with the increase of duty. The price cannot permanently fall below such a point as will make the manufacture of cloth less remunerative than other branches of industry.

It would be an excessive estimate to suppose that a falling off to the extent of one-half in one branch of the foreign demand for English cloth, resulting from an increase of the American protective duties, would cause a reduction in price of 10 per cent. But even if it is assumed that the price is reduced by this amount, a piece of cloth which before was worth £10 in England would now be worth £9, and its price in the American market would be £13 3s. instead £14 10s.; because the difference in its price in the two markets must be sufficient to pay the cost of carriage, which is £1, and the duty, which is £3 3s., being 35 per cent., on the value of the cloth which is now £9. It therefore appears that although the price of English cloth in America is not advanced by the full amount of the increase of duty, yet the price is raised from £12 to £13 3s.; in fact cloth is made so dear that the American people can only afford to buy half as much from England as they formerly purchased. An injury will no doubt be inflicted on English trade by this falling off in the American demand; it must however be
borne in mind that the loss which may be thus caused to a special branch of English industry may bring with it a compensating advantage. Thus it has been assumed that owing to less cloth being exported to America, cloth becomes cheaper in England by 10 per cent. Everyone therefore who wishes to purchase English cloth, whether at home or abroad, will be benefited by its being thus made cheaper. With this fall in price, the general demand will increase; this will inevitably lead to a considerable recovery in the price of cloth, and this circumstance will go far to compensate the English manufacturers for the falling off in the American demand.

It therefore appears that instead of a protective duty being chiefly paid, as American and other protectionists suppose, by foreign countries, such a duty must cause a much more serious loss to the community which imposes it than it causes to those countries who export the produce on which the duty is levied. Thus it has been shown in the foregoing example, that whatever loss might ultimately be caused to the English cloth manufacturers by an increase of the American import duties on cloth, this loss is, so far as the English people are concerned, accompanied by the advantage that they are able to purchase cloth at a somewhat lower price. One special branch of English trade is injured: whereas the general body of English consumers are benefited. In America, however, where the higher protective duty is imposed, exactly the reverse takes place. Whatever effect the increased duty may have upon the American cloth manufacturers, the increase of the duty causes a most serious loss to the American people.

The arguments that are adduced in favour of protection so habitually ignore the interests of the general consumer, that it is of the first importance to remember that in the case just investigated, the increase of the protective duty on cloth would not simply raise the price of imported cloth, but would produce a corresponding advance in the price of all the cloth which was purchased by the American people, whether of home or of foreign manufacture. If therefore, of the entire cloth used in America only one-twentieth were imported, the protective duty on cloth would impose a fine on the American people twenty times as large as the amount which the import duty yielded to the revenue. The injury therefore which is done to a foreign country by the imposition of a protective duty, is trifling compared with the injury which the country imposing the duty inflicts on herself.

7. A striking illustration is afforded of the opposite aspects under which the advantages of protection are represented by its advocates, when it is argued that the general body of consumers cannot be injured by protection, because profits and wages are not higher in the protected industries than in those which are not protected.

The employment of such an argument is imprudent, because the fallacy which it involves can be readily explained; whilst the admission it contains, as to the equality of wages and of profits in protected and unprotected industries, affords a complete refutation of many of the arguments on which most reliance is placed by those who support protection. Such an admission in fact disposes of a very considerable number of the reasons which are ordinarily urged in defence of protection. If it is conceded that profits and wages are not higher in trades which are protected than in those which are not protected, it at once becomes evident, as we have attempted to show in a previous chapter, that if commodities are made dearer by protection, the loss which is thus caused to the consumer of these commodities is not counterbalanced by any special advantage being enjoyed by those who supply the capital and labor requisite to produce them. When the price of any product is increased through protection, the extra price does not represent higher profits or wages, but is simply an equivalent for increased cost of production.

In order to prove the fallacy involved in the argument that the consumer cannot be injured by protection because the imposition of a protective duty, in any branch of industry, does not increase its wages and profits beyond the average rate, it is only necessary to consider what would be the effect of again levying in England an import duty on corn. As previously explained, the inevitable effect of such a duty would be to raise the price of corn in England. Less foreign corn would be imported, and more would be grown on our own soil. This rise however in the price of corn, as is admitted by the protectionists in the argument we are now considering, would not increase the profits of the farmer; the extra price which he received for his corn having to be devoted to pay the additional rent which now would be demanded from him, he would gain nothing; but the fact that he is not benefited, would not in the slightest degree lessen the loss which would be inflicted on the general body of the consumers; for, in consequence of the protective duty, everyone would find that he had to pay more for the bread he purchased.

8. It is alleged that protection must be economically advantageous, because when a country produces commodities for itself, instead of obtaining them from abroad, the labor employed in transporting them is saved, and this labor is assumed to be unproductive.

There is, however, not the slightest foundation for the assumption that the labor employed in transporting a commodity is in any degree more unproductive than the labor which is employed in producing it. The labor of the ploughman who ploughs the land on which wheat is grown, is not more useful or essential than is the labor of those who bring the wheat to the place where it is required for consumption. The finest fields of wheat would
be perfectly worthless if the wheat had to be left on the fields where it grew. There may be millions of tons of coal at the pit’s mouth, and this coal would be of no more use than if it had never been dug, unless there is labor to convey it to the places where it is wanted.

It is supposed that a coal-field extends under the entire town of Liverpool. If this is the case, it would be possible for the people of Liverpool to obtain coal close to their own doors. This coal, however, being at a much greater depth than the coal in other coal-fields in the locality, would be more expensive to work. Let it be assumed that the additional cost of working the coal will be 5s. a ton, and that the cost of carrying coal from the coal fields which now supply Liverpool is 2s. a ton. It is obvious that this cost of carriage would be saved, if the coal immediately below Liverpool were worked. But in order to save this 2s., 5s. would have to be spent; and therefore the net loss on each ton of coal used in Liverpool would be 3s.

It therefore appears that saving the labor employed in transporting produce is not necessarily economically advantageous, for the amount thus saved may be altogether inadequate to the increased cost involved in obtaining a commodity under more unfavorable conditions.

9. Protection has been represented to the working classes in America as conferring a great benefit upon them, because it is said that wages are higher in the protected industries in America than they are in the same industries in free-trade England.

Even if the difference in the remuneration of labor in the United States and in England had continued to be as great as it was formerly, it is obvious, after what was stated when considering the seventh argument, that this difference in wages could not have been due to protection. It was shown that protectionists themselves admit that wages are not higher in protected than in unprotected industries; consequently the greater remuneration which labor obtains in one country than in the other must be due to causes which are independent of protection, and which exert a similar influence upon all employments. A consideration of some of the more prominent features in the economic condition of England and America respectively will at once enable us not only to say what these causes are, but will also show that far from protection increasing the remuneration of labor in the United States, it is gradually depriving labor of so much of its productiveness, that it seems probable wages will soon be reduced there to the same level which they have reached in England.

The most striking point of difference in the economic position of England and the United States, is the comparatively small quantity of fertile land which is possessed by the former country in proportion to its population. The quantity of food which is grown upon English soil would be altogether inadequate for the support of its population; and each year we are becoming more and more dependent upon America to make good this deficiency in our supplies of food. It is calculated that the quantity of wheat annually consumed in England is about 22,000,000 quarters; the yield of our own harvest this year is estimated at 9,000,000 quarters. 13,000,000 quarters will consequently have to be imported, and by far the larger portion of this will be obtained from America. The quantity of meat, butter, cheese and other articles of food which are annually imported from America is rapidly increasing. It is not, however, only with regard to food that England has so largely to depend upon foreign countries for the supplies she requires. A great part of the raw material which is used in many of her most important manufacturing industries is not obtained from her own soil. For instance, a very large portion of the wool which is annually manufactured in England is of foreign growth; and the English climate not being suited to to the production of silk and cotton, all the raw silk and raw cotton which she requires must necessarily be imported. So large a portion of this cotton is obtained from the United States, that the value of the raw cotton which is imported thence has in some years amounted to £30,000,000. It therefore appears that the United States, when compared with England, enjoys the great advantage of possessing a more abundant and cheaper supply, not only of food, but also of the products which provide the raw material of the most important branches of manufacturing industry. It would seem necessarily to follow that wages and profits would be much higher in the United States than in England. Fertile land is so plentiful in the former country, that it can be obtained in any quantity for the payment of almost a nominal sum; whereas those in England who wish to cultivate land often have to pay in a single year, in rent, as much as would represent the fee-simple of land of the same quality in the United States. In the one country the entire produce of the land may be devoted to remunerate capital and labor; whereas in the other country a not inconsiderable portion of the produce has to be appropriated as rent. The amount which an English farmer has to pay in rent is often equivalent to the entire amount which he expends in wages. Consequently there will be a smaller aggregate sum left to be divided in the form of profits and wages amongst those who have supplied the capital and labour requisite for the cultivation of the land. It therefore appears that a higher rate of profits and wages must be yielded by agriculture in the United States than in England, and as it has been proved that wages and profits in different industries in the same country approximate to equality, it follows that capital and labour ought both to obtain a higher remuneration in the United States than in England. This higher remuneration is due to circumstances which are altogether independent of protection. It can, moreover, be shown that an influence of so exactly an opposite kind is exerted by protection, that at the present time it is imposing on the industrial classes in America a
burden, which to a great extent is neutralising the advantages conferred upon them by the possession of those
great natural resources to which attention has just been directed.

A change of the utmost significance has recently taken place in the economic relations between England
and the United States. For many years a large stream of emigration continuously flowed from Great Britain and
Ireland to America. Those who were left were so well satisfied with their new home that between 1847 and 1864, the
Irish emigrants alone transmitted £10,000,000 from America, to enable their friends and relations in the old
country to go and share the prosperity and comfort which they were then enjoying. It has, however, now come
to pass that labourers now seem as desirous to leave, as they once were to reach the United States. The fade of
emigration, once so strong, is now beginning to turn, for in 1877 the number of those who emigrated from
England to the United States only exceeded by 603 the number of those who emigrated from the United States
to England.

It may of course be said that labourers have been induced to leave the United States in consequence of great
depression in trade, but if trade is more depressed there than in England, the fact still remains that labourers are
leaving the United States because the labour market of that country ceases to offer the advantages it once
possessed. It therefore appears that American protectionists can no longer use the argument which was once
employed with so much effect, that protection secures to labour the advantage of a higher remuneration than
can be obtained in countries which have adopted free trade.

After what has been stated in a previous chapter, the prejudicial effect which must be exercised upon the
remuneration of labour by such a protectionist tariff as that which is now maintained in the United States will
be readily understood. A protective duty by making the product on which it is imposed unnecessarily dear,
virtually levies a tax from all those who purchase it. When the commodities which are subjected to such a duty
are those in general use, the effect of the duty is precisely the same as if an income tax were levied from the
entire community. Such a tax cannot be adjusted or equalized as is the case with the income tax in our own
country. Small incomes cannot be exempted; for however poor a man may be, the tax will fall with unerring
certainty on all that portion of his income, or his wages, which is expended in the purchase of those articles
which are protected. But this is not the only tax which protection compels a community to pay. When the
instruments and the plant of industry are made more costly, the products of that industry necessarily become
more expensive. Iron, copper, and timber are, as we have seen, all made dearer in the United States by
protection. Consequently the machinery which is made of copper and iron becomes more expensive; the cost of
buildings also, in the construction of which iron and timber are used, is increased; and this being the case, those
who pay a higher price for this machinery must be compensated by obtaining a higher price for the products
which they manufacture; and those who erect the buildings will be able to claim an increased rent, in order that
they may be adequately remunerated for the additional cost of their construction.

Protection is thus in a thousand different ways perpetually taxing the American people. There is not one
single branch of her industry on which it does not impose a penalty more or less severe. Its influence may be
traced far and wide over the country. It increases the cost of the implements by which the land in the far west is
tilled; it causes a higher rent to be paid by the poorest artizan, lodged in a back street of New York. The burden
thus cast upon the industrial classes is so severe as to gradually neutralise her great natural advantages; and thus
we find that though trade is depressed in England, it is still more depressed in America, and workmen are
beginning to discover, that although wages are nominally higher in the United States than they are in England,
yet the American labourer has to pay so much more for house-rent, and many articles which he must purchase
are made so unnecessarily dear, that with higher wages he is not so well off as he would be with smaller wages
in England.

10. When protection has once been introduced into a country, it is argued that it should embrace as many
industries as possible; because if only one industry were protected, the general public would receive no
compensation for the higher price which they would have to pay for the product of this particular industry. If
however, protection embraces the entire industry of the country, each industrial class is in its turn benefited,
and is amply compensated for the increased dearness of various articles.

This argument has been enforced with much ingenuity by M. Alby, a well-known French protectionist. He
contends that if the iron interest alone were protected in France, the policy would be absolutely indifensible,
because every one in France would have to pay more for iron in order to give an advantage to those engaged in
the French iron trade; but he urges that this objection is entirely removed if all industries are equally protected.
For instance, if the cloth trade is protected, the benefit which those engaged in it are supposed to derive, more
than compensates them for the loss they have to bear in paying an increased price for iron. It has been shown
with great clearness by the late Professor Cairr.es, that it is impossible to extend protection to all industries in
the manner here contemplated; and even if such an extension were practicable, the compensation which it is
assumed the community would receive, would be entirely illusory. It is obvious, in the first place, that this
argument entirely overlooks the interests of the professional and other classes who obtain their incomes
otherwise than by trade. A physician with £1,000 a year, or a policeman with £1 a week, would find that almost everything he purchased was made dearer by protection; while his income was in no way increased by it.

With regard to the impracticability of extending protection to all industries, it is only necessary to remark that in many industries there is no foreign competition, and it is consequently impossible to extend protection to them. For example, wine is not imported into France, and wheat is not imported into America. An import duty imposed upon wine in France, or on wheat in America, would therefore be of no advantage to the French wine-grower, or to the American farmer. They are consequently precluded from receiving any compensation for the higher price which they are compelled to pay for the various articles that are made dearer through the operation of protective duties. But even if it were practicable to extend protection to the entire trade of the country, it can be readily shown that nothing would be gained even by those who where interested either as employers or employed in the various industries thus protected, as a set-off against the very serious loss which would be caused to the whole community. The only way in which the general rate of wages and profits prevailing in a country can be advanced, is to increase the productiveness of capital and labour. If more is produced by the expenditure of a given amount of capital and labour, there will be more to distribute in profits and wages. If less is produced there will be less to distribute, and profits and wages will be reduced. Whatever may be the social and political advantages claimed for protection, such for instance, as that it secures a diversified industry, and makes a community independent of foreign countries, its advocates do not attempt to maintain that it increases the productiveness of capital and labour. They are in fact forced to admit, that if protection were regarded simply in its economic aspects it could not be defended; but they maintain that the social and political advantages which they suppose result from it, are more than sufficient to counterbalance the economic loss which is caused to a country by diverting a portion of its labour and capital to industries which can be carried on under less favourable conditions at home than abroad.

11. Protection is defended in America and the Colonies on the ground that, as wages are higher there than in England, the American and Colonial traders require protection in order to place them in a position of equality with their English competitors.

This claim for protection is evidently based on the assumption, that the amount of wages paid to labourers is the only element of which account need be taken when considering the cost of producing a particular article. The fallacy of such an opinion at once becomes apparent, when it is remembered that agriculture is the particular branch of industry in which the difference between the wages paid in England and those paid in America or Australia is the greatest. And yet it is in agriculture that America and Australia can without the slightest protection compete most successfully against England. The Illinois or Australian farmer has to pay his labourers at least three or four times as much as is paid by the Dorsetshire or Wiltshire farmer, and yet wheat can be produced much more cheaply in Australia or America than in England. It is therefore obvious that other circumstances, besides the amount of wages which may be paid, determine the cost at which any article can be produced; if this were not so, the American farmer would have a much stronger claim to protection against the cheap labour of England than the American manufacturer. The efficiency of labour must manifestly exert quite as much influence on the cost of production as the amount of wages which the labourers receive. The great abundance of cheap fertile land in Australia and America, so much promotes the efficiency or productiveness of the labour employed in its cultivation, that the cost of producing wheat and other agricultural products is much less than in England, where considerably lower wages are paid to farm labourers. Again, with regard to mining industry, it is evident that various circumstances, such for instance as the richness of the mineral deposits and their depth from the surface, must exercise a greater effect upon the cost of production than the wages which may happen to be paid to the miners. In manufacturing industry also, the possibility of one country obtaining raw material at a less cost than another, may more than compensate the additional expense which may be thrown upon the manufacturers of the former country by the payment of higher wages. With regard to America and Australia, it is to be particularly noted that the great natural resources which they possess must confer upon them many advantages in industrial competition of which there is no probability that they can be deprived. Their almost inexhaustible supplies of fertile laud give them advantages such as are possessed by scarcely any other country. Their mineral resources are so great, that if they suffer from foreign competition it must be through their own want of skill and enterprise. Even in manufacturing industry, where it is supposed that protection is most needed, it must be remembered that, as England imports large quantities of cotton from America, and of wool from Australia, these countries must with regard to some most important branches of manufacturing industry enjoy the advantage of cheaper raw material. It is moreover deserving of special remark, that the difference in wages in countries between which there is an extensive migration of labour must constantly diminish. When emigration has continued for some time, the objections to it are sure gradually to lessen; it becomes much more of a national habit, and the prospect of a comparatively small advance of wages may be sufficient to induce people to leave their own country, if they think they shall be settling amongst friends and relations, which would prove altogether inadequate if they had to seek a new home amongst
strangers. This increasing readiness to emigrate must exert an equalising influence on wages, and must cause the difference in wages in the two countries, between which the emigration takes place, steadily to diminish. So much is this the case with the United States, that, as previously pointed out, it is now considered that the remuneration received for various kinds of labour is higher in England than in the United States; and there is at the present time nearly as much emigration from America to England as there is from England to America. When the remuneration of labour has ceased to be higher in America than in England; when skilled workmen, such as masons, are found willing to come from New York to work in London for wages which are refused by English masons, there cannot be a shadow of pretext for demanding protection on the ground that the American employer has to pay a higher price for labour than his English competitor. If with labour as cheap as it is in England; if with the unequalled natural resources, inexhaustible supplies of coal, iron, and every other mineral, boundless tracts of fertile land, unsurpassed facilities for internal navigation; if with these and countless other advantages, the American manufacturer is unable to contend with his foreign competitors, it must be because he and those he employs are deficient in skill and energy, and are wasteful of the great gifts with which their country has been endowed.

12. Another argument against free trade is that protection having been once established cannot be abolished without causing great loss both to employers and employed in those trades which have been protected.

It cannot, I think, be doubted that the loss which might be inflicted upon many special trade interests by the abolition of protection constitutes by far the most serious obstacle in the way of the general adoption of free trade. Exaggerated estimates are no doubt formed of the loss which would be actually caused; but however great may be the stimulus which free trade would give to the prosperity of such a country as the United States, it would in my opinion be impossible suddenly to abolish protection without causing considerable loss to the employers and employed in many trades which, through its aid, had been fostered into a kind of unnatural existence. No industrial change, however beneficial, has ever been introduced without causing some loss and inconvenience to certain special classes. The mechanical inventions, which have done most to enrich mankind, were not brought into general use without causing great loss and suffering to many whose labour they supplanted. Seldom has a class endured more severe hardships than were borne by our handloom weavers, during the years that they carried on a prolonged and hopeless struggle, striving in vain to compete with products which were made by machinery at a far cheaper rate. Even stage-coaches could not be superseded by railways without some individuals being injured by the change. Although the aggregate wealth of the country was enormously increased, yet in certain special cases property which was before of great value became almost worthless.

To be concluded.

"The gardener and his wife," Mr. Tennyson tells us, "laugh at the claims of long descent." If it be so, the laugh is natural, for our first parents were "novi homines," and could not appreciate what they did not possess. Nevertheless, in all nations which have achieved any kind of eminence, particular families have stood out conspicuously for generation after generation as representatives of political principles, as soldiers or statesmen, as ruling in their immediate neighbourhoods with delegated authority, and receiving homage voluntarily offered. They have furnished the finer tissues in the corporate body of the national life, and have given to society its unity and coherence. In times of war they have fallen freely on the battle-field. In times of discord and civil strife their most illustrious members have been the first to bleed on the scaffold. An English family, it has been said, takes rank according to the number of its members which have been hanged. With men, as with animals and plants, peculiar properties are propagated by breeding. Each child who has inherited a noble name feels a special call to do no dishonour to it by unworthy actions. The family falls in pieces when its characteristics disappear. But, be the cause what it may, there is no instance, ancient or modern, of any long protracted national existence where an order of aristocracy and gentry are not to be found preserving their identity, their influence, and their privileges of birth through century after century. They have no monopoly of genius. A gifted man rises out of the people, receiving his patent of nobility, as Burns said, "direct from Almighty God." He makes a name and a position for himself; but when the name is made, he hands it on with distinction printed upon it, to his children and his children's children. More is expected from the sons of eminent parents than from other men, and if the transmitted quality is genuine more comes out of them. It is not talent. Talent is but partially hereditary, if at all. The virtue that runs in the blood is superiority of courage or character; and courage and character, far more than cleverness, are the conditions indispensable for national leaders. Thus without exception, in all great peoples, hereditary aristocracies have formed themselves, and when aristocracies have decayed or disappeared the State has degenerated along with them. The fall of a nobility may be a cause of degeneracy, or it may only be a symptom; but the phenomenon itself is a plain matter of fact, true hitherto under all forms of political constitution, monarchical, oligarchical, or republican. Republics have held together as long as they have been strung with patrician sinews; when the sinews crack the
The Miner's Oath.

Chapter III—Continued.

Armed with this resolution, Nelly began to cool towards Bradshaw, snubbing him whenever occasion offered and awakening in the man's heart deep and passionate resentment.

One night, after some of her foolish taunts, he grasped her arm with such passionate force as to blacken and discolor the delicate skin, and Nelly seized upon this insult as an excuse to be quit of him entirely.

"Don't come near me any more," she said. You're just a madman, I think, tearing one's arm like that. I'll believe now fast enough all the fine stories I've heard of you; " and as she spoke Bradshaw cursed her in his passion, calling her names which no woman could forgive, and, bidding her look to herself, added "for, by——, if you don't have me you shall have no other man."

This quarrel took place about the end of the week, and on the following Sunday Nelly determined that she would "make up" with Will, and that both he and she should break off their acquaintance with the Bradshaws.

Full of this purpose, therefore, a little before the time for evening service, she donned her smartest and most becoming dress, and waited at the window to see Stevens go past. He soon appeared in sight, but to Nelly's vexation and amazement he was walking with Mary Bradshaw, and, for the first time in her life, a jealous pang darted into her heart, and with a firm determination to speak to Stevens that evening she followed them down to the chapel.

On entering the building she seated herself nearly opposite to Will, so that he could not fail to observe her, the moment he looked up. Presently their eyes met, and Nelly, who was eagerly watching him, saw, with a feeling of real pleasure and triumph, a deep flush spread over his face; and, though he at once averted his eyes from her corner, she knew that her presence there was anything but indifferent to him, and could see by his restless movements and changing color the struggle which was going on in his heart.

At last the service was over, and Will rose hastily, leaving the chapel almost before it was finished, and Nelly, ashamed before her companions to make any public exhibition of her wishes, was forced to remain till the rest of the congregation begin to disperse, and had the mortification of seeing Stevens vanish at the door before she could even rise from her seat. "But he may go into the woods as he often does on Sundays," she thought, and she at once decided to follow him there.

Her hopes were fulfilled, for Stevens, almost without thinking, did indeed turn in that direction as soon as he came out of the chapel; for so agitated did he feel at again seeing Nolly, and so angry at himself for being so that he felt it would be impossible for him at the present moment to speak to any of his acquaintances. Harrying on therefore, with unequal stops and bowed head, he sought the most lonely and unfrequented paths in the
wood, and when he reached the spot where he and Nelly had last parted, he stopped, and almost groaned aloud over his own weakness.

"Was the old feeling still there, then?" he thought; "the old passionate pain?" The love which he hoped was crushed out or forgotten, could the sight of that beautiful face so easily awaken? But a hasty light step disturbed these bitter reflections, and, looking quickly round, he saw, through the fast-gathering twilight, Nelly come running towards him, holding out her hands, and panting with the unusual exertion.

"Willie!" she said. "Willie!" and then stopped breathless, excited, and Handsome; while, with a strange throb in his heart, Stevens involuntarily hold out his hand, which Nelly eagerly clasped.

"I've run after you all the way," she continued, smiling, and looking up in his face, "all the way. I could not get out of chapel as quick as you did, and some of the folks stopped me to talk, but I got away from them as fast as I could, and ran after you. I thought, maybe," she added archly, "you would come here, and I want to be friends, Willie; I want you to forgive me, and forget how silly I've been.'

He made her no answer, but stood there silent and full of emotion, while the girl went on explaining her conduct, clasping his hands, and speaking with real affection.

"I only meant to tease you," she said. "Dear Willie, I never cared anything for him; for that Bradshaw, I mean; never, never. But when you vexed me so much, I hardly minded what I was doing. So, say you'll forgive me—say you'll forgive me again!"

With a sudden impulse, Stevens put out his arms as she spoke, and clasped her close to his bosom.

"I musn't forgive thee," he whispered; "I musn't forget—but-but—" and then he stooped down and kissed her again and again, holding her fast in his arms, scarcely conscious of what he was doing, powerless to express all he thought or felt.

"You have forgiven me then?" said Nelly softly, looking up with her blue eyes into his face.

But before he could answer her, they were both startled by a sudden crashing of the underwood close to the path where they stood; and the next minute, pushing his way through the trees, Bradshaw stood scowling before them. He had seen Nelly leaving the chapel, though she in her haste had not observed him, had followed her into the woods, and had witnessed her meeting and apparent reconciliation with Stevens with the most furious jealousy and anger.

"So you are at your old tricks, Miss Nell," he said, roughly, with a hard, coarse laugh; "kissing and hugging;" and then, with sudden passion, changing his voice, and rudely grasping her shoulder, he went on,—

"But I won't have it, my lass; I won't have it. You have played with, and have tossed over this one and that—but you'd better not try it with me.'

"Take your hand off," said Nelly, angrily. "You know I said I never would speak to you more."

"Ay, you said—you said, but we know what that means with you women. I tell thee what it is," he continued in a low, determined tone; "if thou hast naught to do wi' me, there's nobody else shall ever have thee."

"I won't ask your leave. Don't stand and listen to him, Willie, but come away."

"What right has he to speak to thee like that?" said Bradshaw, with an odious smile; "a fine right! Let her deny it if she can, how she has carried on with me for a month and more."

"It is a lie," said Nelly, ready to cry. "Take away your hand, and let me alone."

"Let her alone, man," said Stevens, passionately, to Bradshaw, flinging back the hand he still held on her shoulder. "Let her alone, I say; though if ye have any right to talk as ye do, ye can have her, and right welcome for me.'

"She knows what kind of right I have," said Bradshaw; "and she shall play none of her tricks with me, can tell her that."

"I want nothing to do with you," said Nelly, turning her back upon him.

"Come away, Willie," and she laid her hand on Stevens's arm, thus rousing yet more the jealousy of Bradshaw.

"Be done with that," he said, with a dreadful oath, "or by the God who made us, I'll have thy life or his."

"Come away, Willie," whispered Nelly. "Nay, don't look at me like that; don't leave me alone. I'm afraid to be left."

"What's this man to thee, then? " said Stevens. "Answer me now, when we are both standing together."

"Nothing," said Nelly, boldly turning round and facing Bradshaw. "Nothing at all—that's just what I can tell him."

"What!" said Bradshaw, furiously, "what! am I nothing? " And, then with vindictive passion, he added, "I'll show thee if I am nothing—before many days be past."

"Don't listen to him, Willie—come away."

"He shall listen to me, though," shouted Bradshaw. Look to thyself, man. Thou hast come between me and
this lass, and must bide thy deed."

"She wants to have nothing to say to thee," said Stevens; "neither do I; so let us alone."

Let thee alone! No" and he swore a fearful oath—"If there's a God above, or a hell below, I'll have thy life for this night's work. Look to thyself, man, for thy days are short.

"My life is not in thy hands," said Stevens, with a sort of solemnity. "I am not afraid."

"Thou'lt rue this day no less," said Bradshaw; and without another word he turned and left them.

"What a fearful man!" said Nelly. "Oh! Willie, I'm so glad he's gone; "but Stevens put back the hand she put into his as she spoke.

"Don't touch me," he said, with a kind of mournful bitterness. "Don't put thy hand in mine. I can't play thy game, Nelly, nor do I wish to learn—it's enough for me to be true and straight."

"But am I not true, Willie? You don't believe that madman's lies; do you?"

"I scarce know what I believe, or what I think," replied Stevens; but this I know—thou art fit for no honest man's wife, Nelly a good woman has but love for one."

"But I have no love for Bradshaw; none, indeed, Willie. Will you believe me?"

"Why hast thou driven him wild, then? Why hast thou led him on and played with him, and tossed him back? Is love naught, that thou shouldst make toys of men's hearts and souls?"

"On! Willie!" and the girl hung her head, for Stevens's manner was very solemn.

"I have loved thee well," he continued, after a pause; "too well Nelly—but it must be over now. I cannot trust myself or thee," and he turned his head away deeply affected, but Nelly clung to him, and would not let him go.

"Don't," she said, "don't leave me, Willie! I'm not so bad; only foolish. Bradshaw has no right to speak as he did."

"What trust could I have in thee?" answered Stevens. "What trust or faith? A man's wife should be his rest and stay. When I came back to my home where would I find thee?"

"Indeed, indeed, Willie, I will try to be good to thee."

"Thou would'st need no trying, if thou loved me aright," said Stevens; "but we'll say no more; goodbye to thee, Nelly, good bye and God help thee; "and the girl felt a tear on the man's cheek as he pressed his lips for the last time to hers.

"He will come back to me," she thought, with a kind of triumph. "He loves me too well to go."

Chapter IV.—Memesis.

When the first pale streaks of dawn wore breaking, next morning, in the east, the two miners who loved this woman rose silently to go to their daily labour. Both had spent sleepless nights; both, perhaps, had wished, in bitterness, that they had never seen her; but the one rose erect, resolute and calm, looking out on the breaking day without fear of shrinking; while the other, pale, with trembling hands, for he had been drinking deeply the night before, crept to his accustomed toil, with bowed head, and sullen countenance, and with hatred, jealousy, and murder, hidden in his miserable heart.

They met near the shaft mouth, and Stevens looked up and nodded. His ill-will to Bradshaw had vanished in those silent hours of pain and darkness which were just past, and he had given the blame where it was due, knowing that Nelly had played with the deep and passionate nature of this man's heart, and a feeling of pity passed through his mind when he saw the evident marks of pain and suffering written on Bradshaw's altered face.

With far different feelings, however, the fierce and jealous overman encountered his handsome rival. His sullen eyes followed him with the fugitive and vindictive glance of hatred. "He could bear it no more," he had sworn, and desperate and resolute, he followed the unsuspecting miner down into the gloomy recesses of the pit, determined on his revenge.

Without one thought of danger, however, Stevens went on; his "board," or the place where he picked his coal, lay only a moderate distance in the working of the mine, and hither, silently and unseen, he was followed by the vindictive Bradshaw.

One of the most common and fatal accidents in coal pits is caused by the fall of stones or coal from the roof and as you pass the cottages of the miners you will frequently see some poor little cripple hobbling along on his crutch. "He got it by a fall," says the pale-faced mother, if you make enquiries; and yet more mournful cases of young men lying injured for life by some dreadful blow on the spine or head are well known to the medical men of the district.

With truly diabolical cruelty and ingenuity, Bradshaw had determined that his rival should appear to be the victim of one of these common accidents; so he crept quietly after Stevens, and while giving his orders as usual, and inspecting as he went, his eyes were peering in the darkness to find something suitable for his murderous
At last he fixed on a heavy stone, but kicking it aside till the men wore all fairly at work, he went through his ordinary duties, never however, wavering from his determined revenge.

Then when he found himself at liberty, with no prying eyes to watch him, he stole silently back, and picking up the deadly missile which he meant to employ, he went by a more unsafe and circuitous route to the place where he knew he would find Stevens lying at his toilsome labour.

So fierce and conflicting wore the passions which agitated Bradshaw's breast, that he did not notice his "safety lamp" giving, by its change of colour, warning that he was passing through some dangerous gas; but with his eyes fixed before him, he stole on, in the very face of a peril, which, at any other time, he would have been the first to perceive and avoid.

As he approached Stevens's "board" he suddenly stumbled, and, slipping his foot, fell heavily into some water. His lamp falling beneath him was speedily extinguished, and he was thus left in complete darkness.

With a muttered curse he arose, and felt in his pockets for a match, never thinking of the frightful danger he was about to incur by striking an open light amid the deadly vapour by which he was surrounded.

He took one from his box, and struck it on its side, and the next moment there rang through the dismal workings of the mine one of these awful sounds, the very echo of which even above ground, seems to fill all hearts with terror and dismay. With a scream of agony the miserable man was flung by the force of the explosion against the wall of the pit, while the fatal flame he had ignited passed on its destroying way.

Stephens heard the dreaded sound, and, springing from his work, flung himself on his face, and, covering it with his coat which lay near, crouched thus while the fire passed over him, leaving him uninjured, but exposed to the still more dangerous "after damp," a deadly gas which is almost invariably created by an explosion, and of which the victims are yet more numerous and more sure.

To escape this danger, well known to every miner, Stevens now sought to hurry to the shaft, where if the brattice were uninjured, he could obtain a current of air, and where he was most likely to find assistance and release.

As he ran and stumbled along in the darkness, the dread of instant death in his heart, he took by mistake the very way by which, but a few moments before, Bradshaw had come planning his murder, and as he went he suddenly struck his foot against something lying across his path, and, to his horror, discovered by the sounds that issued from this blackened, disfigured, and still burning mass, that the victim was his miserable rival.

Something—a memory, a message, perhaps—seemed to pass into Stevens's heart as he paused one moment over the unhappy man. "If thine enemy hunger, feed him—if he thirst, give him drink." Stooping down he lifted Bradshaw's hood on his bosom, and tried to pour some of the cold tea, which miner's usually carry, between his scorched and blackened lips. The injured man moaned and lifted his hand to his head, and as he did so," Where am I?" he said, "where am I?"

"The pit has fired, Bradshaw," answered Stevens. "Thou must rouse thyself, and I will help thee to the shaft."

"Oh! my God, my God," groaned Bradshaw as recollection remorse, and dread, rushed into his mind, and he found himself face to face with death, and know that the man whose life he had sworn to take, whose love he had made a curse, was kneeling in kindness by his side.

"Leave me, and let me die," said he, suddenly; the pains of hell will not be worse than this."

"Hush man," said Stevens, solemnly; let's name naught now but God and His mercy to us all."

"There's none for me," said Bradshaw.

"None need say so," answered Stevens; and then listening more closely over the prostrate man, he felt that the hand of death was indeed laid upon him, and it seemed but a sacred duty to call on him to prepare.

"Thou'rt badly burnt," he said, "and if we bide here we're lost—thou best think on God."

"I dare not die," asked Bradshaw, with sudden terror, and then, learning his answer by the other's silence, he groaned aloud. "I dare not die," he said, "I dure not die."

"Try to walk then," said Stevens, his own great peril returning to him," and I will help thee along." And the dying man, by one of those strange efforts which expiring nature is capable of, lifted himself up, and dragged on his painful way.

What did they pass on that dreary journey? The dead, the dying, the terror-stricken, and the brave, huddled together in groups, some praying for mercy, some hurrying on in search of fresher air; while groans, oaths, and cries resounded through the darkness and the gloom.

At last, just as they reached the shaft, Bradshaw fell heavily on his side.

"I can do no more," he said, and after a moments glance at him, Stevens—the love of life prevailing over his better nature—left him, and ran to the opening, and looked anxiously around.

But the prospect of immediate relief was gone. The explosion had utterly destroyed the cage, and the whole apparatus of ascent, and, with a sinking heart, Stevens turned away, for he knew now it would be hours before
there could be any prospect of release.

"We are all dead men," he said, with momentary bitterness, and then knelt down, calling on his Maker, in that hour of darkness and danger, to save him. And, as he did so, the memory of his mother, and some hours of holy communion, which his own soul of late had held, came back to him bringing peace and courage to his heart.

"We are in Thy hands," he said, reverently, and rose and went back to his dying enemy, lifting him in his arms and carrying him closer to the open shaft.

Bradshaw opened his dim eyes as he did so, from which the light was now fast fading. "Is the cage all right?" he asked, for he was perfectly sensible.

"It's all blown away," replied Stevens, in a low, solemn tone. "It will be hours, Bradshaw, before they can get us up, and by that time——"

"It will be all over," said Bradshaw. "Ay, Ay, speak out, man. Dost thou mean that?"

"Yes," said Stevens, "an unhurt man could scarce live in this stifling air, and thou art badly burnt."

"I feel but little now," said Bradshaw.

"Thy time is short, then," answered Stevens, reverently. "Oh! Bradshaw, pray to God. Try to save thy soul."

"I've been but a bad man, I fear."

"Most of us can say that," said Stevens; "but if thou hast any great sin on thy soul, think of it now, and ask for pardon.

Bradshaw groaned, and moved uneasily.

"That lass has ruined me," he said.

"Nelly Gray?" asked Stevens.

"Ay, curse her, curse her," continued Bradshaw, raising his voice; "she's made me what I am. She's driven me to my death in seeking thine."

Silently Stevens complied, and took from the man's inner pocket his note-book, which was much burnt and shrivelled.

"What do you mean?" said Stevens.

"I swore I'd have thy life," answered Bradshaw, hoarsely; "and I meant to keep my oath. I said I'd see thee carried home this night, and God has brought it on my head."

"Thou meant to murder me?" asked Stevens, in a low tone of horror.

Bradshaw nodded his head. "I crept after thee," he said, presently. "I had the stone in my hand."

"It is the hand of God," answered Stevens, earnestly. "I pray that he may forgive thee freely as I do."

"She drove me wild," said Bradshaw. "She seemed so fond like once, and then she changed. Just put thy hand into my breast, man, and look into the book thou it find there, if thou still doubts my word."

Sliently Stevens complied, and took from the man's inner pocket his note-book, which was much burnt and shrivelled.

"Open that," said Bradshaw, and as Stevens obeyed him, a long lock of lovely golden hair, which the miner knew well, fell on the breast of the dying man.

"She gave it to me," he said, in a low gasping voice. "I was mad for her, Will," and with his poor burnt hands he felt for the hair, and held it fast.

"she promised to wed me," he continued painfully, as if making a sort of excuse; and—and I—loved her—too much."

"Think of her no more," said Stevens, with a choking feeling in his throat, for he saw the man was fast sinking. "Think not of her, Bradshaw—she is not worthy of thy last thoughts."

"I—I—loved her—so—well," whispered Bradshaw, and then the deadly nature of his injuries, or the foul air—overcame him, for he closed his eyes, and with a slight shudder, and a smile passed quietly away.

* * * * * * * * * * *

Among the first of the sufferers who were brought up to "bank," a few hours afterwards, was William Stevens. He was then nearly insensible, from the effect of the poisonous gas he had inhaled, but revived shortly after, and was able, in the course of the evening, to assist in removing some of the blackened and disfigured remains of those who had but a few hours before, passed him with a careless jest or smile.

The living were all brought up first, and the sinking sun was just shedding his last beams on the weeping and terrified faces of the women who were standing near the pit shaft, waiting for their dead, when Stevens appeared amongst them. He was instantly surrounded by many eager inquirers.

"Did'st thou see naught of my little Bill?" asked one. "Oh! Willie, was Geordie safe?" said another, and amongst them was Mary Bradshaw.

"Willie, did'st thou see Jim?" she said; and Stevens stopped, looked at her tear-stained face, and, as he did so, the memory of Bradshaw's last moments, and of Nelly's treachery and falsehood, rushed back into his mind, which till then had been somewhat confused and weakened by the poisonous gas he had inhaled.

"Come home lass," he said gently; and taking one of Mary's cold unresisting hands, he led her to their cottage door, shutting it behind them, and pointing to a seat.
"He is dead then," said Mary with a wail of sorrow. Stevens turned away his head, but hold out his hand to
the weeping woman.
"Tell me," sobbed Mary, "let me hear the worst. Is he dead?"
"He died in these arms," said Stevens, in a low voice; "he was among the first to die."
"Oh! Jim, Jim; Oh! Jim, it was too sudden," cried Mary.
"Thou came to me in my sorrow, Mary," said Stevens, laying his hand on her shoulder—"let me try to
comfort thee now."
"He was the last—the last of us left but me," sobbed the poor girl.
"Do not grieve so," said Stevens kindly; and then, stooping down, he half whispered," we parted
friends—he died with his hand in mine."

As they spoke they heard a tramping noise, and the sound of subdued voices outside, and then a hesitating
knock.
"They are bringing him home," said Stevens, reverently taking off his cap and opening the door, where a
group of men, bearing Bradshaw's body, decently covered with a sheet, stood waiting for admission.
"He's sorely burnt," said one of them to Stevens, in allow voice as they carried him in, and with a great cry
of sorrow, Mary rose to receive her dead brother.

Late that night, when Stevens was sitting alone in his cottage, a little rap at the door disturbed his sad
thoughts, and when he rose and opened it there was Nelly Gray, smiling and pretty as ever, standing before
him.
"Oh! Willie I'm so glad you are safe, "she said; "so glad; and then coming towards him, she added," I've
just come from town, and didn't know the pit had fired till I got home; but I am so glad you are safe.
"Yes. I am safe," replied Stevens, very gravely, not noticing, however, her out-stretched hand.
"And I'm glad, too, that odious Bradshaw is killed. Yes, I am glad."
"Thou's no call to say that," answered Stevens sternly.
"Why not? I am. He was always bothering me."

"He—the—told what was not true," said Nelly, hesitating.
"He told enough for me, anyway," answered Stevens. "When men stand face to face with death they mostly
speak the truth."

"Then I suppose you believed him; perhaps made up your quarrel, and promised to be revenged on mo,
eh?"

Stevens was silent, and with a gesture of impatience, averted his head.
"Perhaps you do not mean to speak to me again then?" said Nelly.
"Not willingly," answered Stevens; and without another word, Nelly tossed her head, and walked out of the
cottage, and Stevens was left alone, with the fair curl lying beside him.

Nearly a week afterwards (on the Sunday afternoon) a long procession left the cottages of Woodforth, and
went on its slow and mournful way to the village churchyard. It was the funeral of the unfortunate miners who
had perished in the explosion, and it was attended by nearly the whole of the workmen employed on the
colliery. Among them was Stevens who stood with bowed head and solemn face, as one after the other his early
friends and his dead enemy were laid together, side by side, in one wide open grave.

To a thoughtless man even, such an escape as Stevens had had from a sudden and violent death must have
caused some serious reflections; but to him it seemed as though his life had been spared in direct answer to his
dead mother's prayer, and the thought that he had been watched over and guarded in darkness and danger
coloured his whole subsequent life, and made him what he now is, a serious and deeply religious man.

He kept his word and never willingly spoke again to the faithless Nelly. Indeed she did not give him the
chance, for she was excessively indignant, at the way she had been treated by a mere pitman, and speedily
entered into another love affair with a person of very superior rank to her own. How this will end remains to be
proved The gossips have it that the young gentleman is only amusing himself, but at all events he will not break
Nelly's heart, for she is one of those happy people who always know how to take care of themselves, and whose
strongest feelings are vanity and pride. Although in her inmost heart she bitterly repented, and perhaps even
regretted the loss of her lover, she always gave out that she had rejected him, and she received the news of a
quiet wedding, which took place some time after the explosion, with apparent unconcern.

How this came about it is very easy to understand. Stevens felt so utterly lonely and desolate in his cottage
without his mother, that he naturally thought of the good and gentle woman who had come to comfort him in
his sorrow, and whose character and conduct he could so thoroughly esteem.

When, therefore, he heard that poor Mary had to leave Woodforth, and was going to service, he made up
his mind to offer her a home, scarcely conscious, however, of the deep and tender affection which for years she
had given him.

She was sitting at her work as he came in one night full of his purpose, and as she held out her hand to
welcome him, Stevens noticed that her eyes were red with weeping, and that her face was altered and pale.

What's vexing thee, Mary? he asked.

She turned her head away before she answered. It—it—seems so hard to go away all among strangers.

Thou must not do that, said Stevens, laying his hand on her shoulder. Stay among thy old friends—there is
naught like them.

Mary shook her head. I know that, she said, but—but—I must work.

Come and do it for one of them, then, answered Stevens, with a smile. Come and be my wife, Mary, and I
will try to make thee happy.

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What is there in a Name?

Much, every way. Shakspeare but hinted at a truth, which, like all truths, has many sides, when he
permitted one of his favourites to say that there is nothing in a name. Indeed, it was because the lovesick
maiden felt the very opposite—that the name had something more in it than she then chose to confess—that the
idea or wish became father to the thought. Juliet's first bitter experience taught her quite another lesson. And to
most of us it is the same; a name means a character, a property, or a thing. Give a dog a bad name, and the
result is so generally acknowledged as to have become proverbial. Observe, how a name sometimes supplies a
whole narrative. Here is "Bye-ends,"—you know at once what a smooth-spoken, tortuous, log-rolling hypocrite
he is. The one word is enough to tell you clearly that he has nothing of Cowper's Englishman about him, either
in the texture of broad-cloth without or the possession of an honest heart within. Does not "Fum the Fourth," as
Lord Byron designated George the Fourth, bring before you that bloated sensualist, with just enough of veneer
to hide from the casual observer the utter heartlessness beneath? "First gentleman in Europe." Forsooth!

Let us therefore pause for a brief space over my opening question. If names are of importance, how, one
may reasonably ask, is a man to make a figure in the world who is only known as plain Smith or Brown,
Jones or Robinson? I have the utmost respect for these names myself, but my opinion is woefully antiquated and
therefore of small account. I rather like Smith, and all the more, if he has not changed the


fails to appreciate its great men, and, if it did not judge so meanly, a need of honour would assuredly be accorded to those undistinguished ones, who, with no peculiar talent, standing on no public pedestal, have yet striven, as, here and everywhere by the thousand, they do strive, to execute the work that comes to their hands, patiently and fairly, waiting the award in all simplicity of faith. To me, speaking seriously, earth has few finer and in a sense more touching sights, than that of a worthy couple, unknown probably beyond their immediate neighbourhood, who have borne the burden and heat of the day together—shareers of each other's joys and sorrows—going contentedly down hill in company. They rest in the soft twilight, recalling to failing memory the incidents in which long ago they took a part—relating escapades of the children they dandled on their knees, now men and women in various parts of the world, and not always so mindful of the old folks as they ought to be—whispering perhaps of the coming sunset, when they hope to sleep side by side, in supreme and dreamless rest, until the dawn of the eternal morn awake them to a brighter day.

But this is not the vein in which I started, and it will probably be considered as beside the question. Many people dislike to hear of modest worth or of the self-satisfying sense of duty done. Virtue is its own reward no doubt, but most people would care more for it if, like that of Job, it showed at the close of the venture twice as many camels and sheep and oxen, as at the beginning. There is a low cynicism abroad, which sneers at those pure motives and honest aims which are the very breath of a nation's nobler life, so that the multitude of Smiths and Browns, Joneses and Robinsons, are likely to have a poor time of it. Little chance, indeed, for plain men and women, with plain names, who only care to be honest and true, inasmuch as these characteristics, although good enough in their way, do not suit communities where nothing succeeds like success. To "get on," you must call yourself Fitzblether or Fitzself—say you are the cousin or the nephew of a lord or baronet at least—affect Government House—and blow your own trumpet with sufficient shrillness, if you would make headway A proof that there is much in a name, although it may be no more than a sounding brass or a tinkling cymbal.

Leaving names of persons, you shall find abundant illustration of my theory in the names of things. I might almost venture to affirm of the English language, as Lord Macaulay affirmed of the strings of proper names in Paradise Lost, that its words are charmed words. This language bristle with anomalies,—the schoolboy, in his first attempts at grammar, thinks them something more are worse,—but most of these anomalies are centres of suggestion, and possess a certain hirsute and shaggy strength which prove how much there may be in even common words or names. A distinguished people has acknowledged that in his search for a rhyme he sometimes alighted on a sentiment; and ever scholar knows that a plain, pure word will not unfrequently suggest something to help out his speculation. No one has ever had occasion to express his conceptions without being sensible that the men act of clothing them in words—giving them names—invests them with an additional clearness. Word-enable us to determine, to fix, to weigh, and, in a sense, to handle our own and other people's sentiments. A confusion of language, from Babel times to now, leads to the worse confusion of ideas. At inaccurate use of words brings with it, therefore, the greater evil of inaccurate thinking. Coleridge declares that "to express a sophism and to detect the equivocal meaning of a word, is, in a majority of cases, one and the same thing." That is probably too strong an assertion, but, with reference to accuracy of language, he says, with more than usual solemnity: "When we consider that the greater part of our success and comfort in life depends on distinguishing the similar from the same, that which is peculiar in each thing from that which it has in common with others, so as still to select the most probable instead of the merely possible or positively unfit, we shall learn to value earnestly and with a practical seriousness, a mean already prepared for us, by nature and society, of teaching the young mind to think well and wisely by the same unremembered process and with the same never-forgotten results, as those by which it is taught to speak and converse." So, far, therefore, from it? being wise or expedient to diminish verbal force, argument tends in the opposite direction. It is ever found advisable and sometimes necessary in authorship, although rarely in the case of a good writer, to employ typographical expedients—capital letters or italics—for the purpose of imparting to certain expressions the requisite precision and emphasis.

Every literary student must have noticed how the true poet, by a selection of pretty words, [unclear: often] hits off the surroundings of a fact or paints a bit of landscape in a single stanza, sometimes in a single line. When Spenser speaks of "October, full of merry glee, for yet his noule was totly of the must," one sees at a glance, notwithstanding the quaint words having fallen into disuetude, the rollicking mirth and plenty of the close of a favorable autumn. How readily Shakspeare's "sweet south" can be appreciated:

That breathes upon a bank of violets,
Stealing and giving odour.

Sir Walter Scott writes, in words not likely to be forgotten by those born north of the Tweed:
When Summer smiled on sweet Bowhil
And July's eve, with balmy breath,
Waved the blue bells on Newark heath,
When throstles sung in Harehoad shaw,
And corn was green in Caterhaugh,

There is the whole scene in its pastoral beauty and quiet opulence—fragrant as its own blue-bells and caller
as the wind that sweeps over it. The earth has many brighter and fairer places, but none more pleasant. The sky
hangs lovingly over those Yarrow braes and Ettrick shaws; even the very storms among the hills have a kind
pity gleaming through their noble wrath.

Perhaps nothing in this way can well be more suggestive of English rural life and scenery than the simple
words and exquisitely natural imagery of Gray's Elegy—verses which, I venture to think, are nearly perfect as a
poem. Their familiarity renders quotation unnecessary. In the same author's Art of Poesy, which is now but little
read, a line occurs—

Far in the sun and summer gale—

which seems to me a word-photograph of some lone spot; not lone, as in this country, where, in solitary
places, Nature yet reigns undisturbed, and the silence is at times so solemn as to become positively awful but
lone as being unfrequented—some isolated nook shimmering and sleeping in the noon-tide haze. Wordsworth,
although one of the greatest of our poets, and a lover of nature above most men, so that meadows, woods, and
mountains haunted him like a passion, is too contemplative or philosphic for ordinary mortals. He sees "with
an eye made quiet by the power of harmony," but he makes scenery subservient to moral teaching, as in that
finest of sonnets:

Down to the vale this water steers—
How merrily it goes!
'Twill murmur on a thousand years
And flow as now as now it flows.

Byron and Shelly are too busy with themselves, too retrospective and impassioned to [unclear: bestow]
great care or take much real delight in the beauty or sublimity of natural objects; although there are few finer
passages than that in which the former speaks of inanimate nature mourning for the fallen heroes of Waterloo:

And Ardennes waves above them her green leaves
Dewy with Nature's tear-drops as they pass,
Grieving—if aught inanimate e'er grieves—
O'er the unreturning brave—alas!
Ere evening to be trodden like the grass—
Which now beneath them, but above shali grow
In its next verdure; when this fiery mass
Of living valour, rolling on the foe
And burning with high hope, shall moulder cold and low.

Shelley's Ode to a Skylark is full of beauty and pathos, but, as a piece of word-painting, I prefer to it that of
Hogg, the unlettered Ettrick Shepherd, on the same theme. Nothing could well be more serene, or more brimful
of the "vision and faculty divine," than the following:

Bird of the wilderness,
Blithesome and cumberless,
Sweet be thy matin o'er moorland lea!
Emblem of happiness,
Blest is thy dwelling-place—
O to abide in the desert with thee!
Wild is thy lay and loud,
Far in the downy cloud
Love gives it energy, love gave it birth;
Where, on thy dewy wing,
Where art thou journeying?
Thy lay is in heaven, thy love is on earth.

O'er fell and fountain sheen,
O'er moor and mountain green,
O'er the red streamer that heralds the day,
O'er the cloudlet dim.
O'er the rainbow's rim,
Musical cherub, soar, singing, away!
Then, when the gloaming comes,
Low in the heather blooms
Sweet will thy welcome and bed of love be?
Emblem of happiness,
Blest is thy dwelling-place—
O to abide in the desert with thee!

The suggestiveness of Gray, touching rural sights and sounds, has been referred to, but he, and indeed the whole of the tuneful brethren, must yield the palm to the latest of our poets in this respect. Tennyson is specially descriptive by single words and sentences. It is not my good fortune to be familiar with English scenery, but those who are, I should think, can have no difficulty, in seeing with that mental eye, which Wordsworth considers the bliss of solitude, much that they have enjoyed long ago, in reading such graceful lines as the following:

When from the dry dark wold the summer airs blow cool
On the oat grass and the sword grass and the bulrush in the pool.

How much meaning there is in that word wold (Saxon wald or weald)—an expanse of wild reedy grass, a piece of morass, perhaps a few stunted trees—much the same as a tract of moorland in Scotland, or bog in Ireland, but marking both with a distinction and a difference. Take another illustration:

Summer on the steaming floods,
And Spring that swells the narrow brooks.
And Autumn with a noise of rooks
That gather in the waning woods.

Rooks, as they well may be, are a favourite of the poet-laureate. He recurs to them in another passage, which fairly adumbrates in briefest space the coming of Spring-tide in England:

The building rook 'ill caw from the windy tall elm tree,
And the tufted plover pipe along the fallow lea.

Examples might be multiplied indefinitely, but enough has been said in answer to the question. And if I have succeeded so far, it will be seen that there is some instruction as well as much interest in the study of words—words as meaning things, and certain words as possessing greatly more force than others. An ordinary English grammar, for example, tells us that the verb "go" is defective, that its preterite has disappeared, and that its deficiency is made up by the use of a synonymous verb, "wend"—(go, went, gone);—but to see that this is one of the things which the lap of time has dropped, and that in a very untidy fashion, we have only to compare
it with the Scotch form of the same verb, "gae," where the complete inflection is found—(gae, gaed, gane)—as in the song of Burns:

I gaed a waefu' gate yestreen,
A gate I fear I'll dearly rue.

Again, the fact of how easily a little change in the form obscures the origin of a word, may be seen in the instance of "canny"—regarding which, in a good "glossary," you will meet with such a remark as this: "It is used in so many different senses, it becomes difficult to assign a satisfactory etymon." Yet all the senses of the word may be traced to the signification of what I take to be certainly its root—a word connected with "ken," to know. "Canny man" is just a vernacular translation of "gentleman,"—for gentleness springs as naturally from skill as rudeness from ignorance. A poor invalid will say to a skilful surgeon, "ye ken how to lift me." That we have found knowledge to be power, and that we have found it, or indeed that we have found both knowledge and power to be gentleness also, is established by the entymological identity of canny, can, and ken.

This essay, probably discursive at the outset, ought to close with something practical. If there is meaning in a name—much in its sound and more in its association—what an ill-chosen name has fallen to New Zealand? Ill-chosen! There could have been no choice of any kind, good or bad, in the matter, else the result would have been other and better than it is. The name ought to be changed. Every one who has ever bestowed a thought on the subject acknowledges the meaness and meaningless-ness of the present name. If Tasman gave it to these islands, the pity is that their discovery had not been reserved for some other than the phlegmatic Dutchman. "New Zealand" is in suggestive and prosaic. Some people don't care—I do; and shall not cease to recalitrate at the mistake which was made. And numbers will join me. The Rev. Richard Taylor, for many years a missionary of the English Church, in a work of his, which has gone through more than one edition, entitled, "New Zealand and its Inhabitants," expresses, like the rest of us, his dislike of the name "New Zealand and suggests "Austral-Britain," or "Austral-Albion." None of these big words are likely to acceptable, but the difficulty of selection is greater than one would at first sight suppose, and the case urgent. I incline to think that Southland is the best name that could be hit upon; it was appropriated at one time; but the provinces are no more, and the little province so-called, rich in name if it nothing else, might well pass on its title to the country at large. Seriously, colonists must get rid of such a name as New Zealand; neither they nor their children care for it; and the best substitute is—

Southland!

England and Her Foreign Policy.

The foreign policy of Earl Beaconsfield appears to be that of ensuring at all hazards the glory [unclear: and] supremacy of the British nation throughout the whole of the habitable world. The Russian, the [unclear: Turin] the Indian, and the African alike are to acknowledge the potency of the "Isle of the Sea." Britain sons are sent to slay and be slain. British treasure is lavished in despoiling and conquering [unclear: and] civilizing the nations and tribes of the earth. The "nation of shopkeepers" appears to be returning to its old instincts as a nation given up to conquest, at any and every cost of human suffering. The policy of the Premier of England has added large tracts of territory to the British dominions; through his tactics, the Kingdom of England is, for the first time in the history of the world, the home of [unclear: an] Empress of the vast regions of India. The wily statesman has solved the Eastern difficulty so far [unclear: a] to utterly break the power of the Turk's military supremacy in the East, while he and his countrymen command the purse-strings of the Sultan and his dependents. Recent events have shown that the one all-powerful representative of the crescent holds his throne only by the good-will of the nation [unclear: that] takes up the cross for its battle-cry. His power over Egypt is but nominal—the "Great Powers" [unclear: have] the Eastern tyrant under their feet, and it appears to be only a matter of a little time ere the corrupt rule of the East will be a thing of the past. Palestine, we are told, is mortgaged to the Rothschilds and that the Jews are returning to the land of their desires and traditions, the land of their hopes their native land—their "own land," after centuries of exile;—returning with a dim idea that, under Jehovah's guidance, England will protect them and establish them in the "Joy of all the Earth"—their pleasant land. Misery and dire distress, semi-starvation and consequent disease, death and woe in a thousand forms, are the portions of the bulk of the people, who are burdened with taxes to maintain the "glory" of this foreign policy! Onlookers will view with a keen interest the struggle at the coming elections between the Conservative and Liberal parties of Great Britain. On it depends great and momentous issues for the Empire. The colonies, though careless, are mightily interested in that contest for place and power. Should the
Conservatives be again victorious, we may expect plenty more "foreign policy," of the exact kind we cannot
forecast, but judging from past experience, it will no doubt be equally startling, if not perhaps so pleasant and
beneficial; it were idle to speculate [unclear: on] the consequences of a "foreign policy" which would be
disastrous to the best interests of the colonies, yet such an one is within the scope of probabilities, and
thoughtful men are wondering where it will all end. Perhaps, like some of our own statesmen, the "man with a
mission" may advise the removal of the seat of Government to India! or, to be more in accord with them,
probably to the metropolis of the South Island of New Zealand! No doubt the foreign policy of the Conservative
Government of England is advantageous to the Colonies, in so far as, in upholding the prestige of the Empire,
we are protected from foreign aggression. It is a notorious fact, that Mr. Gladstone's policy was to leave the
Colonies, and all powers outside Great Britain, to stand or fall by their own strength. The struggle for power,
therefore, between the two great political parties in England, is one of great moment to the peoples of the
Empire distant from its centre. The Liberal programme, so far as at present enunciated, shows little to enamour
the Colonies with it, however much the British and Irish taxpayers may desire it for purely local and selfish
reasons. Lord Salisbury, in a recent speech at Manchester, made some very pertinent remarks in defending the
present Government of which he is a member. As his utterances immediately affect the foreign possessions of
the Crown, we make a few extracts as follow:—

"On the subject of Afghanistan, when first the recent news came to this country the extraordinary language
used against me almost appalled me, and I began to think that so many excellent and omniscient persons could
not possibly have used all this language of me unless in some way I deserved it; but I will submit as briefly as I
can the real state of the case with respect to Afghanistan, and I think that you will see that Her Majesty's
Government had no choice but to pursue the course into which they were led. How stands Afghanistan with
regard to India? Some people talk of our splendid mountain frontier, as presented by the Suliman mountains. A
mountain frontier is a splendid thing I quite admit, but on one condition, and that is, that the mountain belongs
to you, or, at least, that the crest of the mountain belongs to you. But if the mountain from the top to the bottom,
where it melts into the valley, belongs to some one else, and that some one else happens to be the person
against whom you wish to protect yourself, I say, even in the presence of the distinguished military authorities
you see assembled here this evening, that mountain position in that sense is the worst frontier you can possibly
have. That was the state of things with respect to Afghanistan. As long as Afghanistan was in the possession of
endless fighting tribes, with no particular connexion with any Power outside their borders, no doubt such a
frontier was quite sufficient; but as time went on a great European Power advanced to Khiva and to the base of
the Caspian Sea, and that to a very great extent modified the problem. And when we came into office we found
this state of things in existence all over the world that wherever the enormous territories that own Her
Majesty's rule bordered on the territories of any other Power, and in fact, wherever they did not, the Powers
cheerfully received the representatives of Her Majesty at their Courts, and there was not one
exception—barbarian or semi-civilized—wherever the English Government desired that its representatives
should be received, with the solitary objection of Afghanistan, no objection was made throughout the world.
Well in that exception from the practice of all nations there was no doubt something startling in itself. But if
Afghanistan had been simply isolated it would have merely been an exhibition of churlishness, and we might
have left the ruler of Afghanistan to sulk as much as he liked. But it was also obviously capable of another
interpretation. It was possible that all the time he refused to receive our emissaries he was receiving the
emissaries of others. It was possible that all the time intrigues were going on, and the result would ultimately
have been to place Afghanistan practically in the power of a foreign potentate, and those mountains,
constituting an adverse and hostile frontier, and frowning down upon the plains of India, would have been
practically in the power of at least a rival, and possibly, a hostile empire. We very early came across
indications which convinced us that the unfavourable view of Shere Ali's character was the correct one, and we
were also sure that if it was not correct we should easily ascertain the truth by asking him to do as every other
potentate in the world—civilized and uncivilized—does, and to receive an officer at his Court. Unfortunately,
our orders were delayed. The Government of India was in the hands of a very able man, but a man not wholly
sympathetic with ourselves, and the result was that a year and a half passed away before our orders could be
executed, and during that time a great change came upon the political horizon. When our orders were issued
everything spoke peace; when at last they were executed, the Servian invasion by Russia had commenced, and a
strong probability of the Russo-Turkish war was patent to the world. I cannot help believing that if what we
recommended had been done at once, the Ameer would have accepted our embassy, and all the evils which
subsequently followed would have been averted; but that unfortunate delay destroyed and ruined everything.
The opportunity was past, but the Ameer thought he saw a prospect of Russia and England going to blows, and
he thought it was possible to defy us. Well, what reason did he give for refusing to receive an embassy from
England? The reasnn, if you read in the light of his subsequent conduct, is almost comical, especially when
people ask you to believe in his sincerity. He objected to receiving the English embassy because it might force
Concluded

The Arguments of

only if there should be some ancient institution to overthrow at home. 'I feel sure that the electors of this

good-will of the Powers before whom they kneel All over the world we shall have masterly inactivity, except

abdication of the proper position of England, and most trusting to isolation, and to the friendship or to the

separating class from class, and encouraging new enterprises again property and order. They may have more

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the proper defence of English interests in Afghanistan is to be confined to the action of the English fleet. Well,

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in war a danger of the first magnitude to the Indian Empire. We have had other remedies. Sir William Harcourt

would walk in by the passes of the Hindoo Koosh, and that Afghanistan would become in peace a difficulty and

evacuating all that British valour during the past year has gained, I venture to predict that somebody else

adverse mountain frontier which I have described to you. If General Roberts went out by the Khyber Pass,

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1871, and I see no reason for believing they would not have done it in 1878. With respect to Afghanistan, what

then they would have confirmed her in the possession of what she had gained. That is precisely what they did in

acknowledged that our power was unable to cope with either that of Afghanistan or of Russia. Well, you know

what happened—the war occurred, the Afghans were conquered; and when we came to negotiate terms of

peace, we were disposed, as we had been before, rather to prefer Candahar or some other place, as the

position which our embassy should take. Yakoob Khan insisted that we should send it to Cabul, for at Cabul he
could fully protect himself. Whether that assurance has been belied simply by his incapacity or by some other

worse quality, it is too early for me to decide. Everybody has joined in a tribute to the great merits of the

unhappy Envoy who was destroyed by the mutinous troops, and has lamented the loss of his services to the

Indian Empire. For the future it is too early for me to speak; we have not yet received full information from

General Roberts or from the Viceroy of India, and we cannot at present indicate the precise policy in all its
details which it would be our duty to pursue; but the policy in its main lines has not altered. It is defence, not

dominion that we seek. We wish to defend the borders of our Indian Empire, and with that view alone every

measure that we take will be devised. * * * When we are blamed for what has been done, or when the results of

our foreign policy are questioned, it is fair to ask what our opponents would have done. We know something

from their professions in the present and something from their performances in the past. Then we may judge of

the way in which they would have dealt with the Eastern question by the way in which they dealt with the

sudden claim of Russia to abrogate the Black Sea clauses in 1871. We may conclude that they would have

allowed Russia to occupy Constantinople, that they would have then exacted from her an abstract statement

that it is very wrong for a Power to occupy a town without being allowed to do so by the other Powers, and

then they would have confirmed her in the possession of what she had gained. That is precisely what they did in

1871, and I see no reason for believing they would not have done it in 1878. With respect to Afghanistan, what

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good-will of the Powers before whom they kneel All over the world we shall have masterly inactivity, except

only if there should be some ancient institution to overthrow at home. 'I feel sure that the electors of this
country will prefer the legislation which combines classes rather than that which separates them."

The Arguments of Protectionists—(Concluded.)

BY PROFESSOR FAWCETT.
Along the roads which used to be our great thoroughfares, are still to be found the [unclear: remains] of large inns and posting-houses which formerly let for many hundreds a year; but immediately the railways drew away the traffic these inns so entirely lost their custom that they had scarcely any value at all; many of them were pulled down, and others were converted into cottages. Any [unclear: attempt to] oppose the use of a mechanical invention, because of the loss it may cause to certain individuals, meets with almost universal disapprobation. Nothing it is maintained can be more unreasonable than allow the temporary interests of a few to stand in the way of the permanent advantage of the entire nation. If this principle holds good with regard to the benefits conferred upon a nation by the introduction of a mechanical invention, it holds equally true with regard to the still greater benefits which nation will derive from the adoption of an unrestricted commercial policy.

13. **Protection can be advantageously introduced into a young country as a temporary expedient since various industries which will ultimately prosper without protection require its aid in the early stage of their existence.**

This argument in favour of protection, which has been reserved to the last for consideration, [unclear: is] deserving of special attention, not only because of the great weight which is attributed to it by the advocates of protection in the Colonies and in the United States, but also because it has obtained a great amount of importance from the support it received from the late Mr. J. S. Mill. In a passage which protectionists at the present day so repeatedly quote that they seem almost to regard it as the [unclear: charted] of their policy. Mr. Mill says:—

"The only case in which, on mere principles of political economy, protecting duties can be defensible, is when they are imposed temporarily (especially in a young and rising nation) in hopes of naturalizing a foreign industry, in itself perfectly suitable to the circumstances of the country. The superiority of one country over another in a branch of production often only arises from having begun it sooner. There may be no inherent advantage on the one part or disadvantage on the other, but only a present superiority of acquired skill and experience. A country which has this skill and experience yet to acquire may in other respects be better adapted to the production than those which were [unclear: earlier] in the field: and besides it is a remark of Mr. Rae, that nothing has a greater tendency to promote improvement in any branch of production than its trial under a new set of conditions. But it cannot be expected that individuals should at their own risk, or rather to their certain loss, introduce a [unclear: new] manufacture, and bear the burden of carrying it on until the producers have been educated up to the level of those with whom the processes are traditional. A protecting duty, continued for a reasonable time, will sometimes be the least inconvenient mode in which the nation can tax itself for the support of such an experiment. But the protectionism should be confined to cases in which there is good ground of assurance that the industry which it fosters will after a time be able to dispense with it; nor should the domestic producers ever be allowed to expect that it will be continued to them beyond the time necessary for a fair trial of what they are capable of accomplishing."

There is no one more ready than I am to recognise the high authority of Mr. Mill as an Economist, and I will at once admit that the arguments which he advances in favour of the imposition [unclear: of] protection in a young country would be conclusive if there were a reasonable probability that the conditions under which he supposes that such a protective duty could be imposed would ever be realized. It will be observed in the passage above quoted that he is most careful to explain that protection can only be justified as a temporary expedient; and every word which he says in support of protection rests on the supposition, that when an industry has been fairly established the protective duty will be at [unclear: one] voluntarily surrendered by those who are interested in the particular industry. It is, however, incontestable shown by what has happened in the United States and other countries where protection [unclear: had] been long established, that it is absolutely impossible to impose a protective duty under the stipulations on which Mr. Mill so emphatically insists. Whatever professions may be made by those who first ask for protection that it is only required for a limited period, and that it is only needed to enable an industry to tide over the obstacles which may beset its first establishment, it is invariably found that where an industry has once been called into existence through protection, those who are interested in it. Whether as employers or employed, instead of showing any willingness as time goes on to surrender protection, cling to the security and aid which they suppose it gives their trade with ever-increasing tenacity. This is shown in a very striking manner by the experience of nearly a hundred years of protection in the United States. In no single instance has a protective duty when once imposed in that country been voluntarily relinquished. Far from any tendency being shown by those who are connected with the industries which enjoy protection to face free competition, they constantly display a feeling of greater dependence, and demand with reiterated urgency additional safeguards against their foreign rivals. A well-known American economist, Professor Sumner, has said: "Instead of strong independent industries, we have to-day only a hungry and clamorous crowd of "infants." Again, Mr. Wells, with equal force, has remarked: "Although the main argument advanced in the United States in support of protective duties is that their enactment is intended to
subserve a temporary purpose, in order to allow infant industries to gain a foothold and a development against foreign competition, there has never been an instance in the history of the country where the representatives of such industries, who have enjoyed protection for a long series of years, have been willing to submit to a reduction of the tariff, or have voluntarily proposed it. But, on the contrary, their demands for higher and still higher duties are insatiable and never intermitted."

No amount of theoretical reasoning as to the desirability of imposing a protective duty, as a temporary expedient in a young country, can outweigh the warnings derived from experience that no security can be provided against the permanent continuance of a protective duty when it has been once imposed. If after protection has been in operation for nearly a hundred years in the United States, the various protected interests display a growing determination to resist any change in the direction of free trade, what reason is there to suppose that what has happened in America will not in future years occur in Australia and other countries, if they should carry out the policy which now seems to find favour with them, of calling into existence various branches of industry by the imposition of protective duties?

It is sometimes said that a country may safely adopt a protective policy, because when the proper time arrived free-trade took the place of protection in England. It has however already been shown that the introduction of free trade into England was brought about by events so exceptional in their character, that a protective system when once established in other countries cannot be assailed with the same weapons by which its overthrow was effected in England. Agriculture was the industry which, more than any other was protected in England against foreign competition. In all the countries, however, such as America, Germany, France, and Australia, in which protection now finds favour, it is chiefly confined to manufacturing industry. All these countries are large exporters of food, whereas England is only able to obtain from her own soil a portion of the food which her people require, and consequently is to a great extent dependent upon foreign supplies. When protection, by interfering with the free importation of food, makes food dear, and in a period of national distress deprives the mass of the people of their supply of a first necessary of life, an amount of popular indignation can be excited against the continuance of a system of restriction, which cannot be roused against it when the results it produces can be most tangibly brought home to the people, are that it makes various articles of wearing apparel and household furniture dearer. It has been previously shown that an addition to the price of certain articles in general use represents only a small portion of the mischief which is produced by such a protective system as that which is maintained in the United States. Amongst other evils which result from protection, it has for instance been proved that it places obstacles in the way of the general prosperity of the country; that it exerts an influence in lessening the remuneration obtained by capital and labour; that it discourages industrial enterprise by weakening the feeling of self-reliance; and that it fosters political corruption by inducing various trade interests to use their influence in securing the imposition of duties specially to benefit themselves. These and other evils, inseparably associated with protection, although they inflict an incalculable injury upon a country, are not brought home to the general body of the people with the same distinctness as when, in every humble English home, those who were pinched by hunger could be made to feel that a corn law was in operation which kept from them the food which they so urgently needed.

Nothing can be more unfortunate than if the people of a young country like Australia, who seem to be contemplating the imposition of protective duties, should be misled by the example of England, and suppose that they would be easily able to return to a policy of free trade whenever the industries, which they hope to call into existence by protection, are once fairly established. England instead of affording an example to be copied, should furnish rather a warning of that which is to be avoided. Great as was the injury which protection inflicted on England, there seems every probability that the policy of commercial restriction might have continued in operation for an indefinitely longer period, had it not been for the wide-spread misery which was caused by the Irish famine. So strong was the position of those who were interested in the various monopolies, which had been called into existence in England by protection, that only two or three years before protection was abolished some of the most prominent advocates of free trade in England almost despaired of success. When it is thus seen that it required such a national catastrophe as the sweeping away of tens of thousands by starvation, to destroy protection in England, the Australian people should feel that if they allow a system of industrial monopoly once to take root in their country, they may have, before it can be got rid of, to pay a penalty not less severe than that paid by the people of our own country before they were able to introduce free trade.

Protection wherever it is once established, never fails for reasons previously described, to obtain a firm hold. There is no reason why protection if once introduced into Australia should not in future years become as strongly established as it now is in the United States. Those who are engaged in all the various industries which are protected, are sure to feel that they are deeply interested in the continuance of the system; and Australia would experience the same difficulty that is now found in the United States in resisting so powerful a combination of interested opposition.
Enough has now been said to show the extreme peril which would be incurred by any country which should adopt a protectionist policy on the plea that it is only resorted to as a temporary expedient. With whatever plausibility such an argument may be advanced, all experience proves that when the paths of restriction have once been entered upon, it becomes increasingly difficult for a nation to retrace her steps. But even if there were any foundation for the opinion of those who apparently believe that protection would be surrendered when the proper time came for its abandonment, I think there is good ground to suppose that the industrial development of a country would be far more surely promoted by freedom than by restriction. Directly the principle is sanctioned that certain special industries are to be fostered by the State, the trade of a country at once ceases to be regulated on purely commercial considerations, and is placed under official and political guidance. The State, in fact, is made the arbiter and superintendent of the entire industrial economy of the country. The State decides what industries shall be called into existence by protection, and determines what is the exact amount of encouragement that shall be given to each particular trade. It is impossible to imagine that any government can he qualified to discharge such functions; but even if it were qualified to do so, no one can doubt that in determining the exact amount of protection which should be given to particular trades, whether in one instance the duty, should be 10 per cent. and in another 20 percent., the political influence which would be brought to bear by special interests would exercise a far more potent effect than any conclusions which might be arrived at from carefully weighed industrial considerations.

No one who observes what are the most prominent characteristics in the economic condition of a recently settled country as Australia, can doubt that if industry is there left to its own nature, various trades and manufactures, which it is sought artificially to stimulate by protection are sure gradually to be established without its aid. The Australian protectionists say that they protection in order to enable them to compete against cheap English labour. But the remarkable prosperity which is at the present time enjoyed by their own most important branch of industry, agriculture, conclusively proves that the higher wages paid in Australia ought to be regarded as a measure of the greater natural advantages which she possesses. If the mere fact of having to pay higher wages constituted a claim for protection, the Australian farmer who has to pay wages three or four times as high as are generally received by English agricultural labourers, would not be able to carry on his industry unless he were protected against foreign competition. It is scarcely necessary, however, to remark that although very high wages are paid to farm labourers in Australia, fertile land there is so cheap and abundant that many agricultural products, such as wheat and wool, are produced at a cheaper rate in Australia than they are in England. Large quantities of these articles are annually exported from the one country to the other, and thus it appears that Australia with dearer labour is able to undersell England with cheap labour, even in the English market.

Every circumstance which at the present time impedes the extension of manufactures in Australia will be certain with the progress of the country, to exert less and less influence, if no commercial restrictions are permitted to interfere with the free development of her industrial economy. The population of Australia is rapidly advancing, and with this advance in population labour will not only become cheaper but as its supply increases, there will be a larger surplus available for employment in other industries besides those on which her labour and capital are now chiefly concentrated. Moreover it must be born in mind that the English people are gradually becoming more accustomed to emigration. They are now much less disinclined than they were formerly to leave their own country. Emigration to Australia was once regarded almost as banishment to a strange and unknown land. English agricultural labourers used to be in such a condition of ignorance and dependence that they went on year after year working for a miserable pitance of 8s. or 9s. a week; they were so deficient in enterprise, and were reduced to a state of such utter helplessness, that they would continue clinging to their own wretched poverty at home being unwilling or incapable of taking advantage of the prosperous future that was offered to them in other lands. Within the last few years, however, there has been a most remarkable change. The English agricultural labourer, stimulated by various circumstances, such as the spread of education, is rapidly rising from his former condition of torpor and helplessness; he is beginning to show as much readiness as other labourers to take advantage of any opportunity that may be offered him of improving his condition. It is also to be remembered that each one who emigrates and finds success in his new home, stimulates others to follow in his footsteps. Tidings of the prosperity which he is enjoying are brought to the village which he has left; and a great part of the disinclination which is naturally felt to settling in a new country passes away when it is felt that the new home will be amongst friends and relations, and not entirely amongst strangers.

This increasing readiness on the part of the English labouring population to avail themselves of any opportunity which may be offered to them of improving their condition by settling in a new country, must inevitably cause the remuneration of labour to approximate more nearly to an equality in England and in the countries which are mainly peopled by her emigrants. If therefore matters are allowed to take their own natural course, any difficulties which may now impede the establishment of manufacturing industries in Australia will
steadily diminish and ultimately pass away. On the other hand, if the industrial economy of that country once becomes involved in the trammels of a wide-spread system of protection, every article on which a protective duty is imposed will be made artificially dear, and the cost of living will be materially increased. English labourers will fail to obtain the advantages from settling in Australia which they might otherwise enjoy. Emigration will consequently be checked, and the result of a protectionist policy must inevitably be to deprive, to a great extent such a country as Australia of those additional supplies of labour, which above all things are essential for the successful establishment of manufacturing industry. Australia should in time be warned by what is now occurring in the United States. Until quite recently America was regarded as the most favourable field for English emigration. Although wages are still in many industries nominally much higher in the United States than they are in England, yet the general cost of living has been so greatly increased in the United States by the imposition of onerous protective duties on almost every article of general consumption, that labourers find that they are scarcely so well off there as they are in England with lower wages; consequently, as already pointed out, we are at the present time witnessing the extraordinary phenomenon that nearly as many labourers are leaving the United States as are settling in that country. Whilst, however, emigration from England to the United States is thus now almost counterbalanced by a flow of population in the opposite direction, there continues to be a steady stream of emigration from England to Australia. Last year more than 30,000 persons, of whom a large proportion belonged to the agricultural labouring class emigrated from England to Australia, and less than 5,000 returned. If, however, a policy of protection should once be commenced in Australia, it will surely and rapidly spread. All experience shows that it is impossible to confine protection within narrow and well-defined limits. If one trade obtains what is considered to be the benefit of protection, a powerful inducement is immediately offered to a countless number of other trades to demand that similar privileges should be conferred upon them. With the imposition of each fresh protective duty some article would be made dearer, and thus as the system became generally extended, that would surely occur which has already happened in America; the cost of living would be so much increased that English labourers would be no better off than they are in their country; emigration would cease, and Australia would lose that supply of labour which will not only do so much to create a home demand for her produce, but which she needs for the adequate development of her great natural resources.

[Without introductory comment or remarks we have placed before our readers the arguments of Protectionists and replies thereto, by one of the most advanced political economists of the present day. As the questions of Free Trade and Protection are to some extent engaging the attention of New Zealanders, and especially the commercial people of the large centres of population, no apology is needed for the action we have taken. We may add that the Protection cry has a bewitching sound for the industrial classes, and, like the will-o' the-wisp, leads them on sooner or later to dire poverty and wretchedness. To those who are honestly seeking to benefit the masses of this colony we commend the study of the question. Such eminent men as John Stuart Mill, the Hon. John Bright, British statesmen of acknowledged ability, and M. About, the eminent French journalist and political economist, with a host of others, have written against the protective policies of nations, and may be commended to persons wishing to lead up the question. The attention of those of the working people of New Zealand who have not the time or inclination for the study of political economy, may be advantageously directed to the "Protected" industries of the United States of America and its thousands of unemployed artizans; and to Victoria, where the poor "Protected" population is crying for a return to Free Trade and its attendant prosperity.]

THE: Colony of New Zealand has now a public debt of something like £26,000,000 sterling, and the gratifying news reached the colony that the last £5,000,000 loan had been subscribed for twice over, thus showing the credit of the country to be held in high repute by English capitalists. In addition to this large indebtedness, city corporations and public bodies generally throughout the length and breadth of the land, and even religious bodies, are flocking into the British money market with their loans for larger or smaller amounts. The State can scarcely with consistency legislate to prevent public bodies borrowing money from whoever will lend it to them, since it sets so fine an example itself, nevertheless the question of curtailing these borrowing powers of the State and private bodies is one that will force itself sooner or later upon statesmen. Already political economists are looking with apprehension upon the oft-recurring loans sought and obtained by the dependencies of the Empire, and politicians are realising the truth that States and colonies and corporations can become hopelessly insolvent as well as private people. Added to all this it is notorious that private companies and individuals borrow largely in the Home market for speculative purposes. The question arises, Is it not high time to put the brake hard down, and for the future live more within our means? Is it not better to face the inevitable at once, ere we drift into the deplorable condition as exemplified by Egypt and Turkey? Already the burdens of taxation are pressing heavily on the people, and every loan, whether Government, corporation, or public body, means more taxes, and these have to be paid either directly or indirectly by the property-owners, or taken from the hard earnings of the people—perhaps under the fascinating cry of protecting native industry.
Thoughtless, unscrupulous, or unprincipled people will no doubt reply, "Borrow and trust to chance or the Bankruptcy Court to pay;" but honest folk should ponder these things, and soberly consider whether it be not advisable to use all the powers they possess to check this growing craving for borrowing, which produces, when it becomes an evil, a fictitious appearance of prosperity, blinding those who partake of its favours, but burdensome to the great majority of the population. In short, we submit that the "Foreign Policy" of New Zealand requires checking in this direction, and should be as narrowly watched as is that of the Mother-country by her British sons.

A MONTH or two ago we wrote upon the necessity for providing a law for the proper controlling of performances in public places of amusement. At the time, the writer was, twitted by one of our morning contemporaries with not being acquainted with the subject he had written upon. Subsequent events have proved the contrary, as a Bill was, immediately after the necessity for such an Act was recognised, introduced into Parliament. The criticisms of journalists should be truthful, and courteous to members of their own cloth. One of the gravest charges that may be brought against a writer is ignorance of the subjects he assumes to speak of—therefore we are due this little correction.

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One Only.

_Named softly as the household name of one_
_Whom God hath taken._—Browning.

"It is a happy world after all," said Paley, extolling the benevolent design of creation; "the earth, the air, the water teem with delighted existence." A happy world for the young, the healthy, the comfortable—yet not always even for these: and what of the aged, the sick, the wretched the hungry? The earth, the air, the water may teem with delighted existence, but its component parts bite and devour one another, the whole creation groaning and travailing in pain.

_Nature, red in tooth and claw,_
_With ravine, shrieks against our creed._

The young, full of life and hope, find it hard to realise that sorrow and disappointment can ever come to disturb the bright picture of the future they have sketched out for themselves; but as years pass on they come to know that even joy, if it is manly and true, has a plaintive undertone of sadness in it—and that imagination and thought cannot be dissociated from a pensive quiet. Alas! there are many shady places, with little or no sunshine in their gloom; and most of us, at one time or another, find it is so in our experience. The bright side has its attractions for the crowd, yet the dark side cannot be ignored by any one who has eyes to see or a heart to feel. It is the contrasting element of evil that makes the world more fair as well as more sad. I propose to say a word on the melancholy aspect of life—not as exhibited in any of its appalling forms either of war, pestilence or famine, murder or suicide,—not the dark side, like Niobe, all tears; but as it may be met with, perchance, in the home of an acquaintance or neighbour—as we encounter it going out and coming in about our every-day business—a quiet sorrow or very ordinary catastrophe. When Sterne wished to bring home the horrors of captivity to the imagination of the reader, he took the case of a single victim and expatiated on his isolated sufferings. And much after the same fashion, instead of indulging in general statements or strong objurgations on the ills that flesh is heir to, I shall follow Sterne's plan, and select out of the long muster-roll an individual case, by way of illustrating what human life may be to many of those among whom we pass our days.

Here it is:—The sketch of a wife and mother lately gone to her rest—much-needed rest—in the grave. No imaginary portrait; simply a life of much the ordinary weft and woof—and yet, as I think of it, sad enough. It does not matter to my purpose where she died. She was so obscure—so little cared for—that I daresay no notice of her death appeared in any newspaper. Save by her children she will not be missed; and yet it strikes me the world was poorer the day she died. This woman had neither wit, nor large culture, nor beauty—that is to say, not beauty after the approved style, although the love-light in her kindly grey eyes was more than beautiful. Every one can "gush" about the charms of girlhood, but few have a word to say of the attractions of feminine middle age, yet they are very genuine. Not only the sweet, thoughtful ways and motherly care of women of forty, but their unstudied dress—their caps (when caps are worn), and cool, dark gowns are a pleasure to look upon. It was so with my friend; but beyond this sweetness there was little more; she brought no gift of genius or eccentricity into the world with which to make a name for herself. She could sing a simple ballad; and, before the fount of melody was quite dried up within her heart, it was very pleasant to hear her softly warbling "The flowers o' the forest" or "The bonnie hills o' Scotland;" but she knew nothing of what is styled your "high-class music"—she did not play the piano, because no such instrument was within her reach; and she could not reign in a drawing-room. She was only a sweet-voiced, gentle lady, full of womanly affection, eager tenderness, yearning human thoughts, and forgetfulness of self, who had kept her pure childish beliefs unchanged to middle age. Latterly she was sickly, and shabbily clothed; she lived in a tawdry house, with glaring paper on the walls, and torn, dirty matting on the floor; the air she breathed was not the purest; her life partook of want, barely escaping vulgarity; she worked as she was able at a machine, sewing dresses for servants and women in the neighbourhood, who bullied her, perhaps not unreasonably; for to them she was only a poor sempstress, if the truth must be told.
This woman's husband, a coarse-grained rather idle fellow, tried this trade and that, became a politician after his kind, canvassed at municipal and parliamentary elections, and "stumped" at public-house bars. He was not an utterly bad person by any means; he did something for his family, but held that his wife should do something more. If others remembered how tenderly nurtured she had been as a girl, and that he had flung away the little fortune she brought him, he, at least, never chose to remember it; nor did she. Hers was a large capacity for forgetting and forgiving—for remembering too—for loving and working and suffering. Husband and wife were poor, and she felt it only proper that she should work. And work she did, stopping now and then to give birth to another child to be nursed at the tired breast, and watched and prayed over with the loving devotion she gave to all the others. We are assured there can be no tragedy without crime. I take leave to doubt it. Could anything well be more tragic than the simple sketch I am now attempting to give of this unheeded wife and mother? God help us all in our days of sore need, for the heart only knoweth its own bitterness.

Certain moralists lay it down as an axiom that no woman with love, a husband, and children, need ask for more. Reciprocal love is certainly much; but what if it is woefully one-sided? At all events this woman never did ask for more. The loud-talking politician remained her hero to the last. If [unclear: her] life dried up and withered away, as a tree, tapped of all its juices at the root, might wither and die, she thought it was herself that was to blame. This poor lady was blest, or rather cursed, with as finely, wrought an organisation as any favorite of fortune; both body and mind required companions of [unclear: her] own caste, and that intangible nutriment which Nature and Art give but to few; all which were denied to her. Besides scarce even the strongest woman can furnish bread and butter for a houseful of children, make their clothes, keep their souls pure, and their manners refined: and this lady was not [unclear: strong] in any sense; yet she stitched, and nursed and trained the children, as best she could, with the dirty walls about her and the torn matting under foot, while the crowd of little ones grew shabbier and coarser and more vulgar day by day. She paid no visits—sought no amusement—but toiled on with little of either heart or hope. The sewing-machine meant bread for her children; for herself she cared little. As the last morsel from her mouth would have been given up to any one of them without a thought of sacrifice, so she could have let her heart break in silence to save them from a pang. But the day came when she dropped under her intolerable burden. As she lay on the bed day after day, slowly dying husband and children were loud in sorrow and astonishment. "How had she come by such manifold diseases? Machine-work and want of air? It was incredible." She struggled with her work yet sewed as she lay on her back, and drew her children close to her with a hungry, unsatisfied love in her eyes that they could not understand.

As the hour came for her to quit the world that had been so niggardly of its comfort or bounty to her, she was beset with restless fancies—dreams that were not all dreams—which to her husband seemed scarcely sane. "She thinks if she could see and smell a thorny rose that used to grow wild [unclear: of] that breezy upland farm, so far away under another sky." Ah, that rose, "where foxes roam and eagles rave;" and the days of other years! He could not understand it; no one can go beyond his or [unclear: her] nature; but she will understand it all by and bye:

Oh for the touch of a vanished hand,
And the sound of a voice that is still!

To what future recompence the soul of the gentle lady passed, only He knows who took it hence but I believe that this wild rose grows where, after her sweet sleep, she will awake to a satisfying love-the rose of her youth, blended with that other Rose of Sharon and the Lily of the Valley. The [unclear: sense] of a needful immortality is strong—strong and irresistible, it seems to me—in the case of those who have longed for and not fully enjoyed human affection, because springing from that intuitive law [unclear: of] compensation which obtains throughout all humanity.

What was to blame? Not the working for bread and butter; not poverty altogether (although poverty is a sad thing amid plenty); not even an unequal marriage, for since the world began [unclear: Kind] Cophetuses have married beggar girls untitled, and found them excellent wives, as if "to the [unclear: manned] born," and Titanius have rejoiced to worship asinine husbands. It was sympathy, love, the [unclear: lady] needed, and this sympathy and love she did not get. For want of these she pined and died. And it [unclear: is] because there are thousands of over-worked women around us on every side, staring blankly at the unconquerable work, and feeling much as she felt—lives wasted unsympathisingly at noon-day—that have told the story of this wife and mother, and reverently held back her memory, for this brief moment, out of the eternal silence.—W. H.

The MECHANISM OF MAN. By Edward W. Cox. Vol I. The Mechanism. (London: Longman [unclear: Co])—The fact that the present is the third edition of a work professedly an answer to the question "[unclear: What] am I?" and that the book deals boldly with the most momentous problems in Biology, is sufficient evidence that Serjeant Cox has succeeded in clothing subjects, naturally most abstruse and difficult, in a real popular guise. Elucidating to a very great extent, so far as it can he elucidated, the nature of life-[unclear: germs] we have a most interesting section devoted to a consideration of "How we grow." This is succeeded
A man named William Foot has been sentenced by some Dorchester magistrates to three months' hard labour for sleeping under a hayrick near Portland. The poor man had recently been similarly punished for a like heinous offence against civilized conventionalities! Alas for men's inhumanity.

It is among the special signs of the times that the question of emigration is just now occupying the attention of the industrial classes in England in a manner previously unknown to emigration agents. The South Staffordshire miners, for example, have completed a scheme whereby any miner seeking to emigrate pays in weekly to a fund for equipping emigrants completely, and stands the chance of periodic ballot to draw his "lot"
for a new home. The mining classes generally are said to be largely adopting the system, and in Sheffield and other large manufacturing towns, similar plans are being formed. The working classes see in this a double advantage, as the process, if developed, will rapidly lessen their numbers and thus tend to check the present depression in wages.

Not to be Confused.—Professor: "Is the intensity of gravity greater at the poles or the equator? Freshman: "Yes, sir," Professor: "Which?" Freshman: "Greater, sir."

Speaking Photographically.—Her Shakespearian education has been neglected, but when she told him, "There were more things in heaven and earth than are dreamt of in your photography," she smiled proudly as one who had said a good thing, and knew it.

The Decisions of the Privy Council on Ritualism.—The Guardian is informed that a memorial from graduates of the Universities and persons learned in history and archaeology will shortly be addressed to the Home Secretary, asking him to advise Her Majesty to take no further judicial action on the ritual reports of the Privy Council until certain historical misstatements, misquotations from and interpolations in important documents shall have been examined by learned men appointed by her Majesty for that purpose, the said reports being avowedly based to a large extent on such alleged misstatements, misquotations, and interpolations. Some eight or ten of these are to be specified—such as the assertion that 1549 was the second year of Edward VI; that the Consecration Prayer was omitted in 1552; that mixing wine and water apart from the service was unknown to East and West; that there are such documents in existence as the Advertisements of 1564; the interpretation of the word "only" in the copies quoted in the reports; the assertion that surplices and alb were not worn "concurrently" according to any known use; the assertion that Bishop Cosin held a visitation in 1687, fifteen years after his death &c. Decisions based on such statements, they will urge, only bring the law into contempt.

Competent authorities calculate the losses to English farmers last season, in cereals [unclear: or] amounted to something between twenty-five and twenty-eight millions sterling. If potatoes and [unclear: he] were added it would be full thirty millions more. As food must be imported and paid for to nearly equivalent sum, such a state of things is simply a national calamity, and amply justifies the fears leading manufacturers as to the prospects of the home trade.

A number of Manchester Fenians have met and "protested" against their excommunication the Roman Catholic Church on account of their belonging to a secret society.

THE DRESS OF THE WORKING CLASSES.—The Judge at the Warrington County Court [unclear: recent] severely remarked upon the tendency of women to overdress. His Honour had to decide a claim making up a satin dress for the daughter of a pavior. The maker said it was adorned with no fewer [unclear: the] "seventy-two" kiltings in front, that it was covered with difficult work, and that it took her a week complete the dress. The bill was 19s. The mother of the girl for whom it was intended thought charge too much; but the Court said that if parents wanted their children dressed in such a [unclear: many] they must pay for it, and gave a verdict for the plaintiff. The Judge added that dress was one of [unclear: the] crying evils of the day, and he thought that in some respects it was only second to drink.

BEAUTY OF THE LADY ARABELLA.—Those who have known not a happy home, if gifted with [unclear: strong] affections, are apt to form high ideas of domestic joy; to them it seems a very haven of peace, a [unclear: his] brighter than any that ambition can offer, nay, ambition to them is but the path which they hope [unclear: and] lead to the desired goal. They long to love and be loved. That this was the predominant [unclear: sentiment] in the heart of Arabella Stuart there can be little doubt; her keen intellect was, as is usually the [unclear: came] accompanied by ardent and sympathetic feelings. Nature had given her a warm, passionate heart, [unclear: this] thinking for affection as a tropical flower thirsts for sunshine and light, and it is probable that now [unclear: been] those dreams of a romance common to women of her temperament, wherein Love reigns triumphant alone. Her face was one a man might look at too often for his peace of mind. There is a portrait her in the Chatsworth collection, which depicts her a vision of grace and delicacy, oval countenance, [unclear: have] blue eyes, arched eyebrows, a dazzling alabaster skin, with hair of golden chestnut, raised back from forehead, and falling in rich curling waves over her shoulders. She wears a black dress bordered [unclear: with] band of sapphires and diamonds, the bodice is cut in square mediaeval fashion, leaving the front of [unclear: the] bosom bare, which is delicately fair, small, and childlike, Pearls encircle her throat, clasp her tiny [unclear: wrist] and are twisted in her hair, while two pear-shaped pendants droop from her pretty ears. It is a face [unclear: they] would go straight to the hearts of most men, so tender and engaging is the expression of the eyes [unclear: a] lips. Her hands are marvels of beauty; the white taper fingers rest on the silken head of a [unclear: favourite] spaniel, whose pert face is half buried in the folds of her magnificent dress. But none of these advantage had any effect on her destiny. None cared too woo and win her for personal or mental charms, all [unclear: some] her as a political tool to further their own selfish schemes. Divers attempts were made to induce [unclear: Arabs] to become the head of a party inimical to Elizabeth, either by marriage with a noble, or
They increase as they hunt: for I see, through the pine-trunks ranged each side,
The truth whatever it be? Pad, pad! At last, I turn—
Still the low sound,—less low, loud, louder, at a rate
There's no mistaking more! Shall I lean out—look—learn
The truth whatever it be? Pad, pad! At last, I turn—
'Tis the regular pad of the wolves in pursuit of the lives in the sledge!
An army they are: close-packed they press like the thrust of a wedge:
They increase as they hunt: for I see, through the pine-trunks ranged each side,
Slip forth new fiend and fiend, make wider and still more wide
The four-footed steady advance. The foremost—none may pass:
They are elders and lead the line, eye and eye—green-glowing brass!
But a long way distant still. Droug save us! He does his best:
Yet they gain on us, gain, till they reach,—one reaches . . . . How utter the rest?

The leader of the pack (such was the woman's story) on getting up to the sledge seized one of the children. The entire pack stopped, after the custom of wolves, to devour it, while Droug tore along with the sledge. On the pursuit being renewed after the dreadful meal, a second child was torn from the mother, and devoured in the same way. When the pursuit was renewed the third time, the wolves (so the mother declared) actually snatched the infant from her breast, and she was spared to reach home alone. During the progress of the woman's story, the ghastly truth had become more and more apparent to the bystanders that, to save her own life, the wretched mother had thrown one child after another to the wolves, and so escaped.

Down she sank. Solemnly
Ivàn rose, raised his axe,—for fitly as she knelt,
Her head lay: well-apart, each side, her arms hung,—dealt
Lightning-swift thunder-strong one blow—no need of more!
Headless she knelt on still: that pine was sound at core
(Neighbours were used to say)—cast-iron-kerneled—which
Taxed for a second stroke Ivàn Ivànovitch.
The man was scant of words as strokes. "It had to be:
I could no other: God it was bade ' Act for me!''

Ivàn Ivànovitch is tried before the Pomeschik of the village for murder, and convicted, while this Russian mother's crime is decided to be justifiable homicide. But this conviction is reversed by the village Stàrosta, who decides that in a mother's caae her children's lives should be "sweeter" still.

A ROMANTIC MARRIAGE.—Prince Henry XX. of Reuss, who belongs to the Köstritz branch of the family and was born in 1852, lately landed on the island of Heligoland, bringing with him his betrothed, Madame Clotilde Loissel, whose maiden name was Roux. The lady, who had lost her first husband some time ago, has achieved her reputation or notoriety in Germany as a bold steeple-chase rider in Reux's Circus. She was accompanied by three female relatives and by her father, M. Roux. Prince Henry and his betrothed swore before the Heligoland police-magistrate that there was no lawful impediment to their marriage, and thereupon the pair received from the Governor of the island the so-called King's letter, authorising the marriage, and subsequently the wedding ceremony was performed at church. The newly-married couple, it is added, intend to spend the honeymoon on the island, which is at present full of visitors who have come to enjoy the sea bathing.

The Duke of Somerset said at a recent meeting in England:—" In the study of politics he would give them one hint: When they read the speeches made by different members of the Conservative party, they should look at the speeches of the leaders, because that party was led by those at its head; but when they wanted to know what .the Liberal party was about, they should look at the speeches of some of the followers, because, as Lord Beaconsfield said, the Liberal party was very apt, like a fish, to be propelled by its tail."

Miss Churchill.

Chapter I.

Two years ago, just about a week before Christmas Day, I received an invitation which I could not at first make up my mind whether to accept or refuse. It was from my aunt, Lady Ridloy, and was written in a much more friendly style than that in which she usually addressed me; the point of it being that she wished me to go down to their place in Yorkshire on Christmas Eve, and remain over the New Year. And she added "I will not ask you to stay longer, as our festivities will probably end then, and I know young men like you don't care for a humdrum family party—even when an aunt and certain charming cousins of your own compose it."

I was very much astonished to receive this letter, and yet more at its contents. Lady Ridly and I had,
not been on the best of terms during the past season, and she had been so rude and ungracious in her manner to me, the last time I called at her house in town, that I mentally registered a vow that I would never enter it again.

Perhaps I was vain enough, however, to console myself as to the cause of her conduct; though I was not, perhaps I was more than indifferent about it. I had spent some very pleasant hours with the family for one thing, and for another I sincerely regretted losing the acquaintance of my youngest cousin, Minnie Ridly, who, ever since I had known them, had been my greatest friend in the family. Yet it was on this cousin's account, I felt convinced, that Lady Ridly had completely altered in her manner towards me.

Before this change occurred, she had been kind enough to me in her way. That is she occasionally asked me to dinner, generally half-an-hour before the time, and Sir Thomas, her husband, had used his influence some years ago to get me an appointment in one of the Government offices.

It was not very much, perhaps, for my nearest relations to do, for Lady Ridly and my mother were own sister but then, as her Ladyship frequently remarked, "If girls will make fools of themselves they must take the consequences."

This truism, which she was for ever impressing on her daughters before me was aimed at my mother. She had made a fool of herself. She had married, in fact, my poor father for love, and none of her family ever really forgave her for having done so. It had certainly not been a prudent match, but it had been a very happy one, and again and again I have heard my mother say she never regretted it. How could she? She had gone hand in hand through life with a brave and honest man, and her greatest grief had been when he was suddenly called upon to leave her. She never quite got over that. I was a young fellow of nineteen then, and it was dreadful to see her sorrow. It sobered me at the time, and for ever after, I think; and then my poor father's death made a serious change in our circumstances.

When my mother married him he was a lieutenant in an infantry regiment, with only his pay and a hundred a year his father allowed him to live on. When he died, twenty years afterwards, he was senior major of his regiment, and during his long and honourable service he had contrived to save about three thousand pounds, which he left to the uncontrolled disposal of my mother.

The dear old woman, who cared nothing about money herself, grew ambitious for me. She invested her three thousand pounds in a railway, which turned out a bad speculation, and she nearly broke her heart when she found the whole of her husband's savings, which she considered my fortune, were either locked up or gone.

She was dreadfully distressed about this money, and for the first time since her marriage, pocketed her pride and went and sought out her only sister, Lady Ridly. She wanted Sir Thomas to use his influence for her boy.

I remember very well the first time Aunt Ridly came to call at our small lodgings. She was gorgeously dressed in some wonderful costume of velvet and fur, and looked the prosperous, the handsome lady that she was. She had made a fool of herself. She had done well. She had married Sir Thomas Ridly, a rich Yorkshire baronet, and the most pompous, obstinate, and disagreeable old man I ever met.

But he was rich. There it was in that small word of four letters was comprised, influence, honour, and the adulation of most men. He told my mother (not, perhaps, exactly in these words, though) that she was rightly served; that she had made her bed and must he on it; that she had no claim on him whatever, and that, as regards money, he would do nothing; but that, if the young fellow was steady and industrious, he might say a word for him.

The young fellow (thanks to his good mother) was, I hope, steady and industrious, and accepted the place his uncle Sir Thomas procured for him, and the income of ninety pounds a year it provided—thankfully. He worked hard, too, and passed a competitive examination, and gained a higher appointment as years went on, and when the dear old mother died, eight years after her husband, her son had an income of three hundred pounds a year, and as the railway shares had begun to look up a little, and pay a small dividend, she passed away content—so and happy, that she taught a lesson to us all.

Lady Ridly did not come to see her dead sister. She wrote to me to say that indeed she could not bear it her feelings were too strong; and she enclosed ten pounds to pay any little extra expenses I might incur, and invited me to stay a day or two with them "after all was settled."

It was when I went to their house in Grosvenor Place to return that ten pounds with many thanks, that first made the acquaintance of my cousins.

I was shown into the drawing-room, where a very pretty girl, dressed in white with black ribbons, was sitting practising on the harp. She got up when she had read my name on the card the servant presented to her, and suddenly turned very red and rather nervous.

"Mr. Franklyn?" she said, hesitating and half holding out her hand. "Then—then you are our cousin—poor Aunt Franklyn's son?"
"Yes," I said; and I could not help giving rather a bitter smile. "May I ask which of my cousins you are?"

"I am Minnie," she said, "the youngest. I am very glad to know you. Mamma said you were coming to stay—am very glad—that is I was dreadfully sorry about poor Aunt. You must have felt it so much. How stupid of me to say glad—I meant, you know, I was glad you were coming to stay;" and Minnie gave a most charming smile.

"But I am not coming," I said. "I came to bring back some money your mamma was kind enough to send me. But I am in no need of money—thanks to her all the same."

"Oh!" said Minnie, evidently much astonished. "I thought—" and then she paused.

"You thought I was very poor; is that it?" I asked, rather pompously. "Perhaps you may think so, Miss Minnie; but I am able to live, and—to bury my poor mother."

"Oh! I’m so sorry," said Minnie. "Mamma mistook—perhaps mamma thought—I am sure, atleast, she did not mean to offend you."

"I daresay not," I said; but will you be good enough to tell her I was much obliged, and to give her back these, and I held out the two five pound notes to my cousin as I spoke.

"You’d better not trust me with them," said Minnie, laughing, "for I can tell you, if you are not poor I am—dreadfully poor, and dreadfully in debt too. Papa has turned such a screw since Tom came from college. He says Tom is frightfully extravagant, and makes such rows about money now; and [unclear: he] wont give us more than our allowances, and I can't make mine do."

Just then the drawing-room door opened, and Lady Ridly came in. She was a tall, handsome, bright-coloured woman, between forty and fifty, and was dressed in black, with a profusion of bugles and jet.

"Why Walter," she said, and held out her hand; "I am glad you are come; and—and poor Nelly I suppose—" and she stopped and hesitated.

"Poor Nelly," was her dead sister, and my mother, and it must be admitted that, perhaps to her the subject might be an uncomfortable one.

"It is all over," I said quietly. "My dear mother, before her death, sent her kindest love to you, and left this letter, and told me I was to bring it to you myself; and, Lady Ridly, I thank you, but I have no need of these;" and I put the notes into her hand.

"Oh! the money," said my aunt; "I thought it might be useful; I am glad that you have no need of it;" and she opened her purse and slipped it quickly in as she spoke. Then she sat down and opened her dead sister’s letter.

"Poor Nelly!" she said, as she read it, "Poor Nelly!" and she drew out her handkerchief and wiped away a tear.

"Well she is gone now," she said, presently, and she looked attentively at me—looked me all over in fact. Then she sighed, wiped her eyes again, and put back her handkerchief into her pocket.

"She is gone," she repeated; "and she wishes me, Walter, to be—kind to you. Will you stay to dinner?"

"Not to-day, thank you."

"Will you come another day then? Let me see, Tuesday—Wednesday—Thursday—I declare we are engaged every day this week. But come next Monday; we will be quite alone."

I hesitated, but ended by accepting her invitation, and thus I afterwards came to be almost intimate with my aunt and cousins.

The first time I dined there, Sir Thomas made himself particularly disagreeable to me. When my aunt took me up to him and said, "this is Walter Franklyn, Sir Thomas," he gave a grunt of dissatisfaction. "Ha—hum!" he said, and edged further away from me, as if he were afraid I was about to pick his pocket. "Ha—hum! so it's you, young sir, is it? Well I hope you are steady and are getting on pretty well?" and he held out too short fat fingers, and just touched mine. "Young men who have no resources must depend on their own exertions," went on the baronet, in his thick pursy voice, "and the more you exert yourself the better, sir—I can tell you that;" and as he spoke, Sir Thomas sank back into an easy chair, and eyed me dubiously from its comfortable depths.

He was a short-necked, very stout, red-faced, little man, and indulged at times in a bluff jocularity. But this humour, and the ponderous jokes which he sometimes emitted, were not for his penniless nephew. Rich young men—eldest sons, &c., and supposed admirers of the three Miss Ridlys—came in for this kind of thing. With me he was always pompous, always distant. I do not think he even approved of having me occasionally to dinner, but Lady Ridly chose to pay this attention to her dead sister's wishes, and for the two years following my poor mother's death was kind to me in her way.

During these two years, my cousins and I naturally became intimate. They were lively, worldly girls, who always looked well, and were always got up in the latest fashion as regards hair and dress, and who spent their time in seeking admiration, and enjoyed themselves heartily when they succeeded in gaining it.

They meant to marry well, though, in spite of all their love of amusement and "folly" (as my aunt called it), and about sixteen months after I first knew them, Kate, the eldest daughter did. That is, she and Lady Ridly between them arranged a marriage with young Lord Cullompton, and it was considered a most advantageous...
settlement, though his one recommendation seemed to me to be his hereditary rank. He was the eldest son of the Earl of Oldenbury, and was not twenty-one when Kate married him, and she knew quite as well as every-one else exactly why she did it.

"I don't pretend to be in love with Cullompton," she said to me the night before the ceremony, "but girls must make some sacrifice."

Her sacrifice was a good-looking captain in the Guards, whom Kate had flirted with and made love to for the last twelve months, and the foolish fellow took her conduct so much to heart that he plunged into all sorts of dissipation to cure himself, and never was the same light-hearted jolly fellow again. But Kate was different. She was too well brought up to indulge in any folly like this. She married Lord Cullompton for his position, and what good would his position do her if she spoilt her beauty by grieving after her old lover. No, Kate knew better; and she carried out the same principle in her married life, and never fretted or fumed about the follies of her stupid little lord. Even when a year or so afterwards, he went off to Italy with an actress, she kept her composure. She was Lady Cullompton. He could not undo that, and the title was all Kate had ever wanted from her husband.

Fannie, my second cousin, was almost of the same type as her sister. She was, perhaps, on the whole a greater coquette, and not quite so ambitious; but the best and kindest of them all was the youngest, Minnie. She really had some good in her—good which might turn to evil, though, amid all the false teaching she received at home.

She and I became friends, somehow. She liked to dance with me and to ride with me, and she always had a smile ready for me whenever I appeared. Even after the advent of a certain Sir Harry Royston, it was the same thing. Sir Harry was a good-tempered, pink-faced youth of twenty, and a college friend of her brother Tom Ridly, and shortly after his introduction to Minnie, Tom Ridly received his orders from Lady Ridly to "bring in" his friend Sir Harry at any time.

Tom Ridly was fond of Sir Harry, and therefore he obeyed his mother; otherwise I do not think he would have done so, for there is not a bit of worldliness about Cousin Tom. He is indeed one of the most reckless and contemptuous breakers of all social laws that I have ever known. He despises them, and is bitter and cynical, like many young men of his age.

"But Harry Royston is a good-tempered fellow, and no humbug," Tom Ridly used to say of his friend; and so Sir Harry was very frequently an invited guest at their table, and in a short time the shrewd eyes of Lady Ridly were fixed upon him determinately as the future husband of her daughter Minnie.

I need scarcely say, after this, that Sir Harry was rich. Money to Lady Ridly was as great a necessity as daily food is to common people. "A man must have a fortune," Lady Ridly thought and said, "or what is he worth?" and as for a son-in-law without one, why the very idea would have driven her out of her senses. As soon, therefore, as she heard a detailed and authenticated account of Sir Harry's possessions, she determined to win him, and it was about this time that she cooled so entirely to me.

In the first place she left off asking me to dinner. Then she learned a way of not seeing me in the Park; and finally, when I was calling one day—for I saw no occasion to drop Minnie for the sake of her mother—Lady Ridly came in with Sir Harry Royston, and was positively rude to me before both my cousins and the young baronet.

I saw Sir Harry's pink cheek grow pinker, and his blue eyes open wide with astonishment at my aunt's manner as she addressed me, for no one was ever rude to him, and when, a minute or too afterwards, I rose to go, the kindly lad rose, and, in spite of my aunt's entreaties, followed me out of the house and slipped his arm into mine.

"How have you offended the old lady?" was his first irreverent question; and I felt very [unclear: much] inclined to tell him that he was the real cause of her behaviour.

But I did not; and shortly afterwards my aunt and cousins left town and went abroad for a couple of months, and I heard nothing more of them, or of Sir Harry; therefore my astonishment was necessarily great when, towards the end of December, I received the invitation to spend Christmas with [unclear: them] and found that my aunt's letter was couched in the friendliest of terms.

I could not make up my mind about it, and curiosity, and perhaps some little regard for Minni also, at last decided me to accept Lady Ridly's invitation. I had not been to Lamesly before. During the last two years I had known my relations I had never been invited to their country house, though had often heard Sir Thomas boast of his pheasants and his stud. "It is a horribly dull place," Minni had confided to me, and under ordinary circumstances I daresay it was; but when I arrived I found the whole Hall brilliantly lighted up, and apparently full of company.

I got there shortly before dinner-time, and felt a little nervous as to my reception when I [unclear: entered] the long drawing-room, but I had no need. Lady Ridly received me cordially, and my cousins with [unclear: evident] pleasure.
"Sir Harry Royston is here," my aunt said, with a smile, and the next minute the young [unclear: baron] came up and shook me heartily by the hand. There were also one or two other young men staying in the house, and Tom Ridly had come down for Christmas. "A confounded bore it is," he said "but [unclear: I] do it to please the old woman."

Tom was fond of his mother. Whatever were his faults, he had a great manly love for the handsome lady be used to tease by calling her "old," "Old duck," "Old lady," anything "old." It was all the same to Tom, and Lady Ridly used to try to look angrily at him, and tell him he was [unclear: unmannerly] and rude. But if ever my aunt's face softened, it was when she was watching her graceless boy. [unclear: What] schemes she had for him? Nothing was too great for Tom, and no woman was good enough. Ah, [unclear: poor] mother! we who knew his life better than you did, knew how one day all your pride must fall, and how the son on whom your hopes were centred would dash them into dust. But Lady Ridly had no [unclear: thought] of this, and her daughters used to complain that Mamma would scold them for anything; but, [unclear: whatever] Tom did, she always took his part.

I was talking to Lady Cullompton, who was there, but without her little lord, when dinner [unclear: was] announced. By this time several of the country neighbours had arrived, and some very great personage (I forget whom) had been requested to take down my lady, and as she rose I stepped aside, and in doing so slightly touched the dress of a young lady, who was sitting almost hidden behind the heavy [unclear: volve] window-hangings.

As I turned to apologise, one after one of the guests paired off and left the room, and it was indeed almost empty, when I chanced to catch my aunt's eye, who was already leaning on a gentleman's [unclear: arm]. "Ah!" she said, "Walter, you take down Miss Churchill," and she moved slightly as she spoke towards the young lady behind the curtains, whom the moment before I had addressed.

I bowed and offered my arm, and a very handsome, noble-looking woman rose and took it.

She made some slight remark about the coldness of the weather, I think as we went down [unclear: into] the dining-room, and I asked her if she had ever been so far north before.

"I have never been in England before," she answered.

"And yet you are English, I presume? " I said.

"You judge by my name," replied Miss Churchill. "Yes my father was English."

I looked at her as she spoke. Her whole appearance and manner were singularly composed and quiet for so young a woman, for she could not have been more than two or three-and-twenty; and the peculiar richness of her clear dark skin, and her magnificent black hair, would have made her [unclear: remarkable] in any society. Yet she seemed perfectly unaware that she possessed any striking personal [unclear: attractions] and spoke in a low and subdued voice which somehow or other, gave you the idea of humility. She was dressed in very deep mourning, and only wore a plain jet chain round her shapely throat, and as I took my place by her side I could not help wondering who my companion could be.

I found her, at all events, highly agreeable. She was well read in the best English literature, and seemed to have visited almost all the well-known cities in Europe. I, who had had neither the time nor the money to travel, felt rather abashed at my ignorance of places which evidently were so familiar [unclear: to] her; but when I hinted something of this, with the tact and ease of a well-bred lady she changed the conversation to subjects which I was more competent to enter into and discuss, and I was sorry when the dinner came to a conclusion. However, before it did so, an incident occurred which puzzled me yet further as to the position which Miss Churchill held.

In pulling off her black glove a ring she wore came off with it, and fell, first, on her knee, and then, before she could stop it, rolled down on the carpet.

She at once moved her chair back to seek it, and I moved mine for the same purpose, and the gentleman who was sitting on her other side rose also.

"What is it?" asked my aunt, observing us, and in her most uncourteous voice. "What is it Miss Churchill? Why are you disturbing the arrangements of the table?"

"I have dropped my ring," she answered calmly, "and am looking for it."

"The servants can do that after dinner is over," said Lady Ridly. "You had better resume you seat for the present."

Without answering her hostess Miss Churchill obeyed; but the rich colouring of her cheeks deepened considerably as she did so, and once or twice during our conversation afterwards, I noticed [unclear: that] her attention became distracted, and that she sighed deeply.

When my aunt rose and made the sign for the ladies to retire Miss Churchill again mentioned her ring.

"Perhaps you would be kind enough," she said, "as soon as they are gone, to seek for it; for it is a very valuable ring, and one for which I have a great regard, and I do not care to leave it, as Lady Ridly requested me to do, to the carelessness of servants."
"I shall be delighted to do so, of course," I said and at once commenced my search, in which Sir Harry Royston and several of the other young men present, joined me.

I heard Sir Thomas growling out when I was under the table, to know," What the deuce was the matter. Was young Franklyn in a fit or mad, or what was it?" I suppose something satisfied him for I did not; but in a few moments emerged, after having found the ring, which had rolled a considerable way under the broad table.

"Well sir," said Sir Thomas as I rose, "and have you got it? Ladies should have their rings made to fit them, I think, and not disturb a whole table with their nonsense; hand it down here, and let me see what kind of trumpery it is."

The "kind of trumpery" was one of the most magnificent diamond rings I ever beheld. There could be no mistake about it. Even to my eyes who knew nothing of the value of such things, the stone appeared splendid, and one or two of the gentlemen present, who were evidently connoisseurs, went into raptures over its beauty.

"Hum!" said Sir Thomas, when Sir Harry Royston handed it to him to examine. "Hum!—it's well enough—good stones apparently. Ay? Harry," and here he gave a facetious dig with his stout little fingers into his expected son-in-law's waistcoat, and broke into a half-suffocated chuckle at his coming wit. "Ay! Harry, we should like to know where such stones come from, wouldn't we? It's well to have an old Jew for a grandfather," and he chuckled again, and Sir Harry laughed weakly in reply.

The ring was then handed back to me, and shortly afterwards we rejoined the ladies in the drawing-room, and I at once went up and presented it to its owner, who was sitting reading in her old place, half under the window curtains.

"I thank you very much," she said, "very, very much;" and then she added softly, and with a ring of sadness in her voice, "it was my dear father's last gift to me. I could not have borne to have lost it."

"Besides, it is such a splendid ring." I said.

"That is not its chief value to me," she answered, as she replaced it on her finger, "poor papa."

"Have you lost him lately?" I asked.

"Yes," she said and sighed; and then, just as she was about to speak again, my aunt approached us.

"Oh! " she said, "so Walter, you have found the ring? What! it's a diamond one. Will you let me see it?"

Miss Churchill held up her uncovered hand, and Lady Ridly's eyes positively sparkled as she examined it, "Why, this is a valuable ring," I wonder you don't sell it. I suppose it was one of your grandfather's?"

"I will never sell it," said Miss Churchill; and she pulled her hand hastily back from Lady Ridly's as she spoke.

"Won't you?" said my aunt. Well, you know best. Walter, will you come with me; I have a few words to say to you."

(To be continued in our next.)

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The objects of the present paper are, to describe briefly a theory or doctrine of existence, expounded by the late Prof. Clifford, in an article "On the Nature of Things in Themselves," but arrived at independently by several persons—amongst others by myself, as far back as the year 1870.—and to propound and assist toward the solution of a series of problems which arise in connection with this theory.

The starting-point of the theory is the position, commonly associated with the names of Berkeley and Hume, that all the properties of material objects, as investigated by the physical and natural sciences, are capable of being analysed into possibilities of feeling, or relations among possibilities of feeling. Thus the redness of a rose is the possibility of a certain visual sensation, and the roundness of an orange is a complex of relations among the possibilities of certain visual, tactual, and muscular sensations. Granting this position, it obviously follows that every assertion of physical science—every assertion, that is, respecting matter, force, or motion—is merely an assertion respecting possibilities of sensation or feeling. The truth of this position is demonstrated by a process of self-observation or introspection, and must be verified by each individual for himself. It is believed by the present writer that the conclusion arrived at cannot be resisted by any mind which performs the requisite process of self-analysis with perfect precision and faithfulness.

The only concrete realities, therefore—the only "things-in-themselves" that we know of, are feelings. Psychology is the only concrete science. The word "feeling" is used here to denote any mental state whatever. The feelings or mental states of which we have experience comprise the comparatively vivid ones known as sensations and emotions, the fainter copies of these, sometimes called "ideas," which constitute the material of which thought is woven, and certain unique states of mind which form integral parts of volition and belief—states of mind which assimilate most nearly to emotions, but which may be described as somewhat too colourless, if the term be allowable, to be fairly classed with these.

All the real existences we know of being mental states, the totality of existence falls for each individual into two sections: his own mental states, i.e. mental states which form a part of his own consciousness, and mental states not his own. The former constitute a stream or chain, extending from a past that is more or less remote into a future almost wholly unknown; his present condition of mind being a transverse section of the stream, or a link in the chain. His knowledge of the portion anterior to the present moment is obtained partly by the faculty of memory, and partly by a system of inferences; his anticipations as to the portion that is still future are grounded entirely on inference.

Now, by a process essentially identical with that by which he infers these future portions, and some of the past portions, of his own stream or chain of consciousness, each individual comes to believe, at a very early stage of his career, in the existence of other streams or chains of consciousness which are more or less like his own, but which are entirely outside it. He believes that his fellow-creatures are conscious beings, and that the higher animals are sentient. The process by which this conclusion is reached, and by which it may be justified, is fully described by Mr. Mill in a well-known passage of his "Examination of Sir William Hamilton's Philosophy." There is a further inference drawn which is of great importance, and which I hope will engage our attention in a future paper. The inference is drawn that there exist relations of sequence and of synchronism between his own feelings and the feelings which compose the other streams of consciousness. These relations had already been recognized among his own feelings, and might easily be inferred as existing among the feelings of any other one stream of consciousness taken by itself. But it might seem a more perilous step to infer cross-relations of this kind between different streams: nevertheless, this inference, endorsed every hour a thousand times by the common sense of mankind, is one which I think can be shown to be logically justifiable.

Without, however, dwelling any longer on this point, we may note that each individual conceives of other streams of consciousness as running parallel to his own in Time, and that their outsideness to his own consciousness is quite a different thing from the apparent outsideness of any material body. A material body, or, as it is usually called in the language of metaphysics, an object (even if it be the farthest fixed star) is an abstraction the primary reference of which is to a concrete something inside the individual's consciousness, namely a certain group of his own sensations; while its appearance of externality is derived from the fact that it also refers to actual or possible sensations outside his consciousness, namely in the consciousness of other beings who do or might exist. These other streams of consciousness, and not the earth, air, and sky, are the true "External World" to each individual. The outsideness or externality of these "other streams of consciousness,"
of which each one among us infers the existence, and of the feelings composing them, appears to me to be very happily expressed in the term by which Prof. Clifford has proposed to denote them, namely the term "eject." The minds of my readers are "ejects" to me, and my mind is an "eject" to them. The use of this term also places in marked contrast the genuine outsideness of these inferred existences with the pseudo-externality, so to speak, of the material universe.

So far, nothing new has been enunciated. The thinkers of the school to which I belong, maintain that, paradoxical as some of the above assertions may sound, (for instance, the denial of the concrete existence of matter,) the common sense of mankind will bear us out in them, if only its deliverances be analysed and formulated with precision. It is only when we take a further step that our doctrine parts company with the belief of the uninstructed. This further step is taken in answer to the question: "Are there ejects which form no part of any consciousness? Are there non-personal ejects?" and to the further question: "If so, what is their nature?"

Are there ejects which form no part of any consciousness? In other words, besides the consciousnesses of intelligent beings, each with its rich phantasmatogoria of sensations, and its varied wealth of ideas and emotions, are there any real existences? My readers will immediately reply, "To be sure. There is the earth, with all the material objects on its surface, there are the sun, moon, and stars, and, in fact, the whole material universe?"

This, however, would be a reply which would not meet the question at all. For, as indicated in the first portion of this paper, if any one will honestly examine the nature of his conceptions respecting material objects, he will find that they resolve themselves wholly into conceptions of possibilities of sensation in himself and in other sentient beings who do, or might, exist: and, if all these possibilities of sensation be abstracted, he will be much puzzled to attach a meaning to the assertion that there is a residuary existence behind. It will not suffice, therefore, to answer the question by merely affirmin the existence of a material universe: we must also state whether we believe that, besides the possibilities of sensation, and the relations among these, which constitute the whole content of physical science, there exists a universe of realities inaccessible to physical science, on which the possibilities of sensation are dependent. In the language of metaphysics the question may be thus stated:—Does the phenomenal world, or world of appearances, correspond to and depend for its existence on a noumenal world, or world of realities, wholly outside us? The answer given by the majority of metaphysicians is, I believe, that there does exist such a world of realities, but that its nature must be for ever hidden from us.

Physical science, they would say, investigates the properties of things as they appear to us—investigates the outsides of things, so to speak; but things as they are in themselves, the inner nature or insides of things (though we may be certain of their existence, whether intuitively or as a result of legitimate inference), are inaccessible to human research. This I take to be the doctrine of Kant, and also the doctrine of Herbert Spencer. Now, the doctrine I wish to describe this evening, is partly in agreement with the foregoing doctrine, and partly in disagreement with it. There is a universe of realities, it affirms, underlying the phenomena which it is the business of physical science to investigate, but its nature is not wholly unknown to us. For let us consider a particular section of physiological phenomenagp—the phenomena of the human brain. In the changes which take place, during life, in the grey matter of the brain, we have a field for physical research. These changes belong to the world of phenomena—to the world of "things as they appear to us." They may be described in the language of physical science, and statements respecting them would resolve themselves, in last analysis, into statements of possibilities of sensation, and relations among those possibilities, in the mind of a supposed observer. But now, according to both the doctrines we are considering, this complex of phenomena—this group of changes in the grey matter of the brain—must have a complex of noumena, or "things-in-themselves," underlying it. "What is this complex of "things-in-themselves?" It is not an object of physical research. Physical research stops at the changes in the grey matter of the brain—estops at a group of appearances. What is the complex of "things-in-themselves" which underlies these appearances? Now we know, or at least have very strong ground for believing, that some of the changes in the grey matter of the brain correspond to feelings or thoughts in the mind of the person to whom the brain belongs. According to the doctrine of Mind-Stuff, these feelings or thoughts are the noumena—the "things-in-themselves"—which underlie the changes in the grey matter of the brain. What appears to an outside observer—or rather, what would appear to him, were the skull transparent, as a change in the grey matter of the brain—is in reality a feeling or thought in the mind of the person to whom the brain belongs. This feeling or thought is not an object of physical research. It belongs to the world of noumena, or "things-in-themselves," with which physical science has no concern, or with which it is only concerned in so far as the hypothesis of the existence of such a world is required to account for that world of phenomena, the laws of which it is the business of physical science to investigate. Thus we see that in regard to at any rate one part of it, it is not true to say that the noumenal world is veiled from us. We know it by introspection; and we know it as feeling or thought. We are ourselves—our minds, I mean, not our bodies—strands in the web of the noumenal world; and therefore, although no part of that world can ever be investigated by physical science, we see that a portion of it forms the subject-matter of subjective psychology, and is consequently not altogether unknown to us. Of course it is only one's own consciousness which one knows with any great precision. I do
not know whether the sensation which my neighbour calls green is qualitatively quite the same as that which I myself call green. The phenomena of colour-blindness demonstrate conclusively that in some cases it is not. Still, I have, in a general way, an acquaintance with the consciousness of my fellow-creatures and of the higher animals. They constitute the portion of the noumenal world which we obviously know something about—something which physical science could never tell us.

And now, what are we to say about the rest of the noumenal world—the remaining strands of the web? There is a remaining portion, for we have agreed that there are noumena or realities underlying the phenomena of inorganic and of non-cerebral organic nature. What are these realities like? Now, the doctrine of Mind-Stuff asserts that these realities are made up of the same stuff or elements as the human mind, only that the elements are combined together in a less complicated way. The universe, according to this view, is a stupendous web of mind-stuff, the elementary strands of which are ever weaving themselves into new patterns from eternity to eternity. The most complex of the compound strands are the minds of intelligent beings, and from these there is every degree of complexity down to the elementary strands themselves, which correspond to the motions of inorganic matter. Whether the elements of the noumenal world are described as being themselves feelings, or only as the elementary constituents of feelings, appears to me to be merely a question of language. If we adopt the former phraseology, the doctrine may fitly be called that of Omnisenience. This was the name given to it by a former fellow-student, Mr. William Boulting, now a member of the medical profession in England, and myself, when we arrived at it, independently but almost simultaneously, in the year 1870. Although it appears that we have been anticipated by Professor Wundt, the eminent German physiologist, and perhaps by others, we may claim as much originality as any of the exponents of the doctrine, and priority over most.

I now turn to some of the problems which are suggested by the general theory of things we have been considering.

First: In what relation does the doctrine of Omnisenience or Mind-Stuff stand to the various theories which have been propounded for explaining, on the principles of rational mechanics, the phenomena of the physical universe? In what relation does it stand to the theories of atoms, ether, ultimundane corpuscles, ring-vortices, and the like? Now, in the first place, it does not either exclude or supersede them. There is nothing in the doctrine of Mind-Stuff incompatible with any of these mechanical theories. The theories in question are one and all of them statements of quantitative relations among possibilities of feeling, and are not in any way concerned with the noumenal realities on which these possibilities depend. The universe of matter is a complex of possibilities of feeling, and these possibilities are found to stand in certain quantitative relations to one another. These relations are of two orders,—relations of sequence and relations of co-existence. The former are believed to depend, without exception, on causal relations—relations spoken of as the laics of nature;—the latter are space-relations, and may be described as facts of structure. All the mechanical theories I have alluded to, therefore, and indeed all mechanical theories that can be framed, are affirmations either of mechanical laws or facts of structure, or both. Setting out from the relations of sequence and facts of structure which we observe to exist among the possibilities of sensation which constitute the material world, the physical investigator does one of two things. He either infers, by a complete induction, the existence of such and such causal relations, and then deduces facts of structure which are not capable of being observed; or, he assumes the existence of certain facts of structure, and perhaps also of certain causal relations, and shows that by known causal relations these will lead to the observed facts of structure. In the former case, his process is one of scientific demonstration, in the latter he constructs a scientific hypothesis. To the former category belongs the reasoning by which we infer that matter consists of molecules (in other words, that its structure is discontinuous), and that there is an ether; to the latter, belong such hypotheses as those of ring-vortices and ultra-mundane corpuscles. But now, observe, we are throughout dealing with quantitative relations among abstract possibilities. The whole of mechanical science deals with such relations. It is in no way concerned with the inner qualitative nature of the real existences on which these possibilities depend. These real existences are aggregations of Mind-Stuff. Psychology is the only science which deals with them; and even that deals only with the most complex of them. Therefore the Doctrine of Mind-Stuff can in no way supersede the necessity of, still less can it exclude, these mechanical explanations of the universe.

But although the principles of rational mechanics, and the hypotheses by which, in conjunction with the former, it is sought to explain the observed phenomena and structure of the material world, are in no way in conflict with our doctrine, we shall presently see that they may come to have a very important bearing on the determination of the particular form which that doctrine ought to assume. For the doctrine asserts that the possibilities of sensation which constitute a material object, correspond to, and depend for their existence on, some reality outside us or "eject" of which Mind-Stuff units are the elementary constituents. Hence every conception of mechanical science must denote what would be called in mathematics some function of Mind-Stuff. Matter, defined as that which has mass or inertia, must be a function of Mind-Stuff. Motion, force, and energy, must be functions of Mind-Stuff. The interesting question then suggests itself: What functions,
severally, are mass, momentum, energy, etc., of the noumenal reality which we have designated Mind-Stuff. This question has been touched upon in a profound passage of the late Professor Clifford's review of a work entitled "The Unseen Universe." Professor Clifford there indicates that the answer to the question, if it can be answered, must depend on the knowledge we can gain respecting Mind-Stuff itself—knowledge which can only be acquired within the domain of psychology. Our feelings, he points out, have certain relations of contiguity or nextness in space, exemplified by contiguous elements of a visual image, and certain relations of sequence in time, exemplified by all feelings whatever. "Out of these two relations the future theorist must build up the world as best he may. Two things may, perhaps, help him: there are several lines of mathematical thought which seem to indicate that distance and quantity may come to be expressed in terms of position, in the wide sense of an analysis situs, while the theory of the curvature of space hints at a possibility that matter and motion may be expressed in terms of extension only."

I take this to mean, that if we admit as a possibility that the properties of space may show a sensible divergence from the Euclidean standard, if we consider very small parts of it—we get at a way of defining matter in terms of the space which it occupies. An ultimate atom of matter (perhaps infinitesimal as compared with the chemical atom) would on that view be merely an infinitesimal crumple in space. All physical science would then be reduced to transcendental geometry, and space-elements would be the analogues of Mind-Stuff units.

The former parts of Professor Clifford's suggestion can only mean, as far as I can see, that space may be not only not homogeneous in ultimate structure, but not even infinitely divisible. It may consist of indivisible units. In that case there would be such a thing as absolute magnitude, and measuring would be reduced to counting. The space-unit would then be the analogue of the Mind-Stuff unit.

Now it is my ambition to follow out the line of thought here indicated. It would be impossible to do so fully within the limits of a single paper, but a beginning may be made. In the first place I desire to supply what I conceive to be a serious omission in Professor Clifford's enumeration of the data respecting Mind-Stuff which the "future theorist" has at his disposal. Feelings not only have relations of contiguity or nextness in space, and of sequence in time, but they also have two other quantitative aspects of very great importance, namely degrees of intensity and differences of volume. We are conscious that sensations differ in intensity; thus an acute pain is felt to be a more intense sensation than a faint smell. Also, we are conscious that sensations of about equal intensity differ in something we call volume or massiveness: thus a sensation of general weariness, though perhaps felt to be of about equal intensity with a particular ache, is distinguished (apart from its qualitative difference) as possessing greater mass or volume. Lastly, we know that there exist causal relations among our feelings. Thus the group of ideas

An idea is merely a combination of derivative feelings which are severally faint copies of more vivid primary feelings. In the present case there is included also an unique element called belief alluded to in an earlier portion of this paper.

characterized as the realization of a danger is followed by the emotion of terror, and the constancy of the sequence indicates that we have here to deal with a causal relation. Hence the data we possess are these—a complex of feelings perpetually undergoing transformations, causal relations between successive feelings, relations of contiguity or nextness among a few of the synchronous ones (though this appears to be an exceptional phase of psychic structure, only to be found, as far as I am aware, among simultaneous visual impressions which co-exist in a space or manifoldness of two dimensions), qualitative resemblances and differences, variations in intensity, and variations in volume or mass. These are the materials from which we must construct our conception, save as to certain spots necessarily a very dim one, of the noumenal world. And these are the materials which we must connect, in the best way we can, with the elementary factors of our conception of the world of phenomena. We must endeavour to establish a correspondence between feelings, their causal and topical relations, their intensities and volumes, on the one hand, and the dynamical conceptions of mass, momentum, force, energy, etc., on the other. Now, as a preliminary to the working out of this correspondence it will perhaps be advisable to take a brief survey of the ultimate dynamical conceptions, and of their relations to one another.

Our first step will show us how thoroughly interdependent all these conceptions are. Matter can only be defined as that which possesses inertia—as that which requires a force proportional to its amount (designated its mass) to effect a given change in its motion (either a change in velocity, or a change in direction, or both) in a given time. Force, again, can only be defined as that which causes a change in the velocity or direction of the motion of matter. It is tacitly assumed, though not often expressed, that the only thing which can cause such a change in velocity or direction is the co-existence of other matter. This amounts to saying that force is a relation of co-existence between different portions of matter. But every relation of co-existence in the material or phenomenal world is a relation of mutual position in space. Hence force is a relation of mutual position between different portions of matter. Motion, in the kinetic, or dynamical, as opposed to the merely kinematical
sense, is a change in the position of matter, and is completely determined when the mass of the moving body and the kinematical conditions of the case are given. The notion of energy does not require the introduction of any fundamentally new conception. Hence the phenomenal world is accurately described if we speak of it as a complex of motions, varying in infinite ways as regards mass on the one hand, and velocity and the other kinematical aspects on the other, tending severally to constancy in all these respects, but having a mutual action on one another, determined by their relations of co-existence, and, therefore, undergoing perpetual transformations. Now mark the parallelism. The noumenal world, we have seen, may be described as a complex of feeling-elements, or Mind-Stuff units, having, just as motion has, extension in Time, varying in infinite ways as regards volume, intensity, and quality or timbre, having a mutual action on one another, determined by their mutual relations of co-existence, and undergoing perpetual transformations. Is this parallelism something more than a parallelism? Without attempting to justify it in this paper, I would hazard the conjecture that motion is Mind-Stuff, that volume of feeling is mass, and intensity of feeling velocity. Professor Clifford seems to have believed that motion and Mind-Stuff were identical, and indeed to have held the belief in a much more dogmatic form than I should be inclined to do; but the other two identifications are, as far as I am aware, quite new. The degree of light which cerebral physiology may be capable of throwing on the question must be estimated by able minds than my own: but one implication of my hypothesis has struck me as favourable to it. If matter in Motion be Mind-Stuff, it follows that if matter were ever at absolute rest, it would no longer correspond to any noumenal existence. It would become a pure abstraction—one term of a product, the other term of which was zero. Does not this appear in harmony with the hypothesis of Sir Wm. Thomson, which makes all the atoms of ordinary matter, and all the particles of which the ether is composed, to consist of a rotational motion in an incompressible frictionless fluid? The stoppage of the vortex-motion would be the obliteration of both atoms and ether—the annihilation of the sensible universe. The perfect fluid at rest would be, on my view, a mere nullity. No noumenal existence would correspond to it, and it would, in fact, merely represent the potentiality of massiveness among feelings.

Two other identifications will at once suggest themselves, and may be relied on with greater confidence than any of the three preceding ones: First, the causal relations among elements of feeling will have their counterparts in the causal relations among motions of matter, i.e., they will have their counterparts in the dynamical laws of the universe. And secondly, the relations of synchronism among elements of feeling will have their counterparts in the relations of synchronism among the motions of matter, i.e., they will have their counterparts in the space-relations of the universe. Certain passages in Herbert Spencer's "Principles of Psychology" seem to indicate that he entertains a similar belief.

And now, one more thing follows. The nexus of causation which obtains among the feeling-elements, or Mind-Stuff units, i.e., among the elements of the noumenal world, must be at least as complex as the corresponding nexus which obtains among the motions of matter, i.e., among the elements of the phenomenal world; and it may be indefinitely more so. For the phenomenal world depends for its existence on the noumenal world, and is in fact only a particular aspect of the latter—that aspect, namely, which the noumenal world presents to its own most complex strands, the perceptive beings that grow up in its bosom. Nor can the elements of the phenomenal world derive any complexity from the interaction of the noumenal elements which they represent with the complex structure of the precipients. For it is the especial triumph of the mechanical theory of the universe to have eliminated all these complexities, and referred the affections of the various senses to the same source. Thus the sensations of light and warmth we receive from a fire, are both referred to the radiant energy of the ether which intervenes between the fire and ourselves. Hence we may be certain that the nexus of causation in the noumenal world is at least as complex as the dynamical nexus of the phenomenal world. But it may be indefinitely more so. There may be many causal relations in the noumenal world which have no types in the phenomenal world, though we may be certain that every dynamical relation in the phenomenal has its anti-type in the noumenal world. The phenomenal world is a projection, so to speak, of the noumenal world on the plane of observation, and much complexity may be lost in the process of projection. In the same way the space-relations of the phenomenal world must be paralleled by a nexus, at least equally complex, of synchronous relations in the noumenal world. But the complexity of the latter may be greater by any amount than that of the former. There may be facts of structure in the noumenal world which have no representatives, so to speak, in the world of phenomena. It has always seemed to me probable that this was the truth which Spinoza had in his mind when he said that extension was only one out of a perhaps infinite number of attributes possessed by the universal substance. The possibility in question shows that there is nothing in the doctrine of Mind-Stuff per se—Professor Clifford to the contrary notwithstanding—to negative the belief either of the spiritualist or of the theologian. It may or may not be the tendency of physiological research to exclude the conceptions with which these two classes of thinkers are concerned, but this exclusion can certainly not be the result of an acceptance in its most general form of the doctrine here described. On the other hand, there is equally little in it to encourage or lend assistance to theological belief. The proposition that there is a dim
quasi-sentiency pervading the world, is as far removed as possible from the proposition that there are
*intelligences* unconnected with any brain, and this latter proposition, which is the essence of all spiritualism and
theology, can derive no support from the former. In regard to theology, then, the doctrine of Mind-Stuff is
neutral. It may rather be described as *monistic* than as materialistic. It affirms that there is only one
Existence—that which Herbert Spencer* speaks of as the "Substance of Mind"—and that the supposed dualism
of matter and spirit is an illusion.

The Earl of Beaconsfield and his Work.
By Robert J. Creighton.
Reprinted from "The Californian" for June, 1881.

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The Earl of Beaconsfield and his Work.

The death of the Earl of Beaconsfield, K. G., at the ripe age of seventy-six, was the most noteworthy event
of the past month. Under ordinary circumstances the death of an English nobleman would excite no interest
beyond his own immediate circle; but in this case one of the most remarkable men of the century has passed
away. Let us see who and what this man was in his lifetime, and consider the part he played in the world's
affairs, that we may form a just estimate of his character.

The *Parliamentary Companion* has a brief mention of the deceased statesman. Born in 1805, he sat
continuously in the House of Commons from 1837 till 1876, when he was raised to the peerage as Earl of
Beaconsfield and Viscount Hughenden, in the County of Bucks; a Privy Councillor; Knight of the Garter;
D.C.L. of Oxford, and LL. D. of Edinburgh and Glasgow; an Elder Brother of the Trinity House; was three
times Chancellor of the Exchequer, twice Prime Minister, and once (1876) Lord Privy Seal; was Commissioner
of Education for Scotland, and one of the committee of the Council on Education; also, Rector of the University
of Glasgow, etc.; and, let us add, that at the time of his death he was leader of Her Majesty's opposition—in
other words, keeper of the Government conscience. How well or how ill he performed this function latterly, it is
not for us to say. His opportunities for pricking the Government conscience were not numerous since the
accession of Mr. Gladstone to office; but if he had lived longer, we may be sure he would not have allowed it to
sleep on guard.

A mere recital of these dignities and honors shows that Lord Beaconsfield was no ordinary man. To be
time three Chancellor of the Exchequer and twice Prime Minister of England is a distinction which falls to the
lot of few men, however exalted their birth or distinguished their talents may be. But when these dignities and
honors have been fairly won and honorably worn by a man who had nothing behind him in the battle of life but
his own audacious talent, and who, moreover, belonged to a proscribed race, the wonder becomes all the
greater, and he rises superior, in all the qualities of leadership, to contemporary statesmen, to whom he has been
a source of mingled admiration and distrust Benjamin Disraeli the Law advent Christianity), had no peer as a
parliamentary leader. He was a self-made man, and consciously so. At no time during his long and checkered
career did he fail to stand on guard. I knew that success was the price of flagging vigilance. His own party
distrusted him while obeying his mandates; and more than once the existence of the Conservative party! was
jeopardized by defections within the Ministry, caused by antipathy toward him and distrust of his methods. But
that which would have proved almost fatal to a Liberal statesman did not appear to weaken him in the least.

Thus, when Lords Derby and Carnarvon resigned office in the very crisis of the Eastern question, the Premier,
Lord Beaconsfield, at once presented a bolder front, and strengthened his Cabinet by appointing Earl Derby's
brother and heir as Secretary of War, and giving the seals of the Foreign Office to the Marquis of Salisbury,
who had been his bitterest opponent within the Conservative party, and the recognized rival of Lord Derby. As
Lord Robert Cecil, the Marquis of Salisbury had persistently assailed Mr. Disraeli in the
Quarterly Review; and
at a subsequent period, when Lord Cranbourne, he led the bolt from Earl Derby's second administration on the
celebrated "Ten Minutes Reform Bill," in which he was followed by Earl Carnarvon and General Peel.

Exempting the Chancellor of the Exchequer and the Premier, these were by far the ablest members of that
Government, but their places were filled by men of higher social position.

Thus, the Ministry was strengthened instead of weakened by this defection, just as in later years the
resignation of the two Earls, Carnarvon and Derby, already mentioned, strengthened Lord Beaconsfield's
political influence, and led up to the short-lived but remarkable popular outburst known as Jingoism. Personal
changes within the Cabinet are nearly always fatal to Liberal administrations, as witness the Adullamite
episode, and the disintegration of Mr. Gladstone's government in 1874, after he had carried the Irish Church
Disestablishment Bill and the Irish Land Bill. The explanation is found in the totally different conditions under
which the Tory and Liberal governments of England have existed since the overthrow of [unclear: Sir Robert
while probing the secrets of others he always wore a mask, and no man ever knew his secret thoughts.

He read men and their motives like an open book, but he was a bold leader, and understood the fox-hunting, wine-drinking, hard-headed, chivalrous pack which obeyed the crack of his whip. They were educated in the belief that the legislative power was theirs of right, and that the trading classes were parliamentary interlopers. They felt instinctively that Benjamin Disraeli was an aristocrat at heart; they knew that he had no sympathy with the common people—that he did not understand, and that he had no wish to understand them. To Disraeli, as to them, the people were useful merely as pawns in the game of government, but not otherwise to be thought of or mentioned. A party so led and disciplined had at least cohesive power. It did not think for itself; and when one or two of the leading men became restive and resented their contemptuous treatment, they were left without a following. The Tories stood stanch by their leader, for they had the sense to know that without him they would soon lose their political influence and be swept over the rapids of radical innovation by the constantly swelling wave of popular demands. Hence it has happened that the Tory party in England, although numerically far weaker than the liberal and progressive and in some respects, to be mentioned further on, even surpassed the Liberals in the breadth and scope of its legislative achievements.

But the task of the Tory chief was a hard one. It admitted of no rest from scheming, no respite from intrigue. It suited his restless and ambitious spirit. In early life he confessed that his forte was sedition. He was cynically candid. Being invested with the responsibilities of state, however, his natural bias for sedition was directed into another and less dangerous channel, and he became an adept in party management. His tact and vigilance were unwearied, and he never failed to offset the defection of one great noble by securing the adhesion of another of equal social influence and political consideration. In this art of management he was without a rival. It was natural to him, perhaps, to judge men accurately, but the necessities of his position directed into another and less dangerous channel, and he became an adept in party management. His tact and vigilance were unwearied, and he never failed to offset the defection of one great noble by securing the adhesion of another of equal social influence and political consideration. In this art of management he was without a rival. It was natural to him, perhaps, to judge men accurately, but the necessities of his position sharpened his wits and greatly emboldened him. He must act promptly, if at all; hence his social successes were almost invariably the foundation for his political triumphs.

Never did a responsible Minister of the Crown in England venture to dispense its honors, in the sovereign's name, with such lavish, and withal so judicious, a hand. He enlarged the peerage by many additions. His creations in every case strengthened his hold upon the governing families of the kingdom, and commended themselves to the popular imagination. He had a weakness for strawberry leaves, and, therefore, did not hesitate to create dukes. No one, for example, could take exception to the Marquis of Abercorn being advanced to a dukedom. As heir male of the princely house of Hamilton, his social position and political services in Ireland alike entitled him to this distinction. Moreover, he had been badly treated 1; by the French Emperor. The Marquis of Abercorn had established in the French courts his right to the ducal title of Chatelherault, which had been in the Hamilton family for centuries; but Napoleon III., by virtue of his prerogative, refused to recognize his claim, and confirmed the title to his own relative by marriage—the Duke of Hamilton. Thus, the Tory chief compensated the Marquis of Abercorn for the loss of his French title by an Irish one of equal rank, and more substantial privileges. Neither could any fault be found with the revival of the ducal title of Gordon in the person of the Duke of Richmond, a Tory peer of great influence in the House of Lords. His dukedoms of Lennox in Scotland and Daubigny in France were sufficient vouchers for his respectability outside of his English title. In truth, however, only a political Bohemian like Benjamin Disraeli would have ventured upon, because the right to the ducal title of Gordon was stoutly contested by another powerful family, and with superior claims to those which the Duke of Richmond could urge; but the daring Minister settled this momentous social controversy by rewarding his own political ally and friend, who is now encumbered with four ducal titles and all the prestige thereto belonging. Lord Beaconsfield always rewarded his friends; he never forgave his enemies. In the selection of men for administrative appointments his nominees invariably turned out well, to the surprise and gratification of the country. He read men and their motives like an open book, but while probing the secrets of others he always wore a mask, and no man ever knew his secret thoughts.
To go back, however, to the beginning, Benjamin Disraeli was born in London, in December, 1805, of Jewish parents. His father was a man of culture and ability, and is famous as the author of *The Curiosities of Literature*, and several other works of a like character. He was also a D. C. L. of Oxford. The elder Disraeli paid more attention to his literary work than to his family, and there was some danger of the subject of this sketch growing up destitute of a polite education but for the intervention of friends, among whom was the poet Rodgers, through whose influence he was baptized, and became nominally a member of the Church of England. Thenceafter, Benjamin Disraeli observed the forms of the Christian religion, but he never forgot his race or its striking vicissitudes, and his speech in support of the Jewish Disabilities Bill in after years, as leader of the House of Commons, did much to insure the success of that measure. He was articled to a city attorney at his father's request, but soon abandoned the study of law as uncongenial to his tastes. His peculiar training and straightened circumstances sharpened his wits, and he very early chalked out for himself the career to which he adhered strictly throughout life. He resolved to make a literary reputation, on the strength of which he should get into Parliament; and once there, he felt satisfied that he could make his way. Fortune favored him, but not until he had compelled her to smile upon him.

In his twenty-third year Benjamin Disraeli published *Vivian Grey*, a work of undoubted genius, in which he sketched his own character and ambition. This was followed at intervals by *The Young Duke*, *Henrietta Temple*, *Contarini Flemming*, *Alroy*, and other works of imagination. He took a higher flight than mere [unclear: ed] as a great dramatist, and published a tragedy of which nobody now ever thinks of hears, and *A Revolutionary Epic* in 1834—the latter political. It was the subject of criticism in the House of Commons in the Stanfeld-Mazzini debate, by Mr. Bright, a quarter of a century later, and gave him very great annoyance. It is full of absurd passages, and the following lines were alluded to by Bright as justifying tyrannicide:

"The spirit of her strong career was mine;  
And the bold Brutus but propelled the blow  
Her own and Nature's laws alike approved."

Disraeli denied that there was anything at all justifying Bright's charge, and published a revised edition, in which this passage is very materially changed. In fact, it is emasculated. The best known of all Disraeli's books perhaps are his latest novels— *Lothair* and *Endymion*. His *Life of Lord George Bentinck* and a biography of his father are of no special interest. Suffice it, however, that the young author attracted a great deal of attention at home and abroad by his writings, and numbered among his admiring correspondents, Heinrich Heine and Goethe. He was a prolific writer, but his books were not then regarded as likely to hold a permanent place in standard literature. Society opened its arms to this remarkable young man. His appearance was quite as striking as his manners were oddly eccentric. He dressed elaborately. Indeed, he was always overdressed in the most showy fashion, and covered with rings and chains. His hair hung in dark ringlets over his left brow; his face was pale and immobile, save for the fire and vivacity of his piercing black eyes. The face was a typical Jewish face—not of the handsomest perhaps, but strong, resolute, and with clear-cut features. His conversation was bright and sparkling, full of exaggeration and the most extravagant assertion, but always, and at all times, entertaining. He was an amusing puzzle to some; to others he was a mystery, which time was only partially to unravel. He owed much to the celebrated Countess of Blessington, who introduced him to fashionable society, and was his stanch friend during her lifetime. Beckford, the eccentric author of *Vathek*, was also an admirer of young Disraeli, who went abroad and made a long tour through Italy, Greece, Albania, Syria, Nubia, and Egypt. His impressions upon this tour colored all his subsequent writings.

The period had now arrived when Disraeli thought he should take part in public affairs. England was convulsed by the Reform agita-[unclear: inn] the pocket-borough of High Wycombe, which had thirty-five registered voters, Disraeli stood for the seat on ultra-Radical principles, but was defeated by Colonel Grey, son of Earl Grey, the Premier. Twelve votes only were cast for the political adventurer, and the son of the Reform Premier took his seat. But time brings around its revenges to him that can wait. In 1868, when the late Lord Derby resigned, the Queen's letter to Mr. Disraeli, commanding him to form a Ministry, was brought to him by his equerry, General Grey, who, thirty-seven years before, had defeated him in the Wycombe election. Their respective positions had changed somewhat in the interval, the odds now being with the literary adventurer, who, on being asked at Wycombe upon what he stood for Parliament, answered that he stood upon his head.
which had no element of good in it. In 1846 Sir Robert Peel introduced his famous Corn Law Bill, and it was recognized as the leader of the Young England party—a party which did no good to anything or any cause, and which had no element of good in it. In 1846 Sir Robert Peel introduced his famous Corn Law Bill, and it was as the Earl of Beaconsfield that he won his highest laurels as a statesman and became a great historical character in Europe.

under the new and unknown title of Earl of Beaconsfield. But those who thought so misjudged the man. It was shades of party regretted that the great name of Benjamin Disraeli, and his peculiar reputation, should be lost henceforth lead the peers of England. He had fairly won his title, and no one grudged him it. Only, men of all was astounded by the announcement that Mr. Disraeli had been created Earl of Beaconsfield, and would last great occasion that he outlined and defended the “imperial policy of England.” Next morning the country time will come when you will hear me.”

From 1841 to 1847 he sat for Shrewsbury; but although a frequent and aggressive speaker he possessed no Liberal party, and exclaimed, with passionate energy:

Tomahawk, and was determined to retain power by the same means. He possessed all the qualities of the impudent thief who died on the cross, and for aught I know the present Disraeli is his true heir-at-law." This tirade was followed by a challenge from Disraeli addressed to O'Connell's son, Morgan, who refused to accept it, and who was sustained by public opinion. In his letter, Disraeli says: "Words fail to express the utter scorn in which I hold your father's character, and the disgust with which his conduct inspires me. I shall take every opportunity of holding up his name to public contempt, and I fervently pray that you, or some of your blood, may attempt to assuage the inextinguishable hatred with which I shall pursue his existence."

The code was then in fashion, and Disraeli, although he never had a hostile meeting, always expressed his readiness to fight if called to account. This was almost necessary, because he was in the habit of using the most violent and abusive language toward his political antagonists. Sir James Graham described him, after he had become Chancellor of the Exchequer, as the red Indian of debate, who had scalped his way into power with a tomahawk, and was determined to retain power by the same means.

In 1835, Disraeli stood for Taunton in the Tory interest, and was again defeated. On the hustings he kept up the quarrel with O'Connell, whom he denounced as "a bloody traitor." His perseverance was at length rewarded. In 1837 he was returned to Parliament for Maidstone through the influence of Wyndham Lewis, whose money had enabled him to contest three elections, and whose widow he married in 1839. This was the turning point in his life. His marriage brought him fortune and social influence. It gave him also the love and solicitude of a noble woman, older than himself by ten years, but entirely devoted to him. And to his honor be it said that he returned her affection.

The Queen having offered him a peerage in 1868, he refused it for himself, but accepted it for his wife, who was created Viscountess Beaconsfield in her own right. Her death, some years ago, was a severe blow to him, besides involving a large pecuniary loss, as her life interest in her former husband's estates passed to the Lewis family.

In his first session, in 1837, Benjamin Disraeli followed O'Connell in a debate in which that consummate orator had attacked Sir Charles Burdett for deserting the Liberal party. The scene has become historical. Disraeli's exaggerated style, his foppish attire, his theatrical gestures and ludicrous remarks excited the House to the most uproarious mirth and he was rudely laughed down. Before resuming his seat, he turned to the Liberal party, and exclaimed, with passionate energy:

"I have begun several times many things, and I often succeed at last; ay, sir, and though I sit down now the time will come when you will hear me."

The prediction came true. He spoke often and well after this, but, somehow, the House paid no heed to him. From 1841 to 1847 he sat for Shrewsbury; but although a frequent and aggressive speaker he possessed no weight.

At the general election in 1847, he was returned for the county of Bucks, for which he sat continuously until the night of August 11, 1876, which was his last appearance in the House of Commons. It was upon that last great occasion that he outlined and defended the “imperial policy of England.” Next morning the country was astounded by the announcement that Mr. Disraeli had been created Earl of Beaconsfield, and would henceforth lead the peers of England. He had fairly won his title, and no one grudged him it. Only, men of all shades of party regretted that the great name of Benjamin Disraeli, and his peculiar reputation, should be lost under the new and unknown title of Earl of Beaconsfield. But those who thought so misjudged the man. It was as the Earl of Beaconsfield that he won his highest laurels as a statesman and became a great historical character in Europe.

Let us return once more to the thread of our narrative. In 1841, and for several years afterward, Disraeli was recognized as the leader of the Young England party—a party which did no good to anything or any cause, and which had no element of good in it. In 1846 Sir Robert Peel introduced his famous Corn Law Bill, and it was
then Disraeli saw the great opportunity of his life and boldly seized upon it. The protectionist policy had been successful at the polls; and it was with amazement and rage, therefore, that the Conservatives (as Peel styled the Tories) heard the Premier announce, almost the first day of the session, that he had adopted a free trade policy and would introduce a bill repealing the corn law. They were speechless; but one man was neither speechless nor amazed, and that man was Benjamin Disraeli. He arose and assailed Peel in tones of such bitter invective as had never before been heard in the House. It was a remarkable speech on a remarkable occasion, and it was the making of the despised political adventurer. Suddenly, without their seeking, a man arose to lead the squirearchy of England, and they rallied around him with the spiration of hope that in this political Arab they had found their Moses. And they really had done so, though they were slow to believe the fact, despite their loyalty to him. "The country party" was the political issue of that speech; and before the session closed, Disraeli gave the Tories their revenge by combining with the Irish members to defeat the Coercion Bill. The very day which saw the Corn Law Bill pass the House of Lords, witnessed Peel's defeat and final downfall in the House of Commons. That great statesman fell in the very hour of triumph, to rise no more. He soon afterward died from the effects of a fall from his horse. But Disraeli's time had not yet fully come. The coalition which turned out Peel could not hold together. The Whigs came into office and remained in power until 1852, when Earl Derby's first and short-lived administration was formed, of which Disraeli was Chancellor of the Exchequer, and leader of the House of Commons. He had succeeded to the leadership of the country party on the death of Lord George Bentinck, who died suddenly, it was supposed from poison administered by Palmer, a country physician and sporting man, who owed Lord George money on bets, and who, soon afterward, poisoned one Cooke, to get rid of a similar obligation, for which crime he was tried and hanged. But, in truth, Disraeli was the brains of the country party; although it suited him to make a son of the Duke of Portland the figurehead. As Chancellor of the Exchequer, Disraeli's first duty was to renounce the heresy of protection, for abandoning which he had denounced Peel so terribly. Facts and figures were not to be controverted, however. Sophistry and assertion could not get rid of them. Yet strange as it may seem, the squirearchy followed him like lambs. The short session, in which Earl Derby found himself in office very much against his will, passed off without any serious incident, and a good deal of useful work was done. Next session, when Disraeli, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, introduced a financial scheme, he was replied to on the spot by Mr. Gladstone, despite the very advanced hour of the night when he closed his budget. This impromptu speech by Gladstone crushed the Chancellor, who, truth to say, never professed to understand finance. The House and country recognized the inherent worthlessness of Disraeli's scheme, and the Government went out of office. This was the first round in the long and fiercely fought battle between Disraeli and Gladstone; and, by a singular chance—say, rather, by a wonderful dispensation of Providence—Gladstone was the victor first and last. Thus Peel and this principles were vindicated by his great pupil and the Tories were thrust once more into the background.

Owing to the political vicissitudes of the times, Lord Derby again took office in 1858, with Disraeli as Chancellor of the Exchequer and leader of the House of Commons. He had made the place for himself in his party, and he insisted upon filling it. Reform was then the paramount question, and Disraeli introduced a comprehensive bill dealing with the subject, providing all kinds of fancy suffrage. This was too absurd for the common sense Commons of England, and the Tories went out in 1859 on a vote of want of confidence. The Palmerston-Russell Government succeeded to power, and remained in office till Lord Palmerston's death in October, 1865, when the Russell-Gladstone Government was formed; but in 1866 it was defeated on a no-confidence motion. For the third time Lord Derby took office, with Disraeli as leader of the House of Commons.

The Russell-Gladstone Government having been ousted for the insufficiency of its Reform Bill, Disraeli felt that the Tories must do something to settle it; and it was during this conjuncture they took the celebrated "leap in the dark," which was to do them so much political service subsequently. Disraeli claimed afterward to have "educated his party up to it;" but, in truth, their education was undertaken by the Liberal party in the House of Commons, and it was completed by promptly abandoning their own measures and adopting those of the opposition. The history of the Reform Bill of 1867 is one of the most amusing and instructive incidents in the course of English Parliamentary Government, and was a triumph of liberal principles brought about by the most unlooked for and unnatural of political conjunctions. But the point of the incident, for the purpose of this review, was the masterly and unscrupulous way in which Disraeli adapted himself to the will of the majority, changing front almost daily, and dragging his party with him from pillar to post of inconsistency. His motive was a personal one. He wanted to be the Minister which had settled the Reform question—not because he favored an extension of the suffrage (for he did not), but because that by so doing he would strengthen his hold upon the English people and increase his popularity. He felt secure of his followers. He knew the Tories could not afford to desert him, and, therefore, when he boldly conceded the demands of "The Tea-Room Party," which went far beyond anything Gladstone or Bright proposed, or even considered politic, he conciliated the ultra-Radicals, and compelled the Liberal leaders to sustain him also on
pain of political extinction. The Tories took the leap in the dark after their leader, and the Liberals helped to make the Reform Bill a really valuable and progressive measure. It is in this way the Tories claim to be more Liberal than the Liberal party, and the workingmen of England at a general election ratified this claim by their votes. But the fact remains that the resolutions and two reform bills introduced by Disraeli during that session were the veriest shams every attempted to be palmed upon a legislative body.

Lord Derby resigned in February, 1868, owing to failing health, and the Queen sent for Mr. Disraeli. This was the supreme moment in his long and successful career. The wild dream of his boyhood was now to be realized. The prize for which he schemed and toiled as a man, and which, but for his inspirational attack on Sir Robert Peel, never would have fallen to his lot, was now within his grasp. Benjamin Disraeli, "the Jew adventurer," "the political juggler," and a score of other equally opprobrious, and perhaps equally truthful, characterizations, was now the foremost man in England, possessing the confidence of his sovereign, and receiving her command to form a government. When a foppish, flippant, vanity-smitten youth, Disraeli was introduced to Lord Melbourne, the most genial of men, and a model Premier. That nobleman inquired, with amused curiosity, what the young man meant to become should he ever get into Parliament. "I mean to be Prime Minister," was the prompt reply. As likely, perhaps, at the time, as to become Archbishop of Canterbury, who is in matters ecclesiastical the English Pope. And here he was about to become not only Premier, but one of the greatest Ministers England ever produced—a Minister whose achievements, for good or for ill, far eclipse those of Lord Melbourne, and who will be remembered, and spoken of, and quoted, when the memory of that Minister will have been utterly forgotten.

To the surprise of the great Tory nobles, Earl Derby recommended the Queen to intrust the formation of a government to his intriguing and capable lieutenant. His own son, Lord Stanley, the present Earl of Derby, was then a Secretary of State, and would have been acceptable to the country. The young and able Foreign Minister was thought to be the political heir-general of the Tory party. But Lord Derby knew far better. He knew that the Tory party was Mr. Disraeli, and that without him it would cease to be any party at all. So Mr. Disraeli was sent for, and Mr. Disraeli obeyed Her Majesty's command and formed a [unclear: government. His task was not] because he must make changes within his own party. In other words, he was compelled to dispense with some of his colleagues and take in new men.

The Tories were weakest in debating power in the House of Lords, although numerically the strongest. Above all, they were weakest in their Lord Chancellor. The new Premier, therefore, intimated to Lord Chelmsford, an old and comparatively useless man, that he must step down from the woolsack to give place to Lord Cairns—an Irishman in the prime of life, who had forced his way to the front rank as a parliamentary debater and lawyer without any adventitious aids from fortune. He was at the time quietly shelved as Lord Justice of Appeal, and, being a personal friend of Disraeli, he made no scruple about accepting the great seal. And here it may not be out of place to relate an incident in Lord Cairns's early career. He was one of the members for Belfast, and had introduced a motion in favor of law reform. As a junior member of the Chancery Bar, Hugh McCalmont Cairns was known in the profession as one of the most thorough equity lawyers in the kingdom; but until he made his speech in question, he did not give promise of such marked parliamentary ability, rising to statesmanship. The venerable Lord Brougham occupied a seat in the Lords' gallery, and listened attentively to Mr. Cairns's exposition of the principles of law reform. Brougham turned to another law-lord, who sat beside him, and said, "The man who delivered that speech will be the youngest Lord Chancellor that ever sat on the woolsack"—a prediction which was about to be verified. Lord Chelmsford's friends were indignant, but they could not venture to set him in competition with the brilliant young Irishman. In due time Lord Cairns became an Earl, and Lord Chelmsford's son, who inherited his title, commanded the British troops in the disastrous Zulu war, and only saved his honor by the very hazardous experiment of risking everything in a pitched battle just before Sir Garnet Wolseley arrived in camp to take the command. While on the subject of Lord Cairns's accession to the woolsack, another anecdote occurs to us at the moment, which was an open secret in Ulster about a quarter of a century ago. The young lawyer was an aspirant to the hand of Miss McNeil, an Antrim heiress of ancient lineage, who steadily refused to become his wife until he could give her a title. This was the only thing which could reconcile the proud daughter of John McNeil to marry the son of a Belfast tradesman. Spurred on by love, the young lawyer sought [unclear: Parliament and because Solicitor] General in Lord Derby's first administration, an office which carries with it knighthood from the hand of the sovereign, and the haughty Irish beauty soon after became Lady Cairns, and is now a countess.

Disraeli led the House of Commons as Prime Minister, and during the remainder of the session he achieved some successes. But the Nemesis of party stalked behind him, and Gladstone threw him into a minority on the Irish Church Disestablishment Resolutions. This was a thrust at Disraeli's vital part. He was a champion of Church and State if he was anything, and he had always regarded the Irish Church as an appenage of the English Church Establishment. Anyhow, it was a field in which political services could be indirectly rewarded by the Crown; and therefore this rude assault by "Church-and-State Gladstone," who had turned iconoclast,
upon church patronage, was one to be resisted to the last moment. Although in a minority in the House of Commons on more than one occasion, Disraeli declared that he would not resign without an appeal to the country. He fancied that the heart of the people was sound on the Church question; but the elections soon showed him that a Liberal reaction had set in. Without waiting for Parliament to reassemble he resigned, and his successful rival took office as Premier in 1868. Gladstone carried his Irish Church Disestablishment Bill; he also carried an Irish land bill, which is the basis of the Land Bill of 1881; but he fell a victim to sectarianism on the Irish University question. The Tories coalesced with the Home Rulers and the Irish party generally, and Gladstone, who appealed to the country, was defeated at the general election of 1874. The borough and county franchise, which Disraeli claimed to have created, and which then for the first time came into general operation, proved the salvation of the-Tory party. The workingmen in the boroughs voted for Tory candidates. The clergy worked like Trojans to avenge themselves on Gladstone; and the beer-sellers, and the brewers, and the malsters, who had been antagonized by the Liberal Government, joined hands with the parsons and overthrew it. The Tory reaction had set in once more. The two spiritual powers—Rum and Religion—had carried the day; and the work of legislative reform in England received a set-back from which it will not recover for many years. Gladstone resigned office, and he also threw up the lead of the Liberal party in disgust. Disraeli was once more in power, and stronger than ever. He retained office until 1880, when, his majority having begun to [unclear: slip away from him, appealed to the count-] try to realize in his own case the fickleness of the constituencies. The majority was over-whelmingly against him. He was beaten worse than Gladstone had been, and beaten by the [unclear: indomitable] will and splendid talents of that great English statesman. It was Mr. Gladstone single-handed, and not the Liberal party readers, that turned the tide of popular opinion against the popular idol; and it was Mr. Gladstone, to Disraeli's great chagrin, and contrary to the wish of the Queen, who succeeded him. Thus the open political account was balanced between these two great but dissimilar men.

In 1870, while out of office, Disraeli published the politico-religious novel, Lothair. Eighty thousand copies of this book were sold in America. It served a threefold purpose. It revived his literary reputation, kept his name in a phenomenal way before the public, and furnished him with money, of which he then stood greatly [unclear: in] need. In 1876, as already stated, Benjamin Disraeli was created Earl of Beaconsfield. He was then in the zenith of his power and fame, and no one could have anticipated his sudden all. But there were causes, unseen though [unclear: potent], at work which sufficiently account for it. The Tories had utterly neglected social questions. They had allowed the Irish question to develop proportions menacing to the monarchy, through the combined influence of [unclear: famine] and rack-rents. They had done nothing to mitigate the agricultural depression in England and Scotland consequent upon a succession of bad crops and American competition. They had, on the contrary, kept the public mind occupied and the popular imagination dazzled by a succession of foreign surprises. But the time had now fully come when he country, wearied with a sensational foreign policy, involving heavy expenditures and wars without glory, insisted upon a return to sober domestic legislation, and, as a matter of course, Disraeli's power and popularity disappeared like a morning cloud in the fierce rays of the sun.

The Earl of Beaconsfield, as has been already shown, was a great party leader—the greatest, perhaps, of any since Chatham's time. He understood Parliament; he understood the aristocracy; and he used this knowledge skillfully to his own personal advantage. He was also a great Minister. This character contemporary history concedes to him, and the judgment of posterity will justify it. But his methods were not English methods. His genius was purely [unclear: Semitic], and herein lay the secret of his great success. He took risks which no other English constitutional Minister would ever think of taking, and fortune, which is so often propitious to the daring, was very kind to him. It was so in his case, when he had all to gain and nothing to lose. He was a "lucky man," but he made his own good luck. His name thus comes to be identified with the most successful administrative speculations of modern times. Disraeli was the Minister who purchased the telegraph system of the United Kingdom and consolidated it with the Post office Department. This was a bold speculative operation, which the result fully justified; but it is of far more importance politically, as giving the Government, in certain contingencies, the control of all avenues of information, and preventing the creation of a dangerous monopoly. Benjamin Disraeli was the great telegraph consolidator. Jay Gould simply works upon the lines laid down by the British Minister as a measure of public policy, and usurps a power which should alone be exercised by responsible executive authority. More audacious, and yet more speculative, was the purchase by Disraeli, on behalf of the British Government, of the Khedive's interest in the Suez Canal, calling for the payment of £4,000,000 sterling, or twenty million dollars. There was no precedent for such an act, no warrant or authority for pledging the credit of the State for such a purpose; yet Disraeli quietly arranged for payment through the Rothschilds, and trusted to Parliament to appropriate the money. This purchase was completed on the 25th of November, 1875, and instead of impeachment, to which the Minister was liable, he was lauded to the skies. It gave England control of the short route to India, and made her mistress of the situation in the East. Steadily Disraeli's sun kept rising in the European firmament, and as steadily his ambition kept mounting. The
climax was reached when Parliament was informed, upon its assembling in 1876, that the title "Empress of India" had been added to the royal style of the Queen. This was the enunciation of "the imperial policy," which has been fruitful of so much trouble already, and which will cause England infinitely more trouble in the hereafter. There are constitutional reasons for this, but they need not be discussed in this place. The Prince of Wales had been sent to India to impress upon the native princes and sovereigns the personality of that power which held them in its iron grip, but which had hitherto been a mere abstraction to them. They saw and did homage to their future Emperor, and thenceforward must associate the man with the sovereign authority. This was Disraeli's conception. It was natural to a man of his race, but it would not have occurred to a purely English statesman, whose constitutional instincts and training would have impelled him to avoid artifice in government. It was a mere trick, but it was a very successful one. It was not approved generally in England, because personal government is distasteful to Anglo-Saxon sentiment, while it is of the essence of Semitic thought, which is formulated in the ancient demand: "Give us a king to rule over us." As a step in the imperial policy, however, the visit of the Prince of Wales to India was a very important one. It was leading up straight to what was soon to follow—the proclamation of the Indian Empire.

Benjamin Disraeli, the political and literary waif, had done many surprising things. He had conferred titles and honors with a lavish hand; but what were these social distinctions compared with encircling the brow of his sovereign mistress with the diadem of empire? Peerages, ribbons, and stars sink into insignificance when compared with this august creation. To create a ducal title, which conferred limited social prestige, was a very little thing in comparison to charging the sovereign style of a constitutional kingdom with the addition of "Empress," which carried with it a precedence above kings and the idea of absolutism. This was his work. In the whirl of active life, its audacity and grandeur have been overlooked, but in time to come it will certainly be regarded as the greatest achievement of his life, and in many respects, also, of the century. The possibilities of what it involves were only slightly disclosed to Europe during the later phases of the Eastern question, when the Queen of England, as Empress of India, brought her Indian troops to the Mediterranean, outside the charter limits, without the consent of Parliament, and when it was argued by Lord Chancellor Cairns that as Queen, by virtue of her prerogative, she might quarter them in Scotland and Ireland, because they had independent legislatures when the Bill of Rights was enacted, and were not parties to it. In other words, that the following provision of the Bill of Rights—"that the raising or keeping a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, unless it be with the consent of Parliament, is against law"—applies only to the ancient realm of England, and not to the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or to any colonial dependency thereof. It was made the subject of a very dignified protest by the Russian representatives at the Berlin Congress, and was bitterly resented by the Liberals in Parliament. But the presence of the Indian battalions at Malta, outside the charter limits of India, in a time of peace, and without the knowledge or consent of Parliament, proved that the title, "Empress of India," was not an empty one. The British people disliked the imperial style; Queen Victoria liked it exceedingly, and she rewarded her Minister with an earldom, and extended to him a measure of personal confidence greater than had ever before been enjoyed by any of her constitutional advisers.

It is not necessary to follow in detail the development of this imperial policy. In South Africa it was enforced by the annexation of Basutoland and Transvaal, involving three costly, bloody, and humiliating wars—the Zulu war, in which the Prince Imperial was killed; the war in Basutoland, still in progress; and the Transvaal war. Previous to this, Abyssinia had been invaded and its ruler killed, at the cost of many millions of treasure; and the savage king of Ashantee was driven out of his capital by British bayonets. These wars were the outgrowth of the imperial idea, which had, through Disraeli, permeated the Tory ranks. British blood in purple streams enriched the soil of the Dark Continent in warfare which was destitute of all possibilities of honor, and which was unjust in the extreme. What matter? It was in pursuance of a policy which placed the imperial crown of India upon the brow of Queen Victoria. But imperialism was not safe in India without "a scientific frontier," and accordingly a quarrel was fixed upon the British pensioner, Sheer Ali, Ameer of Afghanistan, who was driven direct into Russia's arms. India invaded Afghanistan, and here, too, British blood was poured out like water in a doubtful, and as it proved, a losing and useless cause. A scientific frontier was fixed by the treaty of Gundamuk, but all that remains of it now is the memory of the Cabul massacre, the annihilation of General Burrow's command by Ayoob Khan, the brilliant achievements of General Roberts, and a dangerous state prisoner in the person of Yakoob Khan, the puppet sovereign set up by the Indian Government by direction of Disraeli.

The Eastern question was seized upon by Disraeli as an occasion for testing the imperial policy in European affairs. He boldly swung England into the front rank of European powers in opposition to Russia, which was pressing hard upon Turkey, and abandoned the policy of non-intervention, which had been accepted by several administrations as the wisest one for an insular power. That non-intervention had sometimes been carried to an extreme, to the prejudice of national honor, is undoubted; but Disraeli displayed a spirit of recklessness, on the other hand, which might have involved the country in great disasters. It was his imperialism, however, which
was at the root of all. During that great controversy of the nations, whatever men may think of the wisdom of his policy, thus much must be admitted, that in no single particular did he lose sight of the grandeur and dignity of England. The entrance of the Dardanelles by the British fleet was an act of war, although it was convenient for Russia not to so regard it, and it saved Constantinople when the Grand Duke Nicholas was prepared to enter it. This closed the Rus so-Turkish war. Fighting was out of the question then, unless Russia was prepared to fight England, and the ironclads were at the Goldmen Horn, and the trained battalions of India were at Malta, and would soon be in Armenia and Turkey. Moreover, the British mob had become intoxicated with imperialism, and the jingo furor was the infallible symptom of it. To fight England, thus aroused and prepared, after a severe struggle with Turkey, was impossible. Russia knew this. The Czar tore up the treaty of San Stefano at the dictation of Lord Beaconsfield, and consented to submit the settlement to a congress of the great powers. Not thus did Germany when it crushed the French Empire; not thus did Prussia when it trampled on the gallant Dane; not thus France when its Emperor dictated terms to Austria at Solferino; but on those occasions England stood aloof. It was out of the European circle, and the conquerors did as they pleased. England now threw its sword into the scale, and Russia listened to reason. Nay, it consented to humiliating terms for the sake of peace.

Although Bismarck convened the Berlin Congress, Lord Beaconsfield was its real author, and he adopted the unusual course of going himself in person as chief representative of England, accompanied by the Marquis of Salisbury as second commissioner. Never before! had a British Premier left the realm on such a mission while Parliament was in session; but this man did not stop at anything which would increase his personal influence and importance, and add to the luster of his administration. He had passed the stage of adventure; his position and status were now fixed. He was a peer of Parliament, an English Earl, and the Premier of a powerful nation. His ambition, therefore, took a wider scope than formerly. His political reputation had been exclusively British. He had now an opportunity of making a name for himself as a diplomatist in the field of European politics. The occasion was one of empire. The issues involved the weightiest questions of sovereignty and administration. 'It was no paltry matter the Berlin Congress had to decide, and Lord Beaconsfield resolved that it should be decided as he had predetermined.

No man in that distinguished assemblage filled the public eye so completely as the Earl of Beaconsfield. The world instinctively felt that he was master of the situation, while Bismarck, the great state artificer of Germany, was playing for time. His first act was characteristic. He declared at the outset that the deliberations should be in English. This point was conceded. Very soon it became apparent that combinations were formed to baffle him, but his subtle intellect had anticipated this, and he tore the diplomatic web into a thousand pieces. Never was surprise so complete, never indignation more intense, than when Lord Salisbury announced that England had made a convention with Turkey by which she obtained Cyprus, together with the protectorate of Asia Minor in certain contingencies. Here was a new and unlooked for complication—one of those things which could not be foreseen, and, therefore, could not be guarded against. The only thing to be done was to get through the business on hand, and obtain as large concessions as this arbiter of the destinies of Europe chose to make. This plan succeeded, and the British plenipotentiaries made greater concessions to Russia, on the Roumanian boundary question, and to Austria, than was consistent with sound policy or judgment. But Beaconsfield and his distinguished colleague could afford to be generous with other people's territory, so it fell out that the seed was planted for another European war, when events are ripe for it.

There were other reasons why Lord Beaconsfield made these concessions and left the Greek boundary question unsettled. He desired to disarm Russia of any hostile feeling by restoring the territory in Bessarabia taken from it by the allies after the Crimean war; and he succeeded in this. He wanted to attach the Austro-Hungarian monarchy to the British imperial policy by giving Francis Joseph the rich provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina; and in this also he was successful. He did not want to weaken Turkey further, by lopping off Epirus and Thessaly in the interest of Greece, which could be of no help to him in furtherance of his policy. So far as the plan which Lord Beaconsfield set before himself is concerned, therefore, nothing could be more completely successful than the Congress of Berlin, and this is the standard by which he, at least, wished it judged. It is not for us to anticipate the future. Suffice it to say, that where failure has occurred, it has been through the default of the Porte to discharge its part of the contract; wherefore England declined to shoulder its own and Turkey's obligations.

During the Berlin Congress, public feeling in [unclear: England] nation had almost gone frantic. It had got into one of its mad fighting moods, and would rather have had war than peace. When the annexation of Cyprus and the protectorate of Asia Minor were announced, there was a burst of exultation, and millions of money were ready at call to build "The Euphrates Valley Railroad." The Suez Canal might be blockaded by hostile flotillas. England wanted a land route to India, and—
"We don't want to fight; but, by jingo, if we do,
We have got the men, we have got the ships,
And we have got the money, too."

It was during this popular frenzy that Lord Beaconsfield and his colleague arrived in England. Never was victorious general or ruler received with greater enthusiasm. Lord Beaconsfield was at that hour the most popular man in England. He had "brought back peace with honor." Congratulatory messages were sent from the remotest British colony, and the British residents of San Francisco presented him with an address and casket, which he regarded as the greatest compliment ever paid him, and made its presentation the occasion for declaring his foreign policy upon which he had declined to speak explicitly in Parliament, because, he said, the British people all over the world who sympathized with him had a right to know what the Government meant to do. Thus San Francisco became identified with Lord Beaconsfield's career at the very pinnacle of his fame.

And here the Earl of Beaconsfield's public life may be said to close. Events were too strong for him. The Zulu and Afghan wars became more serious than he had contemplated. The harvests failed at home, and Ireland was visited by famine. Trade declined and the revenue fell off, while enormous expenditures were being incurred abroad for purposes which the British people, in their sober second thought, did not approve. Everything went against the Government, and agitators and opponents did not scruple to charge the visitations of Providence to their account. Mr. Gladstone threw off all reserve, and boldly took the lead of his party, speaking all over the United Kingdom, and creating a public opinion which swept away the Tory Government. Lord Beaconsfield should have appealed to the country when the Opposition began to press him home; but he delayed until March 24, 1880, and then the country had been wrought to such a pitch that the Liberals went back into power with a majority of one hundred and twenty. The Tories had fallen; their great chief was defeated; and the Queen, after vainly asking Lord Hartington and Earl Granville to form a Government, was forced to send for Mr. Gladstone, the uncompromising opponent of imperialism, and by far the most capable and most conscientious public man in England. He has had to pass under the harrow in the all but hopeless task of repairing the mischief done by "the imperial policy" in home affairs. The famine stage in Ireland has been succeeded by an agrarian revolt, in which the champions of natural and vested rights stand ready to fly at each other's throats, while Gladstone stands in the breach as mediator. American competition is ruining the agricultural classes of England, added to which are foreign complications that may prove serious. Some of these are legacies of Lord Beaconsfield's imperial policy; but they may, and possibly will, overwhelm the Liberal Government.

The Earl of Beaconsfield died just at the crisis when it was possible, by a bold and original stroke on the Irish land question, to have pacified Ireland and returned to power stronger than ever. It is not for us to discuss what might have been. We have simply to do with the has been. For good or for evil, the man Benjamin Disraeli has finished his work. As we have endeavored to show, it has been a conspicuously great work. And it has been a thoroughly consistent work as well. From start to finish it preserved the unities. Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield, lived up to his own ideal. He realized his dream of life. He satisfied his ambition to the full. Such as he was by nature, such he perfected by art. He was a consummate actor, a natural leader, and a man of very brilliant parts. He was not a great man, for he lacked conscientiousness; he was not a noble man, for he lacked sincerity. But he was an original and a successful man, who, born out of his natural element, an alien and a foreigner by race and sentiment, had the genius to mold English thought and sentiment to his will, and to lead captive the most conservative and exclusive social and political elements in European society. With Benjamin Disraeli dies the last and greatest of British statesmen who sought to strengthen Prerogative by weakening the Constitution.

ROBT. J. CREIGHTON.

Local Industries, Local Government, and No-Confidence in the Hall Ministry.

Speech delivered by Mr. Seddon, in the House of Representatives, 28th July, 1881. [Extracted from Hansard.]

Mr. Seddon.—At this very late period of the debate it is very difficult for any honorable member rising to speak not to travel over the same course, and to repeat a good deal of what has been already said; but I shall, as far as is in my power, endeavour to steer clear of the course that has been followed by others. I will say at once...
to the House that the subject-matter under discussion is one of vital importance, and I will say further that we have had too much abuse in this debate. We have had too much legislation, too much government, and too little common sense. Members on both sides of the House have taken part in this debate, and they are each wishing to be successful on this occasion: still, I question very much whether or not one or both sides have been doing their duty to the colony. The affairs of this colony have been neglected. We have our vast resources undeveloped. We have our land frittered away, and the birthright of the people taken from them; we have its varied industries left unencouraged, and we have many unemployed in New Zealand. I say this state of things is a scandal and a disgrace to our legislators. I would further say this: that whilst Mature has endowed us with innumerable blessings—while we have a climate superior to any in the Southern Hemisphere—I question very much if it is not superior to any other on the globe—while we have a population which we should be proud of and should endeavour to retain amongst us, they are gradually but surely leaving our shores. I say it is a standing disgrace to this House, which pretends to represent the people, to have such a state of things existing. Here we have been from day to day and night to night debating and legislating; the people are crying for bread, and yet we give them a stone. Under these circumstances we are proving to the world our own incapacity; we are proving to the colonists of New Zealand that we are not the men who should represent them. I say, let us go to the country; let a change take place, and it is quite possible we shall have men returned here fit to originate plans for the well-being of the people—men who will at all events give satisfaction to the colony, and who will prevent that going on which is going on at the present time. I say we have too much government. What have we in New Zealand? We have something like eight hundred governing bodies in the colony. We have Road Board?, River Boards, Highway Boards, River Conservators, County Councils, Borough Councils, Waste Lands Boards, Boards of Education, Cemetery Boards, Local Committees, Benevolent Societies, School Committees, Charitable Aid Boards—the latest—Reserves Commissioners, Cattle Boards, Boards of Health, and also Rabbit Boards. I have been totting them up out of curiosity to see the number. I find of those authorized by this House the total number is something like six hundred and forty-eight. Giving some twenty local School Committees to each education district, these bring up the total to something like eight hundred governing bodies in the colony of New Zealand. I would ask this question: Are the inhabitants of New Zealand a class of people that require to be thus specially provided for?—do they require so much government? The answer must inevitably be “No.” I have seen, in this colony, between eight thousand and ten thousand men assembled together—the first pioneers. They worked together, and they appointed from among themselves a Vigilance Committee of twelve men. These men abode faithfully by the decisions of the committee. There were no police or governing body whatever, and yet there was no crime, and no expense attendant upon the governing of these eight or ten thousand men. I say it is the same class of people that we have now in the colony; and how can it be said that we require so much of this government? The cry from the country is not so much that our system of local government is defective; the cry is that there is too much government. The desire is not for that centralization which the Colonial Treasurer speaks of. The people do not want to be governed from Wellington or from any of the large centres of population in the colony; they want one governing body in each district of the colony, with certain powers to govern the people of the district. Let us consider all the expense consequent upon having so many local bodies in the colony. A return was ordered on the motion of my honorable friend the member for Auckland City West (Dr. Wallis). From the returns sent in from the Borough Councils alone in the year 1878, the total amount they had administered was over £1,200,000; and the total expense of administering this amount was something like £300,000. Seeing that we have so many local bodies administering our affairs, their revenues must be circumscribed, and a great portion of those revenues is absorbed in administrative expenses. I shall be able to prove this from figures at a subsequent period of my address. One-fifth of the total amount which the taxpayers have to subscribe goes to meet the expense of local government. Any Government or set of men who will endeavour once and for ever to put a stop to such a state of things will have my cordial support. I will, for illustration, take the West Coast, a part of the colony with which I am best acquainted. On the West Coast we have nine local governing bodies: we have Borough Councils, County Councils, Road Boards, besides various local committees. I find that the total revenue for the County Councils was £36,000, and for the boroughs £15,213. The cost of administering these funds by the nine bodies was something like £12,000. These local bodies are pointing out to me that there is a deficiency, and that they cannot carry on. There are works urgently required to be carried out, but there are no funds. The money has been frittered away. We have too much government on the West Coast. There are largo liabilities which they cannot carry on. There are works urgently required to be carried out, but there are no funds. The money has been frittered away. We have too much government on the West Coast. There are large liabilities which these local bodies feel themselves unable to meet. Therefore, under these circumstances, so far as the West Coast is concerned, a change is absolutely necessary, and I trust that a change will take place with the sanction of this House, because I feel satisfied it will meet with the sanction and approval of those whom I have the honor to represent. Now, with regard to the consolidation of existing statutes. I say that the number of ordinances in force is another standing proof that we have not done our duty to the colony during the present Parliament, or during previous Parliaments. Why, there are ordinances in force in various parts of the colony
that are twenty-two or twenty-three years old. This supreme legislative body, those who have had the honor of representing the colonists of New Zealand for a number of years, have not been able to enact for the guidance of the people laws more suited to the wants of the people than those ordinances which were passed twenty-three years ago. I say this may be said to the shame of those who have been in this House for twenty-three years. This is a matter which has not been grasped by those who have had—shall I say?—the trust of the people of the colony committed to them. Circumstances, no doubt, alter cases. These ordinances that are now in force may be suited to the requirements of each separate district. Those that would suit one part of the colony would not suit another. This House has never attempted—since I have been in it, at all events—to grapple with the question. The people have not had an opportunity of saying what laws would be most advantageous to them, what laws should be passed and substituted for those enacted twenty or thirty years ago. The provincial system was swept away in 1875, and the Colonial Treasurer said he would not meddle until he could amend. I say that he has not been able to amend, and the difficulties placed in his way by those who have been representing the people have been so great that he dare not meddle. The Bill we have before us to-night is the first attempt to meddle or amend. Whoever sit on these benches will be for many years more afraid to meddle, because they will not have the assistance of those who should endeavour to amend. What suited the circumstances of the colony twenty years ago is not suitable now, and, under these circumstances, we are failing in our duty if we do not endeavour to effect an improvement in the existing laws. Now, I said that we had had unjust taxation, and I will ask any member of this House whether he considers the property-tax fair and equitable. I condemned it at once when it was brought forward, but we have been told since that it has worked smoothly, and that the people have contributed freely. Sir, my answer to that statement is that, so long as you have your hand at the throat of local industry, so long as you have the penalty imposed upon the people that they must contribute or be branded with infamy, it cannot truthfully be said that they contribute freely. And, while I would rather see them pay quietly and peaceably that which the law directs they shall pay, instead of massing in numbers and resisting the Acts of the Legislature, still it shall never be said, while I have a voice in this House, that they have paid those taxes cheerfully. I say they have not. In the district I represent we have many mining companies that are paying no percentage whatever upon the outlay. We have had expensive machinery placed upon the ground, and it has been taxed under the property-tax until it has become a losing investment; and, if this goes on in the way it has been going on, it means that the machinery must be removed from the district and taken out of the colony, because it must becomes white elephant in the hands of the owners. I say that if the House had listened to reason at the time we fought for the exemptions it would have exempted machinery for mining purposes and all other classes of machinery used in local industries. We should not have taxed property which is paying 2½ per cent, on all the proceeds, which no other class of property in the colony is paying. I say, under these circumstances, that the property-tax is unjust; and I ask again, why is the shipping not taxed? We were told that there was a difficulty in the way of taxing shipping, and that, if we taxed it, it would be taken away and registered elsewhere. Well, Sir, when I see the results that are obtained by certain companies which are paying very large dividends, and that the whole of their trade and capital is confined to New Zealand, it seems to me that it would have been a great saving if the companies had been taxed and the shipping of this colony made to pay its fair quota to the revenue of the colony. Then I come to another point which I consider unjust, but which I pointed out at the time, although then a very young member of this House, and that is that these large companies in London, which have advanced moneys upon land here—and which are still, although money is much cheaper, grinding down those who borrow from them—pay no property-tax whatever. Sir, when we have Mr. Tollemache coming forward and voluntarily paying £2,000 to the revenue for property-tax, which he need not have paid, I say that that very considerably strengthens the protest which I made at the time; and when the Treasurer says that he is going to amend the Property-Tax Act in order to meet such cases, it only shows that he would have acted wisely to have inserted this provision when the Bill passed, and then many like myself would not have had so many reasons to complain. I say that the gentlemen who occupy those benches, and those who support them, have not the interests of the large majority of the people at heart. It is the large landed proprietors, and those whose interests he in the breeding of sheep, who make their all out of those I represent: those are the only interests they protect, and, as I look with suspicion upon their actions in the past, I can hope for naught better in the future. One honorable gentleman, acting in the capacity of Government whip,—the honorable member for Motueka,—raised the question of rating lands that had been improved by the public works policy. Sir, that is a question that the public of this colony will, as one man, take up at the next elections. Outlying districts like those I have the honor to represent, and other districts in less favoured spots, such as that of my honorable friend the member for the Bay of Islands, can have no sympathy with the Government, and I feel sure that very few of the representatives of those outlying districts will be found voting with the Government. It is only members like the honorable member for Motueka, who raised a question upon a very important point, who will be afraid to carry out the principles they profess. I say that those who have been enriched at the public expense must and ultimately will be called upon to contribute their fair share to the
revenue of the country. Now, Sir, I said that we had too much legislation. One hundred and some odd Bills were placed upon the table the first session I came here. The next session we had a repetition of the same thing, and this year we have it again. It seems to me that the Government first wished to carry out certain principles that had been laid before the country by their predecessors. Some of those principles will prove very beneficial, and will give a large extent of power to the electors of the colony at the next election; but what reform has taken place that is likely to put bread into the mouths of the people? Our Statute Book is swelled year by year; but what great social laws have been carried? Has the social condition of the people been improved? I say, No. The greater number of the Bills have been passed for purely local purposes. I would point out to the Government, and it must be apparent to those who think for themselves, that there has been a great mistake somewhere. Fully two-thirds of our time has been wasted. The Government say that much of this waste of time is due to the opposition of certain parties in the House. They say, "There has been so much debate; the session is so far advanced that the convenience of members must be considered; the harvest-time is coming on; and, after consultation with members on both sides of the House, we have come to the conclusion to withdraw many of our measures." Well, they have been withdrawn, but, so far as the people of the colony are concerned, they have neither got their *quid pro quo* for the expense incurred nor have they got justice. An honorable member near me says, "That is all the fault of the Government." I am not prepared to go that length. On the West Coast it is generally understood that I always say what I mean, and I accuse myself and ask the House to share with me the responsibility of that loss of time. Sir, I have said that manufactures have been strangled. Now, I put it fairly to the House, have we dealt fairly with the resources we have at command, and with our local industries? I say we have not. There has been legislation on nearly every other subject, but this one has been almost completely ignored. It is true a Local Industries Commission was appointed, but the Government were in this position, that they had to appoint gentlemen on that Commission who had had no experience whatever in manufactures. They were tied down in selection exclusively to members of their own party. And what was the result? What was the report of the Local Industries Commission? It was oily, silky, and soapy, and touched slightly upon tin-pots, crockery ware, and gunpowder. Wow, look at the result! Look at the Press of the colony, and see the bonuses that are offered for local industries. They are simply farcical. I ask, were there any data laid down which would tend to encourage local industries in all parts of the colony, and particularly in the up-country districts? I say, No. They failed irrevocably to carry out what the Government intended them to do. They never visited the West Coast at all. It has been said in times gone by that we were part of Victoria. I shall show by figures that we have always been an integral part of New Zealand, and have contributed our fair quota to the revenue of the colony, and specially to the Province of Canterbury, and I say that it was an insult to us on the West Coast that they could not find time to visit us, and give us some encouragement to establish local industries in our midst. And, Sir, I will ask the House, and every thinking man in the colony, to face another difficulty that has been overlooked. In looking at our returns I find that the number of children attending our schools under five years of age is 2,788. From five to seven the number is 16,431; from seven to ten, 26,655; from ten to thirteen, 21,714; from thirteen to fifteen, 6,777; and over fifteen, 1,189. There are attending other schools 10,200. We have, therefore, according to the returns laid on the table, a gross total of 85,764 souls that require to be provided for; and I ask, are we making any provision for them? Again I answer, No. We have at our door boys and girls numbering 21,714, whose parents have a right to say to this House, "Where is the trade for my boys? What am I to do with my girls?" Yes, it is to this House that they must come. Let us go ahead a couple of years, and we find 26,665 boys and girls in the same category. Within eight years we have to provide for 85,764 youths of both sexes. We have no land for our boys to till. It is monopolized by large owners, and we have sheep where the boys should be. We have no manufactories we can put our boys into. We cannot teach them a trade, and make them independent as many of us feel; because I have always felt that the trade my father placed within my reach has been my independence—has kept and will keep me from pandering—because I feel within myself that if the worst comes to the worst I have a trade by which I can always make £4 to £5 a week. I say our boys will throw it in our teeth and tell us, "You did not make the same provision for us that your parents made for you." We have some industries in four or five centres of population; but I would like to see industries sent out into the country. I do not like to see New Zealand like Victoria, where, when you have seen Melbourne, you have seen Victoria, and Melbourne is Victoria. We have too much of the centralizing tendency in New Zealand. The Local Industries Commission should have visited the outlying districts, and, after carefully going through them and conversing with those who knew their natural resources, they should offer a bonus—if it is the bonus principle we are to stand by for starting a particular industry in a particular spot, so that it would give encouragement to local capitalists or capitalist from a distance to erect plant and start an industry. If that had been the case, we should have other permanent industries following. We should have manufacturing industries in farming districts. A farmer does not want to make all his boys farmers. We should have local industries so that he might give some of his boys a trade. We have nothing of that kind. I will refer to the West Coast as another illustration. We have there 26,000 inhabitants. What is the result? We find that our
principal imports are candles, soap, boots, and shoes. Now, a gentleman did start an industry there in the shape of a tannery. The property-tax has pressed very harshly and injuriously upon him, and with difficulty he has survived the infliction. We have a large export of tallow, and a large import of candles and soap. Why could not the Local Industries Commission come there and say that they would give a bonus which would be equal to half the capital for starting a candle and soap manufactory, and also for the manufacture of boots and shoes, the leather for which we tan in the district? Had that been the case you would not have that which I see every day. I see miners with large families who could for years to come earn £2 and £3 per week, leaving the district, and saying, as their only reason, "We have a large family. We have no trade here for our boys. "We do not know what to do with our girls. For the sake of them we have to go toserfdom, and work for 30s. a week in the large centres of population in other parts of the colony." That shows a rotten state of affairs. It proves conclusively we are neglecting the interests of those we are sent here to represent. It will be my cry, and I would ask it to be the cry of the Opposition, that we should make some attempt to provide for the children we have in this colony. It is criminal for those who bring them here to neglect to make provision for them. Why should we not provide for them when Nature has given us everything, and when we have such vast resources? Let us abstain from party warfare, and do something as one man for those who are here and cannot get away. Single men can go away, as we saw two hundred or two hundred and fifty of them go away the other day in the "Wakatipu;" but it is those who are left behind that I feel for—fathers who have to term themselves "the unemployed," in a country like this. They cannot go to the gold fields, because they are unacquainted with mining work. If we had them on the West Coast we would soon make independent men of them. There is no work for the unemployed in the large centres; and in the country machinery has taken the place of men so far as agriculture is concerned. We find them begging for bread, and yet they have large families to support. They should have an opportunity to find trades for their children. Now, Sir, I come to the professions. Is there a distinction drawn as far as they are concerned? My answer is, Yes. So far as the large centres are concerned, you have your high schools and colleges. They are endowed with what? With land now becoming valuable—land which belongs to the colony. And they are actually coming to this House and saying, "Give us power to sell." They feel that the people of the colony are grasping the situation. They feel, as I feel, that they will not allow all the money which belongs to the colony to be expended for the sole and exclusive benefit of a particular class or set in a district. As far as my voice goes, I will endeavour to defeat every attempt in that direction. We find; that a select few—Government nominees—control those colleges. There is a certain routine to be gone through, and the mass of the people cannot send their boys and girls to those schools from other parts of the colony because the distances are so great. The boys and girls on the West Coast compete with the rest of the; colony for scholarships and hold their own, but their parents cannot send them away to Christ-church, Dunedin, Wellington, or Auckland. We must look to that. The funds are sometimes voted by this House, and are in a great measure got from the lands of the colony, and we should endeavour to prevent that. Then, again, in many instances, the fees charged in these schools are quite prohibitive; and in other cases a man cannot afford to send his boy to a lawyer's office to sit there for three or five years. The lawyers have full control. We find them on the move now. They presented a petition to-day through the honorable member for Grey Valley (Mr. Weston). That exclusive sect, that conservative body, are on the move trying to check popular opinion, trying to hold to what they have got, and saying, "No one shall come here except those whose parents are well-to-do." I should be neglecting my duty—this House would be neglectful of the trust re- posed in it—if we allowed those persons to preserve their exclusiveness. In other countries who have been the brightest gems of the legal profession? Look at Lincoln, the woodcutter. Did he spring from this conservative sect? No. Yet he was an ornament to the profession, whom the world universally looked up to, and whose memory it respects. That should teach us a lesson in New Zealand, and we should not say that this or any other profession shall be exclusively for those who have wealth. We should say that they shall be open to all who possess merit, integrity, and perseverance, and who are skilled in what is required. If that is done, I feel satisfied we shall have a better class, as honest a class, and a class less exclusive and conservative in the ranks of the profession. I speak with all due sincerity, and I do trust that the House will consider this matter, and, as one man, will support that which I believe to be for the interest and welfare of the colony as a whole. I said we were rich in mineral resources. I find that a very able writer in the Melbourne Age commenting upon the New Zealand exhibits, says that he was astonished, and that the whole Southern Hemisphere must be astonished, to find that New Zealand could make such a display of minerals. We have every mineral required to make a country great. We find that Victoria has one very great want—the want of coal; yet she is progressing so far as industries are concerned. We have here every mineral necessary to make a country great; but what encouragement is given to develop those resources? They are cramped in every shape and form. We had a fine display in the library the other day, and do doubt our Otago friends are quite right in bringing this House face to face with facts—that they have certain minerals in parts of their district. I saw a fine display in the library the other day, and when I asked the question, "What is required to foster and encourage the development of these resources? " I was told railway communication and lower charges where the railways
are already constructed. Now, if we are to export copper, if we are to develop our antimony, these industries
must not be strangled by railway tariffs unsuited to the occasion. Then, if other districts are to be left out in the
cold, and the policy of Sir Julius Vogel is not to be carried out, what is the use of our resources? All our
population will be sheep-farmers and agriculturists, and the resources Nature has given us will be altogether
ignored. I do not blame the Government very much for not paying more attention to this; for I feel satisfied that
they do their best. As at present constituted, they do not know how to encourage and foster the development of
our mineral resources. If we go a little farther, and go to the various departments, we shall find that the
Under-Secretaries, and those who reign supreme in those departments, know less than the honorable members
on the Government benches. I say that our Mines Department is neglected—the mineral resources of the colony
are neglected, and will be so until some Government are in power who will have the courage to say, "We will
place and have amongst us some one who understands what is required for this department, and who will be
better able to deal with matters that are unknown to us." Before going on to the subject of local government, I
will ask the House to believe me that from fifteen years' experience I ought at all events, if I am not too obtuse,
to know something about local self-government. We have had on the West Coast the first county system tried;
since that, the provincial system; and now we are working under the county system. So that, under the
circumstances, what I may have to say I trust will be listened to with attention, and from that experience which
I shall give—though I may differ somewhat from the honorable member for Clive, the honorable member for
Cheviot, and the honorable member for Bruce—still in the scheme I am about to propose, though there are so
many, I trust I may be able to claim a little originality. It is as follows: (1.) There should be only one local body
in each district—the local council—which should have power to administer all matters except police,
education, lunatics, surveys, railways, machinery, prisons, mines, and justice. (2.) The present provincial
districts should be subdivided. Then a Waste Lands Board for each district should be formed, constituted as
follows: The Government to appoint a Chief Commissioner; the Chief Surveyor also to be a member. The other
members to be elected in the following manner: Each present land district to be divided into five ridings. The
ratepayers then to elect the five members. (3.) On and after the 1st January, 1882, that, with the exception of
Borough Councils of boroughs containing ten thousand inhabitants, all existing local bodies, by whatever name
designated, be abolished. (4.) That a Commission be appointed, whose duties shall be as follows: (a) To
determine the boundaries of each local Council; (b) To determine and settle accounts as between those local
bodies whose districts may be subdivided and altered. (5.) That the ratepayers of any district who are
dissatisfied with the decision of the said Commission as to settlement of accounts shall have the right to appeal
to a Judge of the Supreme Court, whose decision shall be final. (6.) That, once the boundaries of each local
district have been defined by the Commission, any separation, amalgamation, or alteration shall be left solely to
the ratepayers interested and resident in the districts wishing such change. (7.) That all Acts of the General
Government and Provincial Ordinances dealing with the question of local government, and now in force in each
district, remain in force until repealed by this House, or replaced by by-laws made by the local Councils; such
by-laws, before having effect, to be signed by His Excellency the Governor, and to be on the table of the House
one session. (8.) That, in addition to the revenues now allocated to local bodies, the Colonial Treasurer shall be
entitled to pay to each local Council, upon a capitation basis, the amounts received by him from the
property-tax and beer duty; further, that in lieu of tolls cattle, sheep, horses, and vehicles be taxed. Now, Sir, the
proposals contained therein I contend should be carried out. They do away with too much government. They
define the powers, and they say there shall be only one local body in each district. We have Road Boards
performing the same functions as County Councils. We have Highway Boards and River Boards doing exactly
work that could be done by the one body. As an illustration of that, I will show you what occurs on the West
Coast. I have seen a gentleman sit at the table of the City Council. I have seen him go two or three doors from
that, and sit as member of a Board of Education. I have seen him go a little further, and sit as a member of the
Waste Lands Board. I have seen him, after that, sit next day as a member of a Road Board for the district. I
have then, Sir, seen him sit as Chairman of a local School Committee. And not he alone, but three or four of his
colleagues; and I would ask a question of the House: Under these circumstances, would not the same men, with
the powers given to them to deal with these subjects, be just as able to sit at one table, and, with the clerk, be
able to deal with the subjects I have enumerated? Most decidedly so. But it is not a question of saying they are
not capable of doing it. The public say they are capable of doing it. The public have to pay a certain amount of
administrative expense, and, under these circumstances, I say, any Government that would come on those
benches and say, "Sweep them away, abolish them, and let there be only one body in each district which shall
perform those functions"—that Government, I say, would do away with the difficulty we have at the present
time. I know that in Canterbury they are very much in favour of Road Boards. In the North Island they are also
in favour of Road Boards; and what is the reason? The boundaries of the counties were fixed by an Act of
Parliament hastily passed. They had no time to consider the wishes of the ratepayers. Each of these districts has
its Road Board within the county, and each Road Board has its Chairman. The various Boards raise certain
revenues in themselves, and, when they raise it, it is spent within themselves. That, Sir, is the true secret of their
wishing to retain Road Boards. In Canterbury—in some parts of it, at all events—we know why they wish to
retain them. They have had a law in operation which, to a great extent, at the time may have been considered
right, but it seems to me at all events to have been a fallacy as far as the rest of the colony is concerned, because
the land has been opened up at the public expense; the railways that have been made have enhanced the value
of that land; that land has been sold, and now from the funds derived from the land sold they have been able
from this day forward and for ever to refrain from taxing themselves. The interest on the money of the Boards
deposited in the banks is sufficient to maintain the roads. I do not wonder, under these circumstances, that they
wish to retain Road Boards, because any change that took place would mean that this money must be circulated
and expended in public works. I say, Sir, it is to their shame that within a few miles of one of these Road
Boards we have a cry to this House to find labour for the unemployed. We see that they, or those who represent
these districts, find fault with the Colonial Treasurer's proposals. I do not wonder at it. It is only by letting these
facts be known to the House that we find where the objection comes from, and the cause of that objection. Sir,
with my proposals we get over the difficulty of the division of this money, which must be divided some day or
other. We allow them to retain their Road Boards as at present; we do not destroy them, and any Ordinance at
the present time suitable we allow them to retain. I do not disturb the existing state of affairs, except saying
there shall be only one local body. Take, for instance, our fencing and impounding. We find that last session an
attempt was made to introduce and pass through a Bill dealing with these subjects. What was the result? I, on
behalf of a Westland constituency, objected to an alteration, because they wanted certain principles conserved
which this House would take from them. We saw the same objection taken in Auckland; and under these
circumstances it was shown that, in questions of this nature, the West Coast of New Zealand was distinct and
different in all its bearings from other parts of the colony. We must be allowed to govern ourselves, and get that
which we know to be for our own salvation. Look at our land, for instance. On the West Coast £2 an acre is the
amount we pay for land. £2 an acre on the West Coast, as compared with what you pay on the Waimate Plains
of Canterbury and Otago, means £102. That is a very large difference; and I may tell you that, while you can
put in your plough in Canterbury and bring out results that will pay, in Westland it means £80 an acre before
you can put your plough into it at all; and after taking off two or three crops it requires artificial manuring. If
you would only give to the people the right of saying, under the Homestead Act clauses, how much land should
be open to them to cultivate, and so enrich the colony, I feel satisfied we should have more settlement on the
West Coast; but where it means £2 in the first instance and £60 or £80 expended either by labour or capital
before you can touch it with the plough, it means no cultivation whatever. And yet we have no right whatever
to deal with this subject. We have there a continuous Waste Lands Board. As one goes out another of the same
family steps in. There is no chance for the people. And I may tell you—and it is worth relating—they are 60
conservative that that Board has actually denied the miners at Kumara a last resting-place. The Borough
Council of Kumara applied for a piece of ground outside the town on a terrace, and covered with tea-tree and
scrub. The Waste Lands Board, as usual, sent out their surveyor, and the ground allotted was in a swamp.
Adjoining this swamp was a nice knoll or terrace. Mining accidents are frequent. These poor men are entitled to
a last resting-place. As Mayor of the town, I said, “The miners have hard work enough in life, and they shall, at
evening, have a dry place to rest in after death,” and I ordered an interment on this knoll. We have buried
some fifty or sixty persons there since, and we have sent four times to the Waste Lands Board, asking them to
ex-change what they gave us for this knoll, but they refused. I know they cannot displace those whom we have
buried there—they cannot bring up the dead for trespass: still, their right to rest there is disputed by this
nominated Board of the Government, who defy public opinion. Everything I have stated is true. The Borough
Council of Kumara have written to the Government on the subject, and they have the papers. Can it, then, be
wondered at that I should protest against having Waste Lands Boards so constituted? They are all honorable
men. There is not one of them whose hand I would not shake; but they are not of the people I represent. They
are not elected by the people. They are exclusive men, and do not represent public opinion. Then we have had
an experiment of the system which the honorable member for Cheviot would introduce. We had one County
Council, which included all the Borough Councils on the West Coast. I may say at once, that experiment was
successful but the first County Chairman—the present Premier—had too much power. He had more power
than a Superintendent. He had power outside his Council and outside the people. That, Sir, was the great defect
in the first experiment of the County Council system upon the West Coast. Besides that, the number of
members was too few, and the consequence was that we had log-rolling there as elsewhere, so that the
experiment was not as successful as it should have been. But I feel satisfied that, if worked by experienced men,
and if the defects I have pointed out were removed, we could with advantage revert to the system we had in
1868; and yet that is almost a fac-simile of the proposal which the honorable member for the Thames (Sir G.
Grey) has laid on the table, and which has been described as so wild and visionary. We have been told so by the
honorable member for Grey Valley (Mr. Weston) amongst others. But, Sir, we have had experience of it on the
West Coast, and we feel that, with the slight defects I have alluded to taken out, and which are cured in the Bill of the honorable member for the Thames; it would work splendidly. Another defect was that the Land Fund was allocated by the County Council to the Road Boards, and the consequence was that we found there, as we always shall find, that the large fish ate up the little ones. The first thing the Council did was to reduce the allowance to the Road Boards to 25 percent.; but even that would not suit them, so they set to work and took it all to themselves, and then they wanted to know why the Road Boards were a failure. It is the same thing from beginning to the end, and I am afraid we shall find the same thing so long as there are two or three local bodies in any district. We must say there shall be only one. Now, I wish to say that frequent changes of government and forms of government are injurious. We know that uncertainty in taxation is injurious: that is laid down by the best authorities. I am of opinion that on the present occasion to have any radical changes would be injurious, and therefore, under the circumstances, I feel that the expression made use of by the Colonial Treasurer, that at the next elections we shall simply be confined to County Councils and Road Boards, will prove a truism. No such change can take place. We shall have to make the best of what we have at present, and I am quite prepared to make the best of it. I say that the Government have been forced without due consideration into their proposals and into the measure now before the House. I can say that as far as I am aware there was no objection made to the present system of local self-government in the part of the country I represent. No doubt the true leader of the Opposition (Sir G. Grey) has seen the defects in our present system, and, seeing them, it was his place to point them out, and to protest against continuing in the way we are going. Then we find among the Government supporters the honorable member for Clive, the honorable member for Cheviot, and two or three others, saying to the Treasurer, "We do not agree with your proposals. We say there is something more wanted." He comes to the House with a policy and asks the House to debate it on its merits, and we find that it is challenged by the honorable member for Clive in such a manner that the Government have for once a backbone, and say they will accept the challenge. I say it is not exactly fair for the Government to be placed in this position, because last session, when the Crown and Native Lands Rating Bill was brought down, there were many members on this side, some of whom have spoken against it this session, who said they would support it. I have myself said it was a step in the right direction, and I for one am prepared to support the Treasurer in endeavouring to pass it into law. The defects pointed out by many speakers are such as can be amended in Committee. I therefore shall support this Rating Bill, and I say it. Ought not to be universally condemned. But, as regards the Roads Construction Bill, I object to it. We are told that a Bill to make amendments in the Counties Act will be laid on the table, but, not knowing what those amendments are, I cannot debate them. If, however, I am to take what has happened in the past as a criterion, I believe that, while the Treasurer knows what is necessary, his colleague, the Premier, does not; for he has, on two or three occasions, objected to very necessary amendments which were brought before the House both last session and in previous sessions. The first alteration proposed was with regard to the boundaries. Under the present county system we cannot alter the boundaries or constitute a new county without coming to this House. An amendment was carried, I believe, by the honorable member for Grey Valley (Mr. Reeves), that a riding in one county could attach itself to another county, but it must be done with the consent of the two County Councils. Now, it is not at all likely that a county having a good riding in it, which is contributing well to its revenue, will let it go; and therefore a riding has really no power to attach itself to a county which it believes will do it justice. Then there is a provision by which two or more ridings can combine and form themselves into a county; but they have to send a petition to this House, and it must be sent here ten days before the House sits, and must be on the table for a certain time. I presume, therefore, that the consent of the House is required to the prayer of the petition, and that any honorable gentleman can oppose it in the interests of his own particular riding if the majority of the electors there should be opposed to separation. We have had two cases of objections being made, and the separation has not been allowed to take place—unwarrantably, as I think, and without due consideration of the wishes of a vast majority of the electors. There was, no doubt, a technical legal objection, but I urge that we ought to bow to the wishes of a majority of the ratepayers in these districts and give effect to them. It was the Government and their supporters who were the principal objectors to these amendments. Then, I think power should be given to County Councils to levy a tax on sheep, and cattle, and vehicles without being obliged to have recourse to the toll-gate system, which involves an expense of 50 per cent, of the total collected. In the Old Country power is given to impose a tax on sheep and cattle and vehicles, and it is as easily imposed as on other property. Those who have the most cattle and sheep pay the most rates, and I say a very substantial local revenue could be derived if power were given to the local bodies to impose this tax. I should also propose that the same power be given to counties as is given to boroughs: that is to say, they should have a right to charge so much upon those from other districts who pass along their roads. In the boroughs certain fees are imposed, and I cannot see why the same right should not be given to counties. An amendment proposed in that direction was opposed, and especially by the Premier, and was thrown out. Another amendment proposed was that the Chairman should be elected by the people. I say, if it is necessary that the Chairman of a Borough
Council should be elected by the ratepayers, I fail to see why the same kind of election should not apply to the County Councils, and with still greater reason. There, parties are generally formed by the action of the Council in electing its Chairman. The particular party who elect the Chairman spend the money in their own districts, and the others are ignored. If the County Chairman were elected by the whole county, this party government, of which we have too much even in this House, would be done away with in the local bodies, because the Chairman would be kept independent of the Council, and it would be his duty to see that justice was done to all parties. I say, therefore, that amendments in the direction I have indicated will, I am sure, be conducive to the interests of the colony. In conclusion, I may say I disagree altogether with the selfishness that has been displayed during this debate. Honorable members who come from districts well provided with railways, such as the honorable member for Cheviot, the honorable member for Waitemata, and others on that side of the House, say that we must stop borrowing. They say that so far as the colony is concerned we are deep enough in the mire. Now, I for one say that is utter selfishness. I say that we have no right to stop until we have carried out the true policy of those who initiated our public works scheme. I am here to say that that policy was not a vicious one, and has not so proved itself; and I say it is impossible, under existing circumstances, to stop its progress. We shall be doing a great injustice if we take such a step, and, although the people in those districts which have not been favoured with public works may be in a minority, still they will ultimately be a majority, because the districts which have had the benefit of public works, seeing that those who have been enriched by the construction of those works are not paying their fair share of taxation, will combine with those who require public works, and will make such a party in this House that no Government will remain on those benches that will not carry out this policy to the end. Amongst those who displayed a slight amount of selfishness is the honorable member for Motueka. That honorable gentleman was rather sarcastic because my constituents on my return to them honored me with a banquet. The honorable member informed us the first session he sat here that he had so educated his constituents that they regarded it as a compliment that he should come here to represent them. I think they have shown this session that they have become highly educated—or, from the honorable gentleman's point of view, debased—because the honorable gentleman admits that they have ordered him to demand public works, which proves conclusively that they are beginning to get tired of that honorable gentleman and his policy, that they are no longer under a compliment to him, but that he must obey their wishes and endeavour to obtain for them a fair share of the public expenditure. Then, Sir, that honorable gentleman said he had been on the gold fields, and that the miners were in favour of the retention of the existing gold duty, and of the charge for miners' rights remaining as at present. He has been so long away from an enlightened people, and so long in Motueka, that I make every excuse for the honorable gentleman, and attribute this assertion to his want of knowledge on the subject. The statement that the miners wish to retain this taxation is an insult to that portion of the community, and displays such ignorance that I am astonished at any honorable member making the assertion. The honorable gentleman also went to the extent of saying the yield of gold was falling off. Now, after carefully going through the report which has been laid on the table of the House, I find that, as compared with the returns of 1879 and 1880, there is an increase of something like 30,000 ounces. There is another assertion which the honorable gentleman has made without having the slightest foundation for it. He further said that our forests were an incumbrance to us. That observation also requires to be qualified. Our forests only require to be opened up by the expenditure of some portion of the public money, to become a vast mine of wealth to New Zealand. If they were so developed, would the honorable gentleman dare, on the floor of this House, to say that our forests are detrimental to us? The forests of Westland will supply New Zealand with timber when the forests in other parts of the country, which have been grossly abused, are dead and gone. Then the honorable member for Motueka talked about gods, and he held up to us as paragons of excellence various members of this House, but said that in each case he had been deceived. I can now account for the honorable gentleman simply holding the position of junior whip. Seeing he has been in the House so long, his discernment and judgment have been very much at fault, and, unless great improvement in this respect takes place, he will always remain a whip, because he will never be fit to occupy any higher position. It is by judging of men, and endeavouring to discern between right and wrong, that each one of us tries to raise himself above his fellows. If the honorable gentleman has been mistaken in the past, I hope, at any rate, that for the future he will use better discernment, and not be too confiding. I also trust that, in debates of such importance as the present, he will not use abuse broad-cast, instead of logic, because the effect of such conduct is simply to throw a veil over the question at issue, so far as the public are concerned, and to prevent its being ventilated and discussed on its merits. Sir, that honorable gentleman, as far as I am concerned, is welcome to go back to the bumpkins of Motueka and live 011 his mutton and turnips. Other honorable members have also failed in the respect I have just pointed out, and have had too much to say as to the conduct of their fellows in this House. There has not been sufficient charity displayed. I am sorry to find amongst these offenders a recently-elected member—the honorable member for Grey Valley (Mr. Weston). When I say I feel sorry, I say what I mean. I have known that honorable gentleman for a very long time; I feel sure that he will make a very worthy member
of this House; but I do say that in the stand he has taken, and the language he has used to members older than himself, and without due thought, he has acted wrongly. We find him first of all abusing the Government. He said their scheme was utterly unacceptable, and not for the good of the colony. Now, Sir, that is strong language to use. It means that the honorable gentlemen who sit on the Government benches are actually dishonest. The honorable member for Grey Valley, in saying that, used language which he had no right to use. I do not think that the proposals of the Government were ever intended to be detrimental to the colony, or that they were brought in from dishonest or corrupt motives.

Mr. Weston.—I do not like to disturb the House, and I like to disturb the honorable member still less, but at the same time it is due to myself to say that I never charged the Government with corrupt and dishonest motives. I have not the slightest intention to do so, however much I may disapprove of their policy.

Mr. Seddon.—It is always understood that when an honorable gentleman makes a disclaimer it should be at once accepted, but I have verbatim notes of the words which the honorable gentleman used. Speaking of the Government scheme he said, "It is a scheme utterly unacceptable; certainly not for the good of the colony." Now, Sir, those were the words used, and I say that in the abstract, when fairly and logically argued out, they can only mean that in bringing forward such a scheme the Government have been absolutely dishonest, because the scheme is not for the good of the country. Now, Sir, he went further than that. He said that he for one would protest against the trust funds being apportioned to defray the cost of the public works under the Roads Construction Bill. He said he was afraid those funds would be used until those who were entitled to them would not receive their money back. Why, what does that mean? It means accusing the Colonial Treasurer of propounding a scheme under which he would take from the public funds of the colony, from the widow and orphan, and give the money to this Board appointed under the Roads Construction Bill, and not be able to repay the money so used. There is no other meaning to be attached to the honorable gentleman's statement, and under these circumstances I say that, though he may, as he said he would, vote for the Government on the amendment, but against their Bills, still, considering the view he holds of their conduct, I do not think they will thank him for his vote at all. At all events, if they do thank him for his vote they will be very hard pressed. The same honorable gentleman, in rather bad taste, took upon himself to defend the Judges. Now, as far as I am concerned—I was never before any of them—I believe we have on the Bench in New Zealand gentlemen who reflect credit on the colony. I am also sure in my own mind that the honorable member for the Thames (Sir G. Grey, in what he said on this subject, meant to cast no reflection whatever on the Bench, but was simply doing a duty which devolved upon him as a representative of the people; and I find he took up the very same position as the present Minister of Lands took up in 1875. That gentleman then called the attention of the House to certain matters that had transpired between the Government and the Bench. What was the action taken on that occasion? What was the statement made by the honorable member? That he brought the matter up before the House to have it ventilated. The then Minister of Justice (Mr. Bowen) replied that the Ministry had taken upon themselves to make certain changes. This occurred about the time of the Ward and Chapman inquiry. But now, when the honorable member for the Thames mentions the Judges in this House, the honorable member for Grey Valley finds fault with him. Sir, it is the height of absurdity. In 1852 the Judges of this colony were retained during good behaviour. In 1862 they were capable of being removed by an Address from both Chambers. No doubt my honorable friend the member for Grey Valley (Mr. Weston) would like to be appointed for life, and would have been better satisfied if the District Judges had been so appointed also. At all events, I say that any member of this House has a right, if any utterances are made which he considers derogatory to the Bench, to call attention to the matter here. On that occasion I may say I felt somewhat sorry. I felt somewhat hurt to find that the honorable gentleman, holding the position he does—a gentleman who has, and I say it without fear of contradiction, a larger following in New Zealand than any other man in the colony—I felt sorry that he should not have passed over the taunts with silent contempt. My feelings at the time would be better described by the exhibition of a canine picture by Landseer with which honorable members may be acquainted. After these statements on behalf of the Judges, what would the House say if the following language had been uttered by one of the Supreme Court Judges?—

"The country will yet realize the folly of degrading and pauperizing the Judicial Bench. By-and-by our Courts will be presided over by men possessing neither honor, experience, nor ability; and so it will come to pass that crime will go unpunished, the innocent will suffer, and property be no longer safe to its possessors. Of all the institutions of the country the Bench should be the most carefully protected. Its occupiers should be placed beyond temptation, and beyond the influence and caprice of members of Parliament annually exercisable."

Sir, the honorable gentleman who uttered these words was at the time a District Judge, and receiving a salary of £750 per annum. Those utterances are now challenged. They show the view the honorable gentleman took of those who were invested with the power of governing the country. I say, under the circumstances, the attack of the honorable member for Grey Valley (Mr. Weston) was unjustifiable; it was simply contemptible,
and I regret very much that the honorable member for the Thames (Sir G. Grey) should have taken any notice whatever of the honorable member's remarks. Just fancy! A sum of £75 was taken away from the salary of this District Judge, and that reduction was to cause such disaster—to cause crime to go unpunished, the innocent to suffer, property to be confiscated, dishonest men to sit on the bench, and corruption generally. Such remarks brought the Bench into contempt, and were the emanations of a puerile mind, and highly improper under the circumstances. It is right and just that this House should have the power of saying by address who shall go and who shall not—who shall be dispensed with and who shall not. So far as I am concerned, the Government have my support in the action they took on that occasion. Such a statement as I have read was reprehensible, and ought not to have been made; and the person who made such a statement has no right now to cast reflections upon the honorable member for the Thames. I shall not go any further into this matter. I will now refer to the treatment which the gold-fields districts have received from the present Government. I am sure the Minister of Mines will himself admit that he has not done the gold fields justice. I am sure I pressed upon him four or five times during the recess the advisability of visiting the West Coast Gold Fields. He apologized for not going, owing to the resignation of the Native Minister. Native affairs were to paramount importance, and the mining industry of the colony was only of secondary consideration. The interests of 15,000 men were not to be considered. These men contributed last year to the exports of the colony no less a sum than £1,165,521. The duty on the export of this gold was £30,321. These men were to be ignored altogether, although they contribute a large amount of revenue which is not paid by any other class of the community. I will give the following figures as the value of the export of gold and wool: The value of wool exported amounted to £3,169,280: a duty of 4d. per pound would amount to £143,458. The value of gold exports was £1,165,521, the duty paid upon it being £30,321. The average earning of the miners is £82 7s. 6d. per annum; they contribute £3 per head per annum in the shape of special taxes, making a gross total of £49,000 per annum; besides which they have constructed 5,000 miles of water-races, valued at £800,000. The gold export from the West Coast alone last year amounted to £501,029 in value. As regards the collateral advantages derived by the colony from the export of these products, they are in favour of the gold fields. The gold fields members are not in a majority in this House, and we have not the sympathy of the present Government. Then, again, the district I represent on the West Coast has received but very little public money in the shape of public works. Have any steps been taken towards the progress of the Hokitika Railway? There are many bridges, the erection of which cost the colony a large amount of money, and they are allowed to rot. A coat of tar would save them, but there is no money even for that. This is one of the reasons why I say that the Government have been doing us a great injustice. Then, again, I ask the Government, were they justified in their representations as to the financial condition of this colony? Although I am specially a gold-fields member, yet I take a great interest in the subject of finance. I take as much interest in the credit of the colony as any other member, or as any man in the colony. I am an Englishman; we go to the English market and borrow money; we are an integral part of the Empire; I am proud of being an Englishman; I am proud of the credit of this colony, and I do not like to see it dragged down in the way it was dragged down by the present Government. Their course of action, in my opinion, was unwarrantable, and I do not think the exigencies of the case demanded it. No doubt we were in a bad position: I have admitted that all through. The same principles that apply to the Government apply to a commercial firm; and I ask, would any one in charge of a commercial firm have adopted the same tactics with regard to its financial state or credit as were adopted by the Government in reference to the credit of the colony? There is another charge I have against the Government, and I trust the honorable member for Timaru will not think I am interfering with his constituents or their wants. The Government were asked to afford employment to men who were out of employment. When the Government called for tenders for a certain public work, they imposed such prohibitive stipulations as to the amount of securities and one thing and another, that none but capitalists could undertake the work. The capitalists go to the men and say, "You must work ten hours a day, and we shall only give you sufficient pay to find bread for yourselves and your families." Those capitalists attempted to break down the system that existed in the colony as to the daily hours of labour. If the Government are to identify themselves with the interests of the colony,—if they wish to make themselves popular with the mass of the people,—if they wish to do justice, they must go a different way to work. They must not leave these matters in the hands of their engineers; they must look after them themselves. They must not call for tenders and make such stipulations as to entirely place it beyond the power of any men but capitalists to undertake the work. It is unjust to the people of the colony that they should be placed in that position. Another grievance I have against the Government—and it is the last I shall refer to—is this: They are about to deprive the people of the West Coast of one of their members. The scheme they have proposed is that the representation of the colony should be based on population. Now, this House has laid it down that every man shall have certain qualifications. The two qualifications are a residential qualification and a property qualification. My honorable friend the member for Auckland City West (Dr. Wallis) will not rest until the ladies have a voice in the election of members to this House. At present the ladies and children are shut out, and yet men, women, and children are to be the basis of
representation. I say that is unfair. I say let us have our representation fixed on the basis of the male population—persons over twenty-one years of age. If that is the basis, I do not fear the scheme of the present Government. We are entitled to the same number of members on the West Coast as we have at present. If the scheme which the Government intend to propose be carried a number of the electors will be virtually disfranchised: it will simply mean throwing the power into the hands of the large centres of population. The proposal will have a centralizing tendency, and such districts as I have the honor to represent will be dealt with unjustly in the future, as they have been in the past. I should feel very much the loss of the assistance of my esteemed friend the honorable member for Totara. He has been of very great assistance to me and my district, and we require his assistance still further. I have no doubt he will be returned for some other electorate on the West Coast, and some one else will have to take a backseat. I shall not be one of these. I am not shivering and shaking, or afraid to go back to my constituents. The honorable member for Motueka said honorable members were shivering with fear to go back to their constituents. I shall go back to say constituents with a clear conscience, as I hope that that honorable gentleman will go back to his constituents. While I admit there are some merits in the Government proposals, great credit is due to the honorable member for Olive for being the means of bringing the important question before us to an issue. The conclusion arrived at will, no doubt, be in favour of the Government, but the result will prove to the Government that they have not sufficient support to carry any policy, and that the sooner they go to the country the better it will be for themselves and the better it will be for the country. I shall give my vote with the intention of sending this House to the country as soon as possible. I am not afraid that we shall have two Houses or two parties. I know too much of those who are sent here to represent the people to believe such a thing; and no doubt that verdant greenness will wear off from the honorable member for Grey Valley (Mr. Weston) in the course of time. He said he wished to save the cost of a fresh election; but I may say this: that, if we had an election to-morrow, the last thing the new members would think about would be a new Representation Act. They would have exactly the same feeling the honorable gentleman has. They will say, "After I have gone to the expense of an election why should I force myself into another expensive contest? I have been sent here to represent the people, and I will stay here! as long as my term lasts." It will be just the same with the new Parliament, and therefore in giving my vote I am not at all afraid of plunging the colony into the expense of a second election.

Christianity Modern "Science" and Evolution A Lecture
Delivered in St. Patrick's Hall, Christchurch, N.Z.
By W. M. Maskell, F.R.M.S.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN,—

When some few weeks ago, it happened that I was exhibiting and explaining to the Catholic Young Men's Society of this town a few matters connected with the microscope and microscopical study, it naturally came within the plan of my subject to refer to the modern theory of Evolution and the origin of man. Some of those present remarked to me how difficult they found it to come to a decision, not precisely upon the details of Evolution itself, but upon the broader question whether such a theory could be true or not. And when, in reply, I observed that, for myself, I had been led by my own reading, observation, and reasoning to the clear conclusion that the theory of Evolution is false, they requested me to take an opportunity if possible to put before them in a concrete shape some of the arguments upon which my conviction was based. It is for this purpose that I appear before you to-night. Since the time of which I speak the Catholic Young Men's Society has been dissolved, or rather merged in that larger society, the Catholic Literary Society, to which I am addressing these remarks; and before proceeding to the actual subject before me, permit me to express my earnest and confident hope that the work in which you have lately been engaged, the formation of the new association, may speedily produce its proper fruit, and that your society, flourishing like the green bay tree, may so grow and prosper as to furnish to the Catholics of Canterbury for many years to come healthy entertainment, true instruction, and a bond of perfect union.

In considering, however, how best to put before you the conclusions to which my acquaintance with the theory of Evolution has led me, I have found it necessary to go somewhat beyond that particular question. As you will find from the remarks which I am about to make, it is my belief that, in order to get at a satisfactory conclusion, it is necessary to begin at the beginning. Evolution is but one of the off-shoots of modern science; or rather it is but one of the consequences (in the abstract) to which the principles of modern science have led its votaries. And therefore, if I were to plunge at once into the theory of Evolution, and leave untouched the principles upon which, in its essence, it rests, I should be omitting the most necessary part of the whole business. Evolution, specious and plausible as most infidel doctrines are, may very easily (as indeed experience
shows) deceive anybody who forgets to settle firmly the first principles upon which he is going to discuss it. And I propose, before touching upon Evolution itself, to examine what is the essence of that upon which the whole basis of Evolution rests.

I propose, then, to discuss in this lecture the question whether it is possible for anybody to believe the teaching of modern "science" and yet to retain his faith in Christianity. Doubtless there may be amongst those who are listening to me representatives of the different shades of opinion on this question. Some may think me presumptuous in daring to express my views in opposition to men whom they may consider shining lights of science, great and wise leaders of thought. To them I will only say that any man has a right to hold and to express an opinion; and that a good intention precludes presumption. Others again may think that there is no doubt at all on the matter; they may have made up their minds and consider everything satisfactorily settled. To them I will merely say that, whereas the long and lively controversy between those who consider Evolution and Christianity contradictory and those who would combine the two is still continuing, there is very evidently a large party amongst men who are yet undecided. And lastly, there may be many who do not think the question of grave importance and who may find fault with me for holding the opposite view. In answer to this I will only say that, as a matter of fact, the modern principles of science are accepted and revered in all the public educational institutions in New Zealand: that, from the highest to the lowest, from the Canterbury College and the Otago University down to the smallest village school, whatever instruction is given in science is based upon those principles and on text books drawn up from them: that Evolution is believed and publicly taught by the most eminent professors in the colony: that schoolmasters by dozens receive instruction from these professors: and that thus the whole educational force of the country is employed to instil into the minds of the children the modern theories and modern principles. Now, if these principles and the theories which men have deduced from them are in themselves, in their essence, false and anti-Christian, is it an unimportant matter that they should be so universally taught? I make no doubt that men of extreme views, followers of ultra-Secularist doctrines, indifferent if not absolutely hostile to religious teaching, will contend that, even so, no harm whatever is being done to the children in the schools. But I feel assured that no Catholic will so argue: and that all Catholics at least will agree with me as to the importance of the question which I am about to discuss.

It is with the view of putting the matter in as clear a light as possible, and of pointing out as far as my ability enables me the dangers with which modern science surrounds us, that I venture to appear before you to-night. You will understand that in the time at my disposal it will be impossible for me to enter into minute details. But I shall try to put before you my views in the most strictly logical way; and if, in this necessarily compressed argument, I may be obliged to put some points in what may seem to you to be too bald and abrupt a form, I trust that at least you may find therein food for after consideration, and sufficient indications of the mode of filling in the details wanted to complete the reasoning. If, on the other hand, you may be led to think my plan dry and uninteresting, I can only once more point to the extreme importance of the subject and beg of you to impute the shortcomings only to my want of ability to treat it in a more entertaining manner.

The fallacy, then, to which I want to direct your attention to-night is this—that it is possible to combine belief in the Christian Religion with belief in the theories of modern science, and I shall take as an illustration of those theories the Darwinian doctrine of Evolution. Before we proceed to investigate this question in its details it is necessary that we should lay down certain axioms, or first principles. As Cardinal Newman in one of his lectures points out, unless two disputants agree upon their first principles they can never hope to reach any satisfactory conclusion. Supposing, for example, that I were to ask you to discuss with me the comparative merits of gas and electric lighting: and that I were to find after some time that you denied the existence of an electric current. Clearly we should not ever be able to settle our dispute: we should have forgotten to agree on our first principle. Therefore assume as axioms the following propositions:—

- There is a God, omnipotent, omnipresent, eternal and, if He so wills it, interfering with the course of temporal events.
- The Christian Religion is true, and all theories, doctrines, arguments which are found to conflict with it are false.

You will see from the two simple axioms which I have given that it is no part of my plan to argue at all with anybody who is not a Christian. My object is by no means to prove to an ultra-Darwinian that he is wrong: nor am I arguing now with an infidel. If such were my purpose, it would be manifestly absurd for me to assume anything at all: I should have first of all to prove my two propositions. But I am speaking to persons who have a hankering after the combination of Christianity and modern science. If a man says to me—" I do not believe in a God," or "I am not sure whether Christianity is so true that everything else is false," or " I daresay Evolution does conflict with Christianity," then I have nothing more to say to him. We are on different lines and we can never reach the same terminus. It is not the Deist, or the Infidel, or the Mohammedan, or the Pagan, to whom I address myself, but the Christian who, dazed by the glare of
modern "science," wavers, doubting whether he may not adopt the new doctrine without giving up his faith. Therefore I say, let us set down as our first principles, agreed to by all of us, the two propositions which I have just stated: propositions which, I think, no Christian will dispute, but which ought to be clearly defined before we can go further.

Now, you must remember this very particularly, that any argument whatsoever which is found to lead to a false conclusion must be absolutely false. I can fancy somebody here simpering and saying with a smile of contempt—"Why, he is giving us only truisms: of course a false conclusion means a false argument: anybody can tell that." Pardon me, Mr. Critic, anybody cannot tell it. There is nothing more common than to find people arguing thoroughly to their own satisfaction, pluming themselves upon their scientific method and accuracy, and forgetting, in their eagerness to follow out every detail of their premisses, to look at the conclusion of their argument. When I say "conclusion" of course I mean here ultimate conclusion, because it often happens that men take for a conclusion what really is only a step towards one. Moreover it is by no means an uncommon thing to find the premisses of an argument apparently quite clear, definite and satisfactory, and yet to find the conclusion which logically conies from them absolutely false. Permit me to give you an illustration of this. A gentleman who is engaged in the business of scientific teaching in this town of Christchurch set himself some two or three years ago to work to establish a new theory of the origin of the Universe, the origin of the sun, earth, planets, stars, comets, and all bodies whatsoever. In this ambitious design he was not hampered by any feeling that simple creation might sufficiently account for everything, but he went on with great satisfaction to himself to elaborate a theory by which the whole material Universe was made the result of the collision of two pre-existing bodies, each of which I suppose must have been formed by previous collisions, and so on. I shall not stop now to discuss the details of this peculiar theory, but shall only say that, whatever might be the merits of the preliminary arguments or premisses, they led him to this conclusion:—that his theory "removed farther and farther from our conceptions all trace of a beginning or promise of an end." This conclusion, which I have given in his own words and which may perhaps not be at first sight perfectly definite, means when translated into plain, straightforward English, that there never was any creation and there never will be any annihilation of matter: in plain terms, according to this professor, heaven and earth will not pass away. Now here is an excellent example of that false argumentation of which I have been speaking to you. The conclusion drawn from the premisses, looked at from the Christian point of view, is absolutely false: the merits of the premisses, whatever those merits might have seemed to be, were simply fallacious. What I mean is that, the moment the conclusion just quoted presented itself to his mind, it should have been quite clear to him that there was something in his whole argument radically wrong. But the professor, one of our modern scientific teachers, did not stop to consider this. "So much the worse for Christianity" was, in point of fact, the meaning of his persistence in pursuing his theory after being aware of the conclusion to which it led him. You see therefore with me that what I stated just now, if really a truism, is one which is by no means always remembered: and you see that we must fully bear in mind that, whatever the premisses may be, the ultimate conclusion is that which must prove the truth or falseness of an argument.

I should remark, before proceeding to examine more closely the modern teaching, that in everything that I say it is very far from my purpose to make a personal attack upon the conscience of anybody. In asserting that the doctrines taught by modern scientists are anti-Christian I do not by any means wish to charge these gentlemen with knowingly teaching infidelity in all cases. You will see presently, when I come to quote to you the words and phrases of some of the leaders of modern thought, that many of them do, wilfully, intentionally, and with full knowledge of what they are doing, directly attack Christianity and preach infidelity and materialism. But I do really believe, myself, that the vast majority of the scientists of the present day do not understand the meaning of their own arguments. In the same way as the Professor to whom I have just referred has not calculated the effect of his conclusion, but has concentrated all his attention upon his premisses, so likewise scientists generally are dazzled by the apparent splendour thrown round their path by the natural phenomena which they observe, and they neglect or are unable to look forward to the ultimate end to which they are really travelling. And so, in actual fact, although they may disguise it even to themselves, they try to reconcile two irreconcilables. Some of them you will find attending their various churches: others, if they do not go themselves, send their wives and children. It may seem to you perhaps a hard saying, but in truth these men must be one of two things, wilfully or unintentionally blind. I would not call them hypocrites, charging them that is with supporting for the sake of outward respectability a religion which they believe in their hearts to be false. I prefer to consider them as unable or neglecting to appreciate the true conclusion of their own doctrines. At the same time I confess that for my own part I cannot conceive how any believer in Evolution, who pretends to have thoroughly studied his theory, can sit through a service in church without laughing in the clergyman's face.

Now, let us first contrast, in their essential simplicity, the modern "scientific" teaching and the Christian Religion: and even without the examples, illustrations and quotations which I propose to give you presently, I
think you will be able to see that the two are directly at variance.

1. The essence of modern "scientific" teaching is this:—that all natural phenomena, all occurrences taking place in the material universe, are capable of some rational interpretation or explanation from purely natural causes, and conversely that no phenomenon, no occurrence, is to be accepted as a fact which cannot be so explained.

2. The essence of the Christian Religion is this:—that after the advent of the first man upon the earth that man committed an offence against God: that in order to redeem all men on earth from the consequences of such offence, God Himself became man, was born in a supernatural manner, performed during His lifetime on earth many supernatural acts, rose supernaturally from the grave after death and ascended supernaturally into heaven.

I think that even were I to stop here and leave the foregoing statement in its simplicity, it would be apparent to you that no two things could be more opposite and contradictory than a theory which absolutely excludes all supernatural occurrences whatsoever and a religion which absolutely rests on, and derives its whole being from, supernatural occurrences. But, as the modern' theory does appeal in very specious ways to human intellects, and as few people look to ultimate conclusions, whilst many are captivated and many more puzzled by the statements and reasoning used in support of that theory, it is necessary that we should look more closely into the details of which it is composed. There is, I think, no need to enquire concerning the second statement which I have made, as to the essential points of the Christian Religion; they are well known to all of you and will be disputed, I should say, by none. At least, if there be any one who is ignorant of them, or knowingly disputes them, this my argument is not addressed to him. I pass on to examine in detail the first statement, as to the essence of the modern teaching.

Is there anybody who believes that if, during a discussion amongst scientists of the present day, he were to attempt to draw an argument from miracle he would be listened to for a moment? Is there the remotest chance that zoologists, botanists, astronomers, in this year of grace 1881, would pay the least attention to any such reasoning? Not the very smallest, I should say. First, there would probably pass round the room looks of astonishment, then shrugs of contempt, then movements of impatience and inattention; and if any of the scientists present did by chance in reply allude to the strange argument brought forward, it would only be to call it "most unphilosophical," "unworthy of serious attention," "quite beside the mark," and so on. In one of his most amusing stories, a Christmas tale called "The Rose and the Ring" (a story well worth reading by all who love healthy fun), Thackeray introduces two characters, the young prince, his hero, and the wicked usurper, the villain of the piece, engaged in mortal combat. The young prince has received a present of a fairy sword and fairy armour: the one able to pierce anything, the other able to resist anything. Consequently the villainous usurper comes very speedily to grief, and in his rage and despair not unnaturally remarks—"Well, if you have got a fairy sword and fairy armour and I haven't, I don't see what is the use of my fighting with you," and he accordingly, with great wisdom, surrenders. So also in the case which I have supposed. What can a scientist, assailed by the argument from miracle, do but protest against the use of a weapon which he must know himself powerless to resist? And yet is that any reason why the possessor of such a weapon should not use it? Suppose the young prince just mentioned had said to his opponent—"Well, I acknowledge my superiority as long as I have this sword and armour: perhaps without them you will be far stronger than I; therefore I consent to throw them away and fight with you as best I can without them!" Would he not have been a fool? And so also would a Christian be, to give up the very strength of his cause in order that his adversary may have full advantage of him. Yet this is what is done every day, in modern "scientific" argument, as I said just now. Remark, if you please, that I am not at all referring to those who, thoroughly infidel, reject all miracle. But let anybody try to refer to "miracle" in an assemblage of those scientists who, as I said just now, pretend still to remain Christians, and see what reception he is likely to receive from them.

Unphilosophical! Why so? Why, if we believe that miracles have taken place, is it "unphilosophical" to mention them? Why, if a would-be Christian scientist refuses to accept the first chapter of Genesis, or the account of the Flood, or the sun and moon standing still at the command of Josue, should it he called "unphilosophical" to say to him—"You believe in the Incarnation and the Resurrection: yet these two occurrences which you accept as facts are immeasurably more difficult of conception than the occurrences which you reject?" I want you to understand the curious inconsistency to which such a man necessarily reduces himself, and to see how, if you desire to remain Christians, you must retain the use of Christian arguments, how also, if you join yourself to the modern teaching, you must be prepared to give up the very essence of the Christian Faith. As a matter of fact nobody, as far as my intelligence shows me, can reject the statements of the Book of Genesis or the Book of Exodus and accept the statements of the Gospel of St. Matthew.

But, in order that you may judge for yourselves how far what I have laid down as the essence of modern "scientific" teaching is true, and how weak has been the conduct and short-sighted the policy of those who try to reconcile it with their faith in Christianity, let me give you in their own words, the views of some of the leaders of the new teaching. They, indeed, very often speak out and avow their hatred of Christianity, and it has
always been a wonder to me how so many people have overlooked this, speak of them as "great intellects," and consent to take them as guides of opinion. To us an anti-Christian teacher is simply, in that respect, a fool: and when men like Mill, Spencer, Huxley, Clifford, Lewes, Tyndall and the rest of them, try to thrust their pretended axioms and deductions upon us we compare them with the ultimate tendencies of their system as a whole and judge them accordingly.

And now I will give you a few specimens from the writings of some modern scientists in order to establish fully my position so far; they will confirm my statement just now that modern science is founded solely on the physical explanation of physical phenomena, and refuses credence in anything higher.

Herbert Spencer says—" Science is simply a development of higher knowledge . . . a continuous disclosure . . . of the established order of the Universe. This disclosure it is the duty of every one to verify as far as in him lies; and, having verified, to receive with all humility."

First Principles, pages 18-20.
"Such dogmas as those of the Trinitarian . . . any such idea as that of propitiation . . . science cannot recognise . . . they he beyond its sphere."
First Principles, p. 23.

Professor Jevons says—" From the preceding reviews of the value of our scientific knowledge I draw one distinct conclusion that we cannot disprove the possibility of Divine interference in the course of nature." Principles of Science, vol. 2. p. 468. The italics are mine.

Professor Huxley says—" The improver of natural knowledge absolutely refuses to acknowledge authority, as such. For him, scepticism is the highest of duties; blind faith the one unpardonable sin. . . . The most ardent votary of science holds his firmest convictions, not because the men he most venerates hold them; not because their verity is testified by portents and wonders; but because . . . Nature will confirm them. The man of science has learned to believe in justification, not by faith but by verification."

"Tell him [a child] that it is his duty to doubt until he is compelled, by the absolute authority of Nature, to believe that which is written in books."
"Scientific Education," in same work, p. 60.

Professor W. U. Williamson says—" Science demands as a primary condition the absolute verification of the alleged facts with which it has to deal. The neglect of this demand by any aspirant to scientific rank inevitably jeopardises his chance of attaining to it. . . . Faith can have no place here."


And according to Mr. Leslie Stephen "God is identified with the Unknowable, and Theology is a collection of meaningless words about unintelligible chimeras."

Quoted by F. Peek, in the Contemporary Review for April, 1881.

I ought perhaps to make an apology for quoting to you such expressions as these. Like some of those nauseous compounds in a chemical laboratory, they leave a nasty taste in the mouth and an unpleasant sensation on the brain. But it was necessary that I should substantiate my statement as to the essential foundation of modern "science:" and I have purposely chosen only a few quotations for this object. I think, however, that they are quite sufficient to enable you to see how, in its very narrow and essence, modern teaching is in absolute conflict with Christianity.

Let me, before passing on to examine some of those "scientific" theories which, by their specious character, induce so many people to neglect their ultimate infidel tendency, make one remark on the principles which, as I have just shown you, these new teachers take for their basis. Doubt, as you have seen, is their guiding star, verification their sheet anchor. Now what do you suppose would be thought, in "scientific" circles, of a man who should venture publicly to apply to these dogmatists their own highly-vaunted principle? I will take an extreme case: extreme, because in reality there is nothing which "scientists" adore so much as authority.

"Huxley says this;" "Darwin states positively;" "Haeckel distinctly affirms;" and such like phrases, carry absolute weight, and are quite enough to frighten anybody from presuming to say the contrary. But, suppose that anybody were to summon up the courage in a public lecture-room, or at a meeting, say, of the Royal Society, when Professor Huxley sat down after a speech bristling with "facts," to say:—"Mr. President, I entirely deny every word which the Professor has just spoken, not only as regards his arguments and conclusions but as regards also his positive assertions. He says that he has seen such and such things occurring: I do not believe him. He says that he has performed such and such experiments: I do not believe him. Doubt is the essence of scientific education, and until he proves to absolute demonstration that he has seen and done these things I refuse to accept his authority. The things themselves may possibly have occurred: the experiments may be made by somebody else: but it is our duty to verify the statement of Professor Huxley that he has seen and made them himself." Nobody, I repeat, is likely to take any such course as that which I have
supposed: because nobody in the "scientific" world has the courage to attack these great authorities of science: and even if anybody did so act, the whole thing would be passed over as a joke. But, if logic means anything, and if these men believe their own theory, is not the conclusion drawn by my imaginary objector absolutely correct? Yet you cannot open a single book on Evolution or on any other of the modern theories which is not on every page full of such phrases as these:—" Mr. Wallace has seen" something or other in the Island of Java; or "Sir John Lubbock says" that ants do something very startling and peculiar; or "Darwin has made experiments" on pigeons, perhaps, and you are expected in the very teeth of the alleged necessity for "verification" to take it all as gospel.

Let me now try and see how the most famous of all the modern scientific speculations, the theory of Evolution, when compared with the fundamental principle of Christianity which I enunciated at the beginning of this lecture, will stand the test. It will be impossible for me, in the time at our disposal, to do more than touch upon the most salient points. Nor can I enter into discussions of minor points as to the evolution of plants and animals generally: I shall have to confine myself mainly to the evolution of Man. And, indeed, I may frankly say that, if it were not that there are great difficulties in inducing anybody to discuss this theory with reference to Man alone, discarding the brutes, I should be inclined to say that the evolution of plants and all animals except Man is a question of absolutely no importance whatever, from the Christian point of view. When a brute dies, he dies and there is an end of him. He has no soul to be lost or saved; he has never sinned and has never been redeemed; and whether he was originally created as a separate species or whether one single organism was originally created from which all others have been developed is a matter of such supreme indifference, in itself, apart from Man, that all the Darwins and Huxleys in the world might quarrel over it to their hearts' content without any practical result, good or bad. But the theory of Evolution extends to Man as to all other beings, and it must be judged according as it is found consonant with truth in the two cases combined. If it is true for the brutes it may be true for Man; if it is true for Man it must be true for brutes. Let us see then how far it can be accepted by a Christian as not conflicting with the Christian history of Man.

Put in its shortest and baldest form, I take the theory of Evolution to be this:—that there never was any separate creation of Man as distinct from all other animals; that all animals now existing on the earth are descended, by the processes of gradual development, natural selection and the survival of the fittest, from some one original, very simple organism existing countless ages ago; that, as other animals were, in the ordinary course of nature, so developed, so also Man was, at some past epoch, developed from some previously existing animal; and that all the bodily organs, all the intellectual faculties, all the moral feelings, in fact all the soul and body of Man, proceed simply and solely from this system of gradual development from the brute.

You will at once see that, if this theory be true, the statements made in the Book of Genesis as to the origin of man cannot be true. Indeed this appears to be thoroughly understood both by the Darwinists and by those who have opposed them.

Now, the first fallacy with which anybody who tries to oppose Darwinism, on the score of its conflict with Christianity, is met is this, that all the most eminent naturalists of the world, and very nearly all the naturalists of every degree, have adopted the theory: and he is asked if he wishes to put his feeble knowledge in the lists against theirs. I have myself on many occasions heard this argument used, and used with considerable effect upon unexperienced opponents. Yet how absurd it is! Let me advise you, whenever it may be brought against you, to meet it by the very simple answer that, even supposing that all the naturalists of the world were multiplied ten times over and their acquaintance with natural history magnified ten-fold, and if they all then with one voice proclaimed the absolute truth of Darwinism they would be perfectly incompetent to decide the question. This, again, may seem to you a hard saying: let me give you an illustration of my meaning. Suppose, for example, that in Her Majesty's High Court of Judicature, before a full bench of judges, a case is being argued involving very important and at the same time very intricate and delicate points of maritime law. Suppose that the advocate on one side were to bring as one of his arguments to the judges the fact that every captain in the merchant service, and all the captains and officers of Her Majesty's navy, were quite unanimous upon the question at issue, and suppose that he were to ask for a decision in his favour on that ground. Do you imagine that the judges would pay the least attention to the argument? I incline to the belief that they would say to him—" Your contention is absurd. We have the greatest respect for your ship captains, as seamen, and if they come here to give evidence as to matters of fact we shall be prepared to give them all credence: but as this is a matter of pure law their opinion is not worth listening to." In precisely the same way, a naturalist has simply no right whatever to be heard, as a naturalist, on a question of theology. If he has studied theology in addition to natural history, he may be able to give an opinion. But how many of them have done so? How many of them, on the contrary, are there who make it their boast that they utterly deride, neglect, detest theology, and yet they presume to give the most decided judgments on points intimately connected with theology! Professor Huxley coolly affirms that in every case where "science" and orthodoxy have come into conflict, "science" has been victorious. Upon what grounds has he, who absolutely despises all theology, the right to make such a
statement? Yet he, forsooth, is one of the most trusted and revered leaders of modern thought!

You will often find, too, that the converse of this fallacy is asserted, and you will be told, if you quote any Christian argument, that theologians know nothing; that they are not naturalists, that they are bigotted, narrow-minded, illiberal, and so on; and your Darwinist will glibly apply to them a crowd of those opprobrious epithets of which he strenuously complains of if used to him. All the strong language, it appears, is to be for the exclusive use of advocates of Evolution: but let that pass for a moment. Now, to take my illustration again, suppose the lawyer in court to take exception to the decision of the judges because they were not sailors. "The chief justice" he might say "is absolutely ignorant of navigation; Judge Blank really does not know the difference between a sprit-sail-boom and the mizen-topgallant-sail; and the rest of the bench would be sea-sick in half an hour on board a ship." I am disposed to believe that in this case also the judges would decline to be influenced by such arguments, and would give their judgment upon the points of law quite regardless of their ignorance, if any, upon points of seamanship.

And so, you see, when brought into the light of common sense this very favourite and stock argument of the Darwinists, which has frightened so many unwise opponents of theirs, is found to be only a scare-crow after all. In spite of that boasted independence of thought which, as I showed you by my quotations just now, they arrogate to themselves, they are really the blindest followers of what they imagine to be authority: and they will constantly try to bring up what they call the overwhelming weight of the knowledge and wisdom of their pet leaders. I strongly advise you to be by no means frightened by the seeming strength of their artillery, and to receive the dicta of Darwin, Huxley and the rest of them, simply with contempt when they leave, as they are so fond of doing, their domain of natural history to wander into that of theology, whereof they know no more than you do.

Coming, then, to the theory of Evolution itself, what is the first thing noticeable? I think it is this, that the theory sets bounds to the omnipotence of the Creator by laying down the following axioms upon which it rests as on foundations.

First, it assumes that the more complex an organism is, the more it approaches perfection: or, in other words, that simplicity of construction implies imperfection.

Secondly, it assumes that the more complex an organism is, the later it made its appearance on the earth: that is, that simplicity of construction implies priority of existence.

Now, in all the works upon evolution which I have read (and they are not few), I have never found these two fundamental assumptions of the Darwinists proved, or any attempt to prove them. And on the other hand it seems to me that the opponents of Darwinism have taken them for granted also, so that practically they have given up a great advantage. For myself, I by no means grant either of them: I deny them both.

What is there, in point of fact, to show us that because one animal has organs or powers which another has not it is therefore the more perfect of the two? Take, for example, a horse and an earthworm: what proof exists that the horse is the more perfect? True, he has many more organs, and in a certain sense more powers. You could never make an earthworm draw a cart or carry you on his back. But, on the other hand, if you bury a horse in the earth, it is not unlikely that you will kill him in the process: and he could no more burrow in a hole than he could fly. And the instinct of the worm is, for its purposes, as far as we can possibly tell, just as perfect as the instinct of the horse. Take, again, a man and a fish. The man has organs and powers which the fish wants. But he would die in the water just as surely as the fish would die in the air. Indeed, I should say that, according to a Darwinist, a crocodile is a more perfect animal than either man or fish, for he can live equally well both in water and in air. Take again another example. There is, in the ponds and ditches hereabout, an extremely small animal, scarcely visible to the naked eye, called a hydra. In general form this little being resembles somewhat that huge octopus of the sea, having a trunk or body with several long elastic arms with which it catches its prey. Now this hydra belongs to what Darwinists call a very low order of animals; and, if you consider it under only one aspect, there seems reason for this. For the hydra has, beyond those arms I spoke of, no organs at all. It is nothing but a sort of simple bag, open at one end, receiving and absorbing, without any real stomach, whatever the arms put into it. It is really all mouth and all stomach, a very convenient and extremely simple arrangement. But take it under another aspect, and it becomes one of the most perfect of animals. For, you can cut it in half, or into twenty pieces, and each piece will grow into an entire animal: you can slice it down the middle, almost to the end, and you will get two hydras on one stem, a sort of Siamese twin: you can cut the heads off two hydras and join them to the wrong bodies, and they will grow on quite contentedly: and you can actually go beyond this (I believe it has been done), you can take a hydra and turn him inside out, and then what was formerly the skin will do duty as the stomach and what formerly was apparently the stomach will become the outside skin, and the little beast will continue to live as merrily as possible. Now can anything be more perfect than this? Yet which, according to the Darwinist, is the more perfect animal, the man or the hydra?

You will perceive then, that when a Darwinist argues, as they all do, from the assumption that simplicity means imperfection, he is trying to take an advantage to which he has no right: and you would do well, if ever
engaged in a discussion on this matter, to have it thoroughly settled before you go farther what is meant by perfection or imperfection. You must remember this, that unless Darwinism, or Evolution, means the development of the more perfect from the less perfect it means nothing at all. But Darwinists are, I think, so much in the habit of taking things for granted that most of them would be astonished to find their favourite axioms disputed.

But, supposing that you have got over this difficulty, and that your Darwinist opponent has succeeded in satisfying you that complex organisms are necessarily the most perfect, you would still find yourself met by the second, equally false as I think, assumption that simplicity of construction implies priority of existence. Of course, development from a lower animal means that the lower animal existed first. Therefore it is always taken for granted by Darwinists that the animals which lived on the earth in former times, and whose remains we now find as fossils in the rocks, were less perfect than those now existing. Again it must be asked, where is the proof? I am quite aware that Evolutionists profess to rest greatly upon what is called the geological record. But, apart from the admitted defects of that record, we should still come back to the question of comparison between the old and the modern animals. It must be remembered that in no case have we anything but the skeleton of a fossil to judge by. We know nothing of the rest of the body of these animals except from analogy which, as Darwin himself admits, is often misleading. But taking, say, a fossil butterfly, or a fossil saurian, or a fossil bear, there is absolutely nothing whatever to prove to us that they were in any way inferior to the butterflies, the crocodiles or the bears of the present day. Indeed, if size goes for anything, I should say that they were superior. Nothing now existing is to be compared in size to the gigantic animals found now only as fossils.

If Evolution has any meaning it means that the present animals, having been "developed," are more perfect than the earlier ones, and also it means that none of the earlier animals can be found as perfect as the present ones. But the crocodile is not more perfect than the saurian, the elephant than the mammoth, the oyster than the ammonite, the house fly than the fossil fly. And although, undoubtedly, as the different ages of the earth rolled on different animals made their appearance and the old ones vanished, I want to make it clear to you that in order to establish the truth of Evolution, or "development," it is absolutely necessary that these new arrivals should have been, so to speak, an improvement upon the former ones. Plainly put, the assumption of the Darwinists is this:—when they find an animal of simple construction and on that account, according to them, superior to an animal of more complex construction, they assume this to prove the former animal to have been developed from the latter. And, if you take up one of those books, unfortunately too common, in which the author, too careless or too illogical to begin with first principles, tries to prove that Christianity can be reconciled with Darwinism, you will find that, meeting these two assumptions of which I have spoken, and not daring to examine them closely, he is driven to that peculiar statement upon which so many persons try to rest their belief. I mean the assertion that God never acts in this world except by law. This is not a purely Darwinian statement, because the Darwinist pure and simple commonly troubles himself not at all about God and His action: but it has so specious an appearance about it that numbers of well-meaning men are deceived by it. If they would only stop to enquire closely into its ultimate meaning they could not help seeing that, in so many words, it directly detracts from the omnipotence, omnipresence and interference of God in nature, which, as I said in the beginning of this lecture, is one of the essential doctrines of Christianity. And the practical result of belief in this assertion will show you how dangerous it is. For it not only pretends in itself to affirm what no mortal intelligence can affirm, but it leads men on to define, next, what law it is by which God is presumed to limit His own power. And so, little by little, the assumptions of the Darwinists are somehow overlooked, or granted; the deductions which they draw therefrom are gradually allowed; and at last the original waverer gives full credence to Darwinism and, in a shorter or a longer time, falls in with the principles of modern "science." Once more I say, you will do well never to take for granted any of these Darwinist assertions: if any one affirms that God is in any way governed by what is called "law," see that the statement is fully proved before you go farther.

And now, confining ourselves for the present to Evolution as it concerns Man, let us see whether it agrees with the essence of Christianity. I said in beginning my lecture that Christianity affirms that the Redemption accomplished eighteen centuries ago was applicable to all men on earth; that is, without exception, past, present and future. The Redemption was rendered necessary by the fault of the first man. But, if Darwinism were true, this could not be so. I suppose that no Darwinist will deny that whatever has, in the ordinary course of nature, happened once, may in the ordinary course of nature happen again. No scientist, as far as I know, has ever attempted to assert that the development of man from a lower animal, having once occurred, could never under any circumstances occur a second time. Indeed, if it were so, the theory of Evolution would at once fall to pieces of itself. And there is nothing in it, in my belief, to show that two men might not have been developed at the same time in two different parts of the earth. But, supposing two such simultaneous developments, or supposing
two races of men, one developed 10,000 years ago, the other developed 5,000 years ago, in what manner can
we possibly conceive that the Redemption can have been applicable to both these races? In what manner can a
man of the second race be responsible in any shape for a fault committed by the ancestor of the first race, of
which he is utterly independent? In plain terms, how could he have been "redeemed"? Once you admit the
possibility of more than one race of men on the earth, you absolutely and irretrievably destroy the very essence
of the Christian doctrine, the universal application of the Redemption.

There are persons, I am sorry to say who, desirous to reconcile two contradictory doctrines, are willing to
admit the existence of several independent races of men.

For instance, a Dr. McCausland, of Dublin, attempts to prove this in a book entitled "Adam and the
Adamite." This author appears to consider temporal death as the sole, or at least the chief, consequence of
Adam's fault: but, apart from this, he says, p. 298, "The redemption of Adam's race,-who have incurred the
penalty of his disobedience, does not prevent the redemption of those who have passed through the valley of the
shadow of death unaffected by the transgression of Adam": and, p. 299, "Redemption is no more dependent
upon the lineal descent of all mankind from Adam, than it is dependent upon their lineal descent from
Abraham." Had he only stopped for a moment to consider the simple meaning of the English word
"Redemption," viz., "a buying back" of something previously sold or pledged, he could not have written such
egregious nonsense. Yet his book appears to have gone through three editions!

They confine themselves usually to discussions about the creation, the first chapter of Genesis, the
universality of the Flood, the differences between the white man and the negro, and such like points, every one
of which is beside the main question, and they neglect the plain story of the Fall and the Redemption, the very
keystone of Christianity. In truth, the Darwinist is reduced to three alternatives. Either he must absolutely deny
the possibility that any natural occurrence can take place twice, which he cannot do without manifest absurdity;
or he must prove the application of the Redemption to more than one race of men, which no logic can show: or,
lastly he must acknowledge the positive opposition of the Evolution of Man to the essence and foundation of
Christianity. This last alternative, whether the Darwinist be willing or unwilling to accept it, is that which, after
the study which I have been able to make of Evolution, is the one which I really believe to be the true one.

You will, I think, by this time see that when I said that modern "science" was directly antagonistic to
Christianity the statement was not at all too sweeping. We have considered the new teaching in its very core
and essence, and we have tested our conclusions by an examination of its latest and most favoured theory, the
Evolution of Man, and we have found it to be anti-Christian in every way. There are many points upon which it
has only been possible for me to touch lightly and to indicate to you directions for more close reasoning. A
fuller enquiry would be quite feasible, but would entail too great a tax upon your patience. There are, however,
two points on which it is necessary that I should yet say a little, before I conclude.

The first of these points is the curious cowardice of the modern scientists. Nothing seems to be more
repugnant to the tastes of these gentlemen than being held strictly to one point and made to speak out plainly
what they mean in common, straightforward English. We, as you know, have nothing whatever to lose by plain
speaking, nothing whatever to gain by circumlocution. But the Evolutionist hates to use one word when he can,
by using half-a-dozen, wrap up his meaning so as to ensnare the unwary. And thus it is that, if you take up at
random any book, say, of Spencer's, or Darwin's, or Huxley's, or of their later disciples, you will find them
twisting and turning phrases, and repeating vague generalities, knowing probably quite well themselves what
they intend, but afraid to say it out in a manly way. They never mention God: they speak of "The Great First
Cause," the "Creative Principle," "the Unknowable," "Nature," "Law," and so on. They never dare to tell their
readers that Christianity is a he; but they wander about vaguely in such terms as "old fashioned superstitions,"
"exploded beliefs," "dogmas of priest-craft" and the like. Tackle an Evolutionist closely, press him to tell you,
straight out, whether he believes implicitly in Christianity or not, and you will find that he will shuffle and
wriggle, seeking every means to throw a mist around him and his views. Of course, as you know, I am speaking
here of your thorough Evolutionist, not of those who, weakly as I think, try to join a little Christianity to a good
deal of materialism.

Let me, by one quotation from Professor Huxley, give you an example of what I mean. It is not the best that
I could give you, but it happens to be at my hand and will serve my purpose. This acknowledged leader of
modern "scientific thought" is found in one of his "Lay Sermons," quoting the following passage from David
Hume:—

"If we take in hand any volume of divinity or school metaphysics, for instance, let us ask Does it contain
any abstract reasoning concerning quantity and number? No. Does it contain any experimental reasoning
concerning matter of fact and existence? No. Commit it then to the flames, for it can contain nothing but
sophistry and illusion."

And Professor Huxley says, on this:—" Permit me to enforce this most wise advice. Why trouble ourselves
about matters of which, however important they may be, we do know nothing and can know nothing?"
"Essays selected from Lay Sermons, &c., Macmillan, 1871, p. 90.

Translated into simple, straightforward English, Huxley's roundabout phrase means nothing more or less than this, that Christianity which teaches absolutely nothing about quantity, number or experiment, is "sophistry and illusion," unworthy of our attention, pure rubbish. But he is afraid to say so plainly: and hundreds of men who would be startled to see the real nature of his teaching are ensnared by his shuffling and his vagueness. I do not mean to say that Huxley and others have not elsewhere been forced to speak much more clearly; I only give you this as an instance of the way in which these gentry cover up the pill which they want to make men swallow; and to warn you how, if you want to get at the truth, you must not be satisfied unless the modern "scientist" makes quite clear to you his exact and plain meaning.

The second point is this. All Evolutionists, and I am sorry to say almost all their opponents, confine themselves in arguing the question almost entirely, if not altogether, to discussions upon the Old Testament, and chiefly upon the Book of Genesis. In point of fact there seems to have been made generally an agreement on both sides that the New Testament shall not be taken into consideration at all. There are exceptions, of course, but this seems to be the rule. Now, I think this to be a grave error. That an Evolutionist should so argue I can understand: that a Christian should so argue I can not understand. If the history of the Creation and the Fall of Man given in the Book of Genesis be not true, then the Gospel is also not true. The one rests absolutely on the other. If the Fall did not take place the Redemption did not take place. You cannot escape from this position. And the result of this has been that the opponents of Darwinism, confining themselves of their own free will to the ground which their antagonists have chosen, have been driven to that extraordinary and unfortunate conclusion which is nowadays much too often accepted. They are driven, with the very best intentions, to agree that some part of the Book of Genesis may be true and the rest false, or mythical. And, as it seems to me, anyone who tries to reconcile Evolution and Christianity must of necessity come to this conclusion. But what a conclusion it is! To take, at haphazard, certain verses or certain chapters, and affirm that those are true, but that others intimately connected with them are false, simply because Darwin's theory is opposed to them! There is no proof attempted, but the reasoner says—Chapter I. does not fit in with Darwinism: therefore it must be mythical: Chapter III. does not affect Darwinism, therefore it may be true! Once more let us put this into plain English and it means that if modern "science" says one thing and Scripture another, Scripture is wrong.

For instance, when about four years ago a periodical was started in this country called the "New Zealand Magazine," one of the first articles in it was one by Mr. J. E. FitzGerald, expressly intended to divide the Book of Genesis into parts, some supposed to be mythical, others perhaps historical.

Here again, let me advise you, in meeting an Evolutionist on this point, to go straight back to first principles. Ask him, distinctly (and do not be frightened by his bluster or diverted from your purpose by his shuffling), first, if any part whatever of the Bible is to be believed, and if so what part. If he denies the first chapter of Genesis ask him if he believes the third. If he denies the universality of the Flood, ask him if he believes the history of the exodus from Egypt. If he denies that the sun and moon stood still at the command of Josue, ask him if he believes the history of the Incarnation, or the Resurrection, or the multiplication of the loaves and fishes. Any one of the miracles of the New Testament is more wonderful than the miracles of the Old Testament, and you will at once see the illogical character of your opponent's reasoning, for he can have absolutely no other argument to offer against the parts which he denies than their apparent impossibility or contradiction to some law, as he will call it, of nature.

And now I draw to a conclusion. If I have not, in what I have said, exhausted your patience, or demanded of you more attention than you feel inclined to give, or failed to invest my subject with sufficient interest to keep your minds closely to my arguments, you will have seen, I think, that throughout I have pursued a line of reasoning very different from that usually employed. Many wise and earnest men hold the opinion that Evolutionists are to be met and combatted chiefly with arguments drawn from natural history itself. And, as far as Evolutionists themselves, pure and simple, are concerned, I fully admit the force of this. As for the thorough Darwinist, as he can have no faith left, it would be a waste of time to try to argue with him upon any theological grounds. The most that could be done would be to devote time to investigating such physical phenomena as might be suggested, a proceeding which, as experience shows, must end either in no satisfaction to either side or in the triumph of the Darwinist. But, in the present instance, I have not been arguing with any Darwinist or with any infidel: but simply trying to show to you Catholics what is, in its ultimate tendency, in its core and essence, the modern scientific teaching. And, summing up now what has been said in this lecture, I find it to be this, that whereas Christianity distinctly affirms and rests on the constant interference of God in nature, modern "science" distinctly denies it and demands belief only in that which the senses can experimentally verify; that whereas Christianity distinctly affirms and rests on the universal application of the Redemption to all men on earth without exception, Darwinism distinctly contemplates races of men independent of the Redemption; and
that therefore modern "science" in its essence and Darwinism in particular are directly contrary to the essence of Christianity.

So much for my argument: I leave you to make your choice between the two. Many men will say—" Let it be so:—so much the worse for Christianity." I would not believe for a moment that any such are to be found in this Catholic Society to which I am to-night particularly addressing myself.

Let me not be misunderstood. Do I for an instant wish to discourage amongst you the pursuit of science, in itself? Do I wish to suggest that zoology, geology, all the other "sciences" are not to be studied, and studied as closely as can be done? By no means: none but a fool would say any such thing. And, for my own part, almost all the spare time at my disposal is devoted to such research as I am able to make, by means of the microscope, into the facts of natural history. Lot those who have the inclination, the leisure, the intelligence, study the phenomena of the physical universe to the utmost of their power. Nay more, let this study be inculcated as far as possible in all schools: let every child if possible be made acquainted with the works of God in nature. But what I want you to do is to be content with facts, and facts alone: or, if deductions from those facts come in your way, never give credence to any deduction which is not consonant with the essence of your faith. When king Solomon was building his temple, as the old legends of the Rabbins tell us, he obtained possession of a little worm, called in Hebrew "schamir." This little worm had the remarkable power of rending in pieces anything which it touched: and Solomon by its means hewed out with the greatest ease masses of masonry from the hardest rocks. In this lecture I have tried to indicate to you a "schamir" of similar power. Touch with this talisman the doctrines of these pretended leaders of thought of the present day. Do not be frightened by their arrogance, which is enormous; do not be puzzled by the roundabout phrases which are such favourite weapons of theirs. Translate their long sentences and vague definitions into plain straightforward English. Touch with the schamir of Christianity every conclusion to which they lead you and form your belief accordingly. You may be perfectly sure of this that, if their conclusion be in discord with Christian faith, all the alleged "facts," all the phenomena, all the experiments, all the learning, reasoning, authorities with which the preliminary arguments are supported, however plain, precise and forcible they may apparently be, are nothing else but misleading. Somewhere or other, though perhaps you may not be able to find it at first, there is a fatal flaw in the argument, a fatal defect in the syllogism. Judge only by the ultimate conclusion, and using the word "truth," not in the sense which the Darwins and Huxleys and Spencers attach to it but in its Christian sense, you may rest quite assured that "Magna est Veritas et prævalebit": great is truth and she will prevail.

Printed by G. Tombs & Co., Cathedral Square, Christchurch.

Public Education Royal Commission of Enquiry.
1878. Victoria.
Report on the state of Public Education in Victoria, and Suggestions as to the Best Means of Improving it.
By Charles H. Pearson, Commissioner.
By Authority:
John Ferres, Government Printer Melbourne 1878

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Commission.

Victoria, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Queen, Defender of the Faith:

To our trusty and well-beloved Charles Henry Pearson, Esquire, M.A., of Melbourne, in the colony of Victoria.

Greeting:

Whereas the Governor of our colony of Victoria, with the advice of our Executive Council thereof has deemed it expedient that a Royal Commission should forthwith issue to the said Charles Henry Pearson, authorizing and empowering him to enquire into and report upon—

- The best and most economic mode of constituting education in Victoria entirely free;
- The state and condition of the present machinery for public instruction;
- The status, remuneration, and general efficiency of the teachers;
- The mode and extent of instruction in the State schools, and the system best fitted to enlarge the operations of those schools;
- The formation or extension of training institutes, technological and night schools;
- And generally to enquire and report as to any improvement which may be calculated to increase the efficiency of education in the colony of Victoria.

Now Know you that We, reposing great trust and confidence in your zeal discretion learning, and ability, have constituted and appointed, and by these presents do constitute and appoint, you the said Charles Henry Pearson to be our Commissioner for the purposes aforesaid. And We do by these presents give and grant unto you full power and authority to call before you such person or persons as you shall judge likely to afford you any information upon the subject of this our Commission, and to enquire of and concerning the premises by all lawful ways and means whatsoever: And We will and command that this our Commission shall continue in full force and virtue and that you our said Commissioner shall and may from time to time and at any place or places, proceed in the execution thereof and of every matter and thing therein contained: And lastly We direct that you do, with as little delay as possible, report to us under your hand and seal your opinions resulting from the said enquiry.

In testimony whereof We have caused these our letters to be made patent and the seal of our said colony to be hereunto affixed.

Seal of the Colony of Victoria

Witness our trusty and well-beloved Sir George Ferguson Bowen, Knight Grand Cross of the Most Distinguished Order of Saint Michael and Saint George, Governor and Commander-in-Chief in and over the Colony of Victoria and its dependencies, and Vice-Admiral of the same, &c., &c., at Melbourne, this
twenty-fifth day of June, One thousand eight hundred and seventy-seven, and in the forty-first year of our Reign.

G. F. Bowen,
By His Excellency's Command,
Graham Berry.

Entered on Record by me in the Register of Patents, Book 20, page 33, this twenty-seventh day of June, One thousand eight hundred and seventy-seven.
W. H. Odgers.

Report.

To His Excellency Sir GEORGE FERGUSON BOWEN, Knight Grand, Cross of the Most Distinguished Order of Saint Michael and Saint George, Governor and Commander-in-Chief in and over the Colony of Victoria and its Dependencies, and Vice-Admiral of the same, &c., &c., &c.

MAY IT PLEASE YOUR EXCELLENCY—

On the 25th of June last I received your commission, directing me to enquire into the state of public education in Victoria and into the best means of increasing its efficiency.

In order to carry out your instructions, I have visited about seventy schools in various parts of the colony, examining the more important ones minutely. I have put myself in communication, by conference or personal visits, with a great number of boards of advice; I have examined some of the chief officers of the Education Department on the routine of office work; and I have discussed the possible reforms which have been suggested at various times, or which have occurred to myself, with the leading schoolmasters, with the district inspectors, and more especially with the late secretary, Mr. Venables, and with the present acting secretary, Mr. Gilchrist. I have visited the industrial schools, several of the schools of design, and the schools of mines. I have conferred with the University Council as to the reforms most necessary to connect the University with the practical teaching of the country. Besides this, I have received constant communications from gentlemen interested in our national system of education, and anxious to show how it might be improved. Altogether, I have to return cordial thanks for a spirit of sympathy and co-operation which I have found everywhere, never failing and never wearied. Especially I have to acknowledge the energy and ability with which the secretary of the commission, Mr. A. T. Lewis, has seconded me throughout.

My work has required not only that I should make myself acquainted with the merits and defects of our own system, but with the systems that are applied in other countries. Here I have been at the disadvantage that no large collection of books on the subject of education has been formed in the department, or is to be found in any public library. The admirable reports of Arnold, Pattison, and Fraser, though still of the highest value, are no longer the record of actual systems. I have been able, however, to collect important information from a variety of different sources, and in some cases have found abundant material. Fortunately I can write from some personal knowledge, having taken part in a great variety of public examinations in England, and having studied the North German and United States systems in North Germany and America.

I have broken up my Report into two divisions. The first contains a general summary of the changes that I consider desirable. The second treats separate subjects of enquiry minutely and at length, and shows the way in which changes can be carried out. I have adopted this plan, though it involves some repetitions, because I believe most of my readers will only care to learn the general conclusions at which my Report arrives; and that it will be convenient to others, who take a special interest in a single subject, to be able to turn at once to the chapter in which that particular point is discussed.

With this explanation, I have the honor to submit the subjoined Report to Your Excellency.
Charles H. Peaeson.

Part I.

I HAD the honour some months ago to send in a preliminary Report to the Minister of Education on the working of our educational system. The object aimed at was to supply materials for a very important Parliamentary debate, which was then impending; and except for so grave a reason, I should have preferred to hold back the result of my enquiries till I could sum up altogether and conclusively. The tendency of every partial report is partially to mislead; and though I know of nothing that requires to be modified or corrected in the Report I then submitted, I fear the effect of what I must now add may severely disappoint those who learned
only what was most acceptable from the statistics I was then able to give.

2. Summing up briefly, I may renew the assurance that I believe

Good work done by the Education Department.

the State is faithfully served by its officials in the Education Department. The work many of these gentlemen perform is laborious and repulsive in the extreme, and the manner in which they discharge it beyond all praise. They may point with pride to several important results; to new schools springing up everywhere; to a large corps of teachers, many among whom are highly efficient; and to an attendance that exceeds what was attained under the voluntary system. I do not myself regard an average attendance of 46 per cent, or less with any feeling but dismay, when I consider what our expenditure has been. But it is fair to remember that we are excelled in this respect by very few English-speaking countries, perhaps only by Scotland and Massachusetts; and I hope to show that it is in our power to double our present results with very slight changes in the present machinery.

3. But the country had better face the fact that the Education

Want of organization

Department has never received any proper organization, and, as its field of exertion widens, will soon break down altogether if it is not remodelled. The first framers of the Act of 1872 were necessarily working in the dark, and, unable, from circumstances, to do much that they undoubtedly deemed desirable. They could not tell how far they would be supported throughout by the mature feeling of the country, and they were compelled to defer the introduction of a rigid compulsory system till schools that would accommodate the population had been built. They sketched an admirable outline for future administration, and

Over centralization.

were compelled to leave it only an outline. Unhappily the leading principle of the Education Department during the last five years has been to substitute supervision from Melbourne for local co-operation. It was a flaw, I venture to think, in the Act of 1872, that several of its provisions were rather tentative than complete, and that, in the case of boards of advice in particular, it rather indicated what work might be assigned to them, than gave them definite powers. This defect might, however, have been repaired if the department had gradually divested itself of its own authority where the school boards were prepared to take up the work. But the department has been over-trustful in itself, or unduly doubtful of the zeal and intelligence that were prepared to second it throughout the country. The result has been that many boards have been discouraged, and many competent members have withdrawn from seats on them, while the department is breaking down under self-imposed labours which it is unfitted to discharge.

School census.

4. To illustrate what I mean, I may explain in what way the compulsory system is worked at present. The first requirement, of course, is to know what children are due at school. For this purpose the department undertook the compilation of a special census in the beginning of the year 1877. Where possible, information was obtained from official sources; but the department had no special powers for obtaining this, the Minister did not ask Parliament for help, and, in many instances, the census had to be let out by contract. Where this was done, I have heard grave doubts expressed as to the accuracy of the returns. But the method itself seems to me most inadequate. A large part of our population is, and for a long time to come must remain, migratory. Such and such mining-fields are being deserted; such others opened up; and the same, I need hardly say, is the case with agricultural areas. Melbourne is growing rapidly, and many of our small towns are decreasing. A school census for the colony, therefore, would have to be taken every three months to be of any value, and would be partially useless soon after the returns have

Registration.

come into the Melbourne office. I believe a system under which parents are compelled to register themselves in rolls kept at the State school, and checked by the board of advice, is the only one that can be worked cheaply and efficiently. I have communicated with many school boards on the subject, and have received from all the most gratifying assurances that they are prepared to undertake this part of the work.

5. Under the present system, and as a result of the present

Prosecution now ordered by the department should be ordered by the school board.

system, the school rolls are sent up from every school to the Education Office, which compares them with the census rolls, and directs what parents are to be summoned for the non-attendance of their children. This system seems defective in every respect. A comparison of the two sets of rolls by the clerks in the department will undoubtedly lead to the discovery of a few names that have been omitted from one or the other; but the clerks cannot detect as a local board might what names have been omitted from both. Neither is the Education Office qualified to decide what parents should be summoned; inasmuch as it cannot know the excuses that parents may have, and which will procure their acquittal in court. But, above all, the system is cumbrous and dilatory in the last degree. The most highly qualified men cannot deal with the circumstances of several
thousand parents in three hundred districts with the despatch requisite; and the department must practically
elect either to slur many cases or to delay prosecutions till the offence has become matter of history. In this way
I have found prosecutions for truancy in the July quarter postponed till December of the year. I cannot express
too strongly my belief that the true remedy for defective attendances is to throw the whole duty of summoning
on the school board of the district, and give the Minister of Education a moderate power of charging truancy
expenses to the district, if the school board neglects to perform its duty.

I hope to be able to show that, by a simple plan which is already in use in several schools, the school board
may have the reasons for non-attendance put before it when it meets, so that its trouble in the matter may be of
the slightest.

6. In the next place no adequate provision has been made for
   No recognized test of private education.
   testing the quality of the education given in denominational schools and at home. It is true that private
   schools are required to furnish returns of attendance which have some statistical value, but upon which no legal
   action can be taken. I have visited one private school, where the mistress apologized for the children's inability
   to write, and deficiency in all other respects, by observing that they were very good in texts and hymns. I hear
   of others which support themselves by not requiring attendance from their pupils. Of the 30,000 children who
   are nominally taught in schools not supported by the State, from two to three thousand are well taught in
   excellent middle-class schools, and a rather larger number receive a moderate education of the same kind. Some
   of the denominational primary schools are conducted by teachers of known competence, and can hold their own
   after a fashion against the State schools. But many, unless I am very much misinformed, deserve the name of
   school only by courtesy, and give no real education. Nevertheless, the State hitherto has made no provision for
   testing the instruction in these places. I venture to submit that our educational system is not complete till we
   exact the same attendances and an equal level of acquirement with those forced on the State school from those
   who prefer to get their education elsewhere. The Act of 1872 no doubt says that a child must be receiving
   "efficient instruction in some other manner." But so long as there is no provision to test the efficiency of the
   instruction given, these words are a mere brutum fulmen. I have come across one case where a whole family
   was kept at work on a farm, the father defying the truant officer with the statement that he was educating the
   children himself, and I know that somewhat less flagrant instances of this kind are not uncommon. Happily the
   religious objections, which keep a small section of the Catholic community from our State schools, do not, I
   have reason to think, apply to inspection.

   No child must be withdrawn from inspection.
   Mr. Butt stated in the Imperial Parliament that he was authorized by the head of the Catholic hierarchy in
   Ireland to say that they would not oppose Protestant inspection to test the efficiency of the education given in a
   Catholic college. I would submit, therefore, that the State must lose no time in organizing a system of
   inspection to which all children not in our State schools shall be compelled to submit. If such a system be
   properly organized, I have reason to believe that our best grammar schools will welcome it. Possibly some
   opposition may be apprehended from wealthy parents who keep tutors and governesses at home, but I think
   these will give way when they understand that our school system must break down, if any class is allowed to
   claim exemption.

   The license of changing schools must be abridged.

7. Properly to carry out this, the license of changing schools at pleasure, which the community at present
   enjoys and abuses, will have to be curtailed. It is subversive of all discipline that a child threatened with
   punishment, or thinking itself insufficiently appreciated, should be allowed to transfer itself at pleasure to
   another school. Every change so made implies more work for teachers and less progress in the scholar; and
   where such changes are common, as is the case in all large towns, the State is most unfairly taxed to supply
   extra school accommodation and additional teaching power. Two schools, in which the numbers fluctuate
   between 200 and 800, are more costly and less efficient than two schools of 500 a piece. Many of these
duplicate attendances are undoubtedly due to a cause we are bound to recognise and defer to, the fitful
influence of the Catholic clergy in drawing scholars from the State schools into their own. But I apprehend no
difficulty from this cause, as it is in the interest of denominational as well as of State schools that attendances
should not be intermittent.

   The restrictions I shall have the honor to propose will not altogether take away the parent's privilege of
   choosing the best among neighboring schools for his children, but they will give the children in each district the
   first claim on its school, and will make it matter of favour when others are admitted. At present there is no
   system regulating admissions; and a parent living close to a State school may find that its doors are closed
   against his children, because scholars from other parts have flocked in.

8. The formation of school districts with fixed boundaries will
   Proposed change in the method of calculating attendances.
make it possible for the country to take accurate stock of the work it is doing in education, year by year. At present the whole system is confused and disorderly. Every school has on its rolls the names of children who have died during the year, or who have left the district, or who, without leaving the district, have transferred themselves to another school. The consequence is, that the departmental report every year shows more children of school age on the rolls than are alive in the country; and an arbitrary allowance of 16 per cent, is made for these duplicate scholars. Under the system I propose, each school will account every quarter for those, and for those only, who are attending it; and every scholar migrating to a new school will do it only by special leave, or under special circumstances; will cease to be borne on the old books; and will carry with him a credit balance of attendances to be transferred to the register of his new school.

Again: the system in vogue of calculating average attendances by dividing the total number made by the sum of a year's attendance, is such that even the officers of the department cannot infer any accurate results. Thus, for instance, if twenty children have attended 4,158 periods of two hours in a year, they are counted as nine average attendances of 220 days each; though in fact seven will perhaps have averaged about 400 hours a piece, and have received a fair minimum of education, while thirteen have not even complied with the requirements of the law, and have practically learned nothing. My impression is, that in such a case the seven ought to be counted as attendances, and the thirteen as truants. The seven, barring defects of intellect, will be educated; the thirteen are growing up wild. I venture to say that the system I propose, under which children shall be divided into three classes—those who comply with the Act, those who all but comply, and those who fail to comply—will entail even less trouble upon schoolmasters and on the department, and will enable the State to know what it is really doing.

The legal minimum of school attendance has been fixed too low.

There is another point of vital importance in which, I think, the experience of the last five years shows that immediate change is desirable. The Act of 1872, and the Amending Act of 1875, fixed the minimum of school attendance altogether at 120 days in the year, or at 30 days in the quarter. The intention of the framers undoubtedly was, to make allowance for the cases in which a child's labour is of real value at home. But the effect of the Act has been, apparently, to diffuse an idea that 30 days in the quarter are all that Parliament deems necessary for a child's schooling; and parents are apt to consider themselves meritorious if they only fall short of this by a few days. I shall propose that in future the legal minimum be 50 days in the quarter, between the ages of 6 and 9; 80 in the six months, between the ages of 9 and 12.; and 60 in the six months, between the ages of 12 and 15; with a certain discretionary power to boards of advice to reduce these terms by not more than 20 per cent, in a few specified cases.

I am glad to say the increased rate I propose is already exceeded without compulsion in some of our best schools. A return lying before me from Mr. Pearce, of Daylesford, shows that in that school the average number for each child on the roll was more than 51 days {102 193/1064} attendance in the Michaelmas quarter of 1877. Mr. Stewart, of Clunes, gets, I believe, nearly equal results; and there are probably several other head teachers equally successful. The average under my plan would be less than 15 days.

I do not think that the increased scale I propose will bear hardly on the poorer classes of society in general. In the first place, a child's labour does not commonly begin to be of much value till it is about 12 years old; or, if valuable, is so at the cost of its health, which the State has a right to interpose and protect. But, in the next place, the school time lost between 6 and 12 cannot be replaced between 12 and 15, and, so far as it is then atoned

Economy of increased school attendances.

for, will be bought back at a most disproportionate cost. With a very slight increase in the efficiency of our country schools, and with the increased attendance I propose, every child may pass the standard at 12, and may then, if his parents wish it, begin to earn money. Now, assuming a boy's wages to average only 5s. a week, and a girl's only 3s., the wages of 45,000 children who would thus be liberated for 46 weeks in the year, would be equivalent to a gain of more than £400,000 a year to their parents. The strict discipline that shall compel education in the shortest possible time, will be incomparably cheaper to the taxpayer than the mistaken tenderness that spreads education over a great number of years. Meanwhile the State also will gain, as its schools will be less crowded, and the energy of its teachers less heavily taxed with intermittent scholars. I may add, that the vexed question of flogging in our schools will scarcely need to be discussed, when most of the elder children of neglected education have been weeded out.

I have given particular attention to the case of what are popularly known as "gutter children" or "larrikins," the neglected or uncontrolled children of vicious or over-indulgent parents. Hitherto the practice of the department has been to abstain from sweeping these children into our schools, lest they should impair their tone, or to provide them in some school of a special character. The first practice, I need hardly say, is inconsistent with the whole spirit of a compulsory Act. The
second seems to me to be introducing a distinction that may easily become dangerous. Half the children in a ragged school are generally such as might easily be made amenable to notions of decency and order. To mix these with the determinately rough and debased, is to make school a deteriorating influence; while there is every possibility that, if they were forced to attend ordinary schools, they would gradually imbibe notions of order, cleanliness, and good taste. On the other hand, some of the children are exposed to home influences of such a kind as must counteract all the discipline of a school, however excellent. Their parents are, perhaps, habitual drunkards; their brothers and sisters thieves and prostitutes. So long as the conduct of these children is unexceptionable, no one will grudge them their present privilege of attending the ordinary State school in their district. But, if they are truant or refractory, or habitually use foul language, the State ought, I think, in mercy to themselves, to deal summarily with them and remit them to a reformatory. Happily the class is not numerous; and I hope to be able to show that the administration of our so-called industrial schools, may easily be so improved that the economies in this direction will balance the cost of the innovation I propose. I may just add, that the position naturally chosen for

Existing ragged schools.

a so-called ragged school adds very much to the inherent vices of the institution. Such a school is designed to attract those for whom an ordinary State school would be too respectable; and it is therefore not unfrequently placed in the midst of the slums of a large town. The school in Little Bourke street is in an alley, and the children are often taught in the road for want of room inside. Not long ago two Chinese brothels were opened hard by, and the children could watch the customers going in and out during the class-work.

Industrial schools.

11. Our so-called industrial schools have received my careful attention, and I subjoin a special report upon them. Generally I have to recommend that care be taken in their administration, to discriminate orphans and abandoned or neglected children from those who are already tainted with vice. I propose that the former should be handed over to the care of some of those excellent institutions, Catholic and Protestant, which have been founded for children of this class; while the latter should be taught in reformatories placed henceforth under the care of the Education Department. I have given my best attention to schemes for making the labour of these children profitable to the State, which is called upon to support them. But it seems to me that the State would be committing itself to a false principle, as well as to a monstrous inconsistency, if it adopted any other system with the boys and girls thrown upon its parentage than that which it recommends to fathers and mothers throughout the colony. It tells these to renounce the profit of young children's labour in the hope of educating them quickly and thoroughly; and it ought, I think, to have no other rule for itself. I do not mean that children in a reformatory should have no manual labour imposed on them; but that their work should be designed principally to educate them, rather than to reimburse the State. I may add, that children's labour can only be made profitable by the strict supervision of a large staff, and that the salaries of officials will soon consume all the profits of labour.

Extra subjects.

12. At present no provision is made by the State for giving any education except at primary schools and at the University But by the system of extra courses schoolmasters are allowed to charge fees for teaching such subjects as Latin, French, Euclid, algebra, and mensuration; and students are encouraged to attend these courses by exhibitions tenable at public schools and at the University. Apart from certain faults of detail, such as that these exhibitions are too poorly endowed and hampered with too many restrictions, the system seems to me imperfect in every way. In the first place it is mere accident whether the head master of a large school is qualified or cares to make money by teaching extras, and I could quote many instances of anomalous practice on this head, cases where no extras are taught in a large town, and cases where classes have been formed in a mere village. In the next place it seems unfair that children whose parents cannot afford to pay for extra courses, should be unable to win the blue ribbon of a State scholarship. Lastly, the actual result that the State exhibitions have been practically, till this last year, carried off by three schools in large towns has undoubtedly damped the energy of many teachers. Were this system to be continued, it would, I think, be wise to sacrifice the advantage of the general examination for the whole colony and to establish different centres for separate competing districts.

13. But I think the State will do well to substitute an entirely new system, very much increasing the number of exhibitions given, and apportioning them as an endowment to middle-class or high schools in the smaller centres of population. Five hundred such exhibitions, lasting four years, for pupils between the ages of 13 and 17, would enable every town with 3,000 inhabitants to have its middle-class school; and if all pupils in the upper sixth class of a State school were allowed to attend on payment of half fees, no injustice would be done to the large class who fail in competitive examinations but are capable of good steady work. Such a system seems to me very preferable to that of buying up existing
middle-class schools and replacing them by schools under State control, to which all might send their children free of cost. Putting aside the question of the vast expense which such a purchase by the State would entail, I think it desirable that the State should select the scholars whom it encourages to train themselves for the higher professional careers, and that it should give in these schools an education of a more directly practical kind than finds favour in our chief grammar schools. On the other hand, it is most desirable that a body of highly trained teachers should continue to work outside of State control, pursuing their own methods, and in some instances imparting knowledge which it might not be within the State's province to impart.

14. Even the scholarships I have assumed founded will not supply the stimulus we require for all classes unless they are supplemented by others tenable at the University or at affiliated colleges. We want to give prizes that shall be most attractive to the class that is now least attracted to our schools, and this we may I think, assume with rare exceptions to be the class earning weekly wages or settled on small plots of land. In general a struggling yeoman, or farm laborer or station hand, or a man earning low wages in a large town, will not, I fear, be much attracted by the costless middle-class education which we offer his child between 13 and 17, and for which he must sacrifice its labour. I should hesitate myself to recommend a man having no business connections to take away his child from the plough or the factory on the chance that a knowledge of French and book-keeping may help him to a commercial situation. But if such a parent knows that his child, after its grammar school education, has a fair chance, being competent, of an exhibition that will enable him to train as a scientific farmer or a land surveyor or a mining manager; still more, if he understands that, in case he has given proof of special capacity, he will be taken costlessly through a University course, and conducted into a profession; in such a case, we may, I think, fairly expect that some of the strongest impulses of human nature—family pride, ambition, and parental foresight—will be enlisted on the side of our State system. Our middle-class schools are wanted and necessary under any circumstances. Parents in small towns complain that the State is subsidizing the higher culture in Melbourne by its endowment of the University, while it takes no thought for the small towns or for the class who come between the primary school and the University. But while this ground alone would justify the establishment of middle-class schools, their importance in enabling talent to rise from the position in which it is worst paid to that in which it is best paid, is not, I think, the smallest part of their use.

15. I am well aware that University education is regarded by many as no more than a costly luxury, which only men of some fortune are justified in allowing themselves, and which does little to promote the practical well-being of the graduate or of his country. I believe a very slight examination of facts will dispel this delusion. The University of Melbourne, being at present most inadequately subsidized and officered, attempts only to give degrees in Arts, Medicine, and Law, and certificates in Engineering. The practical use of the degree in Arts is to certificate schoolmasters, and hitherto, owing to the expense of a University education, the whole body of State schoolmasters, with rare exceptions, has passed into the State service wanting the certificate, which the public trusts and which the profession desires. The practical use of a degree in Law and Medicine is rarely doubted, and I will only observe that the cost of the faculty of Law is very trifling, and that in Medicine the number of students is far below the supply required for the wants of the colony. In Engineering, though the field of employment is comparatively limited, few students finish more than a second year's course, the demand for trained men being every year greater than the supply. Altogether, if we assume that half our State teachers ought to have a year's study at the University, there is room for sixty more in this department, and we ought to treble the present number of medical students if we are to supply our own population from our own chief school.

16. But I venture to think that the great English Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and the Irish of Trinity College, Dublin, are the worst models that could have been selected for the university of a young country, and the mere fact that they differ from the universities of Scotland, of the Continent, and of America, is in itself strong proof that they have grown up under exceptional circumstances. In fact Oxford and Cambridge possess an independent revenue of more than three-quarters of a million, and recruit many of their undergraduates from a class who are independent of a profession, and who join a college for its social advantages, as they would join a regiment or a club. Our own wealthy men, if they send their sons to Melbourne University at all, send them as a rule for only part of the course; and wisely, as I think, send them to finish their education in England. The country thus gets costlessly what Oxford and Cambridge once tried to effect by travelling fellowships, a class of travelled men among its citizens. Practically then we have to assume that our students are now, and will long continue to be, men who expect to earn their bread by the work of their brains. If this be so it is the obvious interest of the community that capable students should not be kept back by the cost of education, and that the instruction given should be made as far as
possible of a practical character. Even in law the advantage to the community at large of highly trained barristers and judges can hardly be overrated, and the difference in money value between a court whose decisions are generally upheld and one whose decisions are often reversed cannot easily be over-estimated. But a faculty of Law represents, after all, only one small department of intellectual work. Within the last century agriculture, stock-breeding, forestry, mechanics, technology, navigation, and many other subjects have risen more or less into the rank of exact sciences.

17. The importance of these to a young country cannot, I think,
Some advantages of a faculty of Practical Science.
be overrated. I would not wish to advance any extravagant claims for the value of university teaching in such a science as agriculture. College lectures will not make a stupid man, or a man without the special talents of a farmer, succeed better than his uninstructed but cleverer neighbour; the most that can be expected is that, of two equally clever men, the highly trained farmer shall be the more successful. Neither, again, can university professors, whose function is to impart, not to invent, be expected to enrich the country with new methods of agriculture or new machines. But we may fairly expect that the teachers and students in a department of practical science will be readier to try experiments, will know better how to distinguish what is sound from what is worthless, and will now and again introduce an improvement one or two years earlier than it might otherwise have been naturalized. Even on this moderate estimate the gain to the country will far outweigh the cost. Assume the better method introduced to represent a gain of only two bushels to the acre, and the time of its introduction to be anticipated by only a single year, and it will be worth between £200,000 and £300,000. Assume that a new machine, producing the results claimed for the American harvester, is popularized a year sooner than it might have been, the gain is £140,000. The smaller of these sums would alone defray the expense of model farms, agricultural colleges, exhibitions, and university lectureships.

Cheapest way of effecting the change.

18. The question remains whether, assuming these advantages to be real, the State may not attain them more cheaply than by abolishing fees at the University. A theory has been propounded that the State need only increase the number of exhibitions now held at the University, and leave that institution to pay its way. A short calculation will show that this view is untenable. By the scheme I propose, which is a more liberal one than any I have seen or heard propounded anywhere, the State will send every year 60 pupils from the Training College, and some number, not exceeding 100, from other quarters to the University. The fees for 160 pupils will average about £3,200 at £20 a piece; but as these will supersede the old exhibitions we can only calculate them at £3,000. Now it is scarcely too much to say that the University cannot defray its expenses at this moment when fees have not been abolished. It is not in debt, and it has accumulated some money from former years, but it is compelled to practise the most cheeseparing economy, and can just pay its officers and servants, spending nothing on books, apparatus, or medical preparations. The extra £3,000, which it would gain from the fees paid by the State for its exhibitioners, would not supply a third of the new teaching power that would be wanted, and would be given in such a manner that the State would exercise no control over its expenditure. I may point out further, that the fees now exacted in Melbourne are higher than is at all customary in other parts of the world. Even in Oxford and Cambridge the strict university fees are not more than a fourth what is charged here;

At Oxford a student pays £2 10s. for matriculation, £3 12s. for examinations, and £7 10s. for a B.A degree. At Cambridge the fee for matriculation is £5, for little-go and greats £2 10s., and that for the B.A, degree £7. College residence and private tutors are the great expenses of these universities, and it is no longer necessary to belong to a college.

and the expenses of a medical degree in Scotland are so moderate that some of our own students have found that they saved money by going home. The experiment of cheap or free teaching has been made with the highest success in Germany,

In a German university "every ordinary or extraordinary professor is expected to deliver, gratis, two courses of at least two lectures a week, extending through the whole of each summer, on some materia point of the science he professes."—Perry on German Universities, Macmillan's Magazine, Dec. 1877, p. 150.

and the courses of some of the best American universities are now altogether free. I look for several results from the introduction of free university courses. I hope many residents in Melbourne will attend parts of a course, even though they do not look forward to competing for a certificate or a degree. I confidently anticipate that many students will be attracted from other colonies by the better teaching and more liberal provisions of our University; and I trust that, in proportion as knowledge is popularized and made practical, the hall-mark of a university degree will be valued for the knowledge it implies, not as a badge of any social distinction.

19. The question how we may improve and retain our teaching
Payment and promotion of teachers.
staff is not less important than the question how to attract and teach our young. The teachers of Victoria are among the heaviest sufferers from the want of organization in our school system. The country votes every year
a sum that is sufficient to provide liberally for their salaries, and our democratic institutions give them special opportunities of having their grievances enquired into and redressed. But there is no proper classification distinguishing the trained from the untrained teacher, and no system by which a teacher may be able to rise from one rank into another; the present method of payment by results creates constant irritation and sense of wrong, and the ablest teacher can only hope to remain what he is in a better paid school. The prevalent impressions are that a teacher careful about his income must teach mechanically, and manipulate his classes; that if he wish for promotion he must aim at securing Parliamentary influence; and that if he would be on good terms with the department he must give it as little trouble as possible. I do not say that these impressions are always correct. The "crammer" and "manipulator" will find himself now and again disappointed by the vigilance of inspectors, and I need not say that heads of departments are often guided in their most incomprehensible acts by other and far better motives than aspirants for promotion ascribe to them. But I do feel that, where no fixed rules of promotion are followed, or where the rules are fixed but not known and cannot be guessed, the result is very demoralizing to the service concerned.

Actual system.

20. Under our present system the teachers fall naturally into two great classes—the licensed and the certificated; while the certificated again may be divided variously, as some have only passed an examination, while others have passed in honours, and some have merely been through the Training College, while others—and these are the most thoroughly trained—have been pupil-teachers before going to the Training College.

Concerning licensed teachers, I think there is no great difference of opinion, that we cannot dispense with them as yet, and that we must aim at gradually replacing them. So long as many of our school appointments are as uninviting as they are, highly trained men and women will shrink from accepting them. It is not the small income that is the great deterrent so much as the natural disinclination to live in a remote and thinly peopled district, away from friends, and at a distance from the means of self-improvement. We may therefore content ourselves at present it we can send out sixty pupil-teachers a year from a two years' course at a central Training College, and count that a few State exhibitioners will apply for and gain the University certificates of teaching. The changes I propose in this respect are, first, that all teachers shall be educated in Melbourne, and, next, that they shall follow a part of the University course. By the present system they are scattered over the country in schools whose masters receive a pension for training them, and come up after a year from training of a very uncertain kind to be taught by special teachers on a programme so vast that it is never carried out. I am convinced that they can be better taught by working in their first year for a definite standard like that of the University matriculation, and following the first year's course in Arts during the second year under the ordinary University lecturers. Mr. Gladman, I am glad to say, is in favour of this change. The only argument of importance urged against it has been that a two years' residence in Melbourne will increase the students' disinclination to accept situations in the country. But the true way to meet this will, I think, be by making service for some years in the country a preliminary condition to holding any of the great professional prizes.

21. The sixty or seventy highly-trained students whom I assume the Training College to turn out every year will be divided under the plan I propose into classes showing the teachers' qualifications by a recognized University standard; and those who have passed with honour or completed a longer term of preparation will retain through life a certain definite rank in the service. On the other hand, every facility will be given to teachers who have failed in a first trial to win their higher certificate by a second attempt any time after the first; and the inspector's certificate of successful work—will rank with the University certificate in determining the teacher's rank and remuneration. I propose further that teachers wishing to proceed to a University degree should be encouraged to do it in two ways, by being allowed to live under certain regulations at the Training College, and to count their time there as years in the service, and by being allowed to enter as pupil-teachers under the masters of State grammar schools, and here again to count their times of work as years in the service. Above all, I propose that higher prizes than the State service now gives should be opened up to the ambition of teachers showing themselves efficient and carrying on their studies, and that a large proportion of the inspectorships and headships of State grammar schools should be confined to State schoolmasters, who, after a certain time has elapsed, may be required to qualify for them by a B.A. degree at the University. The promotions that can be made in this way, with a few good-service pensions for gentlemen who are best left in their present sphere as heads of primary schools, will enable the department to remodel the whole scale of payments for the profession.

22. On this question of payments I may say at once that my Objection to the present system of teaching extras.
objections to the present system are not founded on its cost but on its capricious and uneven working. A teacher at £200 who brings his fifty children up to the standard in six years is an incomparably better bargain for the State than a teacher at £100 whose school never attains the standard at all; and though I hope to effect an economy of from £20,000 to £30,000 in this direction, I should hesitate to do it if the total effect of the changes I propose was not advantageous in a practical point of view to the profession.

At present a few large incomes are made by the successful teaching of extra subjects. Now, the effect of this system is bad in several ways. The proper work of a head master is to organize and superintend, to give lessons in class-teaching, to examine, and, above all, to see that the teaching in every class is intelligent. He is drawn away from his proper work if he attempt to teach extras himself, and he is placed in an embarrassing position if he leaves what seems the higher description of work to an assistant. Then, again, it is very difficult, when the value of appointments is seriously raised by extras, to effect the transfers that are necessary from time to time. A man cannot be moved to a position for which he is specially fitted because he would leave paying classes behind him, or because he could not keep up the classes that a predecessor has founded. I believe, therefore, that the indirect abolition of extra teaching by the establishment of middle-class schools in the towns where the teaching of extra subjects is now found profitable, will very much facilitate the work of the department.

Range of a teacher's work should be increased.

23. On the other hand, I would slightly increase the range of the subjects that a teacher is bound to impart gratuitously. I see no reason why two books of Euclid and the elements of algebra and of the Latin language should not be taught in every upper sixth class; or why every teacher obtaining a certificate of teaching should not be expected to give lessons in drill and in singing or geometric drawing. As regards singing and drawing in particular, I must express my regret that the State has ever appointed special teachers. The general opinion of those schoolmasters I have consulted has been that the change works badly; that the special teachers can do no good real good with the large classes assigned them; that their hours of attendance, which vary in every place, interfere very much with the timetable; and that all the instruction given might easily be imparted by the regular teachers. I may add that the heavy charge which the State sustains on this account (£13,000 a year) will increase rapidly year by year if the system is not changed, as every district thinks it a point of honour to have as many advantages as its neighbour. I would therefore suggest that during the next twelve months measures be taken for superseding the teachers who now give singing and drawing lessons. Some may be drafted into the regular service, which they left for their present work; and some may profitably be employed for a time in giving instruction to teachers in country districts, or in the Training College. The teachers of drawing will probably rather gain than lose in the long run, as, under the plan I propose, drawing will be subsidized at the University and at the schools of mines, and will be a subject in the high school course. Should this change be adopted, I would suggest that Friday afternoon, the time when attendance at State schools is most irregular, be made the time for drawing lessons in future.

24. As regards payment by results, the present system is very complicated. The head teacher is paid a sum not exceeding 50 per cent, of his fixed income on an average of school ages, of intellectual proficiency, and of attendances at examination compared with school rolls. Thus certain deductions are made for every failure to pass in a subject required of the class, certain others if children who have been on the lists during the last fortnight are not presented for examination, and certain others if the children in a class exceed the average standard of age. Accordingly, if a district has been visited by scarlet fever and children have been kept away; or again, if the truant officer has swept a number of neglected children into the school and raised the standard of age in the lower classes, the schoolmaster is fined. I may give two instances of the way in which this system works, which came under my own observation. In the first, a child whose two sisters were in bed with scarlet fever, and who was evidently in the first stage of it herself, was produced from a side-room by the head teacher that she might be counted at a result examination. In the second, a head master whose discipline, teaching, and classification were declared good by the inspector, found his percentage reduced from 84 to 28, and his payment for results from £44 2s, to £15 8s., because he was teaching a head master whose discipline, teaching, and classification were declared good by the inspector, found his percentage, 70. 375.—Either the classification is erroneous or the instruction

I append two reports on a school in another district written by the same inspector within the same year—

• 26th April 1877.—General inspection.—The school is in excellent working order and the instruction is useful and systematic. Class lessons are successfully given. * * The order and discipline are very satisfactory.

• Nov. 30. 1877.—Inspector's percentage, 70. 375.—Either the classification is erroneous or the instruction
is defective.

In other words, a highly competent inspector finds the classification good when he examines casually, and bad when he examines for results. Assume that the rolls have been "stuffed," as he suspects, in anticipation of his coming, and we get a fair sample of the natural effects of the result system. It constantly leads to what I have before spoken of, the manipulation of classes.

Manipulation of classes.
A clever child of 6 or 7 is shifted up into a class where the average age is 10 and 3 months to make up for a balance of dunces over age. The inspectors think they are able to detect this delusive classification. I have tested their powers occasionally by examining their reports on schools where I had private information that the classification was manipulated. In one aggravated case of this kind, I thought I could detect that the three inspectors who had examined the school during the last three years had all doubted the classification; but they had none of them given much weight to their doubts in the determination of results. I believe the whole system to be faulty. It is the duty of the district, represented by the school board, to enforce attendances; and if the parents are reluctant to send their children, because the teacher is incompetent, it is then the duty of the school board to represent the matter to the department. The question of age will probably adjust itself after a short time, when our children have all been reclaimed from habitual truancy. But under any circumstances, proper classification is so essential to proper teaching that no master ought to be tempted to place children by any rule but that of their proficiency.

Proposed system.
25. I think that, if the two disturbing elements of attendances and age be eliminated from payment by results, the teachers will have no reason to complain if a certain though smaller proportion of their salary is still made dependent on their practical work; and it would not, I think, be wise to withdraw altogether the stimulus which a well-adjusted result system produces, or to keep no penalty for remissness in work but the very severe one of degradation in rank. The system I propose will, however, distinguish carefully between the work of a head master and the work of assistant teachers. In the case of the head master, organization, discipline, and intelligent teaching will be considered separately. It is his duty to see that all under him work in the right way; and a rather larger proportion of his results ought to depend on this than on the separate teaching in the respective classes, the teachers to which are appointed by the department. In the case of assistant teachers, I think the broad principle that every child ought to move up a class a year will be found to work well, if a sufficient margin for failures be allowed. Here again I have thought it desirable to give the inspector power to assign marks for general efficiency in the conduct of a class, for the power to enforce attention and teach intelligently. The great apparent difficulty in assigning income by results is that the head master may be unduly dependent on the teachers assigned to him, or these again foiled by the faulty classification. But this difficulty belongs to the present system even more than to that I propose; and it is less real than it seems, for very few assistants are so bad that they cannot be worked up to produce average results; and very few head teachers can ruin the effect of competent class-teaching.

26. In connection with this subject of salaries, I would wish to press on the Government the importance of at once drawing up a scheme for retiring pensions. At present teachers are in the ambiguous position that they have a promise to be provided for in any future scheme, but are not actually entitled to any allowances. Practically the claim for pensions is constantly recognised, and the State, therefore, gains nothing by leaving it uncertain, but as it is vague and" may be disallowed, it does not operate as an inducement to enter the profession. I add nothing on this subject, as it was not included within the terms of my commission.

27. The changes I have proposed will make the duty of a school inspector even more important, if possible, than it has been heretofore. Under a rigid system of compulsion the department will no longer be able to delay or omit examining for results, as has been intentionally done till now, for fear of leading parents to withdraw their children from school. Again, though the inspector will be relieved from much extra duty when he is no longer called upon to report where schools are wanted, and from much clerical work by the changes that make it no longer necessary for him to compute attendances and average ages, he will have to drop in on schools even more frequently than before to see that the rolls are properly called, and will be required to test intelligent teaching as well as actual results, at greater length than at present. Now the present staff is altogether inadequate to the work it has to perform. It consists nominally of 18 gentlemen; but, of these, one is always detained in town by office work, and another, the inspector-general, is more or less disabled in the same manner while the four senior inspectors spend several months of the year in examining candidates for licenses. Computing the staff, how ever, at 16 travelling inspectors, I find that each gentleman has on an average 100 schools to examine, scattered over an area of 5,250 square miles, and with an
Meanwhile it may happen that serious damage is sustained by the delay, or that a trifling injury is aggravated and an interval of several months often elapses before the authorization to spend 5s. has been received.

wants to the department; the department directs the district surveyor to report when he next goes to the school; if the taps of a pump gets out of order, or the pale of a fence is displaced, or the slabbing of a well caves in, draw up a summary.

be for a child to reduce a sentence to its component parts, he will gain more by learning to write a letter or to exercises in English composition be substituted to some extent for exercises in analysis. However useful it may be for a child to reduce a sentence to its component parts, he will gain more by learning to write a letter or to 

checking lists of names and computing ages before they proceed to examine for results, they will be able to confidentially on what day they will be in the district. As they will no longer have to waste several hours in fixed for the examination of high school pupils; but it is desirable that they should let the board of advice know desirable that they should give notice on what day they are going to examine for results except in the months/wishes to the department; the department directs the district surveyor to report when he next goes to the school; and an interval of several months often elapses before the authorization to spend 5s. has been received.

Meanwhile it may happen that serious damage is sustained by the delay, or that a trifling injury is aggravated
by neglect. The department thinks that it saves money by this mode of procedure; and that local authorities, having the certainty that they should be reimbursed by the State, would spend money more freely, and would be less careful to see that it was well applied. I believe the chief economy is in the fact that teachers are often unwilling to make their real wants known under such a system. But setting the waste of clerical work in Melbourne, of surveyors sent from a distance to report, and of injuries aggra-

vated by neglect against the assumed extravagance of a board of advice, I am very doubtful if the State gains anything. I would mention the case of planting trees in particular as one instance of work that could be thoroughly well done by men living on the spot, and that has been repeatedly mismanaged by the department. I believe it is possible to trust the school boards adequately, without giving them blank cheques on the Treasury. I find that the petty repairs for 1876 averaged a little more than £5 to a school. I propose that every school board be authorized to spend in that proportion for every school under its care; so that, for instance, where a school board has six schools to superintend, it shall have a "petty cash" credit of £30 a year, which it may spend on one or distribute among all. In the few cases where a board has only one school, and that a large one, under its charge, this sum will require to be slightly increased; but an allowance of £10 will probably meet these cases. Of course the school boards must regard themselves as trustees for the public, spending as little as they can; but I believe this object will be best attained if they are allowed to carry on the balance of one year to the next; and on the other hand are never allowed to overdraw.

Boards of advice should have the power of refusing to receive a disgraced teacher.

31. It is even more important that boards of advice should have a power of objecting when a teacher who has been removed from one place for misconduct is transferred to another. In a small community like our own, a man's reputation soon follows him, and if his antecedents have been unfortunate, the scandal is not diminished when he settles in a new place. I am well aware that the practical result of this regulation will be that scarcely any teachers will find employment again, if they have been once suspended. But it must be borne in mind that the cases of misconduct for which the department suspends and transfers teachers are generally of a very serious kind: drunkenness, foul language, money irregularities, or brawling. It cannot, I think, be thought extreme, if in these cases the board of advice which represents the district has the right to say whether public confidence will have been destroyed in the teacher by his antecedents. I cannot regard the work which a teacher has to do as simply concerned with intellectual results. It is essentially moral; and a teacher who does not command the respect of his district ought not to remain in the State service.

Greater responsibility of boards of advice under the proposed system.

32. Altogether the changes I propose will throw more work on the school boards throughout the country, will invest them with new powers and responsibilities, and will define their office and rights very sharply. Under the Act of 1872 they have no real rights except to visit the schools in their district, and to suspend a school teacher for misconduct. It is true the Act recommends that they should write letters on a great variety of subjects, and many boards have complied with the suggestion; but my informants have commonly agreed in declaring that they get no result from their correspondence except a formal acknowledgment of its receipt. I have said that only school boards can work the compulsory system or care properly for the maintenance of our buildings; and the first Act sufficiently implies the opinion of Government that school boards can assist the department in watching over the instruction given. But there is another function

Prizes.

which may, I think, with propriety be left to school boards; I allude to the giving of prizes, implying, as I do, that the State should found some 500 scholarships for our State schools, I am not prepared to recommend that it should incur an additional outlay for prizes; and I am the more disinclined to do this, as I think there is danger lest the State, if it does too much, should destroy all interest and activity in the various districts. Practically, school boards and schoolmasters find no difficulty where they are so inclined in raising money for prizes. In large townships this is commonly clone by subscription, and in outlying districts by social gatherings, concerts or readings, in the schoolroom. At Mortlake I found four sets of prizes given in the school, two by large proprietors in the district, Mrs. Neil Black and the Hon. W. Bayles; and two by gentlemen resident in the town, Mr. Puckle and Mr. Greave. Even in small country places, such as Stanley or Penshurst or Broadford, there seems to be no difficulty in raising from £10 to £15 by an evening entertainment. The public spirit on this point being so excellent, I think we may leave it to do its work without State interference. The competition which our new system of scholarships will excite is pretty certain to put the most sleepy districts on their mettle.

33. I have taken great pains to ascertain how far the erection of school buildings has been economically carried out by the department. I need not say that at a time when so great a migration of population is going on it must sometimes happen that a school is deserted by its village. This has been the case very largely in the Western districts; and now and again a school has been closed, as at
Byambynee, or will have to be closed, as at Bokhara. Generally, however, where a school has been erected or enlarged without necessity, the inspector-general or his subordinates have reported against it or have declined to advise it; and the action taken seems to have been due to local reasons or to the special decision of the Minister. Thus the importunity of the board of advice procured on 16th February 1877 the authorization for a new school at Yan Yean, although the district inspector reported against the grant, on the ground that the population was leaving the district, and that all remaining families were provided for, and though the inspector-general coincided with this view. Similarly, in November 1876, an order was given to erect a new school at Gowerville in accordance with a request from the board of advice, though a public meeting had been held to protest against it, and though the district inspector and the inspector-general had reported against it. Not less curious is the case of Greensborough, where four months after a new school building had been designed by the department on a scale supposed to be adequate to local wants, and three months after a tender had been accepted, the Minister (19th May 1877) ordered an infant room to be added to the proposed building.

A minor instance of misjudged expenditure is where a school is built on too large a scale for the population. Thus at Beech worth the resident school population has never exceeded 700, some of whom are provided for by a middle-class school, but the building erected will accommodate 1,000.

Of course a great number of districts are as importunate for unnecessary schools as the three I have instanced; and the inconvenience and loss they entail on the State is unfortunately not limited by the few hundreds spent on a school building and the salary of a new teacher. Complaints instantly come in from the schools that are drained of pupils and lose in income; and the department has to arrange for transferring competent teachers elsewhere, to the loss of the parents whose children were studying under them. Nevertheless, as it seems undesirable to tie the hands of the Minister in so important a matter as school-building, I can only recommend that henceforward the departmental report for the year should always contain a list of the new school-buildings authorized, with a short statement of the population accommodated by each, of the distance from the nearest school, and of the reasons why an additional building was required.

Proper site for a school.

In one respect the department has, I think, been unwisely economical. It appears not unfrequently to have built a school on land that had scarcely any recommendation but that of being State property. Thus the desire to avoid purchasing land has caused schools to be placed more or less outside the real town at Maryborough, at Clunes, at Belfast, at Warrnambool, at Kilinore, at Colac, at Beechworth, and at Benalla. Even where the object has been, as at Beechworth, to secure a large playground, I am inclined to doubt this policy, and believe that the State would have done well to sell its land for what it would fetch, and carry the purchase-money to the account of the cost of land equally suitable in a central situation. But the reason seems sometimes, as at Clunes, to have been only to obtain a picturesque situation; though the advantage of a pretty site on the brow of a distant hill is inevitably purchased by defective attendances in the younger children. At Benalla the site is so remote from the new town near the railway station, that three primary schools are supported by private attendances, and the department will soon be forced to erect a second building. I hope it may be an instruction in future to Government surveyors laying out new townships, that they shall invariably reserve a block of two acres, or thereabouts, in what appears to be the most central situation, for a State school.

Proper site for a school.

34. The Act of 1872, to quote the words of Mr. Cameron's Position of the inspector-general.

Report to the Royal Commissioners in Queensland.


"has virtually made the inspector-general the secretary's subordinate officer." I confess to thinking with Mr. Cameron that it is difficult to understand why this was done. Either officer has important functions to discharge, and it may be that the secretary, who is responsible for the proper working of the office in Melbourne, has had a task of exceptional difficulty to perform during the last three years. But his work is, I hope, about to be lightened, and when the control of the truant system passes into the hands of boards of advice, when the department is no longer applied to for leave to hold a meeting in a school-room, or to mend a broken lock in a door, and when we have only to build for the yearly increase of our population, it will be comparatively easy for one man to sift the cases that remain and lay them before the Minister. On the other hand, the importance of the inspector-general's work will increase year by year. He, and he only, is able to recommend for promotion, so far as promotion is not determined by fixed rules, He, and he only, can show what requires to be amended in our school system, how far the teacher's education is adequate or faulty, and whether we are gaining or losing ground in the war against ignorance. It cannot be right, I think, that such an officer should be second to anyone in the department except its political chief. He should, at least, stand on the same footing, as regards income and position, with the secretary.

35. Another change imperatively demanded in the organization Appointment of a second examiner.
of the office is the appointment of a second examiner, as these officers are technically called in England (where 27 are employed in the London office), who may sift the correspondence and make a short précis of it for the use of his chief. One of the inspectors is at present detailed for this office, but he is overworked, and is, practically, helped through his duties by the inspector-general, who is kept in town for the purpose. I do not think it is an overstatement to say that the appointment of a fresh examiner, trained for the work by previous duty as an inspector, would relieve the inspector-general of three months’ work, and do the work now discharged by two or three clerks in addition. The task of separating important from unimportant documents, of seeing at a glance what the gist of a communication is, and of putting it into such words as to be intelligible to others, is not one which can be confided to young and inexperienced hands. The appointment of this officer will, however, be more than counter-balanced by the abolition of the whole office, known hitherto as the boards of advice branch, and employing a head and eleven clerks. The work these gentlemen do will be mostly done in future by boards of advice, and the reduced correspondence which boards of advice will in future carry on with the department can be managed, I think, by the second examiner and a single clerk.

The Education Department to he brought under the Civil Service Act.

36. At present the clerks in the Education Department have not been brought under the Civil Service Act, though the Act of 1872 implies (section 22) that they are to be so. I have already alluded (p. 21) to the necessity of promulgating some scheme by which retiring pensions may be assured to the teachers. It is even more necessary that all examiners, clerks, accountants, and other persons employed at the head office, should be classified, and rise by well-understood rules. The large use now made of supernumeraries is fatal to real efficiency. These gentlemen have no certain position, and may, therefore, leave the service when they are not wanted, and require, in some cases, to be retained by higher pay than the officials generally receive. The existence of two classes of officers doing the same work, yet holding different positions, is a constant source of jealousy and heart-burning. In reporting on the position of the new inspectoral staff, I arranged the schedule of incomes so as to correspond to classes in the Civil Service. Having examined a plan which the late secretary, Mr. Venables, drew up, for bringing every clerk in the office under the rules and rates of pay of the Civil Service, I may report that this can be done without difficulty, and am prepared, if it is wished, to arrange the details. But the question of retiring allowances to so vast a body of men as the officials and teachers in the Education Department ought, I think, to receive separate and careful consideration, if the country is not to incur heavy liabilities in the future.

37. As regards papers, I beg to repeat a recommendation.

Useless papers should be destroyed.

I made in my first progress report, that all old title-deeds be sent, as all new ones now are, to the Law Officers of the Crown, and that no papers be kept on file more than three years, except the inspector's reports as to the characters of schools and teachers, and the files of extraordinary cases relating to matters of emergency, such as charges against an officer of the department. I make this recommendation not only because old papers are an encumbrance in an office, but because they have a tendency to create work, and so long as the lists of attendances at every school are preserved will clerks be withdrawn from their ordinary work to compile statistics on which returns may be founded or by which applications may be supported. I am glad to say that a beginning has been made in this direction. Several tons of papers have been left behind at the old offices, and had time permitted the work of sifting to be done thoroughly I believe much that is still preserved would have been discarded by the heads of departments.

38. The effect of the changes I have proposed, if they are carried out in their entirety, and can be worked successfully, will be very great. The percentage of school attendance will be raised from 46 at most to at least 80. Parents will be obliged to register their children of school age, and will be restrained from moving them without leave from the district school, and will have to send them more regularly between the ages of 6 and 12. But these slight burdens will be amply counter-balanced as the children will be set free for work at 12, and will be able to continue their studies without cost, or at the smallest possible cost, in high schools and at the University. Professor Huxley's aspiration that the State should provide a ladder reaching from the gutter to the University, along which every child in the three kingdoms shall have the chance of climbing as far as he is fit to go," will have found its first realization in Victoria. The teachers, on whose co-operation we depend for these results, will find the standard of professional training raised, promotion determined by fixed rules and for published reasons, and the prizes of their profession augmented by inspectorships and the headships of middle-class schools. The pupil teachers will find the labours of their last year lightened, at the same time that the standard of qualification is raised, by a regulation which will rather lessen than add to the teacher's labours, and which can be carried out at the smallest possible
expense to the State. The inspectors will have grievances of long standing removed, and being eligible for the headships of high schools, can look forward to a pleasant exchange of duties when the work of district inspection has become tedious or unduly severe. The gentlemen who have come forward to help the State as boards of advice will find themselves relieved from many needless formalities, and invested with important powers for good. Lastly, the new high schools and the proposed faculty of Practical Science at the University will, I hope, tell on the whole character of intellectual training in the colony; will strip off some of the gloss that seemed to attach to degrees in proportion as these were expensive and useless; and will give a higher meaning to the work of the farmer, the miner, and the mechanic, as they find that learning and thought can increase the fruits of the earth or the produce of the factory as well as mellow the mind.

Economy effected by the proposed changes.

39. The cost of these changes can only be roughly estimated, but may be determined within certain limits of variation. An estimate prepared in the department shows that there will be a gross saving of more than £49,000 a year by the new schedule of teachers' salaries. About a fourth of this is gained by slightly increasing the numbers taught in a class, an arrangement which will not diminish efficiency, if attendances are more regular than they have been. The remaining three-fourths are obtained by reductions in salaries. These will, I hope, be less felt at this time than they would have been at any other, as the new inspectorships and the proposed high schools ought to provide for twenty of our best teachers, and so to cause a very general promotion. Besides this, the increased attendances will have the effect of raising many salaries. But as there will still be some cases of hardship, especially among female teachers, I propose that the Minister should be empowered to grant, in the present year only, ten good service pensions of fifty pounds, tenable by the recipient during service, ten of thirty pounds, and twenty of ten pounds. Thirteen thousand a year will be saved by the regulation that class singing and drawing are in future to be taught by members of the regular staff, and £2500 by the similar regulation about drill and singing licenses. Were all the schools in the lowest class to be made half-time schools the saving would be enormous, but I assume this to be impracticable and allow only for a hundred amalgamations with a saving of £4,000. Lastly, I calculate on gaining £1,500 by the reduction of clerks in the offices; £2,000 by the remodelling of the training system; £4,000 by substituting registration for a census; and £2,500 by transferring the children now in industrial schools to orphanages. The economies amount on paper to £76,500, and will actually realize, I think, at least £60,000, after the growth of schools has been allowed for. The charges I propose to create are, £2,000 for an increased staff of inspectors and a second examiner; £1,200 for additional pupil teachers, to take part of the work of those in their fourth year; £1,000 for good service pensions (a temporary charge); £25,500 for high schools, high school inspection and exhibitions; £1,000 (additional) for schools of mines, and £23,000 (additional) for the University. This shows a charge of nearly £54,000 against £60,000 economized.

Cost of the proposed changes.

I do not say that our system, so constituted, will be a cheap one, but I believe that it will be more efficient as well as cheaper than it has been, or than any English speaking people possesses; and that the chief causes of the startling growth in expenditure will have been removed when small schools are amalgamated, and when every teacher is trained to give instruction in singing, drawing, or drill. A time may come when educated men will be comparatively common, and when the honour paid to the teacher will be as great among ourselves as it is on parts of the continent, so that men will look to the social position rather than to the pay of a schoolmaster or a professor in choosing their walk in life. Meanwhile, we can best hasten the advent of that time and of that economy by increasing the opportunities for the higher culture.

40. Let me say, in conclusion, that I should regret it deeply

The changes proposed are recommended as relatively not as absolutely best.

if any portion of this report were supposed to convey my notions of an ideal system. My commission directed me to enquire what was best for Victoria, not what was best absolutely, and I have carefully rejected the consideration of all theories that did not seem to be directly practical. For instance, my own judgment would lead me to assign a larger place to science than I have done in the scheme for high schools, and to substitute German for Latin, but I felt that it would be difficult as it was to provide teachers who can give instruction in science up to the point I have recommended, and I knew that the value of Latin was held strongly by a large part of the community, and above all that to discard it would be to sacrifice connection with the University. So again, no one can feel more strongly than I do that a University ought to contain some provision for research as well as for teaching; and that a geologist, such as Mr. Selwyn was, a botanist like Baron von Mueller, an astronomer like Mr. Ellery, ought to be in some way associated with the counsels and labours and honours of the University. The Smithsonian Institute of Washington has shown what enormous good can be done by men kept to their special work of discovery, and the French practice of now and again releasing a professor, with a special mission (as M. Renan was sent to explore in Palestine), gives a hint of another kind that may be fruitful of use in times to come. But the work immediately in hand seems sufficient for the day; and
I have no fear that a community, educated as the next generation among ourselves ought to be, will long remain indifferent to the claims of speculation and research.

Promotion by merit.

41. I may speak in the same spirit on the great question of admission by competition to the Civil Service. It has been my duty to draw up rules regulating the promotion of teachers by merit, and merit only; and, incidentally, I have called attention to the fact that the State might stimulate education powerfully by reserving certain employments for men who had qualified in the schools of mines and in the University. The whole tenor of my report is that a certificate of qualification should precede every appointment, and should be the condition of practice in every profession. But there are special circumstances in the conduct of every department, and the statesmen who guide public life must consider in what way the general principle, which almost all admit to be sound, can practically be applied.

Part II.

Attendance at Schools Under the Present System.

SIR,—I have the honor to forward a preliminary report on the results as regards attendance at the State schools that have been arrived at under the present Education Act.

2. I may observe that it is extremely difficult to institute a fair Variety of educational standards.

and accurate comparison between the working of different systems even in the same country; much more between the results arrived at in different countries. The number of children between a certain age varies very much at different times. The limits of school age differ to some extent all over the world, and have been changed in Victoria within the last few years, and there are as yet no generally accepted standard and tests of education.

3. In attempting to estimate the results arrived at by the Average of attendances in 1871.

denominational system in Victoria in the year 1871, I have taken the official estimate of children within the school age (as given in the tenth report of the Board of Education), 197,490, and have reduced this, first, by subtracting 30,133 who were then in private and industrial schools; next, by taking off 18,130 as the proportion of children under the present school age of six, who would not then be included in private or industrial schools; and, lastly, by allowing 3,305 for the difference between the children who became of school age during the year and those who exceeded it. This allowance is necessary, as the school census was taken in the last month of the year. After these allowances, the number who ought to have been in State-aided schools during the year 1871 appears to be 145,390. Nominally the attendances were 67,233. But as these have again to be reduced for children under school age who would not now be included, we may estimate them, on the same basis, at about 58,523, giving a ratio which we may roughly state as forty-two in 100.

4. In estimating the number of children at present educated, I

Average of attendances in 1876.

have been enabled by the courtesy of the Education Department to avail myself of the corrected rolls, furnished on the motion of Mr. Mirams. From these it appears that out of a population between school ages estimated at 196,047, 163,610 ought to be accounted for in State schools; 151,827 are actually on the rolls; and 81,154 are in average attendance. Reducing the last by 5,081 for the difference between those who became of school age during the year and those who exceeded it, we arrive at 76,513 as the proportion who were actually at school out of 163,610 who ought to have been there; this will give about 46.76 in 100, roughly speaking, as the percentage of average attendances. Reducing this by 20 per cent, to exclude those broken attendances which are of no real value, we may put the effective attendance at 37.41 in 100 against 32.82, the ratio of 1871. I allow 20 per cent, in 1876 against 22 per cent, in 1871, as the average attendances had risen in 1876 to a proportion of 107.5 in the legal school days against 96.6 the same period of 1871.

Elements of uncertainty.

5. It must be observed that the estimate of children who ought to be at school in Victoria is based on the rather improbable assumption that the proportion to the population is precisely the same now that it was in 1871. The Government Statist informs me that he has no data for arriving at an accurate estimate on the subject,
and that he is not responsible for the figures published by the department. I am inclined to believe that if perfectly accurate figures could be obtained, the result shown would be slightly more favorable to the department than is the case at present, as the marriage rate was steadily decreasing during the eleven years from 1864 to 1874. So, again, the correction of 20 per cent, which I have proposed for fractional attendances is purely conjectural. From a careful examination of the rolls of several schools which I have inspected, and from information supplied by persons competent to form an opinion, I believe it to be somewhere near the truth, and not unfavorable to the department. But there exist no returns at present which would give the information for the colony, and I have not had time to procure them.

6. Other considerations must be taken into account in estimating the educational condition of the country. In the first place, the State standard of education can be attained, when a child is regularly sent to school, in five, six, or seven years, and the State period of nine years, between five and fifteen, allows therefore for a considerable margin. We may be certain that some proportion of the 11,463 who are not accounted for on the State rolls has satisfied the requirements of the State; and we may assume that many more will make up for defective attendance at present before or after the period of school age is terminated. In the next place, it is fair to remember that part of 1870 was a period of exceptional sickness, and that during the last five years there has been a great migration of population to rural districts, which it has been not possible to provide in any adequate degree with schools.

Tests of educational results.

7. I am not aware of any sufficient way in which the educational results really arrived at in the colony can be tested. The Government Statist puts the number of males who could read and write in 1871 at 82.66, and the number who could read only at 9.39. These results are not so good as were obtained in the English army in 1875, at which date it was found that 157,026, or nine in ten, could read and write, against 8.035, or 1 in 21, who could only read, and 9.294, or 1 in 19, who could neither read nor write. But this only shows that the denominational system had not achieved such good results in 1871 as were attained to in 1875 in the English army, where schools of different kinds supplement the early teaching. On the other hand, Mr. Hayter notices that in 1874 the average of persons signing the marriage register with marks was 6.52 for men and 9.91 for women, against 7.62 for men and 15.21 for women, the average for the eleven years ending in 1874, and against 23.29 for males and 32.5 for women in England and Wales during ten years. With reference to this calculation, I may observe that the average in England is very much reduced by the bad results attained to in Wales, and would be decidedly varied if Scotland were included.

8. It is interesting to contrast the results arrived at in other countries where the State subsidises education and does not compel attendance. In England the average attendance of children of school age is about 40 per cent., or, with the deductions I have assumed for Victoria of 20 per cent., about 32 per cent. But only about two in nine of scholars above the age of seven attended the 250 half-times which the English Act tries to enforce, being one-twenty-fifth more than we exact in Victoria. Moreover, the school age in England begins at three and ends at thirteen; and though the habits of mental discipline acquired between the ages of three and six are no doubt very useful, it cannot be said that children at this time of life will retain much that they have learned. Altogether, therefore, Victoria stands at present far above England.

9. In Scotland the school age is from five to thirteen. The Registrar-General put the of school age at 629,235 in 1871, and the commissioners estimated that 561,600 ought to be on the rolls, and, allowing for sickness, 477,360 under daily instruction. Out of this number—which, however, ought to be raised for the increase in population in 1871 and 1875—402,633 were on the rolls of inspected schools, and 273,848 having made the requisite number of attendances, 250 (or 125 as we should count them) were qualified to be examined. From a sixth to a fifth of these, however, were under seven. The State in Scotland therefore appears to educate rather more than 45 per cent, of a school population, and above the age of seven.

10. In Ireland the report of the commissioners unhappily does not give the number of children of school age; and the number on the rolls, not having been corrected for duplicate attendances, is in excess of the probable number of the children who ought to be at school, which, at the Scotch proportion, 18.72 to the population, would be only 992,100. This, again, would have to be reduced for children at private schools. It is impossible to make any proper allowance for these, but we may perhaps say safely that Ireland shows fewer attendances, in proportion to its school population, than Scotland and more than England. It is very doubtful whether these attendances represent a corresponding amount of educational efficiency.
11. The Province of Ontario has a highly-developed school system. In noticing it, it is important to bear in mind that the school age in Ontario is from five to sixteen, or two years longer than in Victoria, and that two-twenty-fifths of the pupils are from seventeen to twenty-one. This, of course, tells against the average attendances, which are spread over fractional parts of many years. The average attendances in Ontario, compared with those of school age, appear to be as 41 per cent.; but this number is on the one hand to be raised by the allowance to be made for those who complete their course in different periods of the long school term, and reduced by an unknown proportion of the 20,000 who are over sixteen. A noteworthy feature is that only 10,000 out of about 250,000 between the ages of seven and twelve are not attending any school.

New England, U. S.

12. It is very difficult to compare Victoria with most of the States in the American Union, as in a large number of these the school age is from five to seventeen, from six to twenty-one, or even from five or four to twenty-one. But two of the New England States may be compared without much difficulty. In Massachusetts, where compulsion has been introduced, but not yet thoroughly enforced, the attendance of children between six and fifteen may be stated at sixty in the hundred. In New Hampshire, where there is no compulsion, the attendance is as forty-eight to 100, or about our own average. Massachusetts gets better results; New Hampshire about the same.

General result.

13. Summing up, I think we may say that Victoria stands pretty well as compared with most of the English-speaking States where education is subsidised out of the public funds, and where compulsion has either not been introduced, or not thoroughly established. It is below Scotland and Massachusetts, but, so far as I can judge, on a level, or nearly so, with Ontario and New Hampshire, and above England, Ireland, and most of the Western and Southern States of the American Union.

Failure of the voluntary system in England and Belgium.

14. Having contrasted our own system, which is national and, secular, and which, practically, has been more voluntary than compulsory hitherto, with that of countries which seem to present the nearest analogy, I may just notice what results have been attained under the denominational system. In England, where great efforts were made by the clergy of all denominations to maintain the sectarian system, the result in 1867 was that 957,516 children, or not quite one in five of the children estimated as of school ages, were attending; or, deducting one-seventh as the English commissioners have done for those who may be assumed to be in private schools, about two in nine. In Belgium, where the education is practically in the hands of a learned, devoted, and energetic clergy, stimulated by a liberal opposition and by the example of other countries, only one in eight was nominally under instruction in 1873, where we get nearly two in nine, and the official statistics recently published show that 42 per cent, of the inhabitants can neither read nor write, and that 50 per cent, of the conscripts have received no instruction whatever. These results are so much worse than those of the denominational system in Victoria during the last year but one of its operation, that I presume we must conclude our own administration to have been singularly successful, or our population singularly alive to the importance of education, and peculiarly able to pay for it. Probably all these causes were in operation.

Success of the compulsory system in North Germany, Switzerland, Denmark, and Sweden.

15. But if the system now in force in Victoria shows rather better results than the old denominational and voluntary system, and emphatically than the denominational system as it has been worked in England and Belgium, the contrast between what we effect and what is done in countries where attendance is enforced is deeply humiliating. In North Germany, Switzerland, Denmark, and Sweden, the percentage of the school population attending school is nowhere lower than eighty-seven in the 100, and is generally above ninety. Nor are these merely nominal results. It was ascertained in 1870 that all recruits of that year in the United German army could at least read and write, though some from the southern states were below the German standard in other respects. On this point it is important to notice that in 1855 it was ascertained that only 12 per cent, of the Prussian Landnehr, or militia, could write. In 1861 the English Commissioner of Education, Mr. Pattison, estimated the average of recruits able to write as "fifty per cent, on the whole." The change from wretchedly inefficient to thoroughly efficient teaching was therefore carried out in fifteen years.

16. Considering this, I think the country has no reason to despond. The work of the last five years has in some respects been well applied. New school-houses have been built, and a body of trained teachers have been called into existence, or brought together or organised. Some of the schools I have visited are in an admirable state of discipline and efficiency. The great want is of compulsion rigorously carried out.

17. I shall have the honor to submit a more detailed report.
Deficiencies of the existing compulsory system.

upon this subject. But I may observe that all the evidence I have taken tends to show that the late amending Act is quite insufficient for its purposes, though it will, no doubt, produce some slight effect. I find a general agreement that the number of necessary attendances in the year ought to be increased at least between the ages of six and twelve, when a child's labor is not generally of much value. The existing system of payment by results operates as a direct premium to schoolmasters to neglect drawing neglected children into their schools, and inflicts a heavy fine on them if the truant officer sends in a large number of defaulters. The liberty parents now enjoy of changing their children's schools at pleasure is very subversive of discipline and injurious to effective teaching. The present educational census is believed in many places to be grossly inaccurate; and it may be a question whether parents should not be compelled to register their children for education, as they now register them for vaccination. It may be possible to stimulate attendance by prizes and competitive examinations. Lastly, boards of advice, which have hitherto been without powers, and consequently without interest in their work, may be induced to undertake the management of the truant system, at least in our large towns, and to stimulate attendance by personal influence, as has been done in Glasgow.

18. Lastly, I may observe that the expense of educating 100

Expense of improved system very small.

where we now educate less than forty, would be only a little raised at first, when the first mass of defaulters was driven in. It is not only no advantage to a master to have smaller numbers in his class on any given day than are on the rolls; but it literally adds very much to his work. Did our whole school population regularly attend from the first, so many would pass the State standard before the term of nine years had expired that the number needing to he taught would probably be reduced by at least 30 per cent., even though no child under eleven was allowed to intermit attendance at school.

I have the honor to be,

Sir,

Your most obedient servant,

CHARLES H. PEARSON.
The Honorable the Minister of Public Instruction.

10th August 1877.

The Compulsory Clauses.

Mr. Lowe's view of education.

It may seem unnecessary to say anything in favour of compulsion in a country where attendance at school is nominally enforced by law. But experience has convinced me that many persons practically hold the view which an English Minister of Education, Mr. Lowe, expressed, in 1808, in a conference on Education held in Liverpool. An enquirer then asked whether, in Mr. Lowe's opinion, Welsh labourers, who earned on an average 12s. a week, were bound to send their boys to school at the ages of ten, eleven, or twelve years, when these boys might be earning from one shilling to eighteenpence a week. Mr. Lowe replied—"Supposing a parent has two or three children who are capable of scaring birds. If, instead of doing that, the parents are called on to send them to school, the consequence is that the family go to the parish. I maintain that those children would be better employed in keeping their father, mother, brothers, and sisters from the parish than in learning anything." It will be observed that Mr. Lowe with characteristic courage chose for his illustration a form of labour which is peculiarly demoralizing to a child's intellect, and for which the smallest possible return is received. But the problem, however stated, is essentially the same. There are mining districts in Victoria where a strong boy under fifteen will sometimes earn as much as a pound a week; and if exemptions are allowed in these cases, they must be allowed in all. The sooner the country realizes this position the better. Many, I am afraid, hold that it is right to put good schools within the reach of all; and right to force children into school if they would otherwise be idle; but that it is not desirable to interfere with children who are profitably employed at home or in factories. Happily, we do not need here to apprehend that parents will

Difficulties of compulsory education.

go on the parish if their children are kept from school. But many difficult cases crop up now and again. A widower, or a widow, left in charge of a young family will often want the girls to do household work, and will be glad to put the boys' labour into the market as soon as it is saleable. Parents in thinly-settled districts will often find it difficult to replace the labour the State tells them to dispense with at any cost. I have calculated
that, on a low estimate, the labour of children between 12 and 15 is worth about £400,000 a year to their parents; and I need not say that the labour of children between 6 and 12 has also a very great money value.

Practically, then, I may state the case against a compulsory system thus: that even if our present education rate were levied by a property or income tax upon the wealthy classes of society, the poorer classes would unavoidably be contributing to it in even a higher proportion, and would be paying as much out of smaller means.

None the less, I think, can an overwhelming case be made out in favour of absolute and universal compulsion. I need not here go over the old ground that an educated community is on the whole more moral, more law-abiding, and more capable of work than an uneducated; and therefore that the State is justified in enforcing education that it may economise its revenue and develop its resources. These considerations I may take for granted. What I wish to point out is, that democratic institutions such as our own make compulsory education a necessity; and that its apparent is greater than its real cost even to the working classes. In the great military monarchies of the continent it was once held that a people could only be governed while it was kept brutal (il faut abrutir le peuple pour le rendre gouvernable); and a king of Naples only expressed this sentiment with unusual felicity, when he said that he wished to see his subjects "little asses and little saints." But even these governments tried to draw the educated men of the country into their service. In a country like our own, where the highest offices of the State are open not merely in name but in fact to all, it is necessary that there should be no chance of uninstructed constituencies returning ignorant representatives. Moreover, equality before the law is the leading principle of a democracy. Once allow a parent to keep his children at home because he is rich and may be supposed to educate them, or because he is poor and may want to profit by their labour, and it will be found impossible to work the Education Act at all. Again, we have not only the State and the parent to consider in our calculations; we are bound to take into account the claims of the young. The State is the natural guardian of children against their parents; and much of the progress of civilization consists in limitations of the parental right, from old times when the parent might expose the newly-born infant or sentence the grown-up son to death, to later times when the State watches that the child be vaccinated, clothed, and fed, and not tasked beyond its strength. Every child born into the world has a right to demand that it shall receive at least that minimum of instruction which is given to others, which is generally required to make its labour remunerative, and which it cannot obtain, or can only obtain at a disproportionate cost afterwards. To the wealthy classes of society it is far cheaper that they should be worked for and governed by educated men than that they should be saved the charge of an education rate. Even to the poorer classes the tax of compulsory education is less than it seems, not only because compulsory education means quick education; not only because the educated child earns more than the uneducated; but because, as Mr. Mundella has put it, "if there were not so many children employed who ought not to be employed, many parents would be better paid than they are."

Report of the National Education League, 1869, p. 213.

The State, in fact, calls on employers to discard a little cheap labour for a time, and on parents to renounce quick profits; but it holds out to the employer the prospect of an eventual supply of steady and instructed workmen, and to the parent increased value for his own labour, and increased wage-rate hereafter for his children.

Faults of the present Act.

Starting then from this assumption, that rich and poor alike ought to be forced to educate their children, I will briefly indicate why the present compulsory Act is practically useless for its purposes.

Defective registration.

In the first place, there is no adequate machinery for ascertaining the children of school age in a district. A certain number of children are on no school rolls whatever, and the expense of a satisfactory school census once a year would be a serious addition to our present Estimates.

No tests of private instruction.

In the next place, there is no machinery for testing the value of a parent's statement that he is educating his children at a private school or at home; and truant officers are reluctant to summon people of substance, though a few of these notoriously neglect their duties.

Persons vexatiously summoned.

Thirdly, many parents are summoned who have an adequate excuse, because there is no machinery for ascertaining and registering the causes of absence.

Muster-rolls not properly called.

Fourthly, the system of calling the muster-rolls is generally defective, and many children who do attend come late, or are allowed to go away early.

Minimum of attendances fixed too low.
Lastly, the provisions of the Act favour an idea that 30 days in a quarter, the legal minimum, are a proper number of attendances, and thus the school teaching is paralysed by intermittent scholars, and children have to be kept at school long after they ought to have passed the standards.

Compulsory system in Norway and Sweden.

It may perhaps be useful to examine in what way other countries have established a compulsory system. The countries best worth studying for this purpose are Norway and Sweden, North Germany, Scotland, and Massachusetts. In Norway and Sweden the circumstances are peculiar. A great tract of country is inhabited by a very sparse population; in the northern parts the population is not thicker than in our own bush districts; "Whilst in Malmöhus district there are 750 people to the square mile, in Norbotten there are only 85 to the same area."—Thomitéé't Sveriye, p. 20.

and throughout Norway in particular the difficulties of communication, from climate and from the hilly character of the country, can hardly be exaggerated. The people are poor to a degree that perhaps only those who have lived or travelled among them can understand; and in the interior of Norway very few places can be found where the houses are near enough together to constitute a village. Nevertheless, the population is almost universally educated. The constraining influences have been that the schools till lately have been in the hands of the clergy, that no un instructed child could be confirmed, and that no one was likely to get employment in Norway or could marry or hold office in Sweden without a certificate of confirmation admitting to the communion.

"Until within the last few years, no one, unless he had communicated, could either marry or bold office under the Crown "—Lloyd's Peasant Life in Sweden, p. 356. "I could not help laughing when I was informed that a common barber, before he could open shop, was obliged to pass an examination in Cornelius Nepos." Lower's Wayside Notes in Scandinavia, p. 272. At present attendance at school is enforced by fines in both Sweden and Norway. "If parents (in Sweden) neglect the education of their children, they are at first called before the board of instruction, and receive an admonition from the presiding officer of that board. If that have no effect, the board of instruction can take the children and have them educated at the expense of the parents; but it is in most cases impossible to collect money from such parents, since they are generally poor."-Professor Meyerberg at the International Conference on Education held at Philadelphia, Report, p. 53. "Parents who fall to Bend their children to school when they are old enough, or to give them in some other way the instruction which every child ought to receive, are punished with a fine. If the parents are obstinate, and also when the children are badly treated or get a bad example in the bosom of their family, they can he taken from home and placed with other families."—Brocks Royaume de Norvéye, p. 82. Compare Laing's Norway, chapter 4.

Besides this, there are certain civil penalties, such as inability to vote, for uneducated persons in Sweden. But the old system, which is responsible for the results, and which dates from the Reformation, is clearly inapplicable in Victoria; and the most important point to notice in the systems of Norway and Sweden is, I think, the liberal use of half-time or migratory schools.

In North Germany the clergy till very lately exercised very great influence over the schools; and, under the patronage of the notorious Von Mueller, a theological character was stamped on the whole course of instruction. Six hours in the week were devoted to theology, and the reading books were filled with religious teaching often of the most childish character. A State which exacts four instead of three subjects from its pupils necessarily increases the burden it lays upon them by something like 25 per cent.; and the school hours in Germany have accordingly averaged 26 hours a week. For many years the system which seemed excellent on paper was comparatively barren of results. The teaching was mechanical; and the pupils, when they once left the school, had no civilizing influences of a free press or political discussion, and gradually relapsed into savagery. But during the last few years the character of the teaching has been much improved; in 1872 the Education Department was secularized by a law transferring inspection from the clergy to the State; and, as Germany has been consolidated, its rulers have been less afraid of the people, and public intelligence has been quickened. Practically, attendance is secured in Germany by a strict system of registration, superintended by the police; by warnings from the schoolmaster, from the pastor, and from the board of advice; and, if these are ineffectual, by summons before a magistrate, who can punish with fine and imprisonment. So admirably does this work, that "in a district of fifty odd thousand persons," a school director, who enforced attendance strictly, told Mr. Mundella that he had only 42 cases of contumacy in eight years, Report of the National Education League, 1869, p. 131.

Mr. Mundella states, however, that there was a good deal of difficulty for a year or two after the law was first enforced before this desirable result was achieved.

"When Prussia, in virtue of the treaties of 1815, took possession of the duchy of Posen, then containing 1,000,000 of inhabitants, the Prussian Government introduced compulsory attendance, and met with, difficulty. It was the same even in the Rhenish provinces, which then passed from the rule of France to that of Prussia."
Compulsory system of the New England Skates.

In America, even in the New England States, there is no real system of compulsion. There is a compulsory law, but its effects are more or less neutralized by three causes—(1) There is no registration; (2) there is a clause in the Act exempting parents from its operation if they are poor; and, (3), the application of the compulsory clauses rests with districts, and even in Massachusetts more than half of these had not complied with the Act in 1874-5.


The regulations of the Massachusetts Factory Act, as it existed when Mr. Fraser visited the country in 1865, read like a burlesque. They provide that no child under 12 years of age shall be employed in a factory for more than 10 hours a day, or unless it has attended school for 18 weeks in the preceding year.


What good a child will have got from an attendance of only 18 weeks, or what profitable school work it can do after 10 hours' work in a factory, are points which do not seem to have impressed the legislature. Happily this Act was replaced in 1866 by one of a much more stringent and satisfactory kind.


Notwithstanding these palpable defects of present or recent legislation, school attendance in Massachusetts reaches an average which, if far below that of North Germany, is far above that of most English-speaking countries, and comparatively respectable. The reason undoubtedly is that public opinion is thoroughly alive to the advantages of the school system; and that in large districts—as, for instance, in Boston—the truant law is rigidly enforced. The worst cases of default are in the country districts; but even in these much good work is said to be done during the long winter months.

Compulsory system of Scotland.

In Scotland, the success attained has been very much due to the moral support accorded to the Act. Thus, in Glasgow, an elaborate school census was made without regard to expense, and the chief inhabitants divided the city into districts, and made a personal visitation to induce parents to send their children to school. The defaulters were still numbered by thousands; but almost all gave way finally before the threat of legal proceedings. Out of 12,374 guilty defaulters, nearly two-thirds were sent to school on warning by the officers, and nearly one-third more on receipt of a simple notice from the board, while only in forty-seven cases was it necessary to prosecute.

Registration.

It will be observed that in the North German system—the most effective of those I have quoted—a thorough system of registration is adopted. There is no difficulty about this in Germany, where, within my own memory, every man staying more than two days in a place was obliged to give notice to the police, and every man leaving a place was obliged to get permission from the authorities. It is sometimes supposed, however, that English habits are opposed to this system. No doubt there was a time when this might have been said; but our present practice, in many instances, is in an opposite direction. We force parents to register the births of their children, and to

Precedents for registration.

obtain certificates of vaccination; we compel married people to register marriages; we have a registration of deaths; and we even oblige owners of clogs to register them. Considering that the education of our children is of the last importance to the community, and that the State offers it free of cost to the parent, it can scarcely be considered unreasonable if parents are required to register their children of school age at the State school of the district. By the plan I propose, every man may ascertain, by

Plan of registration.

going to the town hall or to the nearest post office, which his school district is; and the head master will be in attendance to register for five hours during five days of the week at the State school, or at any other reasonable time in his private residence. The onus of ascertaining whether he is or is not in a school district—that is, whether he does or does not live within two and a half miles of a State school—ought, I think, to rest with the parent, who must apply to the school board for information if he is doubtful.

When the children are registered, it will be the duty of the

The head master of the State school should summon truants.

State schoolmaster, in the first instance, to see that they come to school regularly. For this purpose he will be supplied by the department with printed forms, in which the parent is called upon to explain why a child has been absent a specified number of days: and for the delivery of these the head teacher is empowered to use the services of pupil-teachers or of children over nine years of age, and living within half a mile of the house of the person summoned. Much trouble will be saved to all parties if parents register the children under school age
with the others, so that the head teacher may be in no doubt whether the legal age has been reached. With respect to this system of summoning, I may observe that it is freely used in America, and has been adopted by several of the most successful teachers in Victoria at their own cost for their own convenience. Its use is two-fold. It saves the head teacher and school board the trouble of following up cases in which there is a sufficient excuse, and will furnish an easy form of evidence against defaulting parents, whose written statements can be produced against them. But it will be no less valuable to parents in giving them instant information when their children are playing truant.

Every month the head teacher will send in his rolls and a list
Prosecutions to be authorized by the board of advice.

of truants, and the summonses that have been issued and returned, or, where they have not been returned, a statement of the circumstances, to the local board of advice. It is desirable that the board of advice should not come forward too prominently in the matter of prosecutions; but it is impossible to relieve it from the duty of instructing the truant officer or the police what parents are to be summoned. Probably, in some cases, members will be able to bring moral influence to bear on a defaulting parent; and in some cases the board will be able to accept reasons for a child's absence. When the list of defaulting parents is made out, and handed over to the police and the truant officer, it will still be desirable for a time that parents should have a chance given them of explaining their reasons before they are summoned; and in cases where the excuse preferred cannot be taken, I think the board might be empowered, for a first offence, to accept a confession of judgment and fine without forcing the parent into court. Of course it should be understood that the confession of judgment would operate hereafter as a conviction for a first offence if the parent required to be prosecuted again.

Truancy cases to be adjudicated by police magistrates.

I would recommend that truancy cases be adjudicated only by a police magistrate, not only because in some rare cases the prejudices of magistrates opposed to the Education Act are said to have interfered with the course of justice, but because it is undesirable that school boards should be partially represented on the bench, when it is scarcely possible that all the members should be magistrates. It will not promote the harmonious working of a school board if one of the members, being in the commission, assists in quashing a prosecution which his colleagues ordered.

Defaulting districts to be charged with the cost of a truant officer.

Another and not the least vital point on which the success of our compulsory system hinges is, that there should be some power of charging the cost of excessive truancy to a district. I propose that the present system of average attendances be altered, and that every child should be taken separately, as having obeyed or broken the law. Should it appear at the end of the educational year that the attendances of children of school age are below eighty in a hundred, the Minister should, I think, be empowered to quarter a truant officer specially on the district, and charge his expenses to the ratepayers, until the law is obeyed. The number I have suggested, 20 per cent., is a very liberal allowance; the common estimate in Great Britain for necessary default being 16 per cent. The cost of a truant officer—being not much more than £200 a year—is not a very heavy fine to pay for neglect; and the principle, that the State pays for education and not for ignorance, is, I think, one the soundness of which will not be disputed. The experience of England shows that school boards are not implicitly to be trusted. "Of the fifty-eight school boards within my district," says an English inspector, "thirteen only had, up to the end of June, passed any bye-laws; and of this small number by no means all had taken any action upon the list of non-attendance of the children, and oftentimes are themselves directly responsible for the breach of their written statements can be produced against them. But it will be no less valuable to parents in giving them instant information when their children are playing truant.

At the same time I rest my chief hopes of bringing up our school attendances from their present deplorable average on the regulation for increasing the number of school days for children of tender age. The old adage, that "the half is more than the whole," is, I am convinced, true of school attendances; in the sense that an attendance, carefully pared down to the legal minimum of thirty days, is practically more vexatious to parents and child than an attendance of fifty or forty days would be. It is
more vexatious to the parent, who learns to count on the child's work and regret its absence; and it is demoralizing to the child, as every teacher knows, to attend irregularly. In suggesting that the legal attendance after 9 years of age should be fixed at eighty days in the six months, and that boards of advice should have some power to determine the days when work is commenced, I have had regard to the peculiar wants of the potato-growing and hop-growing and pastoral districts, where a boy's work is exceptionally valuable at certain periods of the year for a month at a time. A boy at Koroit beginning school on 7th January may complete his eighty days before May, and be free for work; and, similarly, a boy in the Hamilton district may get through his legal term before November. But though I think that these relaxations must be allowed for a time, I hope the day will come when they can be discontinued. Our school hours are not so long that a boy cannot do a great deal of healthy out-doors work in addition to them; and work in a woolshed, a factory, or a brickfield, where the child is removed from his father's oversight, is work that may expose a child to very demoralizing influences.

As regards distance, the present amending Act gives, I am convinced, a very reasonable limit. The fact seems to be that children in town find no distance short enough, and children in the country find no distance too long. Through the courtesy of Mr. Inspector Gilchrist, I have obtained a list of children in a country district who steadily walk several miles to attend a school which their parents think better than the one in the place; and it appears that in a school where the average attendance is 25, 13 walk from a distance of 3½ to 4 miles, and 7 from a distance of to 3 miles. At Merino, the children of one family walk altogether 14 miles a day, and attend with great regularity. This, of course, is an exceptional instance; but I may safely say that a distance of from 3 to 4 miles is no insuperable obstacle in many parts of the country.

There remains one description of case, which must be specially dealt with, I mean the case of so-called "gutter-children," that is, children who have been allowed to run wild in the streets till they have acquired such habits that they are considered undesirable subjects for a State school. At present there is a school in Little Bourke street where more than 100 such children are treated separately. Apart from the grave objections to that particular school, from its neighbourhood and want of accommodation, I am convinced that this system is bad in itself. Many children who have been allowed to run wild might easily be reclaimed, if they were drafted into ordinary State schools. The more difficult problem is to deal with the street Arabs, whose parents defy the law, and say they will not send them regularly, and will go to gaol sooner than pay a fine. Clearly we do not want to people our gaols with refractory parents, or to saddle the State with the expense of sending their children to our so-called Industrial Schools, even were these better managed than they are. I am in hopes a solution may be found by adopting the new English system of Day Industrial Schools in a modified form. There are probably not more than five or six districts

Day industrial schools

where a Day Industrial School need be opened. I would suggest that, in the first place, the experiment be tried of letting the "gutter-children" attend ordinary schools; but as some would present themselves too badly dressed to be admitted, while others would not present themselves at all, and a few would be almost instantly expelled for disorderly conduct, the chief value of the experiment would be to give a chance of reformation to the better disposed. Those who played truant or were rejected or expelled should be assigned by summary process to the nearest Day Industrial School; the head teacher giving notice to the school board, and the school board instructing the truant officer to serve a notice on the parents. When I mention that there are five State schools within easy distance of Little Bourke street, it will be seen that there is no danger of the ordinary schools being swamped by a sudden influx of young barbarians; and the operation of drafting them out may easily be spread over weeks or months.

Plan of industrial schools.

If this plan is adopted, the parent on whom notice from the board of advice has been served will be bound during the ensuing two years to send his child every day to a Day Industrial School for the 8 hours from 9 till 5. At the school the child will receive 4 hours of intellectual training, and 2 hours of hard work, while it will be allowed 2 hours for dinner and recreation. The gain to the child is obvious; and I am convinced that, in many cases, the certainty of a dinner will draw children to the school of their own accord. The gain to the State will also be considerable; though I do not suppose it will get any appreciable profit from the work done. Half the mischief and pilfering that is done in our streets is attributable to children who have run wild; and the State will be saved from most of this at the expense of about a shilling a week for each child; whereas, if they were sent to the present Industrial Schools, the cost would be

Parents to pay part of the cost of children sent to day industrial schools.

more nearly eight shillings a head. Meanwhile, I propose that the parents should in all such cases be charged a shilling a week for their children's board; so that theoretically the system should be self-supporting.
Practically, of course, it will be very difficult to collect the money. But I would suggest that a special truant officer, empowered to demand assistance from the ordinary truant officers and from the police, be assigned to the service of these schools, and be on duty each day in one or another district. In dealing with classes who defy common morality, no indulgence need be shown; and defaulters should be incessantly summoned. I am convinced that a great many will give way if the fines inflicted are not allowed to accumulate, and will pay one or two shillings sooner than go to gaol with hard labour for three days. I am inclined to think, too, that a good many arrears might be collected in the weeks preceding great public holidays, such as Cup day, Boxing day, and Easter Monday. Many a worthless father would pay for his child's schooling sooner than be kept in on a day of general amusement. But should he elect on such occasions to go to gaol, property will perhaps be all the safer, and public order better preserved during his enforced seclusion. I may observe that in the worst case that has been brought under my notice, where the children are hardly fed, and are clothed by charity, the father is said to earn ten shillings a day whenever he is sober.

As it is desirable not to treat young children as criminals, and Day industrial schools not to be of a renal character.

to let it be clearly understood that the Day Industrial Schools are not prisons, I would suggest that the term of committal to them be only for two years; that they be inspected every quarter; and that the inspector have the power of discharging those who, in his judgment, are likely to make good use of their liberty.

The most difficult cases to deal with will, I think, always be Truancy of spoiled children.

those of spoiled children, who play truant, being under no proper control at home. Public opinion, which would support the Government against thieves, drunkards, and prostitutes, will not, I think, allow of any exceptional measures in these cases; and we must trust to the effect on the parent of constant fines and a certain loss of reputation. At the same time a good deal might be done towards diminishing these cases if the police were furnished from time to time with a list of such cases, and instructed to drive those whom they found playing truant into school.

I may here briefly notice with respect to night schools, that Night schools.

I do not think attendance at a night school ought in any case to be substituted for attendance during the day. Night schools have many disadvantages. As a rule, the best teachers are too hard worked during the day to care for giving up their evenings, and the teaching and discipline of a night school are therefore apt to be inferior to those of a day school in the same building. At the same time, the students are often young men and girls of neglected education, and have reached a time of life when they are impatient of control. Having been at work during the day, they find it difficult to attend punctually in the evening, and rarely get their full two hours work. The chief use of a night school is therefore to carry on the education of those who have passed the standards, or to complete the education of those who have passed the school age. It may be hoped that in a few years night schools will only be needed for the former class, and will all be on the model of the present Schools of Mines and Schools of Design, attended by picked students under highly qualified teachers.

PROPOSED AMENDMENTS IN THE COMPULSORY CLAUSES OF THE EDUCATION ACT.

1. Sections 13 and 14 of the Act No. 447 are repealed as from the day of 1878.
2. The term "Minister" or "Minister of Public Instruction" shall mean the responsible Minister of the Crown administering this Act.

The term "State School" shall mean a school conducted in a building vested in the Minister of Public Instruction and his successors in fee or for any lesser estate, and shall include training school, rural school, night school, and any other special school for which regulations may be made, except High School.

The term "High School" shall mean a school set apart for the higher instruction of children by the Minister of Public Instruction.

The term "Board of Advice" shall mean a board elected by the ratepayers of a district or appointed by the Governor in Council and gazetted as a board of advice.

The terms "Chairman of the Board of Advice," "Correspondent of the Board of Advice," shall designate persons who have been gazetted as elected chairman and correspondent of a board of advice by its members.

The term "Parent" shall include guardian and every person who is liable to maintain or who has the actual custody of any child, as also any person with whom a child resides or who is the occupier of a house in which a child resides.

The term "Standard of Education" or "Standard" shall mean and include competency in reading, writing, and arithmetic to the satisfaction of an inspector of schools.
3. Every parent shall register the name of any child resident with him or her and between the ages of six and fifteen years with the head teacher of the State school of the district within one month of the child's attaining the age of six years, or within two weeks of the child's coming to reside under his or her roof.

In registering, the parent shall give the age of the child; and, should the teacher require it, shall produce a registrar's certificate; and all registrars shall be bound to issue copies of such certificates at one shilling a piece. Where the child has been born out of the colony, an affidavit or statutory declaration before a justice of the peace by the parents or surviving parent shall be sufficient; and where this evidence is not forthcoming, the school board or police magistrate may grant a certificate that shall be deemed sufficient on an examination of such evidence as can be procured.

The penalty for neglect to comply with these provisions where a child or children are not attending the State school of the district shall be not less than £1 or more than £5 at discretion of the police magistrate, and shall be recoverable on information by the truant officer or any member of the police force, and half of the fine imposed shall go to the informant.

But where the children are attending the State school of the district, it shall be at the discretion of the police magistrate to remit the fine.

4. The parents of children of not less than six years nor more than fifteen years of age shall cause such children (unless there is some reasonable excuse) to attend school for fifty days in each quarter till they are nine; and for eighty days in each half-year till they are twelve; and for sixty days in each half-year till they are fifteen or until the child has been educated up to the standard. Where the holidays extend over more than a week in the quarter the excess shall be counted to every child as part of its legal attendance.

But a child may qualify for the standard before the age of twelve years, and, having so qualified, shall only be compelled to attend sixty days in the half-year till it is twelve, and not at all afterwards.

No child shall be held to have attended school unless it has been present for two hours in the morning and two hours in the afternoon, and has been marked present at the first roll call on each occasion.

The penalty for not complying with these provisions shall be a fine not exceeding ten shillings for a first offence and not less than ten shillings or exceeding one pound for a second offence.

5. Any of the following reasons shall be a reasonable excuse under section four.

• That the child is under efficient instruction in some other manner.

• That the child has been educated up to the standard of education. The production of the second certificate given by the State inspector to children who have attained the standard of the fourth class in a State school shall be proof that the child named in it is no longer required to receive education.

• That the child has been discharged from 20 per cent, of the legal attendances by the board of advice, because one parent is dead, or permanently absent from home, or disabled by illness, and because the services of the child are needed at home. Such discharge must be in writing, and shall only be effectual within the limits stated.

6. It shall be the duty of the parent to inform the head teacher within a week in any case where the child is unable to attend. For this purpose a reply on the form forwarded by the head teacher shall be sufficient; but if for any reason the head teacher do not forward that form, such omission shall not discharge the parent of the duty to give information.

The fine for neglect in such cases shall not be less than one shilling nor more than a pound, at the discretion of the police magistrate, and shall be independent of any further fine that may be inflicted for the child's non-attendance.
7. Every parent whose child does not attend a State school shall be compelled to present him [or her] at the first half-yearly district examination held after the child has attained the ages of nine and twelve years respectively, unless he [or she] shall have passed previously. Should the child fail to pass the standard at such examination, the inspector may grant six months’ grace; but after a second failure the child must attend the State school of its district till it has reached the standard.

The fine for neglect to present the child at such examination shall be not less than two pounds nor more than five pounds, and shall be enforced in every case, unless a medical certificate be produced showing that the child was unable to attend; in which case the inspector may order it to present itself at any other examination within a distance of twenty miles, when it shall be strong enough to do so.

Always provided that a parent may elect to register his children as qualifying for the high school standard; in which case they shall pass the high school examinations, and passing these shall be exempted from the State school examinations.

8. Parents intending their children to pass the high school examination shall register them like other parents at the State school of the district when the children are six years old, and after every change of residence into a new school district; and shall state whether the children are being educated at home or at a high school or at a grammar school; and shall be liable to the same penalties in case of default to present their children for examination that are imposed on parents neglecting to present their children at the State school examinations.

For the purposes of this Act, every school not kept open by the State, and not registered as a primary school, shall be considered a grammar school.

Parents may at any time apply to have their children transferred from the high school list to the State school list; and in this case certificates of first or second high school examination shall be considered equivalent to first State school examination and standard examination respectively.

9. Children registered for the high school examination shall be required to pass in the standard of the fourth class at eight years of age, and in the standard of the sixth class at eleven; and, failing to do so, may be sent, at discretion of the high school inspector, to attend the State school of the district. At fifteen years they must present themselves for the high school standard examination at such places as the department shall appoint.

Those who pass the high school standard, not having exceeded the age of fifteen, shall be qualified to receive appointments in the civil service.

Every child entered for the high school standard examination shall pay a fee of £1.

10. Where the board of advice receives information from the truant officer or from the police that children not belonging to a State school are habitually vagrant, or habitually employed in household or field or factory work, it may summon the parents to send them to the State school of the district, or to a denominational school, where at least twenty hours of attendance are enforced during the week; and it shall be no answer that the child is receiving private instruction, or that it is attending a night school. But an appeal from this order of the board shall he to the police magistrate.

11. Where a parent has been summoned for neglect to educate his children, the board of advice may, at request of the parent, withdraw the summons and accept his confession of judgment, and the payment of a fine; and such confession of judgment shall operate as a first conviction in case a second summons is taken out against the parent in question.

12. No parent may transfer his children from the State school which they are attending during the half-year unless he has moved into another district, or unless he obtains permission to transfer them from the head teacher of the State school they are at, or from the board of advice of the district, and produces the written consent to receive them of the head teacher of the school to which he wishes to transfer them, State or private.

Nor shall any State school receive pupils from another State school or from a private school during the half-year, unless the parents have moved into the district, or unless the written consent of the last head teacher or of the board of advice be produced.

13. Cases under this Act shall be decided by the police magistrate only.

The truant inspector or the chief police officer of the district shall prosecute under instructions from the board of advice; and the production of the school rolls shall be sufficient evidence for the conviction of a truant.

14. The board of advice in every district shall furnish returns in every quarter to the department, showing how many children are on the rolls in every school, what is the number of defective attendances, what pleas for defective attendance have been allowed, what prosecutions have been ordered, how many convictions have been obtained, and what is the reason of the failures.

15. Where the full attendances in a district fall below 80 per cent, of the children of school age, the Minister may appoint a truant officer for the sole charge of that district, and his expenses shall be defrayed by a rate levied on the district until the attendances have risen above the limit of 80 per cent.
Schedules.

**Schedule I.—High School Register.**

I, George Smollett, barrister, residing at Riversdale, Toorak, am the father of three children of school age, and who have not yet passed the high school standard.

(Signature) GEORGE SMOLLETT. Date—2/1/79.

*Notice to be served by the Registrar on every Parent registering in the High School Register.*

You are bound to present every child when it reaches the age of 8 for the first high school examination, and when it reaches the age of 11 for the second high school examination, and when it reaches the age of 15 for the third or high school standard examination.

These examinations are held in June and December of every year, and notice of time and place is posted up at the State school of the district in the last week of the preceding month.

EDWARD HOLMES,

Head Teacher, State School No. 446.

**Schedule II.—State School Register.**

I, James Smith, laborer, residing at No. 2 Blenheim street, Fitzroy, am the father of three children of school age.

(Signature) JAMES SMITH. Date—2/1/79.

*Notice to be served by the Registrar on every Parent registering in the State School Register.*

You are bound to present every child when it reaches the age of 9 for the first State school examination, and when it reaches the age of 12 for the State school standard examination.

These examinations are held in June and December of every year, and notice of time and place is posted up at the State school of the district in the last week of the preceding month.

EDWARD HOLMES,

Head Teacher, State school No. 446.

**Schedule III.—Transfer Forms.**

*Condition of Transfer.*

Name of Pupil, Arthur Jones.
Age, 11 years 3 months.
Residence, Gore street.
Present School, No. 256.
Date—¾/79.

Arthur Jones can be received into State school 1400 (the Christian Brothers' school, George street), if he obtains permission to transfer himself from his present school.

(Signed) GODFREY WALLACE,
Form of Transfer.

Transferred,
Name of Pupil, Arthur Jones.
Age, 11.
Class, 4th.
Attendances, 60.
School No. 256.
Date—5/4/79.

To Mr. Godfrey Wallace, School No. 1400.—Please to receive Arthur Jones, aged 11 years 3 months, who is hereby transferred from School No. 256, where he was in the 4th class, and give him credit for 60 legal attendances this year.

WILLIAM KINBURN,
Head Teacher, State school No. 256.

[or]
CHRISTOPHER BROWN,
Correspondent,
Board of Advice No. 6.

Date—5/4/79.

Schedule IV.—Form of Notice by Head Teacher in Cases of Supposed Truancy.

Date of service, May 10.
Parent, John Smith.
Child, Elizabeth Smith.
Cause assigned, sprained ankle.
Date of reply, May 11.
To Mr(s). John Smith, Mailor's Flat.
Sir (Madam),—Please state on the back of this paper why your child, Elizabeth Smith, has been absent from school Monday afternoon and to-day, Tuesday.

THOMAS JOHNSON,
Head Teacher, State school 816.

Refusal or neglect to reply to this notice makes the parent or guardian liable to a fine of £1.

Schedule V.—Returns of Boards of Advice.

School No. 1600. 1st January to 31st March 1879. Children of School age on the School Rolls ... ... 600 Defective attendances ... ... 80 Illness ... ... 17 Pleas allowed Distance ... ... 7 Receiving instruction at home ... 7 31 Prosecutions ordered ... ... 49 Convictions ... ... 42 Explanation of failures to convict:—Insufficient proof ... ... 1 Parents had left the district ... 3 Mistaken identity ... ... 1 Serious illness or death in family ... 2 7

Inspectors.
I have indicated in my introductory report the strong reasons that exist for increasing the staff of inspectors and their remuneration.

Importance of a highly organized system of inspection.

The three conditions of efficient teaching in this colony are, so far as I can see, the maintenance of a good supply of pupil-teachers, an improved training college, and a thorough organization of the inspectoral staff. I am aware that North Germany has relied till very lately on the services of local inspectors, whose office was more or less honorary; and that in America the superintendent is elected annually by the school committee, and is often rather a head master than an inspector. But I venture to think that the examples of Holland and of Great Britain, where the inspectoral staffs are highly organized, are more appropriate to ourselves. In North Germany the clergy, till lately, were the ordinary inspectors; and the object undoubtedly was to enlist the spiritual influence of men whom the people respected on the side of education. That need has ceased to be felt in Germany, and is not acknowledged here. In America the State systems differ; but I notice that a school commission, appointed in 1866 by the City of Boston Board to report on the systems prevailing in other States, declared that the New York system was largely indebted for its good results to the wide powers over all schools in the city with which the superintendent was invested.


The want of a central system of inspection for each great State is, I believe, due only to the great respect with which the free action not only of each State, but of each county and every township in a State, is commonly regarded. While half Massachusetts refuses to enforce the compulsory law, we can hardly wonder if country districts are not solicitous to receive inspectors from Boston.

The use of inspectors is to make the teaching efficient and

Use of inspectors.

fairly uniform, and to guard the teacher against an ignorant or prejudiced public feeling. I almost hesitate to say that private schools are held in check by the intelligence of the public, who refuse to take a bad article, knowing as I do that the public is often obliged to take whatever it can get, and that the best schools in England have solicited the universities to give them the boon of inspection. But I think it is fair to say that, as long as the law allows any man to open a school, it is a matter between himself and his patrons what he imparts. On the other hand, where, as in Victoria, the State makes it practically impossible for private persons to establish primary schools, and forces citizens to send their children to the State schools, it is bound to see, not only that qualified persons are made teachers, but that they do their work. Again, it must, within certain limits, enforce uniformity. A school cannot be allowed to suffer because its teacher has grown old in a certain routine, and will not adopt the best text-books or the last improvements in organization. Lastly, the teacher is especially interested that a qualified person, trained in educational work, should report him, rather than a board of advice or the correspondents of a local newspaper. An inspector may and does constantly arrange differences between a teacher and the parents of his pupils, pointing out where fault has justly been found, and where the demands made on the teacher have been unreasonable.

I may perhaps add that if untrained inspectors, such as clergymen, were employed in lieu of our present staff, a great loss of time would be entailed. Our present inspectors, when they began to examine for the standards, took eight minutes to each child. They now do the same work in less than four. We cannot afford to have studies interrupted for six days instead of three in our large schools.

The inspectoral staff at present consists of an inspector-general,

Present and proposed organizations of the inspectoral staff.

with ten inspectors—one of whom is always employed in office work—and seven assistant-inspectors. The inspector-general gets £700 a year; the inspectors range between £400 and £550; and the assistant inspectors at present get between £300 and £330, at a total cost of £7,850 in the year 1877.

I have before adverted to the lamentable insufficiency of these salaries. I recommend in place of them—

The two examiners, who are wanted for office work, should not be classed with inspectors, though they ought to have passed through the training of inspectors.

With this increase the inspector-general will still be very poorly paid, and the post of assistant inspector will barely tempt, though I hope it will tempt, the head master of a second-class primary school, making under the new system a possible £426 a year, and living comfortably in one place.

Hitherto the name assistant inspector has only meant junior inspector. The assistant, like the inspector proper, was in sole charge of a single large district with undivided powers and responsibilities. The Minister of Education holds that it would be better to make the assistant what his name implies—a junior, working in company with a chief, and under that chief’s orders. This is very nearly the system pursued in England, where, however, the “inspector’s assistant” has not quite so honorable or important a part as our own assistant inspectors will be called upon to fill. I believe there are strong reasons in favor of this change. It is very useful for a man new to his work to work under supervision; and there are many cases in which time will be
economized, if an inspector can set his junior to do some of the clerical work, which, under any improvements, must remain to be done. Not unfrequently the presence of the inspectors will tend to make the work of inspection even, and will be a guarantee of fairness to the masters and to the department. Of course it is not necessary that the inspector and his assistant should always be together. Very often the inspector will reserve an important or difficult school for himself, while he gives his junior work in an outlying district. The single objection to the scheme, that it will sometimes entail a slight loss of time, is becoming of less importance every day, as railways and roads and schools are multiplied. Were it greater than it is, it could hardly be supposed to outweigh the other considerations. It is more essential to have work well and thoroughly than quickly done.

Minor grievances of inspectors.

There are two or three minor grievances to which inspectors are at present subjected. One is, that at the end of the financial year they are sometimes kept waiting two months, or nearly so, before their claims for travelling expenses are satisfied. This may easily be remedied if the department will next year take credit on the estimates for thirteen months' probable expenditure instead of for twelve months only. A second is, that they have no allowance for outfit, though all are obliged to keep a horse and buggy. An allowance of £50 for outfit when they enter the service, half to be repaid if they leave within three years, would go far towards rectifying this grievance. Lastly, the allowance for travelling expenses, though ordinarily sufficient for men who live like Rechabites, and do not hire a private room at an hotel, is insufficient in districts where forage is high and in some large towns. I think actual and necessary expenses of this kind should be allowed and compounded for, as it is not desirable that the inspector should be fined for doing duty in what may be the most important part of his circuit.

Promotion of inspectors.

There is one point besides pay on which the inspectors are naturally anxious: the question of promotion among themselves. At present this is so far respected, that the four senior inspectors have been habitually employed in Melbourne and the adjacent districts, where it is the ambition of all in the service to work; so far disregarded, that a junior was promoted for examiner's work in the office. I cannot myself see that any hard and fast line can be drawn in these matters. Where the work is all of one description it is natural that promotion and pay should be by seniority, but I do not think it would be wise to interfere with the Minister's discretion of appointing the most competent inspector, even though he were not the senior, to the posts of examiner, adjutant inspector-general, or inspector-general. On the other hand, I think it would be very desirable, as I have before said, that qualified inspectors, being university graduates, should be regarded with favour if they apply for the head-masterships of high schools. The value of these posts will, I think, be a little higher than that of inspectorships, and many will be glad to exchange the incessant knocking about and mechanical work of a school inspector for that of a schoolmaster.

I have allowed in my estimate an average of about 80 schools to each inspector. This average, though still large when compared with that of England and Scotland, is small compared with that of France, where, in 1859, 275 inspectors were entrusted with the surveillance of 65,000 schools, divided among them in most uneven proportions.

Arnold's Report, pp. 65, 80.

But in France the teacher, having gained a position more or less in proportion to his brevet de capacité, is paid in proportion to the number of his pupils, and the inspector has only to decide that his teaching does not fall below the just requirements of the service. In Victoria part of the salary depends on what are known as "results,"

By the new scheme it is proposed to reduce this proportion from a possible third to a possible sixth of the whole salary.

that is, on the quality of the teacher's work as estimated by the inspector; and while I propose that two elements which the teacher cannot control—the attendance of scholars and their ages—should be eliminated from this, I have no wish to see the torpid and inefficient teacher drawing his salary with as much certainty as the active and successful. Now I need not say that the inspector must work more carefully, and spread his work over a longer time, when he is deciding results on which the proportion of a teacher's income depends, than when he has to certify that the man is not too bad to be kept in the service. Moreover, he must visit more frequently when children have to be liberated for profitable labour than when there is no obligation of the kind. Altogether, I do not think it is too much to say that he should try to visit every school four times a year; and if we consider distances, holidays, days of bad weather, and the time consumed over exceptionally large schools, this will mean on an average two schools a day. To do this in school hours will require good arrangement, but will I think be just possible, now that the colony is traversed in every direction by fairly good roads.

I propose that two of these visits, those in the first quarter of each half-year, should be visits of inspection rather than of examination.
Visits of inspection.

In these the inspector will try to drop in suddenly and see that the rolls of attendance are properly checked, and the time-tables duly kept; will watch the pupil-teachers in their class-work, and examine them in private to see how they are prepared; will give hints on discipline and teaching. Children anxious to pass the standard may be presented and examined on these occasions, but no others; and it will not be necessary to invite the attendance of the board of advice for these visits. In the second, which may be rather the longer portion of each half-year, the inspector will examine for results, taking one-half of his district in each half-year. In assigning marks for these he will, in future, only have to consider whether the class is efficiently taught, whether the discipline is good, and whether the teaching is intelligent. By efficient teaching, I mean that the pupils should be making progress in reading, writing, arithmetic, and geography; by intelligent teaching, that they should be making this progress with the least possible cost of time, and in the most thorough possible way. I propose that three-fifths of the marks should be assigned for efficient teaching, and I think most teachers ought to get this, and the allowance for discipline. The test of the best assistant teachers will therefore be that they should get the extra twenty per cent, for teaching their pupils to think, teaching them to answer unexpected questions, and teaching them to answer outside the school text-books.

A class to be examined in its own work.

Hitherto every class has been examined in the work of the class below it, on the principle, I believe, that scholars who have just joined a class could not be expected to know its work. This system has led to several bad results. The worst undoubtedly is that it tempts teachers to promote in batches just before an examination comes on, so that Class IV. is really Class III. examined in its own work. A minor form of this evil is when children are taken off the work of their class to go over old ground again because the inspector is coming in a fortnight. I see no reason why each class should not be examined in what it is doing, the more so as in a large school, where each teacher is confined to a single class, there is a certain hardship in testing a teacher's division by the work for which another teacher is mainly responsible. At the same time, as some of the children may have been recently moved out, the examination might embrace part of the work in the class below.

System of estimating results.

Starting now from the principle that every assistant teacher can get ½ marks for discipline, ½ for intelligent teaching, and 4½ for efficient teaching, the inspector will allot them thus in the result examination—

- Discipline, 1½, 1 or ½ (good, fair, or indifferent).
- Intelligent teaching, 1½, 1, or ½.
- Efficient teaching, in a class of 20, where each scholar can get 7 marks—
  - 4½ for 90 or more.
  - 3 for 75 or more.
  - 1½ for 60 or more.

The assistant may thus get any number between 1 and 15, but a failure to get 3 should, I think, in general be considered proof of absolute inefficiency.

The fixed rules by which the inspector should be guided in assigning the marks of efficient teaching should be that every child should pass, on an average, from one class into another in the course of a year, so that a child joining school at 6 should be in the sixth class at 12.

The scheme I propose, and which was suggested by Mr. Brodribb, allows for dullards in the proportion of 35 per cent.

To work it easily, the teacher should hand in with every class a list showing the time the pupils have spent in the class, and the pupils promoted during the half-year by the head master should count for good if they pass muster in the class to which they have been promoted. The difficulty of verifying these lists ought not to be very great. A more real difficulty, but one that exists at present, will be that bad weather, or a funeral, or some other such cause, may thin a class on a particular day below the point at which it can be fairly tested; or the head master, knowing that the inspector is to come, may persuade the duller pupils to stay away. The remedy for this, where the inspector thinks the absence exceptional, or suspects trickery, must be that he decline to examine the school or a particular class on that day. But if an effective Compulsory Act, increasing the days of attendance, is enforced, no solicitations from a teacher will procure the absence of his pupils.

In assigning marks for discipline, the inspector may easily guide himself by the simple plan of giving one mark for careful rolls, punctual attendances, cleanliness in dress, clean books and copy-books; another for the absence of noise, whisperings, and foot-shufflings in class, and concentrated attention; and a third for good manners and a sense of honour. It is customary in many schools to mix classes during examination, so that every pupil sits between two of another class and has one of another
class directly below. This plan of course reduces the chance of copying indefinitely, and I am far from saying that it is not a good plan to adopt with the younger children. But in the fifth and sixth classes the inspector has, I think, a right to demand that the sense of honour shall have been cultivated; and should leave each class to do its paper-work by itself with no further supervision than is necessary to prevent disorder, and no further check than to know the order in which the pupils are seated. There will be many attempts to deceive at first, but a trained examiner is rarely or never taken in where his work is within manageable compass, that is where, as in a State school, he never has more than about fifty papers of the same kind to examine.

The tests of intelligent teaching are of course numerous, and

Some tests of intelligent teaching.

I only touch on the subject to allude to one or two points which have attracted my attention. The first is, that only the grammar used in teaching should be examined from. The

Only one grammar to be examined in.

department gives a certain latitude to teachers as to the textbooks they will use. This I think is as it should be. It is desirable that books in use should be changed from time to time as they are superseded, and teachers who make experiments with new books at a certain risk to themselves are not to be discouraged. But there is a tendency among teachers to do more than this, and to assume that anything taught in a standard grammar is to be counted right in an examination. For instance, in looking over the papers of a fifth class, on which the inspector was engaged, I found a sentence of this kind, "St. Petersburg is north of Moscow," and a general tendency to describe "north" as a substantive. This the head master admitted to be wrong, as the students had learned Morell's grammar, and Morell would call "north" in such a sentence "an adjective;" but he pleaded that it might be treated as a substantive. I have taken this instance in particular, because I believe four out of five grammarians would unhesitatingly class "north" as an adverb; and from this point of view it makes no great difference whether it be miscalled substantive or adjective. None the less, I should condemn any student who did not give the teaching of the book he had learnt. Such teaching is certain to be more or less homogeneous, and to mix it up even with sounder conclusions from more authoritative grammars, is simply to confound the pupil's notions of analogy. Therefore I think that an inspector should first ascertain what grammar is in use in a school, and then hold the students rigorously to it. This need not hinder the teacher from now and again giving them what he thinks a sounder view from another grammarian; but it will force him to master one system thoroughly.

Comparative grammar and foreign derivations not to be taught.

As the beginner should be confined to one structural system of grammar, he should also, in primary schools, be taught the grammar of one language only. No doubt, the boy who can compare the Latin and French or the Latin and German grammars with the English ought to master his work more intelligently than the pupil of a single speech; but practically, children under 12 years old cannot be expected to understand even the rudiments of comparative philology. For instance, I would not attempt to teach children learning the rudiments, that many languages, of which they know nothing, do by inflections what we do by prepositions. The age when a child enjoys teaching of this kind is after 12: the time he can profit by it is when he is studying another language. More strongly still would I reprobate the committing to memory of long columns of derivations from unknown tongues. In England, where this worthless branch of knowledge was once cultivated with great assiduity, I have read over hundreds of papers, exhibiting every variety of mistake; an Anglo-Saxon root described as Greek, or a word explained by a synonym with which it had no connection. Here the evil is comparatively a small one; but Sullivan's Spelling-book Superseded, which the department supplies, contains many questionable derivations, many questionable derivations,

Such as "verdure," from the Latin "Viruliri;" "causey," from "calcutus;" and "wick," a bay, from "vicus." and a host of explanations that explain nothing.

Such as "fancy," from "phantasy;" "frenzy," from "phrenesy;" and "proxy," from "procuracy"—the meaning of the older form not being given.

No doubt, the teacher should be able to explain a hard word that occurs in the course of reading; but to make young pupils commit lists of exotic words to memory seems rather like the freak of that Manchu Emperor of China, who constrained his Chinese subjects to learn by heart four thousand Manchu words.

Assuming then that the pupil is restricted to one grammar and Abbot's "How to tell the Parts of Speech;" one language, how is the inspector to test intelligent teaching? I believe such questions and such exercises as are given in Abbot's little book, "How to tell the Parts of Speech," will supply the answer. In the first chapter of that little book "on Nouns," which may be applied indifferently to any grammar, the pupil is taught to give instances of nouns, to find nouns in sentences, to explain why a word is a noun, and even to construct nouns. Of
course, the higher forms will do more than this. The sixth class is at present required to explain syntax, the structure of words, and analysis. There is much in the structure of words that may be taught without travelling out of English; and such a title would, I presume, include cases where the function of a word changes with its form, by varying an accent, a vowel, or a consonant, as well as the more common cases where words are built up with affixes or suffixes, or compounded one with another. Where foreign forms have to be mentioned, I am inclined to think, the fact of their derivation need not be insisted on. I have said, as regards analysis, that I should like to see composition substituted for it in primary schools; and if this were done it would be easy to teach syntax intelligently. Many teachers, I am glad to find, practise their elder pupils in writing letters to them. An easier test at examination would be, that the highest class should reproduce on paper the main points in a paragraph or a chapter that had twice been slowly read out to them.

This leads me to speak on the subject of reading aloud.

Reading aloud.

When I visited schools in America, nothing impressed me more than the general excellence of the recitation, and the fearlessness with which questions in class were answered. At American public meetings the general fluency of comparatively untried speakers is common matter of remark among Englishmen. Shyness, in fact, seems to be unknown, except by report as "the English malady." I think much of this facility in expression is attributable to the early training in the State schools. Mere children are taught to speak out so that they may be heard by a large number in a large room, and are, in consequence, obliged to practise modulating the voice, speaking articulately, and speaking slowly. Personally I entertain no doubt that the correct pronunciation of the English aspirate, on which Americans pride themselves, is very much due to this public training. It is impossible to mumble and slur a word; and the pupil is forced to elect in every case of difficulty according to knowledge. I think inspectors might do much to aid the attainment of such results as the American by forcing classes to recite during examination from a distance. As it is, pupils in general take a particular interest in this part of their work. Were more prominence given to it, I believe all offensive peculiarities of idiom might be obliterated in the course of a generation.

Arithmetic.

Arithmetic is one of the subjects which State schools have most thoroughly mastered, and about which I have least to say. Yet I do not feel sure that our system has said its last word in the matter of simplicity of process. There is a tendency to overload the mind of the pupil with the ramifications of obsolete weights and measures, and to make sums, simple in their principle, formidable by the intricacy of their elements. There is also a tendency to teach a great deal by memory that admits of being taught intelligently. I have never seen a more striking difference of method than between the teaching of the addition and subtraction tables in two large State schools. In the one the head master gathered round him a little knot of eager animated children, who were assisted in their mental work by the sight of counters in his hand. In the other an assistant teacher, armed with a pointer of ominous dimensions, elicited answers by rote from an apathetic class, glancing towards but not assisted by the ball-frame. Above all, even in the simplest rules, there should be a constant habit of testing, so that no one rule should be taught independently. Thus division may be tested by multiplication and subtraction, e.g., having divided 28 by 7 we may multiply 7 by 4, or subtract 7 from 28 till we get no remainder. With multiplication the steps are similar; and the advantage of proving every step from the very beginning will be felt by the pupil throughout his afterwork. Above all it should be borne in mind that the chief value of arithmetic is to concentrate the attention, and that nothing does this more effectually than mental arithmetic, especially in its simplest operations. There is danger that a clever careless student may work out a question in practice or rule of three by some imperfect method if it be not corrected on paper; but no one can trust to anything but the undivided attention for multiplying seven figures by two or three in the mind.

Writing.

Mr. Robinson, in his excellent work on "Method and Organization," to which I am much indebted, quotes a letter, addressed by Lord Palmerston in 1852 to the Council of Education, in which the Premier of England recommended that "Pupils should be taught rather to imitate broad printing than fine copperplate engraving."


Mr. Robinson adds three recommendations from his own experience with which I entirely concur. The first is, that children should be taught to write on paper and not on slates, and should not even be allowed to use slates in their earliest efforts at writing. The two materials, slates and paper, are so dissimilar, and the strokes formed by the slate-pencil are so unlike those formed by the pen, that practice with the former rather unfits than prepares for work with the latter. The second is that, where it is practicable, engraved copies, which are too good to be properly imitated, should be replaced by headlines written by the teacher. I say where it is practicable, for I do not wish to see any but indispensable work laid upon many of our teachers; but there are differences in schools and classes, and that may be practicable with one school or in one class which is not practicable in another. The third of Mr. Robinson's recommendations is so entirely consonant to my idea of
what a State school should attempt, that I do not scruple to recommend it, though it will probably be received with some disfavour as it is opposed to general practice. It is that “large hand” be left to the last, if taught at all, and that children be trained from the first in writing more or less the kind of hand they will use in after-life. In short, where it is important to economize time, the child should write none on a material or in a style he will not employ in later life. I may add that the earlier the child works upon paper the more likely he is to acquire habits of cleanliness in writing, and the more he is practiced with home exercises the sooner he will be able to write fast.

A geography has lately been published, Nelson's, which is so

Geography.

good that our chief grammar schools have adopted it, and so superior to the manuals in use in our State schools that I think it ought to be substituted for them as rapidly as consideration for the pockets of parents will allow. Its great merit is, that it gives the chief points and no more, while text-books generally are loaded with details, as if the compiler's object had been to pack as many facts as possible into the smallest possible space. Naturally it is weakest, where for Victorian purposes it should be strongest, in the geography of Australia; and I would suggest that the department arrange with the publishers to have that part re-written in England, or here, on the same model, though with larger lines. Meanwhile the Australian series published by Collins may very well be used to supplement Nelson's, as, in fact, a general manual can never supersede the use of special text-books for our own country.

The geography taught in State schools must be chiefly political

Character of geography taught.

good for a child to know the boundaries of Spain, what people inhabits it, what are their chief cities and products and manufactures and colonial possessions, how they are governed and what rank they take in the world, than to learn that Spain consists essentially of a great mountain plateau, traversed by chains that continue and run parallel to the Atlas, intersected by valleys and skirted by lowlands in parts of the south and east. But the inspector may easily test the intelligence of the teaching in geography, by putting a few questions to see whether the teacher has been contented with learning the manual in and out, or has read and taught outside it. The position of Spain, for instance, has connected it first with the Azores and afterwards with America, and so with the Philippines; its climate and geographical formation have determined its products; and its mountain chains have at once isolated its provinces and made their permanent occupation by invaders difficult. A little knowledge about Columbus and Cortes; and a few facts about Spanish wine and merino sheep and the quicksilver of Almaden; a bare acquaintance with the outlines of Spanish history and the war of emancipation; in a word, less than Sullivan's outlines give, though differently put, will make the difference between suggestive and valueless teaching.

History not to be taught in primary schools.

I may here say briefly what I have said at more length in my report upon high schools, that I do not think it possible to teach history to young pupils. But even were it so, it would, I think, be unwise to introduce it into primary schools. We want these to be reduced, not enlarged, in proportions, and to transfer most of the higher work that they are at present doing to high schools. We want, if compulsion is to be enforced, that our children should get through their necessary work by the time they are twelve years old. Thoroughly to do this, I propose that the term of attendance should be increased, the work simplified, and all that is not strictly necessary retrenched. To add such a subject as history to our programme would mean that certain hours in the week should be struck off from subjects bearing on the standard, and, as an inevitable consequence, that children should be kept three months or six months or a year longer in school.

But history and other subjects may be read in schools.

It is another question whether the upper classes in a State school may not be encouraged to read manuals of history or agriculture or the laws of health instead of using the present volumes of extracts. The department has already made a beginning in this direction. Lacoppidan's Elements of Agriculture seems all that can be wished for as an introduction to that science.

While saying this I am bound to remark, that the translation published under sanction of Government is far from accurate, and that I do not think the errors contained in it are covered by the author's permission to the translator to make alterations.

and the Health Society has recommended a little treatise on the laws of health to the Minister's favourable notice. A short history of Australia, like those which Mr. Marcus Clarke and the Messrs. Sutherland have brought out, would be entitled to rank high among books of this kind, and I see no reason why a sixth or upper sixth class should not be taught out of it. It will, of course, be understood that there is a wide difference between the intelligent reading of one or two text-books of history, not examined in afterwards, and the study of history.

The upper sixth extras.
It is part of my scheme that every large school should contain an upper sixth class, and that, having worked in this for a certain term, should confer the privilege of paying half fees at a high school. The pupils in an upper sixth should learn Euclid and algebra, and might be taught part of their Latin accidence. These subjects should therefore be struck from the list of extras, for which the teacher receives payment from the parent; and this will reduce the list of extras to French, trigonometry, mensuration, book-keeping, and the elements of natural science. French and book-keeping will long continue to be sources of income in country districts. Meanwhile, I would recommend that the inspectors should consider it part of their duty to examine not only the higher teaching of the upper sixth, but the character of the teaching in extra subjects. Having looked through a good many exercises and been present at some class lessons, I am very doubtful as to the quality of the instruction generally communicated in these subjects by teachers, whose knowledge of Latin or French has been acquired in a year of multifarious preparation, and whose knowledge of science is probably derived from a course of lectures. I do not think the department will find it easy, though I hope it is just possible, to fill up the head-master-ships of the new high schools from its present staff. Yet in language and mathematics the high schools will profess to teach nothing that is not taught after a fashion at our State schools.

In estimating the work of a head teacher the inspector is met

A head master should have some voice in choosing his teachers.

at the outset by the great difficulty that the head teacher does not choose his own staff, and is constantly forced to work with imperfect material. I have proposed to meet this, partly by assigning a small allowance of 10 per cent, in estimating the results of class teachers. But the department may, I think, meet it more adequately in a way that can hardly be defined by fixed rules, if it will allow the masters of large schools to nominate one of their old pupil-teachers, let us say, to every third vacancy. This will foster the kindly relations between teacher and pupil-teacher that are one of the brightest features in our present system, and will give the head master the best of all possible premiums upon good training. I think, too, inspectors should be instructed not to try

Character of districts to be allowed for.

schools by a hard and fast line, comparing them with what is; absolutely best, but taking into account every circumstance that may fairly be considered. So far as I can judge, the most intelligent scholars are to be found in large towns, and the most favourable conditions for a school, all things considered, in a small town of from 2,000 to 6,000 inhabitants. The inspector will therefore be justified in expecting greater results of teaching in Melbourne, Ballarat, or Sandhurst, and better discipline in Hamilton, Bairnsdale, or Warrnambool, while he must make great allowances for schools that have been recently opened or in parts inhabited by a migratory or by a scattered population.

The work of organization is that which especially distinguishes

Organization.

the most capable head masters. It is for the head master to assign their work to the assistant teachers; and it may be his duty to give a low class to one who is high in the service and vice versà. To do this without exciting discontent is a good test of capacity. Generally, I think, a head master in a large school ought not to take a class, but it may be necessary for him to do so, and to depute an inefficient assistant to do clerical work, such as registration. Where the inspector finds that this is done, he should examine the assistant in class-teaching, and report on his capacity or want of capacity to the department. But generally the head master can create an esprit de corps, and work up all but the most backward to something like relative efficiency. My experience goes to prove that the men who do this best are sometimes rigid disciplinarians, and sometimes men of exceptional geniality and tenderness, but are always men who trust and inspire trust; and I regard it as a sure sign of incompetent management when a head teacher keeps a diary in which he records his grievances against his assistants. Next, the head teacher must assign his pupils throughout the school to their proper classes. It may be desirable in doing this to disregard rules that are generally wise; to put an over-grown lout, who would only create disorder among young children, into a class where he can barely work with the rest; to give quick promotion to those who would be disheartened by staying too long in a class with their juniors; or to keep back those who are not solidly grounded. I dislike the present system of results for nothing more than that it forces a teacher to classify by rule of thumb; to ask how long the pupil has lived, not what his powers and disposition are, before moving him. Thirdly, it is for the head teacher to construct the time-table of the school; to see that a long room is not filled with several classes speaking at the same time; to regulate the proportions of the studies; and to see that the younger children get frequent intervals of rest and changes of work. Fourthly, as it seems most important that the pupil-teachers, who are now heavily overworked, should be spared half their work in the fourth year, the head master must arrange for throwing half their burden on other shoulders, and for relieving them of some part of the task of enforcing discipline by the appointment of monitors. Lastly, it is for the head master to see that no time is lost in beginning work; that there are no undue absences from the school during school hours; and that the pupils take their places and quit the school without noise or confusion.
Discipline.

To some extent the discipline of a school depends on the class-teachers, and the head master must be judged by their performances. If he is tolerant of whisperings, shufflings of feet, listlessness and inattention in all who are not actually repeating a lesson, his assistants will often be careless about enforcing order; and on the other hand, though a single class may now and again defy the head master's vigilance, the tone he gives to the school will be generally felt. There are again some matters for which only he is responsible. It is he who must devise the mechanism by which needless absences in school-time, especially of boys and girls together, are prevented. It is for him to see that his assistants attend punctually, and that the home exercises are scrupulously overlooked and corrected. It is he on whom the tone of honour in the upper classes will depend—who alone can make the elder pupils feel that any form of dishonest sharpness is criminal. But he may be better judged outside than even within the school. It was my fortune to live for some years in England in the neighbourhood of two of our most famous public schools, each supplied with an admirable staff of masters, and each getting excellent results in scholarship. But I could not avoid noticing that, whenever I drove into the little town where one was situated, I found a party of the boys throwing stones in the street at one another; while I never detected an Eton boy in any act of license or rowdymism. I think an inspector will be justified in judging a head master's qualifications for discipline by the conduct of his pupils in the play-ground and in the street as well as in the class-room. Provided the results are desirable, I would leave each man free to attain them in the way he thinks best. So long as only the head teacher or his deputy inflicts corporal chastisement, and so long as every punishment inflicted is registered, that form of correction is not likely to be carried to serious excess; and the tone of districts differs so much that four canings a day may imply less severity in one school than four a week in another. But I hold that the teacher is bound to aim at something more than unquestioning obedience during lessons, and must be held to have fallen short of the highest requirements if his elder pupils are rough-spoken or rough-mannered, are not quiet and courteous.

It is the head master, even more than the assistants, who is responsible for intelligent teaching.

Intelligent teaching.

It is the head master, even more than the assistants, who is responsible for intelligent teaching in a large school, inasmuch as the head master's work is to examine classes and form teachers rather than to take a class himself. Here the experience of a thoroughly trained man gives him a great advantage even over the admirable teachers whom an improved training college turns out year by year. They will sometimes know more of books than their chief, but they ought never to know as much of human nature, of what points the child is likely to apprehend imperfectly or misapprehend, at least until they are worthy to take the highest place. The head teacher, again, has to harmonise the teaching of the assistants as well as to correct the deficiencies of the pupils. There are differences of method between one class-teacher and another which, as every schoolmaster knows, involve a loss by friction of the first two or three weeks to every child that passes out of one class into another. Ideally, therefore, the best plan is to let every assistant take not a class, but a subject, and to let children rise in each subject, grammar or arithmetic, without regard to their work by year. They will sometimes know more of books than their chief, but they ought never to know as much of human nature, of what points the child is likely to apprehend imperfectly or misapprehend, at least until they are worthy to take the highest place. The head teacher, again, has to harmonise the teaching of the assistants as well as to correct the deficiencies of the pupils. There are differences of method between one class-teacher and another which, as every schoolmaster knows, involve a loss by friction of the first two or three weeks to every child that passes out of one class into another. Ideally, therefore, the best plan is to let every assistant take not a class, but a subject, and to let children rise in each subject, grammar or arithmetic, without regard to their work in other departments. But this plan requires a large staff, and could only be carried out in a few State schools, if in any. Practically the head master must continue so to harmonise the routine that the difference of method between class and class may not be such as to embarrass the pupil, while at the same time the teachers are not restrained from working according to their bent. In one case the head master is bound to impart instruction. He must bear the chief responsibility of preparing his pupil-teachers himself; and though he is stimulated to do this by the credit and the reward if a pupil-teacher passes, his efficiency as a trainer must be taken account of by the inspector under the head of intelligent teaching.

The work of those head teachers who, taking small schools, take classes themselves, will be valued by the inspector from a double point of view: they will take marks as head teachers and as assistants. Assuming the assistants in a large school to earn four-fifths of the results, the head master's results will stand thus—

Cases in which 5 is secured ought to be common.

The marks for the infant school—that is, for all children under Class I.—and similarly the marks for an upper sixth or for divisions of any class under a separate teacher, must he thrown in with the other marks of assistant teachers, and reduced to the standard of 100.

Amount of work thrown on an inspector.

If the inspector has checked the rolls of each class, when he visited the school in the early part of the year, he will have scarcely any clerical work to do when he returns on a formal visit of inspection. As the effect of registration and compulsion will be to pass nearly all children through the primary schools by the time they are twelve, the attendance of those who are under twelve will be enormously increased, while children between the ages of twelve and fifteen will practically disappear. The regulation making the upper sixth class a passport for cheap entrance to high schools will also attract a good many who are now cared for in private schools.
Altogether I think we must expect to have at least 120,000 on the rolls; and of these, allowing 16 per cent., as is done in Scotland, for those kept away by unavoidable causes, rather more than 100,000 will present themselves for inspection. This gives each inspector more than 5,500 pupils to examine in twelve or thirteen weeks of five days; and, allowing for public holidays and for days when the attendance is thinned by rough weather, we may probably say that he will have to despatch 100 pupils a day. I notice that Mr. Newell, one of the Irish inspectors, reports that he can only do justice to 50 fairly classed pupils in a day;

Appendices to 43rd Report of Commissioners of National Education in Ireland, p. 97.

and in inspecting from our own inspectors a larger number than this, I rely on the saving of time that will be effected when they are no longer obliged to check lists of ages and names, and on the use they will be able to make of the teachers in examinations. I think they ought to be able to examine a sixth class pupil in five minutes, and any other in three. But even so, the day's work will be from five to six hours in school work, and the inspector will have to write his reports, and travel in such other time as he can make for himself.

Results ought not to be averaged.

Teachers have an idea that inspectors rather favour a system of averaging results, so that no one shall get the highest or the lowest possible percentage. When I have told a head master that he ought to represent a case of defective early training and get an allowance for age from the inspector, as is permitted by the regulations, I have sometimes been answered, "It is no good. The inspectors tell me that I can't complain of my percentage, and make no allowance." The department disclaims encouraging this practice, if it be a practice; and I think it unfortunate that its existence should be believed in. No doubt it is unpleasant for an inspector to feel that, if he gives low marks, the teacher will be mulcted in a part of his small salary; and, on the other hand, I can understand a certain reluctance to give the highest marks where the school, though good, has not reached the inspector's ideal standard. But if results are to be retained at all, the standard must be applied fearlessly. A thoroughly inefficient teacher had better be drafted out of the service before he is too old to employ his energies more usefully; and, on the other hand, a good teacher is entitled to his year's results even though they may be due in some slight measure to the chance of having exceptionally bright scholars or of having had an easy examination. On one point, that of accurate class-rods, the inspector ought, I think, to be inexorable. Whenever, entering a school fifteen minutes after roll-call, he finds that the rolls have not been properly marked, it should count against assistant and head teacher in estimating their percentage for discipline at the end of the six months. In the much worse case, where rolls are stuffed, as, for instance, where children are allowed to go home when they have answered their names, the matter should be instantly reported to the department.

Some teachers complain that the inspector's power over percentages number of questions asked should be increased.

is very much increased by the small number of questions he sets: three, two of which must be answered. It is argued that where he has reported unfavourably upon a school it is always in his power to vindicate his verdict by setting what are called "catch questions" at the next examinations. We need not ask whether this charge is purely imaginary to examine the fairness of the present system. It is quite possible to hold, as I do, that the inspectors are honorable men, doing a difficult duty most conscientiously, and yet to hold that they work under a system, the balance of which is easily disturbed. Nor does the check devised by the department, that the inspector must keep a record of the questions he asks, seem to me quite sufficient. What we have to guard against I am convinced is not unfairness, but unintentional inequality; and the smaller the paper of questions is the more difficult will it be to rectify this. I think it will not be any sensible addition to the work of inspection if capacity to answer the best three out of five questions in grammar and geography be substituted for capacity to answer the best two out of three, and if a single mistake in arithmetic be allowed in the first class as it already is in every other.

The greatest safeguard for teachers, however, will be that reports should be published.

inspectors' reports should be published year by year, and that all in the service should be entitled to claim promotion by the published report. I do not wish absolutely to restrain the inspector from sending in private reports. There are merits and deficiencies of which the most competent judge can only say, "nequeo monstrare et sentio tantum;" where the precise measure of praise and blame cannot be indicated by line and plummet. No one, I think, can wish that an inspector should be debarred from saying that such a teacher has the true instinct and genius of his profession, and that such another, though faultless, is a mechanical worker. With a larger inspectoral staff the inspector-general will be easily able to test the value of praise or blame of this kind, and to quicken or retard promotion accordingly by two or three years. Even in these cases I think some form should be devised to apprise the profession that certain of their members had been marked out for honorable notice independent of per-centages. But the great point is that no man should be liable to be superseded, or transferred to a worse post, or kept back for any long time in the list of promotion, unless the action of the department is justified by the inspector's public and published reports. Under the system, by which I propose that promotions
should be regulated, the chance of such grievances will at first be comparatively small, as rank throughout the
service will be determined by certificates of teaching power and reports on teaching efficiency, each bearing a
distinct numerical value. But as competition becomes keen there will no doubt be many on a list with equal
claims to promotion in every respect except seniority. It is in these instances that I would give the department a
limited right of promoting or passing by, and would not allow it to deny promotion altogether.

The expense of publishing such reports as I recommend will be considerable, but if they come out in parts,
each of which contains a separate school district, I think a large sale for them may be anticipated. As it is,
publishers find it worth their while to collect the school averages and percentages and edit them in almanacs.
But the question of expense becomes trifling in comparison with the question of efficiency. Such a publication
will go far to promote the spirit of professional emulation, and will give every efficient teacher an indisputable
record of faithful service.

The publication of the "tabulated reports" of the condition of each school has been discontinued in
England), a piece of economy, as I think, to be regretted.—Fraser's Report on America, p. 230, note.

I append a form of return. As it seems desirable that there should be some definite system of awarding
marks, I have intended that in the case of the head teacher the marks allotted for each characteristic should be
divided in regular proportion as each school is summed up to be very good (v.g. = 20); good (g. = 16); fair (f. =
12); moderate (m. = 8); and indifferent (i. = 4). In the imaginary schedule given below, the head teacher having
a faulty time-table cannot get the highest marks for organization, and fails of the highest for intelligent teaching
from shortcomings in geography. In discipline the more serious faults of unpunctuality and copying reduce his
average even more. He therefore falls short of the highest place, but short by so little that he ought to count on
retrieving his position at the next examination.

Organization.—Time-table suitable but not strictly adhered to. Distribution of teachers good. Classification
faultless. G. = 16.

Discipline.—Teachers punctual but not pupils. Order and attention excellent. Manners good. Cleanliness.
Some copying in examination. F. = 6.

Intelligent Teaching.—Grammar and arithmetic well taught. Writing excellent. Geography weak. G. = 16.

Efficient teaching. Discipline. Intelligent teaching. First assistant ... 4 ½ + 1 + ½ = 7 Second assistant ... 3
+ ½ + ½ = 5 Third assistant ½ 3½ + ½ + 1 = 6 18 Counted as 36 Head master's marks— 16 + 6 + 16 + 36 +
5 = 79 = 4 (Signed) June 1879. Inspector

Teachers.

As the changes that any thorough scheme of State education involves in the position of teachers are
extensive and important, I have thought it desirable to consider them separately.

The position of teachers throughout Victoria is at present most

anomalous. Every other great profession is guarded against the competition of uneducated pretenders. No
man can practice as a barrister, a solicitor, a doctor, or a chemist, without having given proof of his
qualifications. But any person who is disposed may open a school, and undertake to teach what perhaps he has
never learned. It cannot be doubted, I think, that this reacts injuriously on the whole status of teachers. The
public is apt to suppose that any one who has failed in some other branch of life may fall back upon teaching,
and yet, inconsistently, but not unnaturally, attaches an extreme value to certain recognised certificates. The
truth, I believe, is that a test of some kind is indispensable. But we can only test knowledge, not teaching
power; not because it is impossible to estimate a teacher's efficiency in class-work, but because an attempt to
impose some particular system would commit the country to a very dangerous routine. We have a right, I think,
to say that no one shall profess to teach English or Greek, arithmetic or algebra, without having given proof that
they have studied the subject; just as we have a right to say that a man shall pass a certain examination before
he is admitted to the bar. But the way in which he shall impart what he knows is as little matter of definition as
the way he shall plead. The public service and the public may be trusted to discover under what teacher the
pupil makes most progress; and every examination of a school will, in fact, be a testing and certifying of
teachers.

Again, we cannot work the compulsory system without some check upon teachers not in the State service.
The examinations I have proposed will detect now and again what children have been neglected, but will not
save them from the results of that neglect; and the untrained child of nine relegated to a State school will be a
nuisance from which the State teacher ought, if

Teachers of primary schools should have passed the license examination.
possible, to be delivered. Considering, therefore, that our present license examination is so easy, it will not, I think, be much to demand that all persons who shall open primary schools after the passing of this Act shall be compelled to show that they have passed the license examination, or an equivalent to it, such

Head teachers of high schools should hold a B.A. degree.
as the matriculation examination. From head teachers of high schools we may, I think, demand a B.A. degree of some British University, with reservation of existing rights for all persons now engaged in teaching in the colony, and with some larger latitude in making the first appointments; and after 1879 assistants might be compelled to produce the University certificate of teaching.
The first step to raise the character of teachers will have been taken when this is done. Our next must be to secure that the State teacher gets a better education than any other, and reaps the reward of his education throughout his professional career.
The Training College.
I advocate the connection of the Training College with the University, not only because it will reduce the cost of education to the State, not only because the heads of the department and of the profession desire it, but because I think it of incalculable importance that the men and women who are to train our youth should themselves fall at the time when impressions are deepest under the influence of the most eminent teachers in the colony.
A special chair of Pædagoey not needed.
I have often been urged to recommend the establishment of a chair of Pædagoey. If Pædagoey means class-teaching, the Superintendent of the Training College is already such a professor. If it means a knowledge of the ways in which different subjects can be adequately taught, I am sure it will be better learned from many teachers than from one; however excellent. There is no single method of instruction: the lecturer, the class-teacher, and the private tutor are each different in their way; and an excellent teacher of language may be worthless in history. So long as the University fairly represents the highest intelligence that can be attracted into the department of teaching, so long will it be the best place in which teaching can be learned.
Comparison of the proposed curriculum for teachers with that at present enforced.
It may be asked whether the two years' course I propose for future trainees, a year before matriculation and a year afterwards, is not longer than they require; whether the simple education to which I propose to confine primary schools cannot be taught without a knowledge of French or physical geography. In reply, I would say that the present course occupies two years, and embraces nominally more subjects than the University demands. But as our first-year students are now taught in different places on different systems, and come up with every variety of preparation to a badly officered

This is no longer applicable. (11th February 1878.)
Training College, their time is more or less wasted. Then I would ask what subject out of the University first-year course in Arts a student ought to dispense with? Not Euclid or algebra, for he may be required to teach these in an upper sixth. Not French or Latin, for without some knowledge of another language than his own the teacher cannot explain English thoroughly. Scarcely even chemistry or botany, if we do not wish the possible head of a school of six hundred to be inferior in attainments to his own pupils after a year at a high school. Let it be borne in mind that we want the teacher of a primary school to be respected as a man of fair education throughout the colony. Above all, we wish him to keep the higher prizes of the profession steadily in sight, and to train, if he can spare the time and energy, for the University, so as to qualify himself for the mastership of a high school or an inspectorship.
To secure this last aim, it is indispensable that the prizes of Promotion by fixed rules.
the profession be awarded by recognised rules. I do not mean that the heads of the department should be debarred from a certain liberty of selection among qualified men, but that only men with the highest qualifications should be capable of the highestpreferment. By the highest qualifications I mean the possession of the highest certificate, and a certain percentage of results at inspector's examinations. When the profession is brought under fixed rules such as these, it will be possible, I think, to insist on stricter obedience to orders from the department than is enforced at present. All, of every qualification, ought to take their turn of country work without murmuring, when the fear that being out of sight they will be out of mind is removed by the knowledge that their certificates will always count in their favour.
Those who look at the large cost of our educational system, and
Question of salaries.
at the salaries paid to teachers in other countries, are apt to think that the incomes given in our State schools are excessive. I am not prepared to say that the system of giving extra payments for classes in special subjects, for drill, and for singing, has not sometimes led to results which may be called excessive, because they are disproportionate to what other members of the profession gain. But after the deduction of these anomalous
incomes, which the changes I propose will make impossible for the future, the average income of our best paid
head teachers is about £450, and the scheme appended to this report makes £500 a possible maximum, and
£450 an income that will be often or nearly reached.

See Appendix A.

At present the question is one of competition. New Zealand pays as much as £500 in exceptional cases. South
Australia has lately advertised, guaranteeing a first year's income in four small towns at £450. When we bear in
mind that the foreman of a large shop earns from £500 to £800 a year, that our teachers are forbidden to eke out
their incomes by trade

A portion of the press has attacked teachers for taking up land. I confess I do not understand why. Land
may often be worked profitably without the incessant attention which a shop demands, and is not as likely as a
shop to involve the teacher in quarrels or jealousies. No doubt the possession of laud will make the teacher
unwilling to move, but so will the possession of a house; and, as the department never builds if it can avoid it,
the teacher is often obliged to build for himself.
or speculation and are expected to maintain a certain position, I do not think this income can be called
excessive. As a rule the State's worst bargains are not those who earn most, but those

The bad teacher is the dearest at any salary.

who, being only partially qualified, earn least, and I believe one of the best practical reforms will be to turn a
good many schools into half-time schools, with one good and well-paid teacher to two, instead of a bad and
cheap teacher to each.

A change in the present system of payment by results desirable.

One great and just source of teachers' dissatisfaction with their present status is undoubtedly to be found in
the way in which their income by results is assessed. When the disturbing elements of average age and
attendance cease to enter into the calculation of these, as I propose they should, the just causes of complaint
will have been removed. I do not think it possible to remove all. Unless we assume that it is as easy to manage a
large as a small school, we must classify schools by the numbers of their pupils, and graduate our salaries in
proportion; and thus the teacher with an attendance of 500 will be better paid than the teacher with an
attendance of 499. As, however, every child who satisfies the law will count as an attendance, and as the State
will do all it can to run up the numbers at the school, the teacher will certainly gain by the changes I propose,
and several schools on the boundary line will be moved up into a higher class. In determining the results of the
teacher's work, the inspector will no doubt retain very great power, even though the proportion of salary
dependent upon results has already been reduced from a third to a sixth. This I regard as unavoidable;
inspection is the pivot on which our whole system turns. But such changes as I have proposed will, I think, have
the effect of making the issue for the teacher simpler and broader. I propose that more weight should be
attached to intelligent teaching; that the test of class-work should be the good training of the greater number,
without deductions for a few backward individuals; that the examination should be rather longer than at
present; and that the paper-work corrected by the teacher and marked by an examiner should be forwarded in a
sealed envelope to the department, should the teacher desire to lodge an appeal with the inspector-general.

How far this system may work well I cannot of course forecast. My own impression is that the differences
under it will be more decided than they now are, and that they ought to be; that a good teacher will constantly
get his maximum, and a bad teacher his minimum. One of my chief charges against the present system is that
an indifferent teacher may often secure a good percentage, and a conscientious one fall below 80.

Trying character of a schoolmaster's work.

It is not, I hope, out of place to protest here against the imperfect estimate which I have often heard
expressed of a schoolmaster's work. Men look at the time-table, and assess it at five hours a day, which they
contrast with their own long hours behind the counter or the plough. But no teacher who hopes to make his
mark works as little as five hours. Many head teachers compute the work they do in school alone at eight hours
in the day; and an examination of their books has convinced me that they do not overstate their case. Hitherto
they have had to train separately pupil-teachers, students of the Training College, and students preparing for the
civil service or for matriculation, and though we shall relieve them of some of this and simplify what remains, it
will scarcely be possible to reduce the time they employ. They have, in addition, to watch their assistants at
their work, and train them where they are deficient; to keep registers and time-tables; and above all to keep up
their reading at home; to be better instructed than the young teachers whom the department sends out to them.
The profession which demands all this from them demands also that they should maintain a buoyant vitality and
an equable temper; should never be listless or harassed; impatient with slow pupils or harsh to the vivacious.

The question of punishments in schools has, I hope, been settled

Punishments in schools.

by the late circular, which restricts the right of the cane to the head master or to a deputy nominated by him
and approved by the department. So little has this circular tied the hands of willing schoolmasters, that I have
found a school where ten boys have been caned in a day, and another not very large one where twenty-two
suffered in a week. There is, however, a difficulty in some cases which the mere license to cane does not
remove. A female head teacher in a country school cannot always deal with the sturdy elder boys who are her
worst pupils—boys of 13 and 14. I believe almost all trouble from this cause will be removed, when the Act is
enforced, so that only studious children need to be kept at school after 12. Meantime, I think the teacher should
be empowered to call in the truant-officer of the district or the head of police, and hand over culprits to him for
corporal punishment. Practically the mere knowledge that the teacher can do this will preclude the necessity for
the application in almost every case.

The last and most vital question touching the position of

The promotion of teachers should depend only on published reports.

teachers is their claim to know exactly how they stand in the service. At present, the district inspector enters
his opinion of the school in an inspector's book, and writes up a private report, which may differ considerably in
wording and even in general effect, to the department. The department keeps and refers to the private, not the
public reports; and thus it occasionally happens that a teacher is moved or censured or refused the preferment
he would naturally have, while he has always, as he believes, been well reported on. I do not know that it is
possible or desirable altogether to do away with private reports. An inspector, suspecting delinquency of some
kind (such as inaccurate entries), is bound to communicate his suspicions, that they may be kept on record for
his successor's information, or their accuracy tested without delay by the department. So again, there is a certain
general impression of character, favourable or unfavourable, which an inspector carries away from every
school; and which he may fairly reserve for the information of his superiors. But it is of far higher importance
that the whole service should think itself fairly dealt with, than that a perfect system of surveillance should be
maintained. I think, therefore, that in the three cases I have instanced—where a man is suddenly transferred
without explanation to a less desirable appointment, or where he is not allowed to retain his own school, which
has become more valuable, or where he is censured—he should be allowed to demand a court of enquiry,
composed of two inspectors

Courts of enquiry.

and two head teachers, and presided over by some person named for that purpose, together with the other
four members, by the Minister. Such a court should sit in Melbourne, and should not hear counsel, and its
decision should be final.

Complaints should be promptly dealt with.

Having examined at length several cases of alleged ill-treatment by the department, I can testify that in
general the complaints made have been preposterous or grotesque. But I cannot say that there have not been
some cases of real grievance; and these, it must be remembered, will commonly happen with good teachers
whose professional chances are so valuable that they submit to wrong rather than complain. Be the complaints
urgent or trivial, however, it is far better they should be disposed of at once than allowed to rankle and become
stock for political agitation. I have met one man at least whose brain had evidently been impaired by brooding
over a grievance which a court of enquiry would have disposed of in a day's sitting.

The Education Department should promote an esprit de corps among its teachers.

In treating of the Training College I have spoken of some means by which the department may encourage a
healthy esprit de corps among the teachers of the colony. But administration, however excellent, can do little
until the principle of promotion by merit, and by merit only, is thoroughly established. Only when the teacher
knows that he can rise by honest work to the bâton de maréchal will he feel proud of his service, and proud of
the comrades with whom he is working, and against whom he is contending in fair rivalry.

RULES AFFECTING THE POSITION, PROMOTION, AND RIGHTS OF
TEACHERS.

1. After 1880, five classes shall be established for teachers: (1.) Those who have passed the second year
examination in arts at the University of Melbourne with first or second honours. (2.) Those who have passed
simply or with third-class honours. (3.) Those who have passed the first year examination in first or second
class honours. (4.) Those who have passed simply or with third-class honours. (5.) Those who have passed the
matriculation with credit in English and arithmetic or the license examination as amended. The values of these
classes shall be as 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1 respectively.

2. Actual teachers shall rank as follows:—

• Those certificated with first honours, or those who are actually in charge of schools above 700, or those
  who are first assistants in schools above 700, as 5.
• The certificated with second honours, or those in charge of schools above 500, or first assistants in
  schools between 500 and 700, or second assistants in schools above 700, as 4.
The simply certificated, being head teachers of schools above 250 and first assistants in such schools, and second assistants in schools above 500, as 3.

Other head teachers or assistant teachers, being simply certificated, as 2.

The simply licensed as 1.

3. The department may substitute the University certificate of teaching with honours and a simple certificate for the third and fourth classes as above constituted, or may take them as of equal value.

4. Teachers may rise from a lower into a higher class by passing the requisite examination, and may rise a step a year from the lowest into the highest class if they prove themselves capable.

5. After 1882, the headships of high schools and school inspectorships shall be confined to B.A.s of the University with a preference to those who have been not less than five years teachers in State schools.

6. To facilitate rising from the different grades, teachers shall be allowed to count two years' work as pupil-teachers in a high school as two years of service, and forty sets of rooms shall be reserved at the Training College for teachers anxious to attend lectures at the University. These shall be charged £30 to cover the cost of their board. The department shall decide in what order the rooms are to be assigned, if there are more applicants than can be accommodated at once.

7. Holders of a certificate with honours (classes 1 and 3) must serve at least two years in a country school before they can rise to a head-mastership in either of the two highest classes, or to a first-assistantship.

8. Holders of a pass-certificate (classes 2 and 4) must serve at least four years in a country school before they can get a head-teachership in schools of the third and fourth class.

9. The inspector shall determine the efficiency of every school once a year, giving marks to a head teacher on the following principle:

   In payment of results these numbers shall be taken as they are, so that a maximum of £140 shall be divided by such proportion of 100 as has been obtained. But, in estimating the efficiency of the teacher—

   This will form nine classes of teachers every year, their rank being determined by the certificate of appointment and the certificate of results. Thus—

   Appointment. Results. 5 + 5 or 4 or 3 or 2 or 1 = 10 Highest certificate of honour or 9 or 8 or 7 or 6. 1 + 5 or 4 or 3 or 2 or 1 = 6 License ... ... or 5 or 4 or 3 or 2.

10. Head teachers of the largest schools (Class A) (above 700) shall be those whose value is 65 in the last seven years. Head teachers of the second class (B) (500-700) shall be those whose value is 60 in the same period. Head teachers of schools between 250 and 500 shall have a qualification of 55. First assistants in schools above 700 shall have a qualification of 65. Promotion shall be determined by the qualification; and when the qualification is equal, seniority shall count so far that no one shall have juniors promoted over his head for three years.

11. A head teacher falling below the value of his school shall be removed, and put in a school of a lower grade; but shall not be reduced more than one grade at a time or except at intervals of three years. But a head teacher taking charge of a disorganized school may be allowed half a year to bring it into order, during which his results may tell for and shall not tell against him.

12. Teachers whose value does not exceed 28 in seven years shall not be capable of taking a head-teachership, except in Class I. or F, or an assistant-teachership above the sixth class.

13. For assistant teachers the scale shall be thus calculated—

   And in calculating results for assistant teachers their maximum shall be divided by 15, or any smaller number that they have obtained.

14. In case two examinations for results are held during the year, these values shall be raised proportionately.

15. No teacher who does not average at least 2 for teaching ability can be head teacher above Class F or first assistant teacher in a school above Class D; and any teacher making 5 for efficiency during seven years shall have 1 added to his certificate of qualification.

16. The term organization shall include a proper arrangement of the time-table, an efficient distribution of classes, and a satisfactory classification of the pupils.

17. The term discipline shall include the behaviour of the pupils out of school as well as in school, for the head master; the attention of the children, as well as their silence during work, for the class teachers; and a proper keeping of the rolls for both.

18. Head teachers of schools in classes A and B and first and second assistant teachers shall have a right to appeal to the inspector-general, and demand a fresh examination of their schools or classes; but in such cases the paper-work of the examination appealed against must be forwarded to the head office, and the inspector-general may base his decision upon these, unless the appeal is only or chiefly for vivâ voce work.

19. No teacher shall suffer loss in future by being changed to a worse position than he or she holds, or by being transferred when his [her] school is about to be enlarged, unless the public reports of the district inspector
justify such a punishment.

20. The Minister shall appoint a court of appeal at the beginning of each year, which shall have the power
to hear appeals by any teacher or other officer in the department who may consider himself aggrieved; and shall
also have the power to refuse to hear them if the complainant cannot make out a good *prima facie* case in
writing. Counsel shall not be heard on either side, and a decision of the court once given shall be final.

**POWERS AND DUTIES OF THE HEAD TEACHERS.**

1. Every head teacher or sole teacher shall keep a roll, in which parents may enter the names and ages of
their children; and shall be bound to receive such names in school, between school times, or in any other hour
between 8 a.m. and 8 p.m. on week days, at his private residence. The head teacher may demand proof of age
from the parent, as provided by the Statute.

2. The head teacher shall fix the school hours, with reservation of the right of the board of advice to define
the period of recess. He shall draw up the time-tables for the school, and see that a time-table for each class is
posted in every room. If the morning hours exceed two, he may allow children to leave after the second
muster-roll has been taken.

3. He may require the attendance of the assistant teachers a quarter of an hour before school-time, and may
keep them in for an hour after afternoon school, to maintain order among children who are kept in. But he must
observe rotation in imposing this duty, except that in schools of Class A the first assistant shall be exempted.

4. The head teacher shall keep a book in which the time when the teachers come and leave shall be entered
by themselves. Members of the board of advice may enter the room where this book is kept to see that the
entries are made regularly.

5. The head teacher has entire charge of the school-buildings during school-time and in midday recess, but
the board of advice has charge of them out of school hours, and on Saturdays and Sundays. If the board, having
used them, neglect to clean them and put them in order before school begins again, the head master shall report
their conduct to the department.

6. The head teacher shall cause a bell to be rung before each roll-call, and members of the board of advice
may attend at such times to check the rolls.

7. The head teacher may require pupil-teachers, or children over 9, and living within half a mile of the
house, to deliver the summons to show cause on the parents of truant children.

8. The head teacher shall send in the school rolls for every month on the first Monday of the succeeding
month to the board of advice for his district, addressing them to the correspondent if no other person is named
by the board. He shall also furnish separate truant lists, showing the names of the children who have fallen short
of the legal number of attendances. He shall also furnish returns to the department according to forms supplied
for the purpose.

9. The head teacher in schools of Classes A and B is not bound to take any class. His work is to organize;
and it must be left to his discretion, which will be severely tested by the result system, whether he can do more
by teaching himself or by supervising the teaching of his assistants. But he shall be bound to give instruction
himself for an hour a day at least to the pupil-teachers.

10. It shall be one duty of the head teacher to send in on the 20th of the month a statement of the sums due
to the assistant teachers and to himself, calculating to the end of the month; and he shall be authorized to keep
back any sums that have not been earned during the remainder of the month. On the second of every month he
shall forward receipts for all payments to the department.

11. The head teacher is alone competent to inflict corporal chastisement, but he may delegate this duty,
with permission of the department, to a first or second assistant in all cases, except those that occur in the
assistant teacher's own class. In no case shall more than 12 strokes be inflicted, nor shall any offences except
bad language, indecent conduct, disobedience or flagrant disorder, be punished corporally; and a record of all
punishments shall be kept and forwarded to the department. The head teacher shall not allow the use of any
pointers, with which a blow can be given.

12. A head teacher shall have the right to demand that any assistant whose percentage for practical work
has fallen below 2 two years running, or has not made the sum of 10 in five years, shall be removed from his
school.

**ASSISTANT TEACHERS.**

1. Assistant teachers will be allowed to serve two years in a high school as pupil-teachers, qualifying
themselves for University examinations in Arts, and receiving such salaries as they may agree for with the head
teacher without detriment to their position in State schools—that is, at the end of the two years they shall be
entitled to such appointments as they would have held by remaining in State schools, and the two years at the high school shall count as two years of service on their average classification for the last three years. Always provided that, if they are dismissed from the high school for misconduct, it shall count as dismissal from a State school. In such a case, they shall have an appeal to the department, which may cancel the dismissal without restoring them to the high school, and which shall then place them as soon as may be in a State school.

2. Assistant teachers having served ten years shall have the right to claim that they may be placed as head teachers in the following ratio:—The percentage of 7½ shall be valued thus—Above 6 = 5; above 4½; above 3 = 3; above 1½ = 2; and under 1½ = 1. The certificates then counting as with head teachers, there will be nine classes; and those whose value has been 65 in the last seven years shall be entitled to head-teacherships in Class B; those whose value is 60 in Class C; 55 in Class D; and 50 in Class E.

**EXTRA SUBJECTS.**

1. Every teacher shall in future be trained to give instruction in Latin, algebra, and geometry, and either in class-singing or in geometric drawing. Latin, algebra, and geometry will henceforth form part of the subjects of instruction in every upper sixth class.

2. Male teachers will henceforth be required to give instruction in drill and gymnastics.

3. Teachers will be allowed to charge for instruction in the following subjects at the weekly rates subjoined:—

   And similarly for any approved subject not included in the above list.

**Boards of Advice.**

The framers of the Act of 1872, to amend the law relating to education, were not prepared to take away all the powers of control which the people of a district, as represented by a school board, had enjoyed. At the same time it seems to have been thought that as the central government was undertaking the whole cost of the schools it ought practically to have the entire management. The powers left to the new boards were, therefore, with one remarkable exception, more nominal than real.

I subjoin the clauses in the Act which define the duties of school boards.

**Section XV.**—The duties of boards of advice shall be:—

- To direct with the approval of the Minister what use shall be made of school buildings after the children are dismissed from school or on days when no school is held therein; to suspend any school-teacher for misconduct and report the cause of such suspension to the Minister.
- To report on the condition of the schools, as to the premises and their condition, whether new schools are required, and as to the books, furniture, gymnastic appliances, or other requirements.
- To visit the schools from time to time, and to record the number of children present, and their opinion as to the general condition and management of the schools.
- To use every endeavour to induce parents to send their children regularly to school, to compare the attendance of children at school with the roll for the school district, and to report the names of parents who fail or refuse to educate their children or to send them to school.
- To recommend the payment by the Education Department of school fees, or the grant of a scholarship or exhibition in the case of any child displaying unusual ability.

The department has hitherto kept the control of school buildings in its own hands.

The first part of clause 1 relates to a very important point—the use of school buildings when they are not wanted for school purposes. In large towns there is commonly no want of a building that may be hired for balls or lectures or evening classes; and in such places any building is apt to be better than the school, as there is a difficulty about clearing away school benches and desks. But in country districts the school is often the only building in which a meeting of any kind can be held; and the inhabitants are apt to think it unreasonable if they cannot now and again get the use of an empty building for public purposes. The words "to direct with the approval of the Minister" have hitherto been construed to mean that the Minister's sanction must be obtained for any use of the school, but that the board of advice are the persons who ought to apply for it, though not of necessity the only persons whose application will be listened to. The case for the department is that these applications are always replied to without delay, and are habitually granted except where grave reason for withholding consent exists. Boards of advice do not, I think, deny this. But they argue that the right to use the schoolrooms is one which might safely be entrusted to the persons whom their fellow citizens have elected on a board of advice; that the necessity of writing for leave is sometimes inconvenient; and that whenever a
schoolmaster has any difference with a board of advice about the use of rooms the department supports the teacher against the board. To let the force of this last point be fully understood I may observe that a few head teachers have undoubtedly the same sort of feeling about their school buildings which clergymen in England have about their churches and churchyards; regard them as freeholds, and dislike any attempt to make use of them for other than school purposes.

An instance of the working of the present system.

An instance will show how the present system works. The board of advice in a large country town applied some months ago for the use of the school buildings for a ball, there being no available room elsewhere in the town. The department gave permission. Immediately after the ball had been held the schoolmaster wrote up complaining that the plaster of the walls had been broken by nails, that one or two benches and locks had been damaged, and that the rooms had not been properly cleaned, so that work on the following day had been delayed a full hour for the school in general, and longer still for the head teacher himself. These charges are not denied by the board, and though there is a rule in such cases that the board shall pay a trifling sum to the head master, as compensation for the extra cleaning required, the sum usually paid would not have met the damage done in this instance. The department accordingly wrote back to say that the board of advice would be refused the use of the room in future. I confess to thinking that both the head teacher and the department displayed a certain want of tact on this occasion. The head teacher was bound to take the matter up, to see that the mischief wrought was repaired, and to guard against such misadventures in the future. But had he applied at once to the board of advice he would certainly have obtained ample reparation; and had the department refrained from punishing, until reparation was refused, it would not have alienated gentlemen who down to that time had taken a warm interest in the fortunes of the school. As it was, all the damage done was repaired by the delinquents, and a small fine paid in recognition of the mistake committed. But the members of the board of advice felt, naturally as I think, that they had been insulted; the chairman resigned, and though another member has been elected the board, when I visited the town, was still unwilling to act. Meanwhile two assistant masters of the school have applied for and obtained the use of the rooms for evening classes. To this there can be no possible objection; but their application has not been through the board, which is said in the Amending Act "to direct" how the school buildings shall be used after hours.

I see no reason why boards of advice should not be entrusted
Boards of advice should have the control of school buildings out of school hours.

with the control of the school buildings out of school hours, leaving it to the Minister to interfere where the board has abused its power. It is not only desirable that the people of a district should not be debarred the use of a public room, and good to interest them in the preservation and ornamentation of the school, but it is important to establish the principle that a school is built for public uses, not for private control. I am sure teachers at large will gain when their powers over schoolrooms are more precisely defined, even though they are circumscribed; and, when a common occasion of jealousy and quarrels is removed, the department will be relieved the task of answering several hundred letters a year. Now and again difficulties will of course occur; but I do not think any can occur of a more serious kind than the one I have noticed as actually produced by the present system.

While the powers of boards of advice have been circumscribed
The relation of boards of advice to teachers should be more precisely defined.

within the narrowest limits on this matter of the use of school buildings they are very full on a point which affects the self-respect of teachers infinitely more than the control of school buildings. They may "suspend any school teacher for misconduct." Coupled with another clause which gives them the power of visiting the schools from time to time to "record their opinion of the general condition and management," this enactment seems to make the school board supreme over the teaching staff. It has led, I understand, to several unpleasant altercations; but has practically been neutralized by the good sense of the boards generally, and because it is understood that the department sides with the teachers. I confess to thinking that the precise nature of the powers given in so important a matter ought to be clearly defined. For instance, if a right to visit includes the right of asking a teacher questions before his class—why he adopts such a method or gives such an explanation—and such cases have occurred, the teacher's authority will be undermined and the school demoralized. Again, if the board may suspend a teacher because he is a strict or a lax disciplinarian, or because he is unpunctual in attendance or slovenly in dress, the position of teachers will be unbearable. These are matters with which the inspectors and the department ought to deal. The duties left to boards of advice will still be very important. As representatives of the district, who are responsible for the attendance of the children, and whose negligence may cause the district to be lined, they ought to have greater power than they have of checking attendance. It is to them, in the first instance, not to the department, that the schoolmaster ought to submit his list of attendances. In the same way their absolute right to be present at roll call, and to ask then any questions that the calling over suggests, cannot, I think, be denied. But, except for this purpose, their presence in a school should be only to note silently what is done. They must bear in mind that the presence of strangers
always unsettles children and makes all but the oldest teachers nervous; and that silent observation of the way in which work is done is among the most important parts of an inspector's work. They may safely reserve their criticisms to be entered in the book for the purpose, or confidentially communicated to the teacher, or imparted to the inspector at his periodical visits. Their power of suspending should, I think, be limited to cases which might form the subject of an enquiry in the criminal courts, or to such gross breaches of morality as are ranked by common repute in the same category.

Boards should be allowed to refuse to receive a teacher of tainted character; but in other matters the promotion and moving of teachers must be left with the department.

I have spoken in my introductory report of the importance of giving the board of advice right of objection to a teacher of tainted character. Several members of boards have expressed their desire that they should receive notice before a teacher is removed, so that they may be enabled to remonstrate, if one who has secured the confidence of the district is sent away against his own wishes, to a distant post. The matter is one beset with difficulties. I was told, in one case, that the people of the township would have subscribed, if they had been apprised in time, to keep a popular and efficient schoolmaster among them without loss to himself. On the other hand, the department finds it difficult as it is to move teachers, and believes the difficulty would be increased indefinitely if teachers could make interest with the boards of advice to protest against their removal. On the whole, I think, it is safer to leave the department absolute in these matters, and to trust that, when the staff of inspectors is increased and the inspectors are brought into closer communication with the boards of advice, the wishes of the various districts will be understood and consulted as far as possible at the head office.

Boards should determine the hour of recess and the holiday times.

It is, I think, the board of advice who should decide whether the time of recess is to be an hour or an hour and a half during the day, and (with some limitation) when it is to begin. I found one instance, where a head teacher, otherwise deservedly esteemed, was at war with his board of advice, because he liked a short recess and an early breaking-up of school, while parents complained that their children could not get home and dine in an hour. So again, it is the board of advice who, within certain limits, should fix the holidays. A week at Christmas is, I fear, necessary everywhere, but in Bairnsdale where the hopping time lasts over February and March there is a clear gain in transferring as much as possible of the vacation to those months; while about Koroit May would probably be the month when holidays would be most acceptable to parents.

The department, I know, holds that boards of advice at present receive every attention, and are invested on application with every power they seem capable of using well; in fact, that it is their own fault, if they do not already do all, or almost all, that I wish to place in their hands. I can only answer that boards of advice in general do not share this opinion; and that legally they have no power, of themselves, which private persons in a district do not possess, except that of writing their opinions in school records, and the doubtful one of suspending teachers. The better the men the more unwilling they will be to play at power. Unless, therefore, some grave reason can be shown for forcing them to correspond with the head office whenever they want the use of a room, or whenever a school fence needs repairs, or to get instructions when children are to be summoned, I venture to think that these matters and others such are better left in their hands. The school boards in England and the district committees in Massachusetts exercise incomparably greater powers than those our own boards will receive if my scheme be adopted in its entirety. We have centralized ever more than France, where the departmental council, though responsible to the Minister, is a governing body.

I subjoin a scheme of the powers I think boards of advice ought to receive; and which might, I presume, be given by the Governor in Council, in the same way that rules for the payment and training of teachers have been framed.

**DUTIES AND POWERS OF BOARDS OF ADVICE.**

The duties of boards of advice shall be—

1. To assign the district to every school within their the jurisdiction, defining its boundary; and to hang up a map or description, or both these, authenticated by the signatures of the chairman and of the correspondent, in the town hall or district post-office.

2. To exchange districts with one another, duly notifying the Minister of the changes made, and with power on the part of the Minister to disallow the changes.

3. To settle whether a child is or is not within the statutable distance from a State school.

4. To hear appeals when a schoolmaster refuses to let children be transferred to another school during the school half-year.

5. On the first Monday of every month to receive rolls for the last month from every school in the district,
with separate truant lists showing the children who have fallen short of the legal number of attendances, and with the foils of the absence books showing the reasons, given by the parents.

6. To order the truant officer of the district, or the police if the truant officer cannot attend, to prosecute parents who have offended against the provisions of the Education Act.

7. To communicate with the department at the end of every three months, forwarding tabular statements of attendances, and explaining if there have been any special reasons to make the attendance in the district irregular.

8. To expend so much of a petty cash fund, not exceeding £5 a school for every school where there are more than one, or £10 where there is only one, as is needed for temporary repairs and improvements such as are not allowed for in the maintenance fund; for instance, on fencing, mending a roof or tank, planting trees or putting up a verandah.

9. To receive all fines levied in the district by the police magistrate for truancy, with power to spend them on the objects above enumerated or in prizes to the school children of the district.

10. To decide whether they will receive into the district a teacher who has been suspended during the last year or at any time removed from his post for misconduct, the department being bound to give the board notice beforehand in all such cases.

11. To enter any school and watch the ordinary work, not interrupting it; to inspect the lists after roll call; to make entries in the book kept for the purpose as to the punctual attendance of teachers and pupils, and as to the general efficiency of the school. To be present at the inspector's visits, having notice beforehand when he will come; and to be present also at the half-yearly or yearly examinations by the head teacher.

12. Where a charge of a trifling kind is brought against a teacher to communicate with the department and require that an inspector be commissioned to investigate it within two months.

To act as a board of enquiry by themselves, if both parties agree to this in writing, in which case the decision of the board shall be final, and the department shall take action upon it.

Where a serious charge is brought, such as of immoral conduct or peculation, to communicate with the department and obtain a special court, suspending the teacher meantime till the department has taken action.

13. To determine the time at which the midsummer and midwinter holidays begin, with the reservation that the former shall not begin later than Christmas Day. In cases approved of by the Minister to transfer a period, not exceeding a month, of vacation from the holidays as actually distributed to some other time that may be more convenient for the district.

14. To determine whether the time of recess in the middle of the day is to be an hour or an hour and a half, and whether it is to begin at 12, 12.30, or 1.

15. To amalgamate, where it shall seem desirable, any two schools within their district in Class G on the half-time principle, drawing one and three-fifths salaries and reasonable costs of trans- port from the department in each such case of amalgamation; or to amalgamate schools in the way indicated by co-operation between the boards of two different districts. But notice of such amalgamations must be given to the department; and all payments of salary shall be made in the usual course through the department.

16. To decide whether a school shall be closed through fear of infection, or to exempt the parents of an outlying district from attendance for a time in cases where their children would pass through an infected quarter. But the board must instantly apprise the Minister of the action it has taken in such cases; and the Minister may overrule it.

17. To exempt children from twenty per cent, of the statutory attendances in cases where one parent is dead, or permanently absent from home, or disabled by illness, and where it appears that the services of the child or children are needed at home.

18. To direct what use shall be made of school buildings after the children are dismissed from school or on days when no school is held therein.

19. To meet within a week of election and elect a chairman and correspondent, whose names shall be gazetted. In case a chairman or correspondent resigns or vacates office to elect his successor at the time of his resignation or vacating, or within two weeks of the notification that he has resigned or vacated. In case the board neglects to do this the Governor in Council may nominate a chairman and correspondent.

High Schools.

On reflection I have preferred this name to that of grammar school, which seems to imply an education based upon the study of language; and to that of commercial school, which seems to imply that the education is only adapted for mercantile pursuits.

I have hinted in my summary at the reasons which seem to
State schools have a tendency to destroy all but the best grammar schools. make it imperative that the State should establish schools intermediate between the State school and the University. I may add that the very excellence of our State schools makes it necessary to supplement them. The best of them teach what they teach so well that a great many parents are satisfied to withdraw their children altogether from the costly and pretentious, but not much more satisfactory, middle-class schools. The result is, first—which is not undesirable—that only the best middle-class schools can maintain themselves, and next, that even a good middle-class school has but a poor chance in any but a large town. Where ten or a dozen additional pupils may make the difference between profit and loss it will often happen that just this number is taken off by the State school, either learning extras in it or simply working up to the primary standard. It need scarcely be said that many families suffer severely by the want of middle-class schools. In the first place the teaching of extras in primary schools is more or less accidental, and an excellent head teacher may not be qualified, and may have no assistant qualified, to give instruction in French, in chemistry, or in trigonometry. In the next place the class of education offered by schools which rank between the primary schools and the University is of such importance as to demand a separate and most careful organization. Every township of three thousand contains fifty or a hundred families who would wish their children to continue their education three, four, or five years beyond the age of twelve, when the standard of the primary schools ought to have been attained. If the State does not assist these families to support a high school they will commonly be unable to do it. In some cases they will make a sacrifice and transfer themselves to a larger town for the sake of their children's education. More commonly they will select one child for education in an expensive Melbourne school and will leave the others to learn as they can in the primary school of the place. But often they will make no effort, and children who might have held their own creditably in the intellectual competition of professional life will be kept on a little longer than is necessary at the primary school and then be transferred at once to practical life or to household duties.

The State would gain little by buying up existing middle-class schools. Were the State to take all the higher schools of the country into its own hands the expense of the change would be enormous. I believe the fees paid for tuition alone in seven of our largest schools amount to about £30,000; and these represent the real cost of the tuition given, as the principal's income is in every case derived exclusively, or all but exclusively, from boarding and a percentage on extras. No doubt the schools I have instanced represent a considerable part of our grammar school system; but while the cost of buying up the whole and giving compensation to principals would be very great, the State, by doing it, would only have done half its work. The small towns which I have spoken of as the places where cheap secondary education is most wanted at present would gain nothing if the Scotch College and Church of England Grammar School in Melbourne were thrown open free of cost. The State would have to supplement the purchase by establishing new schools all over the country. Meanwhile it would be brought face to face with another difficulty: the question whether the education now given in our chief grammar schools is of that practical nature which the class at present unprovided for requires. That the teaching our best schoolmasters give is thoroughly good of its kind I admit at once; and the mere fact that hundreds of parents are willing to pay for it shows that it has a practical value to a certain class. I will even go further, and say that it might be very unwise for the State to alter it in the schools where it is now given successfully. But the question whether we should try to scatter schools of this class broadcast over the country is quite another one.

Teaching given in grammar schools.

Our most important existing grammar schools are modelled on the great English foundations of Eton, Harrow, Rugby, and Winchester.

I have inserted the time-tables of our chief grammar schools further on (p. 99), so as to show the time devoted in each to various subjects.

The instruction given is essentially similar in language and mathematics.

In language, the dead languages—Greek and Latin—form the substructure of the whole teaching, and a considerable knowledge of English and a moderate knowledge of French are commonly added. The pupil is trained not merely to read but to write Latin and Greek, and though the difficulties of those languages prevent the success obtained from being very marked, as much time is commonly devoted to Latin and Greek composition as would enable an average pupil to write French fluently. German is at present only taught as an extra.

In mathematics the teaching with the higher pupils goes as far as plane trigonometry and conic sections.

The teaching of geography and history is very much influenced, Geography and history.
and not altogether favorably, by the University Matriculation Examination. I believe it may be assumed that the
information represented by the University text-books is mastered after a fashion by the majority of the pupils.

Physical science is being introduced into our grammar schools,

Physical science.

but it only makes way gradually, because there is no energetic public demand for it, because no branch of
physical science has as yet been made a part of the matriculation course, and because there is some difficulty in
finding a supply of teachers qualified to give instruction in it. As a rule, private schools cannot afford to try
experiments. They must move altogether if they move at all; otherwise the public will set down the teacher as
crotchety and a theorist. I do not think, therefore, we can infer from the action taken hitherto by our public
schools, that the head masters consider the present system the best conceivable, but only that they consider it
the best practicable at this moment.

Having myself a strong opinion that, even in our best existing
A different model may be desirable for high schools.

grammar schools, much of the teaching given is useless or attained at an extravagant cost of time, I hold yet
more strongly that the new schools the State proposes to found ought to give an education different in kind
from the English classical model. A rich man may be able to afford the luxury of training his son to write Latin
verse or to translate Æschylus. A poor man must prefer the languages of commerce. Even in science there will
be some difference, and I should prefer training the mind of a future farmer or merchant on chemistry and
botany to taking him through the integral and differential calculus. Without disputing the theory that the chief
object of education is to strengthen the faculties rather than to store the mind, I hold that it is possible to do
both, and that a system which would launch a young man upon life with a trained but unstored intelligence is
like a system of medicine which would give tonics and withhold food.

I propose to start from the consideration what subjects may
Subjects that may be profitably omitted from a high school course.
profitably be omitted from the present course, and then to show in what way the time gained may be
profitably employed.

In the first place, I wish to see Greek omitted from the
Greek.

ordinary course and taught only in their last year to State scholars who are about to go up to the University.
The study of Greek was introduced at a time when no modern language except Italian had a literature worth
studying, when Aristotle and Hippocrates were the best medical text-books, and when theology and
metaphysics occupied the ripest minds of the century far more than is now the case. The study has been retained
by tradition and habit, and is generally supported on the grounds that the common Greek text-books are of
singular literary finish, or that Greek is necessary to medical and theological students, or that the Greek
language from its structure and difficulties is an exceptionally good discipline for the mind. I cannot dispute the
first of these statements. Even at this day I believe that a student of style will learn more from Greek models
than from the literature of any single country in modern Europe. But inasmuch as no existing system trains its
students to appreciate this polish in less than four or five years, I hold that we can no more demand a
knowledge of Greek from average men and women than the purchase of the highest works of art from ordinary
householders. The other two arguments I do not admit. Greek is not more necessary to the theological student
than Hebrew, and he may as well learn both separately as one. Above all, the Greek of the New Testament is as
different from the Greek taught in schools as the idiom of Burns from that of Pope; and the only author I am
acquainted with, Philo Judæus, whose style really throws light on the New Testament, is never by any chance
taught in schools or colleges. The case is even stronger as regards medicine. No doubt many medical terms are
derived from Greek, but they are either technical words never found in the great exemplars of classical
literature, or barbarous modern compounds, intended to express modern thoughts and sometimes only
expressing modern ignorance. Such terms as "alopesia," "cyanosis," "aneurism," "embolism," are not met with in
ordinary Greek reading; words like "sternum," "petroleum," and "choroid" have lost their Greek forms; and
the name "oxygen" only records a mistaken theory of Lavoisier's. Lastly, the view that Greek is an
exceptionally good discipline for the mind can only be based on the difficulties it presents. Its grammar is
scarcely more elaborate than the German, and it does not express thought so clearly as French. Above all, the
discipline it imparts is only given to those who master it, and in proportion as it is more difficult than modern
languages will its discipline be less often felt.

One of the profoundest classical scholars of modern times, the late Professor Conington, told me that, in
consideration of the great difficulty of teaching Greek properly, when the claims of other branches of
knowledge were recognised, he was prepared to see it struck out of the list of necessary studies at Oxford. Two
other scholars of scarcely inferior reputation, Professor Goldwin Smith and Dean Liddel, addressed a letter to
the College of Physicians pointing out the uselessness of the study of Greek for medical men. Mr. Henry
Sidgwick developed the general view elaborate in "Essays on a Liberal Education." These views have been accepted to some extent, and French and German are now put on an equal footing with Greek in the Woolwich examinations. Therefore, even in a conservative country like England, where the wealth of the higher class of students permits a certain indulgence in educational luxuries, Greek has been denounced or partially discarded as superfluous.

I may add that our grammar schools are so arranged that pupils may escape learning Greek. In other words, the teachers who keep Greek in our schools advise that its study may be dispensed with.

Next, of Latin composition. Be it Latin verse or Latin prose it Latin composition.

is almost equally unreal. Not even the most perfect scholar can so completely master a dead language as to compose in it; he can only string together old phrases that will serve to express new thoughts. He must have authority from Cicero or Tacitus, from Virgil or Ovid, for every phrase and every word he employs. Conceive a man trying to write Tennyson again in the language of Shakespeare, and we shall have a favorable idea of the sort of exercise that this perverted ingenuity produces. I do not say that a finished production of the kind has not a certain charm for professed students; the charm of associations called up, and the pleasure experts feel in a successful tour de force. But I do say that a young country cannot afford to throw away the thought of its youth upon the most artistic of Chinese puzzles. "I may be asked," says Mr. Grant Duff, "if I would absolutely banish from education the practice of Latin composition. I reply, 'From education, no; from general education, yes.' I should as soon think of proscribing fencing as of proscribing Latin composition; they are both mighty pretty pastimes and very much upon a level."

"A Plea for Rational Education."—Fortnightly Review, August 1877, p. 183.

I do not apprehend much opposition to the proposal that the History.

Greek language and Latin composition should be excluded from our high school course; but I fear many who have followed me so far will demur to my next suggestion, that no history except that of the British Empire since 1700 and that of Australia should be taught in our high schools. Nevertheless I speak on the subject from the result of many years' experience as a teacher, and with very strong convictions. I know it may and will be said that a knowledge of early English history is indispensable to a liberal education, and that the subject admits of being so taught as not to make great demands on the pupil's time. In fact a strong pressure is being constantly brought to make history part of the course in our primary schools. There is a feeling that it is disgraceful for boys and girls to leave school without some idea at least of such epochs as the Norman Conquest, the wars with France, the Reformation, the Great Rebellion, and the Revolution or without some acquaintance with the histories of Alfred, William the Conqueror, Henry VIII., Cromwell, and William III.

In reply, I would beg my readers to ask themselves, what knowledge worth having a boy of fifteen can acquire about time: and persons thoroughly unlike his own. Let us take one of the illustrations I have used, the Great Rebellion. The England of that day was not the mining and manufacturing England of this century, a country covered with railways and studded with large towns. It had no newspaper press worth speaking of; its houses of Peers and Commons held quite different relations from those which exist at present; its taxation had been or was independent of excise, and property tax, and assessed taxes; its people were influenced by religion in the conduct of their daily lives and in their political struggles to an extent that can scarcely be understood now. Its courts were governed in their procedure and decisions by precedents of the middle ages, while its ripest thinkers anticipated the ideas which have been embodied in the American Constitution. Thanks to Macaulay, Hallam, Carlyle, Sanford, and Gardiner, any man of average education may study these times with insight and understanding. But the cleverest boy or girl can learn nothing that is really worth knowing about them from such textbooks, excellent of their kind, as Edith Thompson's and Bright's histories, the books now in use in our schools. What they learn is a farrago of dates and technical names (like ship-money and star-chamber) and names of battles and names of statesmen and generals; and what they remember is an anecdote here and there, or a striking incident—the execution of Charles I., or the concealment of his son in the oak. They fail to learn more, not only or chiefly because their text-books are meagre, but because their minds are undeveloped. It takes some knowledge of the world, or a high imaginative faculty to transport oneself back into past ages and understand the characters and springs of action of a different time. So far as I can judge, very few acquire the knowledge or develop the imagination or feel an interest in history proper till they have reached the first year of an University course.

Ancient history.

The reasons I have advanced against the study of English history will of course tell with incomparably greater cogency against the study of ancient history; and while I would not debar the teacher from lecturing on it in connection with the literature a pupil is reading, literature which will probably lie within a period of fifty years, I would certainly exclude the history of the times before
History of Australia.
Cæsar. On the other hand, an ordinary boy or girl will, I think, be interested in the history of the Australian colonies, and able to understand it. Why certain parts of the colony were first settled, and what were the special circumstances of each settlement; the history of exploration, and of pastoral settlement, and of gold discoveries, and of constitutional government are all matters that have an unmistakable freshness and meaning for the present generation. Happily the Department of Education has seen the want of a text-book on this subject and provided for meeting it.

Simultaneously with Mr. Marcus Clarke's, another excellent hand-book of Australian history has been published by the Messrs. Sutherland.

Helm to the study of Latin.
The economy of time which the changes that I have already proposed will cause will be very great. I would hint at one other alteration which Mr. Grant Duff has recommended. "So far from the learner being shut up with grammar and dictionary, every conceivable help must be given. The best translations, the best illustrations from art, must always be at hand." By illustrations from art I take it Mr. Grant Duff alludes to the use of photographs of old Roman buildings, and such books as Milman's "Horace" or Burns's "Rome." The cost to a teacher of supplying himself with these would not be very great if the department procured them for him, as is done with school manuals, at trade price. I would add one hint from my own experience. When a pupil, by the aid of translations, has acquired a fairly large vocabulary he ought to be practised in translation at sight and encouraged to guess. We are apt, I think, to trust too much to a scholar's memory, and too little to his intelligence. Yet the way in which every one of us has learned the mother tongue has been by having a few words explained and by guessing or thinking out the meaning of a great many.

I proceed now to set out what I think the pupils in a high school might learn. They will come there from the primary schools thoroughly trained in grammar, writing, geography, and arithmetic, and those who have been in the upper sixth will also have learned a little Latin and Euclid and algebra. They will have from five to six hours of work a day in the high school, except on Wednesdays and Saturdays, when I propose that they should have two half-holidays.

Taking language first, there is no study so important as that of English, and nothing more essential than that they should be able to write their own language with some ease, and know what some of the greatest Englishmen have written about. Part of their English studies will be prescribed for them from year to year by the University, as many will be working for the civil service or matriculation examinations. I believe there is a growing feeling among the head masters of our great schools that a play of Shakespeare should always form part of the matriculation examination. If this become law it will be better, I think, in a middle-class school to concentrate the pupils' work upon such writers as have formed our modern style. These cannot be chosen by any arbitrary rule. To my own apprehension Addison, Swift, and Goldsmith are modern writers, while Johnson, Gibbon, and Burke (especially the first), have a foreign or antiquated idiom. But I would only advise that no attempt should be made in a high school to begin the study of English literature before the eighteenth century, and would leave it to the discretion of the teacher if he was unwilling to sacrifice the concentrated thought of Gibbon or the fluent wisdom of Burke to the fear lest a pupil should acquire some tricks of false antithesis or a taste for the barbaric gold of a rhetorical style. Similarly each man must decide for himself whether he will teach from such a book as "Typical Selections," which gives specimens of many styles, or from a few unmutilated works of great authors. Even if the latter and less discursive plan be adopted a pupil may leave school having read Addison's "Spectator Essays," a book of "Gulliver's Travels," or the "Draper's Letters," Burke's "Thoughts on the French Revolution," and a couple of Macaulay's "Historical Essays." Such an one will, I think, have acquired some acquaintance with English style, and will probably feel an interest about English history.

With the mind thus trained the pupil will be well qualified to attempt English composition. I do not mean that he will be able to write what are commonly known as "theses," exercises upon some abstract subject, such as "patriotism," or "the office of the imagination." Work of this sort demands knowledge and original thought to an extent that a boy or girl of seventeen cannot possess. But these may be trained to write letters, to describe some place or object with which they are familiar, and, above all, to practice précis writing, the reproduction in the fewest possible words of an argument or of a narrative. I confess to a strong feeling that much of the time now spent in our schools on analysis might properly be devoted to composition, and that an average employer, banker, merchant, or tradesman will generally prefer a clerk who can put his thoughts and knowledge into well-chosen words to one who can only dissect and demonstrate the structure of another man's thought. I would urge, therefore, that English
composition should count for one-third the marks given in any paper or papers on the English language and literature.

The study of French.

I would put French second in rank to English for educational purposes. Since the publication of Littré’s Dictionary and Brachet’s Grammar the study of French may be made as instructive, even from the philological point of view, as the study of Latin. But what I chiefly look to is that an ordinary pupil can assimilate French in half the time required for Latin, that is, can learn to read French profitably, and to write and think in French easily, let us say in four years, where he would require eight for a dead language. The pupil can do this partly because the French grammar more closely resembles the English, partly because many thousand French words are incorporated in our tongue, but, not least, because the structure of English sentences is French rather than Latin. Unless, therefore, we assume that school work is to be useless in after-life, it is natural, I think, to prefer the language in which a pupil may read books pleasurably after leaving school to that which he will have half learned and will therefore quite disuse; the key which opens its lock to the key which only turns half round. Let it be borne in mind that I am instituting no comparisons of the relative value of the two literatures. It may be better that a young man should read Cæsar and Tacitus than De Tocqueville and Thiers, Virgil than Victor Hugo, Plautus than Molière, Cato and Pliny than Lavergne or Buffon. But it is certainly better that he should be able to read one than remain ignorant of both; and unless we exclude French from our high school course we cannot give the time in which Latin can be thoroughly mastered; and I am doubtful if we could do it were French excluded.

Influences of French and Latin upon style.

Let me add one other argument. The difference between Macaulay, the most French of our writers, and Johnson, one of the most Latin, represents in strong contrast the influence of the two languages upon style. Macaulay is pointed, straightforward, and clear as day; Johnson balanced, antithetical, and cumbrous. This difference, which would admit of many other illustrations, belongs to the two languages. The best scholars often dispute the meaning of a Latin sentence, from its intricate and involved structure; of French, it has been happily said that it ceases to be French if it is ambiguous. No doubt the very structure of our language assists precision in thought; but what is obscurity in a Latin writer is apt to take the form of affectation in a Latinist.

In treating of this subject of French education it will not, I hope, be thought amiss if I digress somewhat to express my hope that the authors used as text-books in our high schools will generally be modern authors. I am quite aware that a consummate master of French style, Paul Louis Courier, has said that there is not a girl of Louis XIV’s time who could not give lessons in style to the Rousseaus and the Buffons. But it is not a question of teaching scholars to understand the graces of a dead idiom, but of enabling them to read the language in which living men and women converse in France. I do not think it is possible to omit Molière or perhaps Racine from any course; but, leaving them to represent antiquity, I would suggest that the chosen works of Courier, Victor Hugo, De Tocqueville, St. Beuve, Taine, Eugénie de Guérin, and Michelet be selected in preference to Charles XII, Télémaque, or Gil Blas. Modern French like modern English has renewed its strength and enriched its vocabulary by freely taking up idioms and words that the precise writers of the last century discarded as antiquated or provincial; and while a man who can read Balzac or Victor Hugo without a dictionary can read any older French book, the student who passes from Molière or Voltaire to Eugénie Grandet or La Légende des Siècles will often find himself at fault.

As regards Latin, I assume that the education given by a high school should aim at teaching grammar and literature. There is no royal road to grammar, as has often been said, but, I believe that if the teacher forces his class to remember that Latin is not a language by itself, but one of a family, and works it steadily into the French and English teaching, he will produce more durable though, perhaps, not quicker results than by the old system. In the teaching of Latin literature the teacher who does not harass his pupils with composition ought to be able to achieve comparatively great results in the study of Latin authors. At present a candidate for matriculation learns, perhaps, a book of Cæsar and a book of Virgil, going painfully over them again and again until he knows them more or less by heart. It is not too much to say that he may easily treble this. Let him begin in his first year translating as soon as he has learned the most meagre outlines of grammar, but translating with such help from a vocabulary, or notes, or a translation as to make his work easy. I do not think it is too much to say that in the four years he will spend at school, especially if he waste no time on centos of sentences or third-rate writers, he may easily read the part of Cæsar’s Commentaries which relates to Britain, the Agricola of Tacitus, the De Senectute and Somnium Scipionis of Cicero, the second and sixth books of the Æneid, the third, tenth, and thirteenth Satires of Juvenal (or select odes of Horace at the teacher's discretion), and perhaps even a book of Pliny's Letters, or of the Natural History. The minimum course Mr. Grant Duff proposes, and which I have kept steadily before me, embraces very much more than I...
have suggested; but though Mr. Grant Duff would have Latin begun a year later than I propose, he includes a three years’ university course in his plan, and, I may perhaps add, seems to estimate the capacity of average scholars a little too much by his own highly trained intelligence and exceptional energy.

Mathematics.

The teaching of arithmetic in our State schools is already so good that their best pupils will not require much more than to keep up what they have learned, they will, therefore, have four years in which to learn algebra and geometry in the high school, even if they have not begun these before coming to it. I designedly use the term geometry in place of Euclid, as I hope we shall not long continue to labour under the reproach of using a text-book that has long since been discarded in all the best continental schools, and which the best English teachers have protested against for something like twenty years.

Physical science as a branch of education.

The teaching of physical science seems to demand a larger place than it has yet found in the curriculum of our grammar or high schools, and the innovations I have proposed in the omission of Greek and the curtailing of Latin have been intended to leave time for this neglected branch of education. Putting aside altogether the practical uses of chemistry and botany, I conceive that they train the mind in a way that language and mathematics cannot pretend to. All study of course exercises the memory and the attention; and grammar undoubtedly quickens the perception of analogy, while the study of the best models of literature elevate the taste. Of mathematics Sir W. Hamilton has observed that "the habit of continuous attention" "is the single benefit to which the study of mathematics can justly pretend in the cultivation of the mind." And so far from regarding them as a training to the reasoning faculty, he sums up with Vivès and d'Alembert that "mathematics may distort but can never rectify the mind." In fact, the great and all-sufficient justification for the place we assign mathematics in our schools is their practical use in common life, and in many professional and scientific pursuits. But if we would learn how to observe and how to infer, we must go to other teachers than grammarians or algebraists.

The faculty of observation.

Take a child of seven years, which has not yet been subjected to the drill of a school. It is noticing, handling, experimenting in every direction, picking up knowledge through every sense, and storing its memory with facts. See it again after it has had several years at school, poring over desks during day-time and preparing night work at home. It is no longer restless and mischievous; it has learned attention and concentration; but in proportion as it is a promising scholar, it has probably ceased to observe. Put that child later on, when he is now a young man, into an anatomy class, he must begin life again and learn to observe, must distinguish similar bones by the processes for attachment of muscles, the foramina, and the articulations. Nay, his easiest work in medicine will be at the beginnings, and it is not impossible that the long disuse of his observing faculties will tell fatally against him in diagnosis. I have taken a single instance, but there are examples on every side. What we call a practical man is a man who observes and thinks; the men who succeed as breeders are those who have noted the points of stock and the peculiarities of race intelligently. The men who founded gold mining in Australia were men who had trained themselves to observe where gold was likely to be found. I do not wish to attach excessive value to the bushman's remarkable faculty of leaving nothing unnoticed that comes within the range of his eye, and I do not think it possible that we should keep our children observant, except at the cost of the severer training which is to give them attention and mental discipline. But I certainly regard observation as a faculty on which success in life largely depends; and I think children may be taught to observe as well as to think, and so trained as to observe intelligently.

Now, of the various sciences that train the student to observe,

Uses of the study of botany.

botany seems to me, on the whole, the best adapted for a school course. It does not require costly experiments like anatomy or physiology, or, like those sciences, involve the treatment of matters unfit for young people; and it can be studied profitably within a narrower range than geology or climatology; and without the apparatus of museums and collections which zoology seems to demand.

I may refer the reader for a fuller discussion of this subject to Mr. Wilson's admirable article in "Essays on a Liberal Education."

No doubt, in large towns, even botany will be pursued under difficulties, though the public gardens in Melbourne give it an advantage in this respect over many capitals; and field classes might be formed now and again without much difficulty. But the neighbourhood of any country town offers advantages which can hardly be rivalled in Europe, as we have acclimatised most of the trees and herbs of the temperate zone in the Northern Hemisphere, and have, further, our own very peculiar Flora. Children trained to collect might soon learn to notice several hundred differences, and would be constantly on the look-out for fresh varieties. A cheap microscope would allow the teacher to display most of the important facts in vegetable physiology; and, if he
chose to extend his range, he might venture with Darwin, taking our common sundews as his example, into the
debatable land where the vegetable seems to encroach on the animal kingdom. I need only indicate how botany
can be worked into physical geography, and the zones of vegetable life traced on the globe. Lastly, by the time
the scholar has learned the reasons why particular plants are classed with particular families, he will begin to
understand classification, better perhaps than any formal logic could teach it.

It is an important advantage in connection with botany that our schools will find text-books of Australian
botany ready for use. Baron von Mueller has published one; Mr. Guilfoyle is bringing out another.

Meantime I know no more admirable substitute for formal
Use of the study of chemistry.

logic than chemical analysis. The time when students of a certain calibre get a craving for logical method,
and are fascinated by syllogistic forms, belongs, I think, to the University rather than to the school course. But I
know nothing in Mill that is not implied in Fresenius or Noad, unless it be the dissection of sophisms. Mere
chemical lectures with experiments seem to me, I confess, little more than a pleasant mode of trifling away
time, useful perhaps in stimulating the pupil's interest, but barren of any higher results. But the example of our
schools of mines shows that it is perfectly possible to fit up a laboratory at a trifling cost, and to teach the
elements of analysis at least to moderately large classes. The work is of a kind that does not tax the strength,
and that most students enjoy. Under a teacher like Professor Hoffman, of Berlin, the Socratic method of enquiry
why the experimenter had used one test and passed by another, and how he arrived at his conclusion, was as
sharp training for the reasoning faculties as I have ever undergone. It is a secondary advantage of chemistry,
that many chemical books are admirably written; clear and attractive. The teacher, in fact, will only have his
choice of good hand-books from which to illustrate the principles of the science; from Dalton's Atomic Theory,
Liebig's Letters, and Faraday's Lectures, which were popular in my day, to modern text-books, such as Roscoe
and Shuttleworth.

High school museums.

A suggestion made by Professor Agassiz, that every middle-class school should have its own museum of
products belonging to the district and to the district only, might, I think, be so worked as to be of great national
use. Pupils learning botany would be encouraged to collect specimens of the flowers and fruits, indigenous or
exotic, found in the neighbourhood; and the existence of plants that are gradually disappearing might
sometimes be established in this way, and the collections of our large towns recruited with specimens of choice
varieties. The ambition to find a new variety, that should be accepted for the museum, would, I think, stimulate
pupils in a very healthy manner. If geology was taught in the last year, a new field of interest would be opened,
and the pupils might be encouraged to procure plans of wells and of mine shafts, showing the stratification of
the district. If a boy had a taste for entomology, his contributions might find a place in the museum, even
though the subject was not taught in the school. But Professor Agassiz's limitation, that nothing outside the
district should be accepted, is indispensable, if the school collection-case is not to be exchanged for a large
lumber-room of curiosities.

Political geography.

I have mentioned political geography as a subject that the pupil has acquired before passing into the high
school, and will just explain that my test of a knowledge of political geography would be the ability to name
any sea, country, mountain range, river, or large town on a blank map, and to give on paper the names of the
seas, countries, towns, rivers, and mountains that a traveller would cross in passing from one point of the earth's
surface to another.

Physical geography.

Thus armed, the pupil might, I think, pass on to physical geography; beginning in the first year with the
study of the Australian continent and its outlying islands, till he understood why settlement has followed its
peculiar track, what the history of exploration has been, how land has taken its present form, what are the
causes affecting climate, and in what way minerals, flora, and fauna are distributed. In the second and third
years the student might, I think, acquire similar knowledge about the rest of the earth; and during the fourth
year of residence might be taken on to such considerations as the influence of natural causes on man (as
explained by Buckle and Herbert Spencer), or the way in which man modifies nature (as treated by Marsh), or
the way in which an insular situation, a mountainous country, or large forests have determined critical periods
in history. My experience as a teacher is that matter of this kind is an excellent preparation for the study of
history, is found more interesting, and is more easily understood than history proper, and can be imparted to
average pupils of sixteen and seventeen.

There remain two subjects which it seems desirable to include
Drawing and music.
in a high-school course, drawing and music. Much time cannot be spared for them, and I would propose
that no student study more than one at a time; and that any whose parents wish it may be exempted from
studying them after the first two years.
I submit a table of work to show the proportions in which the
possible time-table.
subjects I have specified might be distributed:—

**MORNING.**

- English, including history and literature, 5 lessons of 45 minutes.
- French, 5 lessons of 45 minutes.
- Latin, 5 lessons of 45 minutes.
- Euclid, 2 lessons of 45 minutes.
- Writing and maps, 2 hours.
- (In the higher forms book-keeping might be substituted for this.)
- Algebra, 3 lessons of 45 minutes.
- Piano, drawing, and chemistry, 2 lessons of an hour on Wednesdays and Saturdays.

**AFTERNOON.**

- Piano and chemistry, 2 lessons of an hour.
- Arithmetic, 2 lessons of an hour.
- Botany, 2 lessons of 45 minutes.
- Physical geography, 2 lessons of 45 minutes.
- (In the higher forms geology or natural philosophy might be substituted for this or for some of the
chemistry.)

I append the following scheme of the time allotted to the chief subjects of study in the 6th, 5th, and
4th forms of five of our largest schools; so that if, in my previous remarks, I have unintentionally done
injustice to the present curriculum the reader may correct for himself, and may compare what is done with
what I think preferable:—

Church of England .. 9-12 .. 2-5 .. Included in English .. 2 .. 7 .. 1 Geelong Grammar School 7½-11 3-6¼ .. 3-5 .. 2 .. 7-10 .. 0 Hawthorn .. 7-10 .. 4-7 .. 3-4 .. 8-14 .. 0-4 Scotch .. 10 .. 3-8 v Included in
English .. 2-3 .. 7-12 .. 2-3 Wesley .. 7-9 .. 4-5 .. 3-4 .. 2-3 .. 7-9 .. 1-3 Proposed High School Scheme
Latin. 5 .. 5 .. History included in English .. 5 .. 7 .. 4-6 Physical Geography and Maps 3

It will be noticed that there are fewer lessons in some schools on this list than in others. The time
occupied during the day is nearly uniform, but the average lesson at some schools occupies an hour, and
at others only three-quarters of an hour.

Mr. Morris writes—" It is contemplated to give more time to the study of natural science." Professor
Irving says—" It is not what I would like in physical science, but, pending some reform in matriculation,
it is all I can do."

The non-classical pupils in these schools do German and commercial work (book-keeping, &c.)
instead of Greek.

Allowing 5 minutes between each lesson, the forenoon lessons might last by this plan from 9 to 12.15 on
Monday, Tuesday, Thursday and Friday, and from 9 to 12.30 on Wednesday and Saturday; while the afternoon
lessons might be given between 2 and 3.50.

The range of subjects is limited by the capacity of teachers to teach.

It will be seen that, by the time-table I submit, language still predominates over the other subjects. I believe
this is unavoidable for a time, as it will be difficult to find teachers who can carry their pupils on far in
chemistry or botany. By putting piano and chemistry in the same hours I mean that those girls who were not at
the piano might easily be working analysis by themselves.

Half-holidays.

In substituting two half-holidays for one whole one, I propose an innovation, which will, I fear, be
unpopular with teachers, but will, I think, be acceptable to parents and good for pupils. A day of complete
idleness on Saturday, followed by a day of complete rest on Sunday, is a very awkward break in our common
school course—a time when children do not know what to do with themselves, nor parents what to do with
children. The plan I propose will not impose any additional burden, but will readjust that which is already
borne.
Assuming that it is desirable to establish such schools as I have just sketched in outline, the next question is in what way it may be most economically effected. My idea is that the cheapest plan for the State will be to establish scholarships, awarded by competitive examination to the best State scholars of the year, and to map the country out into school districts, each of which shall have its separate endowment. In country towns where a good middle-class school is already established, the State may, I think, erect the town into an educational district by itself, and give scholarships from the State school, tenable at the grammar school or schools in question.

Scheme for the endowment of high schools.

Thus a town like Ballarat would receive 16 scholarships altogether, or four a year, tenable at such school or schools in the place as the department shall approve; and the department would further pay half the fees of all pupils who, having been a year in the upper sixth of a State school, should wish to attend an approved grammar school at Ballarat, or any other of these towns, as day scholars. I estimate that there are nine such towns now in existence, with a population of about 90,000, and that they would require an endowment of 45 scholarships. The case of Melbourne I regard as different in kind from that of towns like Ballarat, Stawell, or Hamilton. Did the State open a high school in towns such as these it would probably close the existing schools, whose proprietors would then claim compensation. But I do not think four or five high schools established in Melbourne or the suburbs would appreciably affect any really good school now in existence; indeed, my impression is, that the stimulus given to education by the various measures I propose will increase the numbers in schools of the highest class. I would therefore establish at least four day schools for Melbourne and the suburbs. The remainder of the country I have divided, as I best could, into 13 districts, averaging between 30,000 and 40,000 a piece, and entitled each to 20 scholarships, or to five a year. In the case of these districts the State will also be hound to pay the boarding expenses of those children who live more than two miles and a half from the school, or to provide them with railway passes, if any live within easy distance by rail of the school. I calculate these at £40 a year, and believe, from what I can learn, that this will be fair and not excessive remuneration for the master.

I propose that the head-masterships of high schools established by the State be confined, as soon as it is practicable to do so, to inspectors and head masters who have graduated at the University. Five years hence it will be possible I hope to enforce this rule rigidly. At present the State will perhaps find it necessary to promote a few head and assistant masters of approved merit as State school teachers, and who have approved themselves as teachers of extras, but who have not completed a University course.

The emoluments of a head master ought, I think, to be such as to make the position a professional prize. I propose that the State should give him in Melbourne a house, with class-rooms for 120 pupils; and in the provinces, a house, with class-rooms for 80 and dormitories for 20. He will further have 20 scholars assigned him at £10 a-piece (£200 a year), and the half fees paid by the State for upper sixth pupils ought certainly to attract many of these. Lastly, I propose that the State should allow him a trained lady assistant at £200 or £250 a year, whom he may choose from a list approved by the State; and the regulation allowing service by a State teacher in a high school to count towards promotion in State schools will supply an efficient head master with excellent pupil-teachers who will read for the University, and yet give a fair amount of assistance in class work.

From what enquiries I have made, I believe that an ordinary town of 3,000 ought to supply from 40 to 50 pupils to a high school, and several more will of course come in from the neighborhood. I could quote instances at present where children ride or drive eight or ten miles to a primary school. Therefore I think the minimum income of a high schoolmaster, even allowing that he pays a pupil-teacher, will amount to £500 a year and a house; and I do not doubt that the best qualified men will raise this to £800 a year in the country, and £1,200 in Melbourne.

As I find that many of our best grammar schools teach boys and girls together, I see no reason why the State should introduce separate schools at double the expense for the two sexes. It is for this reason that I have made the assistant paid by the State a lady; and I propose that in country towns she should have an allowance of £50 extra, and should receive all female State scholars who require to be boarded. As these appointments will be fairly well paid and very honorable, I hope they will serve, to some extent, to stimulate the ambition of female students in our training colleges.

In the case of towns that only receive a small subsidy to existing subsidized schools, grammar schools the State cannot expect to impose conditions. But where it sends as many pupils, as it will
do in Ballarat and Sandhurst, it may reasonably demand that its own programme be complied with; and I think it may assist in this being done by arranging that the pupils shall receive instruction in chemistry from the chemical lecturers at the schools of mines, and by paying these gentlemen for their services. Nor will there, I think, be any great difficulty in sending the pupils once or twice a week to do chemical work in the school of mines laboratories, accompanied and controlled by a teacher from the high school.

State scholarships.

The next question to be considered is, in what way the State scholarships shall be awarded. It will be necessary, as part of this scheme, and in order to enforce the compulsory clauses, that there should be high school inspectors, and I propose that these, in concert with the district inspectors of State schools, should hold examinations of State scholars every year; the high school inspectors setting the papers, the district inspectors organizing the examination; and the high school inspectors, in concert with three of the senior State school inspectors, assigning marks for the papers.

Districts.

As the present system of State scholarships has led to confining competition to a few schools, I propose that each school district should be examined separately, and that no outsider from Melbourne (for instance) should be able to take a scholarship at Sale. The increased competition which this will cause will, I hope, more than compensate for a certain inequality in results, as we must expect that children in bush districts will not attain to the standard of large towns.

Subjects of scholarship examination.

The next point of importance is to put country children, as far as possible, on an equal footing with the children of towns, and for this purpose I recommend that the examination be only in such subjects as are taught by every State schoolmaster—arithmetic, geography, and a knowledge of English grammar, and capacity to write English sentences. Hand-writing, good up to a certain point, should be a condition of success, but not a subject for which marks are awarded.

Age of candidates.

Lastly, as it is of importance that children should not wait on for these scholarships, and that the conditions of age should be fairly even, I would confine them to children between the ages of 12 and 14.

Time occupied in examination.

Altogether, I expect that from 1,000 to 1,500 would offer themselves for examination throughout the country; and as an examiner might easily read 100 papers in a day, the examiners, each taking a single subject, could despatch their work and results within at least three weeks' time.

Inspection of high schools.

The supervision of high schools will be easily managed, as the supervision of primary schools now is, by the high school inspectors visiting them from time to time, and reporting on their efficiency. Again, as these schools will be partly dependent on public favour, the masters will be stimulated by private interest to keep them up to a certain level of efficiency. But the pupils require to know that their work tells directly upon their prospects in life; and the best mode of impressing this upon them will, I think, be by the establishment of State scholarships tenable at an agricultural college, at the School of Mines, or at the University.

I have sketched elsewhere the outlines of what we may call indifferently Agricultural scholarships.

an experimental farm or an agricultural college; a place where boys of 16 can get familiarised with farm work, while they are also studying chemistry and preparing themselves for a year's course at the University. At present, the farm at North Dookie is the only one where this can be done. It can employ about a dozen students; and I would recommend accordingly that six agricultural scholarships be awarded every year to the best pupils at the high schools. The competition for these will, of course, be general not local, and will thus serve to discriminate the relative efficiency of the schools. Probably the candidates will at first not be very numerous. As it is important not to break in upon their school courses, it will be essential to examine in their ordinary work. The successful ones will receive two years' board and instruction at North Dookie, in return for which the State will get what ought to be a sufficient equivalent in their labour. Those who conduct themselves well at the farm will go on for a year's course to the University to study for a certificate of agriculture. During this year they will receive £50 from the State. In this case it will be seen that the students lose at least a year of their course at the high school. This, I believe, is unavoidable, as a farmer's training cannot be deferred too long, or the rough work of the fields will become distasteful. But the school must not lose by having trained scholars, and I propose, therefore, that the head master shall have the power of awarding the fraction of the scholarship money due for the student he loses to one or more of his best pupils; so as either to give an exhibition of £10 to one for whom the State pays nothing, or two of £5 to those for whom the State is paying half fees.

But the most important high school examination will be that Scholarships and exhibitions at the University.
which takes place at the end of the four years' course, and at which I would propose that ten scholarships be awarded every year of £50 a year each for the whole of the student's course at the University, and 54 exhibitions of the same amount tenable during one year only. The total expense of the first, on an average course of four years, will be £2,000 a year to the State; and the State will thus send up ten scholars every year among the candidates for degrees. When it is borne in mind that the £50 scholarships will not include payment for fees, since I assume that fees will be abolished, and that the holders will have a chance of winning other scholarships at the University, it will, I hope, be thought that this foundation will give the poorest man's son, if he be capable, the chance of entry into a learned profession. The 54 exhibitions that I recommend (making 60 with 6 agricultural scholarships awarded in the third year) will enable the holders to follow a year's course at the University, and obtain one or other of the certificates, which I hope the University will be empowered to grant. Many, I trust, will qualify in this way for a certificate of teaching; and I propose that these should be allowed to share the benefits of the Training College. Others may work for certificates of agriculture or metallurgy, and these may be helped on at our model farms and schools of mines; while others will qualify in the Medical faculty for certificates of dentistry, or pharmacy, or in the faculty of Practical Science for a certificate of navigation, forestry, or technology. When it is borne in mind that by this scheme the State will be training 60 men as primary schoolmasters, farmers, mining managers, dentists, mates, &c., where it trains 10 as doctors, lawyers, ministers, or high school masters, it cannot, I think, be said that there is any danger of flooding the professions with superfluous men. The present rule that the Minister may suspend or take away an exhibition for disorderly or immoral conduct in the holder will, of course, have to be retained; and a scholarship ought, I think, to be in abeyance as long as the scholar fails to pass the examination of his year. But a student may be left to judge for himself whether a particular course of lectures is or is not useful, and to stand or fall by his good sense.

Additional cost where Greek has to be taught.

To the above estimates, we may have to add the cost of another year's schooling for the 10 scholars, who will be required to learn Greek, unless the present University rules are relaxed. I cannot but hope, however, that the University will soon see its way to make Greek an alternative study in other departments besides medicine. Civil Service examination.

Besides testing the education given in the high schools established by the State, it should be a duty of high school inspectors to examine in the third or last instance the children of those parents who register them as receiving a high school education. I think every such child taught at home or in a private school should be examined three times in its life; at 8 by the State school inspector to see that it is up to the second class standard of State schools; at 11 (also by the State school inspector) to see that it has reached the standard of the fourth class; and at 15 by the high school inspector when the standard might be that of the second year in a high school. These examinations should be held every half-year; and children unable to pass the first and second on a second trial might be sent at the discretion of the district inspector to the State school of the district; the inspector giving his reasons in writing to the department, wherever he exempted from this obligation. The first two of these examinations I propose should be gratuitous. At the third every examinee should pay a fee of a pound; and, passing with credit, should be considered to have passed for the Civil Service. One advantage of this third examination will be to furnish a convenient standard of comparison between the grammar schools of private foundation and the high schools established by the State. Scheme for Civil Service examination.

The subjoined scheme for the third or Civil Service examination has been drawn up by Dr. Bromby, Professor Irving, and myself, at the request of the Council of the University of Melbourne, but has not yet been submitted to that body:—

- **English.**—One book, such as a canto of the "Lady of the Lake" to be brought up; the pupil to know the French and Latin etymologies in it; and to be able to analyse any passage in it, and to answer questions upon its grammar. To reproduce the sense of a narrative passage from some standard English author read out slowly.
- **Arithmetic.**—Practice, reduction, fractions, and the practical use of decimals without giving proofs. It is thought that these two subjects should be compulsory. The examinee should also pass in two out of the four following:—
- **Algebra.**—To simple equations, inclusive.
- **Latin.**—One book of Caesar, with parsing and grammar. To translate a few easy sentences of English into Latin.
- **French.**—A book or portion of a book from some easy modern French author, such as the "Voyage autour de ma chambre" of Xavier de Maistre. Parsing, grammar, easy sentences for translation.
- **History and Geography.**—Outlines of the history and geography of Great Britain and of its dependencies since 1700.
As general rules for the conduct of the Civil Service examinations
General rules.
it is suggested—
• That they be held twice a year, in June and December.
• That those who are under 15 at the beginning of each half-year (1st January and 1st July) may pass with
honours.
• That those who are over 15 may pass but not obtain honours.
• That each subject get the same value of marks; but that failure in English or arithmetic pluck the pupil
though he have passed in four other subjects.
• That a pupil getting half marks pass.
• That a pupil getting two-thirds marks pass with credit.
• That pass men be arranged alphabetically; honour men in order of merit.
• That no honours be given in any single subject.
• That candidates who have passed in honours be ipso facto eligible for the Civil Service.
• That candidates who have passed in any way receive a certificate stating that they have satisfied the State
standard of high school education.
The three high school inspectors, who will be required to work the high school system, may easily manage
the Civil Service examination.
I proceed to give a scheme of the way in which high schools might be distributed over the country
according to the plan I propose. The first list I give is of towns in which I propose that an existing school or
schools should be recognised as high schools. The scholarships assigned are at the rate of one to every two
thousand inhabitants, and will therefore vary in number from year to year.
The common charge for day scholars over 12 years of age in a country grammar school is about 14 guineas
a year. The annual charge entailed by these scholarships will therefore be between £600 and £700 (£667 17s.) at
most. But the State may perhaps obtain a reduction where it sends a large number of pupils. Beckoning children
in the upper sixth of the State schools of these towns at one per cent, of the school population, which is, so far
as I can learn, a fair estimate, and assuming that all will go on to the high school, we shall find an additional
charge of about £1,260 has to be allowed for. Of course all will not want to go on, but, on the other hand, it
seems probable that more than now stay on for the upper sixth will be induced to do so, when the highest class
of a State school is the passport to a high school.
The schools in country districts may be distributed somewhat in this fashion:—
Schools in country districts.
Sale.—For Gippsland North and South, including Berwick and Omeo.
Benalla.—For Delatite, Anglesey, Bogong, and Benambra.
Shepparton.—For Moira, Rodney, and Gunbower.
Eaglehawk.—For the Bendigo district.
St. Arnaud.—For Kara Kara, north of Maryborough, and Tatchera.
Ararat.—For its own district and the Wimmera.
Belfast.—For Normanby, Dundas, and the western part of Villiers.
Warrnambool.—For East Villiers, Hampden, Heytesbury, and Polwarth.
Geelong.—For Grant.
Clunes.—For its own district, Creswick, and Grenville.
Talbot.—For the district between Clunes and Castlemaine.
Castlemaine.—For the district, including Malmsbury, Maldon, and Kilmore.
Essendon.—For East Bourke, outside Melbourne.
The estimated expenses of these 13 schools would be—
Schools in Melbourne.
The Melbourne schools I propose should be for day scholars only. I think four—at Richmond, Carlton,
West Melbourne, and Emerald Hill—would be sufficient in the first instance. The cost of these might be thus
estimated:—
To these expenses we must add 40 scholarships (10 a year)
Cost of, scholarships or exhibitions.
of £50 a year, tenable for four years at the University, and 60 of £50 a year tenable for one year at the
University, or at a school of mines or agriculture. These will add £5,000 a year to the cost of the scheme. But it
must be borne in mind that there is a slight set-off against this, as the present State exhibitions will be
discontinued. Had these been of such a kind that students could live on them, they would represent an annual
charge of £1,680. As it is, several have been thrown up so that they only figure on the Estimates for £1,588.
Last, we must reckon a certain charge
Cosh, of inspection.

for inspectors in the cost of high schools, if the State pays the Civil Service examination fee for those among its own scholars who pass. (For failures I do not think the State ought to pay.) This would not, I think, exceed £500 a year. The income from grammar school pupils would, I presume, be larger, estimating that our grammar schools contain at least 4,000 pupils, and would, send up a sixth of these every year. As the high school inspectors would have much easier work than the inspectors of State schools, I think £400 a year (and their expenses) would secure the services of qualified men, who might also be lecturers or examiners at the University. I believe £800 a year is a full—probably an excessive—estimate for this charge.

Roughly, then, the cost of establishing high schools would be—

Two interesting questions remain for discussion—whether grammar schools should be permitted to compete with high schools for university scholarships, and whether it would not be desirable to extend the system proposed even further and abolish all fees for pupils from the upper sixth of a primary school.

The first question should, I think, be answered in the affirmative. The University scholarships will be endowed out of the general taxation, and there "seems no sufficient reason why students should be disqualified from competing for them because they have been educated without charge to the State. In England it is often felt to be unjust that the small grammar schools are overweighted in the competition for college and university scholarships by large and wealthy foundations, or by the pupils of costly private tutors; and in these cases it is argued that the prize is given to the rich, not to the deserving, as the style of examination favours those who have received an exceptional training. But no such difficulty need occur with ourselves. The examiners, appointed by the State, will be specially interested in the high school curriculum, and will examine exclusively in subjects taught by the high school. Therefore, if there be any inequality among candidates, the disadvantage will probably lie with those who are trained at grammar schools, and who have devoted part of their time to subjects, such as Greek and Latin composition, which are not included in the high school course. On the other hand, it will be a great advantage to test the teaching in our new schools by comparison with that given in establishments of recognised excellence. Teachers and pupils throughout the colony will be put on their mettle; we shall soon know whether the new foundations are properly organized, and whichever lags in the race will be compelled by public opinion to reform and rouse itself to new exertions.

Middle-class education need not be made quite costless.

As regards the second point, I have already tried to show that the strong reasons which exist for making primary education costless and for endowing a university do not apply with equal force to middle-class schools. As regards these, the State is, I think, morally bound to establish them in towns where they cannot subsist against the competition of the primary school, but is not called upon to cheapen them. Could it bring university teaching to every important township, as it can bring high schools, it would simply be matter of calculation whether university fees should be retained or abolished. Therefore, in recommending that high schools should be endowed with scholarships, and that competent pupils should be admitted into them at half cost, I have laid regard to expediency rather than to equity. In the first place our costless State school system has fostered a certain indisposition in the part of the community to spend money on education. In the next place it is so important that intermediate education should be highly organized, that the State may, I think, fairly relieve the individual of a portion of his duty. But if the State tries to do all in this matter, it will, I fear, break down under the burden. It will find itself in this difficulty, that as the class which desires a high school education for its children—ministers, doctors, lawyers, bankers, storekeepers, farmers, &c.—is scattered irregularly over the whole country, we must either multiply high schools indefinitely, or board several thousand children at State cost. It will be very difficult to say that children who live at Ararat shall have a high school education without charge and that children who live ten miles off in the country shall be confined to the primary school. That part of the system I have suggested, which gives costless admission to the most capable in town or country indifferently, is, I think, perfectly fair. The other part of it, which reduces the fees to upper sixth pupils, will no doubt be of special use to pupils resident in the town where the high school is situate, but will not, I hope, seem so excessive a benefit as to provoke much jealousy. If we assume that the pupils qualified to compete for the State scholarships admitting to high schools are as two per cent, of the school population (a high estimate at present), there will be five scholarships every year for 160 possible competitors, and a reduction of half fees for many of the remainder. The advantage of competition will be enormous. School will measure itself against the competition of the primary school, but is not called upon to cheapen them. Could it bring university teaching to every town, and every board of advice will be anxious that its own district should compete on favourable terms with its neighbours. Make admission to the high school matter of right for all equally, and the advantage of this stimulus will be lost. The cheaper system is also, I am convinced, incomparably the more efficient.

There are some minor points which I will just allude to, but Half-fee pupils may choose their own high school.
which I think will be best left for the department to decide on by the light of experience. While it is necessary that the 20 scholars of a district should all attend the district high school, in order that the master may receive his proper endowment, it may be a question whether pupils from the upper sixth may not enter themselves indifferently at any high school, or school subsidized by the department as a high school. A pupil at Creswick, for instance, might have his choice in this way of Ballarat, Chines, Talbot, and Maryborough, though his natural place would be at Clunes. Of course, pupils should not be allowed to transfer themselves during the half-year without a permit, as in the case of State school pupils, and the State ought not to pay more than the minimum sum of five pounds for such wanderers. Subject to these limitations, I am inclined to think parents should be left to pick out the high school that suits themselves best. A second point that will have to be settled is the case of "broken" exhibitions. Many pupils will leave in about two years after passing the Civil Service examination, and some will get exhibitions entitling them to residence on a model farm. In neither case can the school afford to lose part of its endowment. My own solution for such cases would be that, where the pupil leaves for private reasons, the remainder of his exhibition should swell the prizes in the competition of the year, but that, where he left as a prize-man, the head master to whom his success was mainly referable should be allowed to award the remainder of the exhibition as a school prize.

Three high school inspectors—one for language, one for mathematics,
Functions of high school inspectors.

and one for science, including geography and history—will be required to work the high school system. If I am right in supposing that they would examine 1,200 pupils a year, this, allowing for failures, and assuming that every pupil took up five subjects to make sure of passing, would give from 3,000 to 4,000 papers at each half-yearly examination; and therefore, even if the science examiner could take one paper in language, which we may assume, the work, at an average of 1,200 papers a-piece, would take from a month to six weeks to look over. Besides this, the inspectors should, I think, visit every high school once a year, and test the regular work of the school by oral examination. Lastly, they will have to hold three separate examinations—one for the exhibitions admitting to high schools, one for second year students who wish to work on a model farm, and one for fourth year students competing for university exhibitions and studentships. The duties, as I have supposed them, represent about six or seven months' work in the year, much of which will be in Melbourne, as the visits, once or twice a year, to thirteen country schools will be the only occasion of absence, and need not occupy more than a month. It would be difficult to organize a large staff of qualified inspectors on these conditions without paying them more highly than I propose, but the State may, I think, count on filling up three appointments with well-qualified men, as there are always some gentlemen to whom it is convenient to undertake half-work for half-pay.

The head master must be obliged to keep a sufficient staff of teachers.

Where the inspectors think that the staff kept is insufficient for the work, they should represent it to the head master and the department. It will probably be advisable to make some rule that the teachers and pupil-teachers shall bear a definite proportion to the number of students—let us say, a teacher to every 30, or a teacher and pupil-teacher to every 45. In no case should the number of pupil-teachers exceed that of the teachers. How this will bear on the teachers' profits may be seen by a hypothetical case. Assume a high school in Melbourne having 200 pupils. These will bring in an income of £2,000; and the head master will have to provide three assistants and four pupil-teachers in addition to himself, and the lady assistant whom the State pays for him. At £150 to each assistant and £100 to each pupil-teacher, this will be a charge of £850, leaving him an income of £1,150, and a house rent free. This proportion of teachers would give an average of 1 to every 22 pupils, an allowance which would be considered good in the best English public schools.

The University of Melbourne.

A new organization of the University made necessary by the establishment of high schools, and desirable on its own account.

The outline of changes that I have sketched so far will, I hope, make it easy to understand why the University of Melbourne requires to be remodelled and more largely endowed. If we are to have high schools established by the State, we shall, in fact, be proposing to educate scholars many of whom will want to go on to the University; and we must furnish the University with the means of completing their education. This necessitates a fresh endowment, either by the State paying University fees for State exhibitioners, or by the grant of a subsidy in return for which University education shall be given free of expense. Now, apart from the important point that the fees for even 160 exhibitioners would not make the University self-supporting, such a plan would deprive the State of all right to interfere and propose reforms which it is most important the University should adopt. For instance, the present constitution of the University is so complicated that it is
difficult to carry reforms, even when there is a general consensus in favour of them; and the most necessary matters are sometimes delayed for weeks or months, because arrears of work have accumulated. It is needless to say that with such a system none but the most sanguine reformer will ever attempt to propose an organic change, however desirable.

It has been my great good fortune to secure the co-operation of The University council has co-operated in preparing & scheme of reform.

the University council in considering what changes might improve the working of the University; and the draft Bill which I submit below represents, therefore, the reforms which the present governing body deems desirable. I must tender my best thanks to the Vice-Chancellor and other members of council who devoted much time and thought to the preparation of this measure; and without whose criticisms and co-operation much that is most important might have escaped my notice.

Briefly, the new Bill embodies four considerable changes. It

Change of constitution, more practical teaching, abolition of fees, admission of women.

remodels the constitution by substituting two governing bodies for three, and by merging the professorial board in the council. It remodels the teaching of the University by creating a faculty of Engineering and Practical Science, and by developing the practical teaching in every direction. It changes the somewhat exclusive character of the University by modifying the restrictions on residence and by abolishing fees for lectures; and it does a tardy act of justice by throwing open class-rooms and degrees to women.

The present constitution of the University vests "the entire

Complicated character of the actual government of the University.

management and superintendence over the affairs, concerns, and property thereof" in the council, which is now an elective body whose members are chosen by the senate. But the council's powers are modified in two directions. It has delegated part of its powers to the professorial board, a committee of professors, who arrange lectures and examinations, maintain discipline, and, through the president, determine the duties of the servants of the University. Then, again, the senate, or collective body of University graduates, can reject, though it cannot alter, any Statute framed by the council. The inconveniences of this complicated system are very great. If the council is appealed to against the professorial board—and such appeals are not infrequent in matters of discipline or examination—council and board correspond with one another, and a week at least is commonly spent over every letter that is exchanged. Matters that would be cleared up in five minutes, if the members of the two boards sat at the same table, become the subject of voluminous and sometimes of hostile correspondence. Meanwhile, as the professorial board includes only professors, it is always matter of doubt how far it represents the teaching body of the University, which is largely composed of lecturers. The position of the senate is even more unfortunate. It can reject, but it cannot amend or suggest, and thus it not unfrequently happens that a most important Statute, recommended perhaps by a faculty and elaborated with great care by the council, is thrown out in what seems an offensive manner, simply because the senate has no power to propose one or two verbal alterations.

The draft Act which I have the honour to submit proposes that

Council to be reinforced by nominees and professional members.

the council shall be reinforced by two members nominated from the University roll of graduates by the Governor in Council, and by eight professors and lecturers elected in equal proportions by the four faculties. I have thought it desirable that the State should nominate two members as an emphatic assertion of the principle that the University is not independent of State control. I do not think a larger number of nominee members is required. The State has no policy to enforce that the University is not ready to adopt; and with every year from the introduction of the new reforms the tone of the University is likely to become more and more liberal. Nor is it so easy as it might seem for the State to nominate appropriate members. It cannot, for instance, put the Minister of Education on the council, where he might from time to time find himself out-voted. In California the President of the San Francisco Mechanics' Institute is an official member of the university council, but there seems no reason why the officer of one literary association should receive such rank to the exclusion of others, if we mean our University to belong to the country at large and not specially to Melbourne.

About the propriety of putting representatives of the teaching body on the council there will not, I think, be much difference of opinion. I have pointed out the practical defects of the professorial board. The ordinary functions of this will be discharged by the faculties, two of which are already organized, while the two others may be constituted within three months after the passing of this Act; and the work of the higher administration will thus devolve naturally, and I hope without any jealousy being excited, upon the remodelled council.

Practical working of the proposed changes.

Practically, there is, I think, little doubt that the council's ordinary business will be in the hands of the professors and lecturers, who will be always on the spot, and whose interest in the efficient working of the University is at once great and direct. But these gentlemen will be debarred (by a rule which partly exists in
Sydney also) from voting on matters of finance; and when any great question of organic change has to be discussed we may probably anticipate that the other members of council will attend, and reinforce the professional by the lay element.

The senate to have the power of amending.

As regards the senate, it is proposed that in future the senate shall have power to amend any Bill sent down by the council, and to remit the Bill so amended for reconsideration. I believe this slight change, which the council has approved, will give reality to future discussions in the senate, will allow practical men now and again to suggest important improvements, and will make quarrels between council and senate well nigh impossible.

II. With respect to the more practical character which it is proposed to give to the University teaching, it will be necessary to examine the work of each faculty separately and at length. In

Present faculty of Arts.

of Arts there are at present—a professor of classics, a professor of mathematics, a professor and lecturer in natural science, and a lecturer in history and political economy. In addition to teaching Creek and Latin, the professor of classics teaches English, and did, not long ago, teach logic and examine in French and German. Logic is now taught by the lecturer in natural philosophy, who also gives lectures in elementary mathematics. The subjects taught by the professor of natural philosophy occupy at least eight professors in Berlin.

It is very difficult, of course, to compare accurately in such matters. There are 38 professors lecturing at Berlin on the subjects Professor McCoy's courses might be held to embrace. I have only counted History of Chemistry, first part of Inorganic Chemistry, Mineralogy, General Geology, Paleontology, General Botany, Morphology or Physiology of Plants, and General Zoology.

and the lecturer in history ranges over ground which takes at least three men in ordinary universities, ancient history being commonly separated from modern history, while political economy is nowhere combined with them.

The disadvantages of this system are obvious. The teacher

Disadvantages of the present system.

cannot concentrate his energies on the subject he is best adapted to teach; and there can be no proper subdivision of classes according to capacity. At the same time, having regard to the great need for economy, the council has only indicated such changes as it may be said are rendered indispensable if sixty students from the Training College and various State scholars have to be provided for in the lecture-rooms.

The first change recommended is that the professor of classics be relieved of English, and allowed the assistance of two lecturers. Striking off English only means to the professor reducing his work by one lecture of three hours in the week. A simple calculation will show that, if the actual pupils in Arts, numbering about forty, are meagrely supplied with three lectures of three hours a week, six lectures of three hours a week will not be excessive when the forty have swelled to one hundred or more.

I may mention here that I think these lecturers should be what

Position of classical lecturers.

are known in the Scotch universities as adlati, under the professor of classics' orders, rather than independent of him; and this will apply with equal force to the teachers of modern languages, who ought, I think, to be under the direction of the professor of English and other European languages. This was the plan recommended and partially worked with success at Harvard College by the historian of Spanish literature, Mr. Ticknor. For the teaching of

Chair of English and other European languages.

grammar, idiom, and accent to advanced scholars, the natives of a country are generally, I think, to be preferred to foreigners, and I hope it will be possible, in such a city as Melbourne, to secure the services of highly qualified Frenchmen and Germans, Italians and Spaniards. But by parity of reasoning English ought to be taught by an Englishman; and as instances of a teacher able to lecture fluently in a foreign language, though not absolutely unknown, are rare, the task of lecturing on European literature and of superintending the work of the modern language teachers ought, I think, for the present at least, to be discharged by the professor of English.

The lecturers on French and German are put down for a higher

Lecturers in French, German, &c.

salary than the lecturers in Italian and Spanish, as it is assumed that the former will do double work. Indeed it may be conceded that it is not a matter of urgent necessity to teach Spanish and Italian.

In connection with this I may remark that an Italian class, numbering 12 pupils, has been formed in so
small a town as Colac through the accidental presence of an Italian teacher, Professor Thomatis.

Still either language has a rich literature, both are commercially important, and the value of Spanish is perhaps likely to become greater, year by year, as the trade with South America is opened up.

History.

With respect to history, I think there will be a general agreement that so vast a subject is sufficient in itself to absorb the energies of any lecturer, and that there is no necessary connection between a knowledge of history and more than a slight acquaintance

Political economy.

with political economy. But it is not so easy to decide how the chair of political economy ought to be established. As a general rule, men with no work outside the University are more likely to be efficient teachers of speculative subjects than men who are engrossed by a profession; and the true work professional men seemed called to do as teachers, is in matters that require constant experience, such as the practical branches of law and medicine. On the other hand, it is hardly worth while for the State to endow a professorship of political economy at present. It has been suggested accordingly that the lectureships of logic and political economy might be held by the same person, who would thus enjoy a moderate income, which might enable him to dispense with a profession. At the same time it will, I think, be better that the University should retain the power of awarding them separately.

Residence of professors.

One last point may be considered here, though it applies to all the faculties. The council holds strongly, and I believe all practical men will agree with it, that it is of great importance to the University that the professors should reside on or near the grounds. An attempt was made to secure this when the University was first founded by providing the professors with houses in the main building. This plan has not been very successful. In the first place only four houses were built, and of these it has been thought desirable to take over one for the larger offices that are now required. In the next place the houses built are small and badly drained and unprovided with yards, or with drying grounds except at inconvenient distances. Should the University be extended, it will be desirable that the professors' present houses should be converted into lecture rooms and studies for the academical staff. Happily the University grounds are so extensive that it will be easy to supply the professors with detached houses standing on their own grounds, if the State will make them a fixed allowance for house rent, on which advances may be secured from building societies. In this case it will be necessary to stipulate that residence in the grounds during term time be strictly enforced.

Cost of proposed additions to the faculty of Arts.

Altogether the cost of these changes in the faculty of Arts will be about £4,200 a year if they are carried out at once in the most complete manner. From this, however, we ought in fairness to deduct part of the present cost of tuition at the Training College.

The cost of teaching Latin, English, French, mathematics and chemistry, to 60 students would be at least £1,000 a year, and the faculty of Arts will educate many of our exhibitioners in addition to the pupils in the Training College.

In the faculty of Law the changes proposed are very slight and

Faculty of Law.

comparatively costless. It is proposed that this faculty should he so far assimilated to the others, that the lectures now given by the Dean should be given, whenever the Dean vacates office, or sooner if the arrangement can be effected, by a professor of jurisprudence. This will avoid the anomaly that the Dean at present claims not to be a professor or subject to the restrictions binding on professors. Two lectureships have been added to the four already in existence. One in criminal law and procedure is nominally included in the course on the law of procedure, but it has been thought better to divide a subject which, from its great extent, was never adequately treated. The other on commercial law is designed to be of a more popular character and treated with more special reference to contracts in commerce than the course on the law of obligations.

The cost of the faculty of Law will only be increased £500 a year by the proposed changes.

This proportion

Faculty of Medicine.

is not equal by fifty per cent, to that in England, and I believe it may fairly be said that the profession is not over-stocked in this part of the world. To keep up its numbers we ought to turn out at least twelve bachelors of medicine a year, assuming the average professional life of a medical man to be thirty-five years, and without allowance for the prospective increase of population. On an average of the last six years I find that we do actually turn out about three doctors a year, that is, about a fourth of the number required for our own wants.
But we ought not, I think, to consider that the Medical faculty labors only for Victoria. It is the most fully officered of any in the southern hemisphere, and the only one that even approaches the conditions of an efficient medical school. Make it what it may easily be made, as good as one of the best schools in Great Britain, and abolish the heavy fees which at present drive even our own men out of the country, and we shall soon monopolise the medical training of Australia and New Zealand.

The mere economical advantage of a change that should bring among us from 50 to 100 students spending from £100 to £200 a year is no unimportant consideration.

I have said that students are driven from us by the heavy fees

Heavy cost of a medical education in Melbourne.

we exact. Thus I find that at King's College, London, a needy and not very cheap institution, the fees for a medical course, exclusive of hospital attendance, were under £02 in 1872,

I regret to say that I have not been able to obtain recent calendars of University College and King's College, London, from any public or private library. When I discovered this quite unexpected difficulty it was too late to send home for them. The want has been partially, but not altogether, supplied from other sources.

while the minimum fees at Melbourne, also exclusive of hospital attendance, are over £100. At Glasgow the fees seem to amount to nearly £100; but here, as in other British schools, the fees charged represent only part of the real difference in cost. The medical course in Melbourne is a five years' course. In Great Britain it is nominally a five years' course, but admits of being easily compressed into four, or, under certain circumstances, into three.

The following scheme will show the difference between British requirements and our own. It was drawn up by a committee of medical graduates of Melbourne:—

Surgical Qualifications. For M.B., Melbourne. 3 courses of dissections. 2 courses lectures anatomy. 2 examinations in anatomy, descriptive and surgical. 1 oral examination on dissections done by the student before the professor. 2 courses of lectures on surgery and surgical pathology. Lectures and training in operative surgery. 3 years' hospital practice, medical and surgical. In-patients and out-patients, with 6 months' clinical lectures or special bedside instruction in surgery; 16 to 18 months' dressership. 2 written examinations in surgery and surgical pathology. Clinical examination in surgery. Examination in operative surgery on the dead subject. Certificate of minor surgery, &c. In all, a 5 years' course. M.B.B.S., London. 2 courses of dissections. 1 course anatomy. Similar examinations in anatomy. 1 examination on preparations of subjects, but none on the student's own dissections. 1 course surgery. 1 course pathology. Similar lectures. 2 years' hospital practice, medical and surgical, with clinical lectures; and 6 months with special charge of cases. A written and oral examination in each subject. Similar clinic. Similar examination. Examinations in application of surgical apparatus. In all, a 4 years' course. M.B.Ch.M. Edinburgh and Glasgow. Only one course compulsory. 1 course anatomy. Similar examinations in anatomy. 1 examination on a body dissected ready for the student, but none on their own dissections. 1 course of each. No special lecture or training. 2 years' hospital practice, medical and surgical, with clinical lectures; 6 months' outpatients' work. A written and oral examination in each subject. Similar clinic. No such examination at all. Examination in application of surgical apparatus. In all, a 4 years' course.

For the certificate of M.R.C.S.Eng. only two courses of dissections are required, and there is no examination in operative surgery on the dead subject, and no examination in the student's own dissections.

No one, I think, will wish that our own higher standard should be materially changed. But as every year of studentship represents cost of living and postponement of professional gains, I think the State which exacts these sacrifices in order to give the country a highly trained body of physicians and surgeons should, in common justice, do what it can to reduce the cost of their education to the English standard. Might it not also be well that no one practising under a British diploma should be held capable of employment in our hospitals or under Government unless he could give proof of having satisfied the same requirements in England, Scotland, or Ireland, that we exact of our men in Victoria.

Comparison of the medical staff proposed with that maintained in other countries.

I subjoin a short list of the numbers of the medical staff in some of the chief European medical schools, that it may be seen how inadequate the numbers of our own teaching body are.

• University College, London, 18 professors.
• King's College, London, 15 professors, besides lecturers and hospital staff in 1872.
• Edinburgh, 13 professors, 14 lecturers, and 3 demonstrators.
• Glasgow, 14 professors and 7 assistants.
• Aberdeen, 10 professors and 3 assistants, besides hospital physicians.
• Dublin, 21 professors and lecturers, besides examiners and hospital physicians.
• Paris, 61 in three places.
• Berlin, 110 courses.
that now and again some of the worst men in the profession may not be elected in lieu of the best.

by which subscribers nominate the persons who are to have charge of the sick, there is no security

the University shall have the right of nominating the best men it can

The salaries for two teachers of clinical medicine and clinical surgery will be given in lieu of the fees which

health can be studied, and University students as the persons best fitted by age and training to understand them.

that these efforts may be successful, I must still regard the University as the proper place in which the laws of

praiseworthy attempts to introduce the teaching of the laws of health into our primary schools. With every wish

say that they are becoming so, especially on the Continent. The Health Society has lately made several very

adequate for the purposes of general education, but medical students require a further knowledge of the families

professor of natural science explains the structure and physiology of plants in a course which is considered

regular pharmacien, and passed four of five examinations, for the last of which he must be twenty-five years

diploma he must have attended faculty lectures for one or two years, have practiced six or four years with a

practice in the department chosen by him when he enters his name for lectures. But to hold this second-class

Pharmacia three years' practice with a regularly authorized apothecary, and the passing eight examinations the

or a second class diploma. A first-class diploma necessitates three years study in an Ecole Supéneure de

examination, while they have at present no means of pursuing their studies under guidance.

constituting the Pharmacy Board of Victoria, which compels future applicants for a chemistry license to pass an

"No one can practice, as a druggist or apothecary in France," says Mr. Arnold, "without getting either a first

or a second class diploma. A first-class diploma necessitates three years study in an Ecole Supéneure de

Pharmacia three years' practice with a regularly authorized apothecary, and the passing eight examinations the

last of which cannot be passed before the age of twenty-five. A second class diploma only entitles its holder to

practice in the department chosen by him when he enters his name for lectures. But to hold this second-class

diploma he must have attended faculty lectures for one or two years, have practiced six or four years with a

regular pharmacien, and passed four of five examinations, for the last of which he must be twenty-five years

old."—Matthew Arnold's Report, France, p. 516.

The lecture in botany must be regarded as complementary to the lecture in that subject already given. The

professor of natural science explains the structure and physiology of plants in a course which is considered

adequate for the purposes of general education, but medical students require a further knowledge of the families

and of the officinal uses of plants.

Lectures on hygiene.

Lectures on hygiene are not as yet indispensable to a medical course in a university, but I think it is true to

say that they are becoming so, especially on the Continent. The Health Society has lately made several very

praiseworthy attempts to introduce the teaching of the laws of health into our primary schools. With every wish

that these efforts may be successful, I must still regard the University as the proper place in which the laws of

health can be studied, and University students as the persons best fitted by age and training to understand them. The salaries for two teachers of clinical medicine and clinical surgery will be given in lieu of the fees which students at present pay; and I hope Government will be able to facilitate some arrangement by which the University shall have the right of nominating the best men it can

The Melbourne Hospital.

find to these posts, and of assigning them beds in the Melbourne Hospital. Under the present wonderful

arrangement, by which subscribers nominate the persons who are to have charge of the sick, there is no security

that now and again some of the worst men in the profession may not be elected in lieu of the best.

Cost of proposed additions to the faculty of Medicine.

The expense of this new organization of the Medical faculty will be £6,800, against £2,805 13s. 6d., the
expense of last year; altogether an increase of about £4,000 a year. If, however, the new faculty turns out twenty graduates a year where we now turn out three, the cost of the change will have been more than justified; and my conviction is that the sums spent by medical students whom our improved school will attract from other colonies, will more than reimburse the country for the enhanced cost of the medical staff.

Faculty of Engineering and Practical Science.

The faculty of Engineering and Practical Science has only existed hitherto in embryo, and as a part of the faculty of Arts. But it embraces subjects which are quite distinct from the Arts teaching, and which it is usual on the Continent to teach in a so-called polytechnicon or polytechnic school. The assumption, however, that such matters as engineering, scientific agriculture and stock-breeding, mining and metallurgy, or technology are not proper matters for a university to embrace has never yet been admitted by any English-speaking people. There are obvious reasons why we should not divide our teaching here. Such a course, making two establishments and two governments necessary in place of one, would be at once costly and awkward, and its direct effect would be to suggest the idea of a distinction between various branches of intellectual culture, while the tendency of all discovery is to show their inter-dependence and common affinities.

Proposed additions to the Engineering staff.

For the engineering and mining branches of this faculty, which admit of being worked together, the council suggests that there should be a professor of engineering, a lecturer on mining and metallurgy, a lecturer on mechanics, and a lecturer on geometric drawing. These gentlemen will be assisted by the professor of natural philosophy, who belongs also to the faculty of Arts; and as his work in Arts will be reduced by the appointment of a mathematical lecturer and of a lecturer in logic, the professor of natural philosophy will practically devote most of his time to the department of engineering.

Comparing this side of the faculty with corresponding departments

Comparison with other countries.

in Britain and Sweden, I have found it very difficult to compare this faculty with any in foreign universities, as many subjects that we assign to the university are taught in a polytechnic school or in various colleges on the continent of Europe. But I may observe that the Polytechnicon of Zurich has about 50 professors, who teach architecture, mechanics, engineering, chemistry, forestry, and political economy.

we shall then find that the numbers stand thus:—

- King's College, London, 16 professors and lecturers in 1862.
- Cooper's Hill, 11 professors and instructors.
- Edinburgh, 7 professors.
- Glasgow, 7 professors.
- Dublin, 8, and 4 others lecturing in collateral subjects.
- Upsala, 14 in mathematics and natural science.
- Melbourne, 6 professors and lecturers.

This comparison will show, I hope, that the council has kept within the narrowest possible limits in the changes that it proposes.

The great drawback to the school of engineering in this country

The State may encourage this faculty by giving its degrees professional value.

is that the State, if not quite the only, is the only great employer of engineers; and the State has not cared hitherto to see that its subordinates were trained in the highest possible manner for their positions. Where they are so, it is due to their own energy and intelligence. Meanwhile the irregular demand for engineers has been so great, that few of our University students complete more than a second year's course; and this they are the more tempted to do, as the engineering fees are very high. Practically we turn out five certificated engineers every two years, at an expense to each of nearly £30 a year in University fees. In other words, the difference to the State between an efficient staff and an inefficient staff being measured by many thousands of pounds yearly, we make the training the most expensive possible, and give the least possible advantage, if any, to the certificated engineer. I believe the State will have done a great deal if it founds a school in which engineers may be adequately trained at the smallest, possible cost to themselves. Such a school, I feel sure, like the Medical School, will attract students from other colonies. But this will not be sufficient by itself; and I hope the Government will see its way to pass an Act by which all the more lucrative State appointments in the railway and engineering service shall be confined to graduates in the faculty of Engineering; and no man shall be allowed to take the post of manager of a mine without a certificate of mining.

"I was lately saying," says Mr. Matthew Arnold, "to one of the

Mr. Arnold's evidence about engineering.

first mathematicians in England, who had been a distinguished senior wrangler at Cambridge and a practical mechanician besides, that in one department at any rate, that of mechanics and engineering, we
seemed, in spite of the absence of special, schools, good instruction, and the idea of science, to get on wonderfully well. "On the contrary," said he, "we get on wonderfully ill. Our engineers have no real scientific instruction, and we let them learn their business at our expense by the rule of thumb; but it is a ruinous system of blunder and plunder. A man without the requisite scientific knowledge undertakes to build a difficult bridge; he builds three which tumble down, and so learns how to build a fourth which stands; but somebody pays for the three failures. In France or Switzerland he would not have been suffered to build his first bridge till he had satisfied competent persons that he knew how to build it, because abroad they cannot afford our extravagance. The scientific training of the foreign engineers is therefore perfectly right. Take the present cost per mile of the construction of an English railway, and the cost per mile as it was twenty years ago; and the comparison will give you a correct notion of what rule of thumb engineering without special schools, and without scientific instruction, has cost the country." 

Mr. Kernot's evidence about engineering.

Lest it should be thought that these remarks apply chiefly to England, I append a communication from a gentleman, specially qualified to speak on the subject of Victorian engineering:—

"As instances of the evils resulting from the lack of accurate scientific knowledge on the part of persons possessing considerable practical experience, the following examples may be quoted:—

"1. Some years since it happened, through circumstances which it is not necessary to mention here, that the designs of a large iron bridge which it was proposed to erect over an Australian river were submitted to my inspection. On critically examining the drawings, I discovered that certain vital parts of the structure did not possess half the requisite strength, while other parts were needlessly massive. On my recommendation the design was condemned, and an amended one prepared by a gentleman who had attended lectures at the Melbourne University. The amended design involved but a trifling increase of material and cost, while the strength was augmented fully three-fold.

"2. Some years ago a new steam-boiler, which had been guaranteed by its maker to bear with safety a pressure of 60 lbs. per square inch, exploded with most disastrous consequences. On calculating its strength in accordance with Sir W. Fairbairn's investigations, which had been made public several years previously, I ascertained—(1.) That the boiler was not safe for a pressure of more than 25 lbs. per square inch. (2.) That a trifling modification, which would not have augmented its cost by more than about 5 per cent., would have rendered it quite safe at 60 lbs.

"3. I have in my possession several indicator diagrams taken from a steam-engine, the vital parts of which are so unscientifically constructed as to cause it to consume about twice as much steam as it ought. And as it is what is termed a slop-made engine, I do not see how to avoid the conclusion that there are in all probability many like it, wasting fuel and reducing the profits of the establishments where they are used.

"4. I have come in contact on various occasions with persons of considerable inventive power, but lacking scientific training, who have spent both time and money upon schemes which, being incompatible with known physical laws, of necessity end in disappointment. And I have often observed that the difficulties which the true inventor meets with in the prosecution of his work are considerably enhanced by the fact that the public are occasionally victimized by persons of this class.

"From the above and similar instances, of which very many have come under my personal observation, I have been led to the conclusion that no amount of ordinary practical experience can adequately compensate for the want of thorough acquaintance with scientific principles and methods; and, farther, that scientific knowledge, if not imparted in early life, is very rarely acquired at all. Hence the importance of a systematic scientific course of training for young engineers becomes apparent.

"W. C. KERNOT."

Let me add that the waste of thought and energy which a disadvantage even to the greatest men of imperfect training.

society sustains from half-educated professional men is not confined to the large class of projectors who waste their ingenuity upon crude and impossible schemes, or to engineers of the second order who do imperfect work. It extends even to those great men whose incomparable thinking-power forces them into the first rank in spite of all defects of early training. When we remember Smeaton, in the last years of his life, building a bridge that was washed away within five years;

Life of Smeaton, in Smiles's Lives of the Engineers.

Brahman testifying in a court of justice, that "Mr. Watt had really invented nothing but what could do more mischief than good to the public;"

Mulrhead's Life of Watt, p. 414.

and the elder Brunei declining to take any part in a scheme for steam navigation across the ocean, on the ground that all such projects were visionary;

Beamish's Life of Brunei, p. 188.
it is impossible not to feel that no genius exempts the possessor from bearing with him the defects of imperfect education through life. Again, let anyone compute the loss England probably sustained from the fact that the elder Stephenson did not begin serious study till he was more than thirty years old, and then say whether it is not worth while even for a young country to put out its money to interest in the form of a school that shall guide the inventive faculty of its engineers.

Side by side with engineering in importance, is the science of Agricultural science.

Agricultural science, in which I include the science of stock-breeding, as, although the pastoral tenant may succeed without raising crops on his own ground, the true farmer rarely or never prospers without stock-breeding. There is an important part of agriculture which can only be taught on a farm, and the proper teaching of which I have discussed in connection with the question of an agricultural college. But there are parts also which it is simplest and most economical to teach at a university, as the expense of providing a separate staff of teachers to every model farm would be much greater here than it is on the continent of Europe. Apart from this, there is the incidental advantage that students of agriculture are more likely to gain than to lose by mixing with students of other professions in the lecture-room, and that agriculture is more likely to take its proper place as a practical science, when it is made one of the most prominent subjects in the chief school of the country.

Proposed staff for teaching agriculture.

Under the scheme the council has approved, the side of agriculture will have the services of nine professors and lecturers. Three of these, the professor of chemistry and the lecturers on botany and physiology, will belong also and chiefly to the medical side, under which they are accordingly classed; while one, the lecturer on mechanics, will also lecture to engineers. The expense of teachers special to agriculture, of the lecturer on forestry, and of the special lecturers in the veterinary school, will amount altogether to about £1,600. It has been suggested that all the work of the agricultural side should be done for some time to come by a single professor of agriculture, who

One man cannot teach agriculture.

might presumably be procured for £800 a year. With all respect for the fact that such a chair of agriculture has actually been established in Edinburgh and in some American universities, I venture to think that any attempt to reduce agricultural teaching to the same proportions here would be most disastrous. Let anyone consider what goes to make a scientific farmer. Such a man must have a fair knowledge of chemistry and have mastered the principles at least of organic as well as of inorganic analysis, if he is to understand the composition of soils and manures, when these have been tested for him in a laboratory. He must know enough of mechanics to be able to understand why one plough or one harrow or one waggon is better than another, and to adjust the gear of the machines he employs intelligently. "If a skilful and ingenious farmer," says one of the best American agriculturists, "will only become accustomed to repair his implements, he will have the satisfaction of knowing that, all things considered, his repairing is done better than he is accustomed to have it clone by regular mechanics."


As a breeder he must know something of the anatomy of the beasts he breeds, and have a reason for whatever system he adopts—whether of breeding in and in, or of selection, or of crossing. As an owner, he will certainly not be the worse for knowing how to deal with disease, when it breaks out in his stock; the more so as the value of choice stock shows no sign of decreasing; and a single ram may be priced at £714, and a single heifer at £2,310. Lastly, from the lecturer on forestry, the agriculturist may learn what are taught on the Continent as the separate sciences of viticulture and pomology, the trees best fitted for farm purposes, and something about the insects that destroy trees. Of course this does not exhaust the uses of such a lecturer. The French and German Governments in Europe, and the British Government in India, have been forced by droughts and inundations to take practical measures for regulating the rainfall of a country by large plantations. The French and Austrian Governments have fostered the production of silk by appointing special instructors to impart a knowledge of the mulberry tree and the silk-worm.

Now, I venture to say that no single gentleman, however capable and laborious, can master the subjects I have enumerated so as adequately to teach them. The teacher, be it remembered, is not merely to be a student who has read in advance of others, but a man armed at all points, prepared to meet any difficulties, and impressing his class with a feeling that his knowledge has been the product of a life-time's work. The dignity of a science depends on its thoroughness, and a science imparted by one man stands ipso facto condemned as trivial or imperfectly known. Above all, it is most important that a science which has not yet conquered its full professional rank everywhere, should not suffer from the defective organization of its teaching body. If degrees in Practical Science are to be of equal account with degrees in Arts, Medicine, or Law, they must be given for equally thorough study under equally competent teachers. As
well set one man to teach medicine as one man to teach agriculture. It will be noticed that the council applies for power to grant degrees, associateships, and certificates required to mark different educational values. certificates and the titles of associate and licentiate in the subjects of agriculture, forestry, and veterinary science, as well as degrees in Practical Science, which will be obtained by a knowledge of one or more of these subjects. This latitude is, I think, necessary. We are opening up new ground, and cannot, I fear, expect that the full importance of the new faculty will be appreciated at once by the public. Probably for some time to come our young farmers will only care to spend a year at the University, and will thus only qualify for a certificate. But it may be desirable that no one should be allowed to practice as a veterinary surgeon without qualifying by a two years’ course for an associateship; and before long we shall, I hope, have students qualifying by a three or four years' course, as the University may direct, to be Bachelors or Masters in Practical Science. It has seemed convenient to cover several subjects with this one name, rather than to specify in every instance the particular branch to which a student has devoted himself.

Three lectureships—those of navigation, nautical astronomy, Navigation nautical astronomy, and naval architecture. and naval architecture—are intended for the instruction of students who wish to obtain a certificate of navigation. Melbourne, from its commercial eminence, seems particularly to require a school for the training of seamen. The model of English nautical schools has been followed in framing the list of necessary lectureships. A certain knowledge of naval architecture is necessary to others besides the designers of ships, if seamen are to know what craft to select and under what conditions a ship is safe. The sciences that teach how to handle a ship, and how to guide it across the ocean, are so obviously necessary as to need no explanation.

A special lecturer has been assigned to the subject of technology. Technology. Such a man would take students who have learned chemistry and mechanics up to a certain point, and would show them in what way their knowledge can he applied to processes of trade.

Importance of technological teaching. It must he remembered that it is no part of the duties of a lecturer on chemistry or mechanics to do this; that a science and its applications are absolutely distinct subjects. Yet no one, I think, will doubt that the teaching of a practical man, acquainted with the processes in some of the most important industrial arts, able to explain how wool is woven, or glass made, or iron cast, may be of the last importance in a young country. I will go further and say, that, living as we do at a distance from the greatest manufacturing countries, it is well worth the State's while to maintain an expert who shall keep the public informed as to what is actually being done in England, Germany, and America, were it only to save the expenditure of thought and labour on processes that have been already discovered or proved elsewhere.

The small sum appropriated in the council's estimates to a lecturer in architecture, is due to the fact that the council does not propose thoroughly to organize this department at present. At the same time it believes that a course of lectures on the principles and practice of architecture might prove useful to young men entering the profession and attractive to many outsiders. Such isolated courses, delivered by lecturers who are changed from time to time, have many precedents in English practice; and as the Oxford professorship of poetry, Whyte's professorship of moral philosophy, and the Rede lecture at Cambridge, are sought for as high distinctions by some of the ablest scholars in England, it is perhaps not unreasonable to hope that the ablest architects in Victoria will esteem it an honour to hold the post of University lecturers for a time.

Cost of the faculty of Engineering and Practical Science. The expense of the faculty of Engineering and Practical Science will be £5,550, against about £700, which the two lecturers on engineering and mining at present receive.

Professorship of Music. It is probably not well known that the University of Melbourne has the power of granting the degrees of Bachelor in Music and Doctor in Music. It seems a little curious that our first founders should have applied for these powers, which even in England are rarely exercised, while they omitted to obtain the power to grant degrees in Surgery, in Engineering, or in Practical Science. I presume, however, the draftsman of our letters patent had the charter of Oxford before him, and copied what he found there. The council is of opinion that it would be possible, and very desirable, to create a school of music in Melbourne, by which teachers of music may obtain some such credential as the Academy of Music gives in England. A time when it is proposed to admit women as undergraduates seems eminently favourable to the development of musical studies; and it may be hoped that the Wilson Hall will be an appropriate theatre for musical exercises. The establishment of a chair of music will only entail an expenditure of £1,000.

Paid examiners outside the teaching staff. In addition to these faculties, the council recommends the establishment of a paid body of examiners
distinct from the teaching staff. The need of this has long since been felt; and there are at present two paid examiners for the faculty of Law, and a provisional hoard of unpaid examiners for degrees in Medicine. But there are no such examiners for students in Arts or Engineering, and should the number of medical students be trebled or quadrupled, as is I hope probable, we can hardly expect that professional men, with heavy calls on their time, will find leisure to work gratuitously for the University. It will be asked why the professors and lecturers should not continue to do examiners' work? There is no intention to relieve them, and in fact their work will increase with the increase in the number of students: or, allowing for some subdivision of subjects, will not be diminished. What the council desires is to couple every professor and lecturer with an examiner appointed for the time, who will aid in setting the papers, and will bring the aid of a second judgment to the answers. It is giving undue power to any men, however competent, to make them sole teachers and examiners in their own subjects, and the almost inevitable result is that the teacher gets into a groove, and that the student only consults the teacher's supposed wishes. Independent examiners are at once a corrective to the tutorial staff and a guarantee of fairness to the student and of efficient testing to the public. For some time there will probably be a difficulty in obtaining qualified examiners, not connected with Victorian schools, for some subjects of examination. But it is possible to look beyond the limits of the colony, to Sydney and Adelaide, for help in such a matter, and, after a time, these examinerships will be prizes eagerly sought for by our young graduates.

The expense of examiners for all departments has been calculated

Cost of examiners.

at £2,260.

The other expenses that these changes will make necessary are

Additional expenses of clerical staff, fittings, and apparatus.

not very alarming. It is thought desirable, in view of the increased work thrown on the registrar, that he should be required to live at the University, and that his salary should be raised from £600 to £800 a year. This, and £150 a year for an extra clerk, make up all the additions that seem needful for the office and attendants. The exhibitions, scholarships, and prizes can be kept at the same sum as at present (£826), and when fees are abolished the present scholarships may be halved in value without loss to the holders, and doubled in number. On the other hand, it will be necessary to make some permanent provision for the purchase of books and apparatus and for forming a medical museum. Hitherto these objects have received whatever surplus has been left after salaries had been paid, and the repairs of the buildings provided for; and this has come to mean, as I explained in my introductory Report, that the libraries, workshops, and museums get nothing or next to nothing. A single lecturer sometimes applies, and makes out a strong case for a larger grant than the whole sum of which the council can dispose. No one, knowing the requirements of modern teaching, can think that £400—a hundred pounds to each faculty—is an unduly large sum for books and bookbinding. But if the University will adopt the plan of selling off its superfluous stock—worthless gifts from public bodies and obsolete editions—it may economise funds and space so as to make a grant of £400 sufficient.

The total expenditure under these various heads is estimated at £6,034, against £4,639, the present cost.

Abolition of fees not communistic (stated more temperately).

III. I have already alluded to several grave reasons for abolishing fees, but as this part of the proposed changes in the University has been discussed and attacked by anticipation, I may perhaps be permitted to examine it at some length.

In the first place it is said that giving the higher education to young men at the expense of the State is communistic;

It is interesting to notice that this point has already been raised in the American law courts, where a recent decision of the Supreme Court of Michigan has put to rest a question which has occasionally arisen as to the legal right to support a high school by public tax. The following is a partial abstract of the opinion of Judge Cooley in the case:—

"Taxation for higher education.—The most general question, legally stated, is whether there is authority in this State to make the high schools free by taxation levied on the people at large. The argument is that, while there may be no constitutional provision expressly prohibiting such taxation, the general course of the State's legislation, and the popular understanding of the people, require us to regard instruction in the classics and in living modern languages in these schools as not practical, and therefore unnecessary for the people at large, but rather as accomplishments for the few, to be sought after in the main by those best able to pay for them, and to be paid for by those who seek them, and not by general tax. It is surprising that the legislation and policy of the State should be appealed to against the right of the State to furnish a liberal education to its youth. We supposed it had always been understood in Michigan that education, not merely rudimentary but in an enlarged sense, was regarded as an important practical advantage, to be supplied at will to rich and poor alike, and not as something pertaining merely to culture and accomplishment, to be brought as such within the reach of those
that is, I suppose, that one class of the population is unfairly taxed to supply another class with an advantage not of urgent necessity. The holders of this view are often in favour of costless primary education, on the obvious grounds that every child ought to receive a minimum of education, and that only a costless system can be enforced. But they argue that there is no similar obligation to provide everyone with a chance of the higher education; that the mere abolition of fees does not remove the chief cost of a university, its years of residence; that it is undesirable to crowd the professions; and that it is unfair to tax property in order that boys whose natural place is behind the counter or the plough may be tempted to qualify as physicians or lawyers.

Every undergraduate is a State pensioner at present.

In reply, I would point out that the reproach of being communistic in the worst sense really applies to the University as it exists. That foundation has cost the State more than £300,000 of the public money (taking buildings and endowment into consideration), while its benefits have been confined to a few persons of easy income, or resident in Melbourne. Practically at this moment every student in the University is a State pensioner for more than half the time he receives; and there is no reason to assume that the institution can or will become self-supporting. I do not think it can truly be said that our public revenue is raised principally from the rich; and though I am personally convinced that it would be worth the while of the industrial classes to support the University, even though their sons were excluded from its lecture-rooms, I think it fair that, where all contribute, all should be allowed to share in the benefits of the foundation. The great reason why the State should found a University is that it cannot pay private enterprise to establish one in a young country. We must have professional men; and it is important to have them well taught that they may be efficient, and cheaply taught that there may be a sufficient supply. But all these reasons point to the importance of making the University as cheap and as good as possible; and the advocates of a high price,

The trades' union objection to an increased supply of labour unsound.

which shall restrict education, are surely of the same spiritual family as the Sheffield knife-grinders, who keep their trade deadly that the rate of wages may be enhanced. Between those who would make the training of the mind costly, that the professions may not be over-crowded, and those who legislate against the health of the body, that there may be a quick supply of laborers, there is it seems to me little to choose. At any rate the interest of the State is to care that all may start as nearly as possible even in the race for professional success, leaving it to the best man to win.

No doubt the student who finds costless teaching at the University

The payment of fees is the heaviest burden on students.

will still be burdened with heavy charges; will have to support himself during three, four, or five years, and to provide books and defray the cost of experiments. But these, as all students know, are not the most formidable charges.

"Distinguished students," says Mr. Neil Maclean, in Life at a Northern University, "have been found acting as gillies on the Highland Moors during the summer recess; attending as golf-club carriers or professional golfers on the links of their University town; going a voyage to Greenland or Davis* Straits when the funds became low; in fact doing anything that would recruit their purses and their libraries."—Preface, p. vii.

Men with the scholarly instinct will find means to live, and will work in public libraries if they cannot buy books, provided they are not crippled by the demand for twenty or thirty pounds a year in fees. But in fact a fair
number of the most competent will be helped on through the University by State exhibitions or University scholarships.

As to the chance that students unfitted for intellectual pursuits will be tempted to devote their time to them, the remedy lies in efficient examinations. There is no reason, for instance, why the matriculation standard should not be sensibly raised when fees are abolished; and, better still, why the yearly examinations should not be made more difficult. The fact is that the evil imagined is almost a necessary part of the present system. While the number of students is kept low by the cost of education, professors are unwilling to thin their classes, and establish an apparent case for inutility against the University. Yet it can hardly be doubted that the duty of drafting out the idle and incompetent is second in importance only to the duty of securing a large supply of the industrious and clever. No doubt it is a strong thing to say that a stupid rich man shall be debarred attendance on University lectures, where he may acquire the culture that will keep him from trivial or vicious pursuits afterlife; and I believe it will generally be possible to retain such men, if they will work hard, in a University class. But where a rich man's natural tastes are those of a farmer, or trainer, or an overseer, where all book-work is distasteful to him, I think society gains nothing by trying to force a certain quantum of the dead languages into his mind. Some of these young men will, I hope, find congenial work in the lecture-rooms of the faculty of Practical Science. Those who have no literary instincts had better be kept from the University, to which they could only bring idle habits and unsympathetic temperaments.

Ratio of students to population in some typical countries.

Meanwhile I would ask those who think that our University is at present well filled to consider the present comparative list, showing approximately the proportion of matriculated students to the population in the chief countries that may fairly be compared with our own:—

- England, 1 in 5,400 in 1876.
- Scotland, 1 in 1,000 in 1876.
- Ireland, 1 in 3,000 in 1876.
- France, 1 in 1,500 in 1862.
- Germany, 1 in 2,500 in 1877, with non-matriculated students 1 in 2,200.
- Austria, 1 in 3,200 in 1874.
- Sweden, 1 in 2,175 in 1877.
- Norway, 1 in 2,250 in 1875.
- Holland, 1 in 2,200, including the Delft Polytechnic School.
- California, 1 in 2,250 in 1875.
- Massachusetts, 1 in 1,800 in 1875.
- Michigan, 1 in 1,100 in 1875.
- Melbourne, 1 in 4,500.

An estimate in the New York Nation (April 19, 1877) gives the following figures for 1872:—Connecticut 1 in 1529, New York 1 in 1773, Ohio 1 in 1520, Pennsylvania 1 in 2011, Virginia 1 in 1015.

It will be seen by this list that, even if our present numbers were doubled, we should only stand midway in a list, where we are at present lowest, with one exception.

Justification of fees for examinations, &c.

It may seem inconsistent with the proposal to abolish class fees that the University proposes to retain fees for matriculation, for examinations in which the student has failed, and for certificates and degrees. But in the case of the matriculation examination it must be borne in mind that many hundred students offer themselves, who only desire to test their efficiency in school-work, and who have no thoughts of going on to the University. The expense of providing examiners for these is very great to the University, and the fee charged to each student is comparatively small. The University has, however, taken power to reduce or abolish even this, should it seem desirable.

The net loss to the University from the abolition of fees for matriculation would be about £1,000 a year.

As regards fees for the annual examinations, it must be borne in mind that it is very important to discourage men from going up at a venture, not only because it encumbers the University with needless work, but because it makes the student callous to failure and disposed to try his chance on the smallest possible amount of knowledge. The council has therefore adopted the principle, that the State pays for success and not for failure, and the fee paid by the successful student will be carried to the account of his degree, while the plucked man's fee will reimburse the University for the trouble it has been put to wantonly or needlessly.

As regards the fees for degrees it must be remembered that Fees for degrees.
every degree involves the issuing of a certificate, the holding of a court to confer degrees, and the
maintenance of an accurate system of registration. When I mention that the cost of a Bachelor of Law's degree will be reduced under the new system from an average of more than £100 to a minimum of £7, and a probable average of between £7 and £10, it will be seen, I hope, that the advantages offered by the new system are very genuine. Medical students will gain almost equally, and engineers rather more.

It is proposed that medical students shall continue to defray
the cost of their experiments in the laboratory and the dissecting room. In this case it would be difficult or impossible to furnish any estimate of the cost to the State; but the present cost would undoubtedly be enhanced if the student had no motive for economy. I may add that the great abundance of subjects in a French dissecting room is said to be rather prejudicial to the interests of education. The student, not paying appreciably for his blunders, acquires a careless habit of dissection.

The second point I have adverted to under this head of diminished exclusiveness is the modification of restrictions on residence.

By the existing Act of Incorporation every student is to "dwell with his parent or guardian, or with some near relative or friend selected by his parent or guardian, and approved by the Chancellor or Vice-Chancellor, or in some collegiate or educational establishment affiliated to or in connection with the University, or in a boarding-house licensed as aforesaid." The words which give the Chancellor or Vice-Chancellor a power of objecting to the house in which a student resides seem inconsistent with the complete liberty of choice which poor students especially ought to possess. They might be interpreted to mean that a hovel or a garret was not a proper place of residence; they might be strained so as to drive students into licensed boarding-houses or affiliated colleges. On the other hand, they throw the rather odious responsibility of choosing homes for minors on one or other of two gentlemen, who already discharge very onerous and unpaid work for the University, and who are members of busy professions. It has been thought simpler to relieve the University of any responsibility for an undergraduate's dwelling-place.

IV. The admission of women to the lecture-rooms and to competition for degrees will probably seem to a few persons a startling innovation; though the public is by this time familiar with the fact that many ladies every year, by passing the matriculation examination, prove themselves capable of attending the University classes with profit. In fact, our present regulations do not exclude them from attending lectures; but as they are denied degrees, none, I believe, have as yet cared to qualify where they cannot compete.

On this subject the practice of universities throughout the world has undergone a great change of late. Women are now admitted in several universities. Fifty years ago, it would, I believe, have been difficult to point out any universities in which women were students. But latterly a few ladies have vindicated the right of attending lectures and passing examinations in Edinburgh, though they have been denied the prizes and degrees which they had fairly won. Within the last year the College of Physicians in Dublin has admitted women to medical degrees, and the University of London has just decided to abolish all restrictions. The University of Paris admits them to degrees in all the faculties. The University of Zurich has many female students in its Medical faculty. In the United States, several of the most eminent universities, such as Cornell, Michigan, and California, make no distinction between women and men.

"In regard to the admission of females, the results are decisive, be far as this at least, that young ladies are found able successfully to study the subjects of a collegiate or professional course—if this indeed was ever a question. They are supposed to average about the scholarship of their classes."—American State Universities, by Andrew Ten Broek, ed. 1875, p. 311.

The University of New Zealand has already admitted a lady to a degree.

It is proposed to admit them at Melbourne under restrictions.

In removing the old restrictions, which were partly accidental, the University of Melbourne has therefore only followed the example of other learned bodies. Where it has differed from most of these, and I think differed wisely, has been in regulating the conditions under which ladies shall be admitted to the lecture-rooms. We may perhaps look forward to a time when the presence of two or three or even of one lady among male students in a lecture-room will not seem more incongruous than it would now appear in a church, or cause more awkwardness. But as we are facing a new experiment, it is desirable to conduct it with every possible precaution.

Arts, Music, and Medicine are the subjects in which ladies are most likely to qualify.

The proposal that the University shall only provide teaching where there are twenty female students to profit by it, will I think have the effect that ladies will only offer themselves for degrees in Arts or Music, and after a few years for degrees in Medicine. As regards Arts, the Training College alone will supply thirty female
students a year; as regards Music we may perhaps expect that ladies will monopolize the teaching; and though a period may intervene before the requisite twenty can be mustered to study Medicine, the lesson of English experience that lady doctors are instantly sought for and employed will, I hope, tempt many among ourselves into the profession. But though ladies have been doctors of laws in Italy, I see no reason to anticipate that our law lectures are likely to be crowded by female law students; least of all that women will wish to become engineers or veterinary surgeons.

The admission to lectures in Arts will cause no difficulty.

Practically, therefore, the admission of women, coupled with the restriction that there must be twenty together to demand a lecture, will only involve the obligation to provide courses for them in Arts and Medicine. Now the teaching in Arts is mostly such as ladies may attend together with men. Mathematics, Logic, Chemistry, Botany, and Mineralogy are subjects in which mixed audiences may be taught fearlessly; and if the men and women enter by different doors and sit separate, no other pre- caution seems necessary. English Literature, History, and Modern Languages occupy an ambiguous position. The lecturer may wish to lecture on a play of Shakespeare that contains offensive passages; or to speak frankly on the moral tone of ancient Rome and Athens, or of the Court of Louis XV.; or to translate a modern classic, such as Voltaire's "Candide" or Goethe's "Wahl-Verwandschaften," that is unfit for ladies' reading. Such cases may, I think, be met, if the interruption is a short one, by an intimation that ladies are not expected to attend the class on the next day. If it is a long one, the teacher will have to provide them with a different course. The study of the old classics may be expected to offer the greatest difficulties in this respect. Entertaining myself a strong opinion that the moral tone of young Englishmen gains nothing from the protracted study of Catullus, of Martial, or of the worst plays of Aristophanes, I should see their banishment from the lecture-room without the smallest regret. But if the professor of classics thinks differently, he will be able, now that his work is reduced and that he is provided with assistants, to give lectures in Cæsar, Virgil, or Cicero, which women (and men, if they desire it) may attend fearlessly. All that is requisite is that the council should come to a clear understanding with its teaching body what duties they will have to perform, so that, if anyone shrinks from the responsibility of lecturing to a class of female students, provision may be made to relieve him without any infringement of existing contracts. Thus, for instance, should the professor of classics decline this work, it would be necessary to suspend the appointment to the chair of English and European Languages, and devote the salary destined for that purpose to paying some one who should teach classics and English together to female students. But I do not imagine for a moment that any professor will decline to lecture to ladies, if his fair share of work is not increased by it, and if he is allowed to take all reasonable precautions that his sense of delicacy can suggest.

As regards the Medical faculty, the provision for the purely scientific teaching given in the first year has been doubled—the professor of anatomy and physiology having his work halved, and the lecturer on chemistry being made a professor with an assistant. Therefore, the University will have a year during which to arrange for the admission of female students to the practical courses of the last three years. Practically such a change, of course, means more money, though not, I am inclined to think, much more money, as men will generally give the same course twice over for much less than twice the sum they are paid for a single course. As it is quite uncertain at present whether ladies will wish to qualify as doctors, or how soon the required number of matriculated students will be made up, the council has not thought it necessary to apply at present for any further endowment. If, five or ten years hence, it should appear that twenty female students have passed their first year's examination, I feel sure that Parliament will not grudge the few hundred pounds requisite to carry them on through the remaining lectures.

The houses now used by three of the professors will supply lecture-rooms and club-rooms for the students.

At this point I may fitly call attention to certain arrangements which, I think, it will be desirable to make for the comfort and accommodation of the new students attracted to the University. In the estimates the council has approved provision is made for an allowance in lieu of a house to every professor, though in fact, three are provided with houses in the University buildings. The University will thus have three houses, each of which contains three good rooms and two smaller ones, placed at its disposal. Assuming the nine large rooms used as lecture-rooms, they will, I think, be sufficient for all the new wants of classes. But I should like, I confess, to see these houses put to a further use. Teachers and students at the University suffer grievously at present for the want of rooms to wait in between or after lectures, being only able to use the libraries or unoccupied lecture-rooms. I would propose that, while the University reserves to itself the use of the large rooms in each house between the hours of nine and one, it should hand over these rooms at other times, and the other rooms at all times for the use of the various persons attending classes. One house might be set apart for the teaching staff, one for male and another for female students; of course under regulations framed and enforced by the council. I
see no reason why such houses, in which there might be writing-rooms and reading-rooms, and in which lunch and dinner might be provided at moderate charges, should not serve as efficient substitutes for the collegiate system, which, however it may prosper, can never, from its costly nature, provide for more than a portion of the students. Half the good of a university is in the social intercourse it promotes; and a plan which can give the students a club in the University grounds, without cost to themselves or to the State, is, I think, worthy of consideration.

An engineer's workshop required.

Besides the trifling expense of taking over these three houses for lecture-rooms, the State ought, I think, to spend a small sum in building an engineer's laboratory. There is no proper accommodation at present for the costly and delicate plant that is necessary to illustrate lectures on natural philosophy, no room for engineering models, and no place in which students can learn the use of the lathe. The cost of such a building as is required is estimated by Mr. Kernot at £8,000; but it might be wise to add something to this for fittings, as the present provision is very inadequate.

Three affiliated colleges will soon be built.

I had hoped that a portion of the expenses these changes will entail might be defrayed by an amicable arrangement with three of the religious bodies, who have held land in trust for more than twenty years, while they have neglected to build the colleges for which the land was granted; and that these bodies might be willing to see the land sold and the proceeds shared between themselves and the State. Unhappily, since Trinity College was affiliated by the Church of England, the position of these bodies has changed; and they are unwilling that the young members of their own communions should be at a seeming disadvantage compared with Anglicans. They have accordingly decided to keep their land and build. While I regret this decision on many accounts, I may congratulate the country and the University that waste spaces, which have been an eyesore and a nuisance for twenty years, are at last likely to be redeemed from neglect and put to an academical use.

On the other hand, I think it will be only fair that the State should now resume the parallelogram of ten acres, which lies at the south-eastern end of the University grounds fronting Madeline and Grattan streets, and which the University has been permitted to enclose. The University is more a loser than a gainer by the occupation of this block, which is not necessary to its grounds, and which it has to keep in order at a certain expense. The State will gain considerably. It wants sites for a training college and for a high school, and none more suitable or appropriate could be found than in the immediate neighbourhood of the University. Nowhere else could it get the space which these institutions will need for recreation grounds. I may add that by the removal of the Education Offices and the Training College from their present home, in Spring street, only the Model School will be left there, and a large part of the Spring-street ground, in particular the valuable frontage, may be disposed of. The price of the land so liberated would go far to pay the whole expenses of building a training college, a high school, and an engineer's laboratory. Assuming this to be case, and deducting the cost of making the University efficient from the £32,000 the council asks as an endowment the £9,000 already given, the £2,000 economised in the Training College, and the £300 now paid to State exhibitioners, the whole cost of making the University efficient will appear to be less than £21,000 a year.

It may be interesting to compare the total endowments of leading universities in Europe and America with our own.

- Oxford, £424,262, including fees.
- Cambridge, £340,561, including fees.
- Edinburgh, £23,000.
- Glasgow, £15,756.
- Dublin, £43,000, not including fees.
- Queen's University, £37,609 in 1877, not including fees.
- Paris, £154,000 in 1865, not including fees.
- Prussia, £267,150 in 1877, not including fees.
- Austria (not including Hungary), £198,000 in 1872, not including fees.
- Upsala, £97,682 in 1872; no fees charged.
- Belgium, Liège and Ghent, £35,743, not including fees, in 1871.
- California, £46,000 in 1872; no fees charged.
- Harvard, £44,000 in 1872, including fees.
- Michigan, £22,600 in 1872, including fees.
- Melbourne at present, £14,500, including fees (£5,500).
• Melbourne as proposed, £33,500, including fees (£1,500).

Cornell University, in New York State, was endowed by the State with 990,000 acres, estimated to be worth £600,000, and by Mr. Cornell with £145,000. About £80,000 was contributed from other quarters in the first four years. It must be borne in mind that Cornell is only one of several universities in the State of New York.

It is impossible to compare the London University, which only examines and grants degrees, with our own University, whose first function is to teach.

Cost of professors and lecturers.

This list, it will be seen, shows very great varieties, but I think it may fairly be said that the present income of Melbourne University is lamentably insufficient, and that the higher sum now asked for is warranted by every precedent. For it must be borne in mind that throughout the continent of Europe men of worldwide reputation, such as Ampère, Arago, Oersted, Madvig, and von Sybel, have been or are secured for three-fifths, at most, of the sum that buys a competent English or Irish graduate for Melbourne. "The income of an able Paris professor of the first rank in his calling" reaches "very nearly 10,000 francs (£400) a year" from all sources, writes Mr. Arnold in 1866. In Germany and Sweden incomes have been even lower than this, but there has been a rise in Germany in the last ten years. In Italy, Professor Thomatis tells me, the pay of a professor scarcely averages more than £100 a year. It is not that learning is undervalued, but that in countries where commerce presents fewer openings, all professions are crowded, and judges, clergymen, and officers are very poorly paid by the English standard.

In Vienna the university pays nearly two hundred professors, lecturers, and assistants with £76,000, besides discharging all ordinary expenses. In Prague a hundred and forty teachers get what remains of £45,000 after all expenses of management are defrayed.—Jahres Bericht des K.K. Ministeriums für 1876.

Mr. Perry says that, in German universities, "the salaries of the professors in ordinary range from £120 to £450, exclusive of fees. In the case of very distinguished men they rise to £500 or even £600 per annum. The most usual fee for a course is 18s."—Macmillan's Magazine, December 1877, pp. 149, 150.

In Upsala the staff in 1874 numbered thirty-four professors, twenty-six adjuncts, and forty-six docents.—Upsala Universitetel's Katalog för 1873. An article in Macmillan's Magazine of October 1877 (p. 487) says that the salary of a professor in Upsala is 6,000 crowns, about £340 a year, and the salary of an adjunct from £136 to £170.

There are some, I believe, who think that £1,000 a year is a large sum for a University professor. The elements for deciding such a point are very simple. We all wish, I presume, that the highest teachers in the University should be men not palpably inferior in intelligence and working power to the leading men of other professions—to judges and leading barristers, to physicians and surgeons, to bank managers, and to the heads of departments. Practically, however, we pay a judge of the Supreme Court £3,000 or £3,500 a year, and a County Court judge £1,500, while a bank manager in Melbourne earns, I understand, from £1,000 to £2,500 a year. The political heads of departments receive from £1,500 to £2,000, and their immediate subordinates from £900 to £1,200 a year with retiring pensions, which the professors do not receive. The gains of a successful barrister, a successful medical man, or a successful schoolmaster (if he combines the boarding with the teaching department) are even larger than any of these. The advantages in a professor's career that attract men to it in spite of comparatively poor remuneration are the congenial character of literary work, the secure income, and in some instances the early promotion. But there is great danger in the colonies that even these advantages may not rivet them to their work, so that now and again a professor exchanges his chair for better paid school work

Graduated incomes.

or devotes his spare time to money-making pursuits other than literature. Considering this, I see no immediate prospect that any economy can be effected in the salaries of professors, but I believe the council is inclined to consider a plan for graduating their incomes, so that, taking £1,000 a year as the average, men may rise by degrees from £800 to £1,200. A time when many promotions are made will be specially adapted for the introduction of such a change.

In conclusion, I may observe that money granted to the University

University teaching is not objected to as irreligious.

will not, I am glad to think, provoke any of the hostility with which a small portion of the community regards our primary schools. I am assured that no religious difficulty will be felt by Catholic parents about sending their children to a secular University, as the mature age of the students is a guarantee that they are grounded in their faith, and those about whom their parents are specially anxious may be sent to an affiliated college, for which the State has provided a site. I venture to hope that this consideration will weigh with the Houses of Parliament, and that they will be the less reluctant to give largely when they know that they are giving to all.
The Training College.

The best trained and most efficient of our young teachers, in general, are those who have first been pupil-teachers and who have afterwards passed a year at the Training College. The pupil-teacher is a boy or girl who, as the name implies, is at once learning and teaching; getting private lessons from the master and taking a class during the day. The pupil-teacher in theory passes an examination at entrance and an examination every year, and receives a small stipend, that is gradually augmented as the services paid for become more and more valuable. In some cases the pupil-teacher, on conclusion of a five years' course, becomes a trainee at a so-called Training College. This is a school in a large town, the head master of which receives a salary of £50 a year as training master, and a bonus on all the pupils he sends up who pass a successful examination. Besides this, he gains indirectly by securing the services of the best pupil-teachers in his school. From the school or district training college the pupil-teacher passes to the Training College in Melbourne, presided over by Mr. Gladman, and spends a year under the direction of teachers paid by the State in preparing for a final examination. If this is successfully passed, the trainee receives a certificate, and passes with credit into the State service.

The advantages of this plan are very great. In the first place, it supplies the State with a body of efficient teachers, who could not be procured as cheaply, or perhaps at all, in any other way. In the next place, as the pupil-teacher has very commonly been a scholar in whom the head teacher took particular interest, the relation of these assistants to their head is often very cordial and pleasant; and many head teachers have told me how much they preferred the young people trained by themselves to the assistants sent them by the department. Lastly, though the beginning of educational work so early is necessarily accompanied with some short-comings in the pupil-teacher's literary accomplishments, it undoubtedly gives a command of teaching power which it is more difficult to acquire later in life. The pupil-teacher learns a little less than the teacher who has not graduated in class-work, but generally can communicate knowledge and enforce order very much better.

Defects of the present pupil-teacher system.

The defects of the present system are, however, very great. In the first place, the rule by which a pupil-teacher moves on a step every year is not rigidly enforced; and I am informed that some head teachers, anxious to retain the services of efficient pupil-teachers, will deliberately keep them back a year, to the loss of the pupil-teacher and the detriment of the public service. In the next place, the pupil-teachers are seriously overworked in their last year. Then it is that the great strain of preparing for the Training College comes upon them; and the attempt to combine four or five hours' class-work with several hours of preparation is often attended with serious injury to the health. I know that head teachers will extremely dislike to lose any part of their pupil-teachers' services in the last year, but in common justice to these young men and women it ought to be done. Thirdly, there is no common system at the various training schools, and the pupils come up in every stage of knowledge, to be put together in the same classes in Melbourne. But, lastly, the Melbourne Training College is itself most imperfectly organized. The scheme of work is too vast to be carried out; the teaching power is deficient;

This is now partly remedied.

and the pupils, living with their friends, or dispersed among different boarding-houses, never acquire that esprit de corps which it should be the function of a training college to impart.

Mr. Gladman has kindly drawn up a scheme for the requirements of pupil-teachers, which slightly increases the present demands on them, but not more than will be amply compensated by the increased time allowed them in their fourth year.

Scheme for the instruction of pupil-teachers.

FOR THE FOURTH OR LOWEST CLASS—14 years of age.

- **Reading.**—Prose and poetry in an advanced reading book.
- **Dictation.**—From an advanced reading book.
- **Writing.**—Text, round, small, and running hands.
- **Grammar.**—Parsing and the inflexion of the parts of speech.
- **Geography.**—To have a knowledge of the elements of geography, and of the outlines of the maps of the world and Victoria.
• **Arithmetic.**—Compound rules (money, weights, and measures), and practice.
• **Needlework.**—For girls. To sew neatly and to knit.
• **Teaching.**—To satisfaction of the inspector.

### Third Class.

- **Reading.**—From an ordinary book or newspaper.
- **Writing, &c.**—A short letter or theme on some simple subject, or to reproduce the substance of a simple narrative read slowly in their hearing twice over. Correct spelling and grammar, and fairly correct punctuation will be expected.
- **Grammar.**—To know the first part, and first two chapters of the second part of Morell's Grammar; or their equivalent. Easy analysis of sentences and parsing.
- **Geography.**—To know the geography of Australasia.
- **Arithmetic.**—Simple and compound proportion, vulgar fractions, mental arithmetic.
- **Needlework.**—Girls to exhibit increased skill in needlework.
- **Teaching.**—Ability to give a class a reading lesson, and to examine on the meaning of what has been read.
- **Drill.**—Ability to drill a class in marching, and in the extension exercises required for a license to teach.

### Second Class.

- **Reading.**—With improved expression and intelligence.
- **Writing.**—To write from memory neatly and in small hand, with correct grammar, spelling, and punctuation, the substance of a narrative read aloud.
- **Grammar.**—To know the first two parts of Morell's Grammar, or their equivalent, with parsing and analysis of simple sentences.
- **Latin.**—Declension of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns. The verb esse.
- **Arithmetic.**—Vulgar and decimal fractions, percentages, mental arithmetic.
- **Euclid.**—Book I. Definitions and propositions, i.—xv. inclusive.
- **Geography.**—To know the geography of Europe, and the first four chapters of Sullivan's Geography, Geography Generalized, or equivalent.
- **Needlework.**—Girls to instruct the younger ones in sewing.
- **Teaching.**—Any ordinary school subject to the 3rd or 2nd classes.
- **Drill.**—To understand class drill.

### 1st Class.

- **Reading.**—To the satisfaction of the inspector.
- **Writing.**—To write plain prose on a given simple subject; to set fair copy head-lines.
- **Grammar.**—To be able to parse and answer questions from any part of Morell's Grammar, or its equivalent; to be able to analyse and parse a short sentence from a reading book, and to explain the allusions, &c.
- **Latin.**—Accidence.
- **Algebra.**—Simple rules.
- **Euclid.**—Book I.
- **Arithmetic.**—To work sums and answer questions up to vulgar and decimal fractions, interest, and mental arithmetic inclusive, and to know the elements of book-keeping, and the mensuration of easy surfaces and solids.
- **Geography.**—To know the geography of the world, and the mathematical and physical geography of Sullivan's Geography Generalized, or its equivalent.
- **Needlework.**—Girls to be able to cut out and do any kind of plain needlework.
- **Teaching.**—Ability to give a gallery lesson, and to understand class drill.

It will be observed that this scheme assumes a capacity which I am afraid does not always exist on the part of teachers in Class E (85-105) to give instruction in Latin, Euclid, and algebra. With this exception, however, which I think is not a very important one, it presents, so far as I can judge, no practical difficulties.

Other proposed changes.

The other changes, as regards pupil-teachers, may be defined by two simple rules in place of those now existing under the Act of 1872.
In place of Rule 11, page 8, I would propose:—

**Every pupil-teacher shall be required to advance at least one class at each annual examination; and failing to pass, will receive no pay until he (she) is moved up.**

As Rule 16 I propose:—

**First-class pupil-teachers in their fourth year shall not work more than three hours in school, and the head teacher shall be allowed the services of an extra pupil-teacher in the first year as compensation.**

Reasons for founding a central Training College.

I have alluded in my introductory Report to the grave reasons that exist for transferring pupil-teachers to a central Training College in Melbourne when they have completed their four years' course in the country. The present system is at once expensive and inefficient. It is expensive because it has naturally become an object of ambition with every township to have its school declared a training school, and we shall thus soon be paying twenty private tutors scattered over the country at a distance from inspection, when we might do the same work better with five or six teachers in Melbourne. It is inefficient, because twenty scattered teachers are never likely to teach on the same plan, and no one man is likely to teach five or six subjects as well as the University staff in Melbourne could teach them. Lastly, I venture to think that we shall never have a proper esprit de corps among our teachers till they are brought together in the same building and in the same lecture-rooms long enough to form friendships and exchange thoughts. I therefore venture to recommend most earnestly that the subjoined rules for "training," which Mr. Gladman has assisted me to frame, and in the propriety of which he entirely concurs, should be adopted:—

**TRAINING.**

- The training institution will consist of a head Training College in Melbourne.
- Training will be conducted in the Training College by the principal, and a staff of tutors and lecturers.
- Studentships will be awarded to first-class pupil-teachers, as also to assistant and other teachers of approved character, recommended by the inspector, and exhibiting special promise as teachers. Of these, all, except first-class pupil-teachers, shall have satisfied the inspector by examination of their capacity to follow the course at the Training College, and of their qualifications in the art of teaching. Students will be provided with board and lodging free of cost.
- Every student will be required to enter into an agreement by himself (herself), and an approved surety, not to relinquish his (her) course of training without the permission of the Minister, and for four years after the termination of his (her) studentship [or two years if he (she) obtain a certificate of honor], to teach in any school to which he (she) may be appointed.
- The course of instruction in the Training College will be free, and will extend over two years. University text-books will be provided free of cost.
- During the first year students will be prepared for matriculation at the University.
- The subjects which students will be required to present for matriculation will be English, Latin, arithmetic, Euclid, algebra, geography, and either chemistry or French.
- While preparing for matriculation male students will be expected to perfect themselves in drill, and female students in needlework.
- They will also be required to attend lectures and demonstrations on the art of teaching by the principal, and to pass a satisfactory examination therein.
- Students who have completed their first year's course, and who have passed the matriculation examination, will, if their conduct has been satisfactory, be admitted to the second year's course as students.
- Students who fail to pass the matriculation examination at the end of the first year's course may, on the recommendation of the principal, have their studentship suspended or forfeited altogether. In cases where it is only suspended, they may stay on at their own expense for another trial, and if they succeed in that shall have their studentship restored.
- During the second year students shall qualify for the first year's examination in Arts, but shall omit Greek, and, if permitted by the University take up English in its place.
- During their residence in the Training College students shall learn to give instruction in singing and in drawing; and males shall qualify themselves to teach military drill, and females to teach needlework; and all shall give instruction in schools under the direction of the principal.
- Misconduct and idleness shall be a sufficient ground for dismissing a student or pupil from the Training College.
- At the end of the second year students will be required to obtain certificates in teaching from the University. Such certificates shall be awarded to those who have passed the first year's course in Arts, and
who have further satisfied inspectors appointed by the University to examine that they have mastered the art of teaching, and who, being males, can give instruction in drill and in singing or drawing; or, being females, can teach needlework and singing or drawing.

First-class pupil-teachers with a certificate from the principal shall be held to have satisfied all requirements as to the art of teaching.

- Students who have obtained a certificate of merit in teaching from the University shall not be required to teach more than two years in bush schools, and shall be eligible at once for third-assistantships, and after two years to the headships of schools in Class II.
- All matriculated students of the University shall be allowed to present themselves for an examination in the art of teaching, which shall be held twice a year, in the months of February and July; and having passed this, they shall be allowed to attend the second year's course at the Training College, with the view of presenting themselves afterwards as candidates for certificates of teaching.
- Such candidates, on obtaining certificates, shall possess the same claims to employment as the students of the Training College, but shall be considered to rank below these in seniority—that is, the trainees who have obtained certificates of honor in a particular year will rank above outside students who have taken the same place, so far as seniority constitutes a claim on the department.
- The female side of the college shall be under the charge of a lady superintendent, who shall have absolute control of the discipline during recess hours.
- The lady superintendent and the vice-principal shall be responsible for the discipline of the female and male sides respectively out of class hours, and during the absence of the principal. These officers shall furnish reports on the regulations they enforce, and on the state of discipline, to the principal as he shall appoint; and he shall have power to cancel any regulations that interfere with the tuition of the college; and to suspend any officer, reporting his action in this latter point instantly to the Minister.
- The principal shall have certain schools, town and country, assigned him by the department, in which the students of the Training College and those qualifying for certificates of competency may practice class-teaching under his direction.
- Vacant sets of rooms at the Training College may be assigned by the principal to teachers wishing to pursue their studies at the University, or, failing these, to students under clause 17. Persons so admitted shall pay for their own board, at rates fixed by the principal, shall be amenable to ordinary discipline, and shall have no claim to retain their rooms more than a year.
- The principal is empowered to suspend any student if in his judgment such a step should be necessary in the interests of the Training College. He will then refer the case to the Minister for his decision.
- The principal is also required to report on the character and conduct of each student at the end of his or her period of training. This report will be considered and will be influential in determining the appointment of candidates to situations under the Department of Education.

It will be seen that I propose to change the course of study as

- at present prescribed, and to make our trainees correspond during their first year to students in a high school working for the University, and during their second year to first year's students in Arts. The extent of the changes, if the University allows English language and literature to be substituted for Greek, will amount to this, that the trainees will take English, Latin, and Lower Mathematics as at present, but will substitute the elements of Physical Science, Chemistry, Mineralogy, and Botany, for the elements of English and Australian history, unless the University is prepared to make a change on this point also. Personally, I should not desire it; I feel convinced that teachers will read up history by themselves, and I am not equally certain that they will or can master the rudiments of science when they are away from Melbourne. But if the change involved some slight loss, I should be prepared to submit to it, for the sake of the great good it would bring in compensation. It is most undesirable that our schools should be working up to different standards; that a head master should, as now, be preparing his upper sixth in one way for matriculation and his trainees in another for the Training College;
- or that those who are to be the head teachers of our State schools should have a training different in character to that given at the high schools, to the headships of which they will aspire. On the other hand, it is very important that teachers should be trained, not as a caste apart, but as men and women having a need for common culture with the members of other professions; that they should mix in the same lecture-rooms with their fellow-citizens, and should take the first steps towards a degree, to obtain which in after years will be the object of an honorable ambition.

The cost of the present system is estimated in a return for the
Cost of the present system.
year 1876 at £5,374 12s. 9d., for which 39 second and 75 first-year students received what was mostly a fractional education, only one of the 39 being a year in residence. Since then the salary of the superintendent has been raised, and as the attendance of the elder students has become more regular, the charge for their board has increased, so that last year's Estimates (1877-8) show a charge of £8,647 under this head. Were the 120 pupils whom I desire to see in the Training College at the rate of 60 a year paid for under the present system, the charge would be—

Proposed college.

The plan I propose is that a college should be built on five acres of the ground which the State reclaims from the University. I assume that for £10,000 a building might be erected which would contain a principal's residence, with rooms for the lady superintendent and vice-principal, 160 dormitories, and six or eight lecture-rooms.

Organization and cost of the proposed Training College.

During the first year the students, 60 in number, would require the assistance of lecturers on seven subjects; but two or three of these might be taught by the vice-principal, who would have rooms in the college. The students' board would not, I think, cost more than £30 a head a year in an institution where there was no rent to pay, where it was no object to make a profit by them, and where the period of residence was not much longer than that required by the University, or say thirty weeks in all.

My estimate then is—

Economy of the proposed change.

Even this estimate represents a saving of £2,000. But it would be easy to show that the real saving will be greater. In the first place, as I have pointed out, the expense of training schools is a growing one, every rising township petitioning that its head teacher may be made an associate. In the next place, the teaching of the present Training College is so unsatisfactory that it has been reported against, and it could only be improved at increased expense. If a lecturer on drawing and a professor of music be appointed at the University, it might fairly be made part of their duties to teach the trainees. The charge for students' board is almost certainly in excess of what is required. Lastly, against the cost of a new Training College should be set the value of the land which will be liberated when the Training College is shifted, and which certainly represents a value of more than £200 a year.

Admission of other students.

It will be seen that I wish other students than pupil-teachers to be admitted into the Training College, and have suggested that forty sets of rooms should be provided for the accommodation of head and assistant teachers who may wish to pursue their studies at the University. One of the reasons that makes residence in the bush so unpopular as it now is with the profession is, that dwellers at a distance from towns find themselves debarred the chief means of self-improvement, cannot procure tutors or mix with fellow-students, and have a difficulty even in obtaining books. Now, it is at least as much the interest of the State as of the individual teacher that the latter should be constantly aiming at self-improvement and at professional advancement. I know no greater mistake than to suppose that man or woman can be over-educated for the position of teacher in a primary school, or that it requires less real ability to explain the elements of knowledge to unformed minds than to carry pupils with developed intelligence through the more advanced branches. What is true is that many teachers prefer the higher to the lower subjects. But as the new organization of the service puts Latin, Euclid, and algebra among the class subjects of a primary school, and assumes that the best teachers will be promoted to be inspectors and to be head masters of high schools, there will be a wide field for this class of mind within the service. Meanwhile I am sure that those who are reading for a B.A. degree will not teach English the worse because they can illustrate it from French or Latin or Greek, and will make their geography lessons the fresher for knowing something of physical geography and geology.

The difficulty with this class of students will be to enforce discipline, but it is a difficulty that an earnest principal—such a man as Arnold, or Temple, or Maurice—may easily convert into an advantage. The older students will undoubtedly give much of its tone to the Training College, and the principal must aim from the first at cultivating their friendship and securing their respect. He may certainly relax the usual college discipline in their favour, and he ought to have power summarily, but quietly, to remove any who are not in keeping with the character he wishes to impress on the place. Men and women who have given earnest of their wish to widen their culture and to achieve professional success by the sacrifice of a year's income are not likely to be idle or frivolous. But they may be coarse-minded or rough-mannered, or—what is perhaps most likely of all—look only to material results in their professional studies, may be careless of all teaching that does not bear on examinations, and inclined to approve all tricks by which success is enhanced. The Training College should not tolerate any but the highest ideal among its
students.

At the same time I am most anxious that the Training College
Secondary uses of the Training College.
should to some extent perform the functions of a teachers' institute. Its library should, I think, be well
stocked with the last reports on teaching, and open to all members of the profession; nor do I see why a
reading-room, a conversation-room, and a coffee-room should not be added. As the ranks of our teaching staff
are more and more recruited from trainees, the college will have associations which many will be glad to renew
when they visit Melbourne, and a place where old comrades may meet again will become every year more and
more desirable. It should be the object of the department to promote a strong *esprit de corps* among its
subordinates, so that men and women may be kept in the service by something besides the hope of promotion.
So far from thinking that organization among the teachers is to be dreaded, I would gladly see them allowed the
use of a room to hold meetings in, and would give any organ that they may adopt in the press the benefit of
departmental advertisements without respect to its views. From time to time such privileges will be abused.
There will be foolish motions and factious speeches and groundless opposition in meetings and in the press to
the department's best measures, but a wisely governed department can defy and will outlast these, and one that
is not wisely governed will be the better even for rough criticism.

**Colleges of Practical Science.**

Colleges of Practical Science needed.

If the State determines to found a faculty of Engineering and Practical Science in the University, it will be
almost necessary to establish schools in which students may prepare for their University course. The high
schools, whose plan I have indicated, will do this to a great extent. Pupils who have mastered algebra and
gometry, chemistry, botany, French, and book-keeping, will be excellently prepared for the further work
necessary to obtain certificates of engineering or commerce. But the two all-important subjects of agriculture
and mining require training of another kind, and parts of which may be best given at a distance from
Melbourne.

Slate farm at Dookie.
The State has already set apart land for a farm or college of agriculture near Cashel or Dookie, and in the
Bullarook State forest. I have visited Dookie, in company with Mr. Wallis, the Secretary of Agriculture, to
whom I beg to return my best thanks for the kind assistance he has given me in drawing up a plan for
agricultural studentships. The Dookie estate contains land of all kinds and qualities. Part of it is lightly timbered
pastoral land, part more or less clear and adapted for agriculture, while part under the hills could be irrigated at
no great expense, and is well suited for vineyards and orchards. The first expenses of forming the farms are
now almost at an end, and as soon as buildings have been put up, there seems every prospect that the farm will
be able to pay its way, supporting a resident staff of a manager, a chemist, and a veterinary surgeon. The farm
has of course certain primary uses, which are foreign to my purpose. It is intended to show what crops may be
profitably grown in the Ovens district, how land may be improved and made to pay, and what are the best
breeds of cattle, sheep, or horses, and how they should be managed. Its chemist will test soils for all the
neighbourhood, and its surgeon give advice where there is disease. Meanwhile, such an establishment seems
admirably adapted for the training of young farmers. Mr. Wallis holds strongly that a boy should begin farm
work at fifteen or thereabouts if he is to work profitably. I have, therefore, proposed that six scholarships
What agricultural students may learn at Dookie.

should be given every year to students who have completed their second year's course at a high school, and
that these scholarships should entitle them to two years' training on Dookie farm and to an exhibition afterwards
of £50 for a year's course at the University. This will give twelve students always resident at Dookie, and I
assume, what I think it is not unreasonable to expect, that their work will pay or will nearly pay for their board,
even with an allowance of two or three hours a day for chemical work in the laboratory, for courses under the
veterinary surgeon, and for reading by themselves. Meanwhile they will be gaining insight into the most
approved methods of modern agriculture, will see machinery in constant use which they could not see or handle
at their own homes, will be practiced in every kind of farm work from bush-clearing to vine-culture, will
enlarge their school botany by studying the experimental portions of the grounds, and will be taught the first
principles of breeding by a trained farmer.

In the so-called German parts of Austria, with a population of
An Austrian school of agriculture.
twenty millions, the State spent in 1875 about £63,000 on schools of agriculture and forestry. Were this
expenditure translated into Australian rates, it would represent at least £10,000 a year on schools of this class,
preparatory to the University. I extract the details of one of the chief Austrian establishments from the official report of 1874-5:

**Higher Agricultural District School of Liebnerd Tetschen, in Bohemia, founded in 1850. Course of three years. Language of instruction, German.**

**Conditions of admission.**—Six classes of a gymnasium or oberreal school (high practical school), with credit, or an equivalent education, and proof of a preparatory year spent in practical farm work.

A boarding-house is in connection with the institute.

**Age of admission,** 17; **distribution of time,** 24 hours of theory, 12 of practical work.

**Size of the institute farm and experimental grounds:**—The area of the lands of the Liebwerd farm comprises about 224 acres of arable, 62 acres of pasture, 1? acre of hop garden; altogether about 387? acres: that of the experimental farm, of the vegetable and of the agricultural botanic garden, about 12? acres.

**Number of teachers.**—Eight regular, and eight assistants.

**Number of students at the beginning of the scholastic year:**—In 1873-4, 84; in 1874-5, 88, including 6 extraordinary students. Average, since the foundation of the institution, 44.

**Place of birth** and **education** of the 86 students present at the end of March, in the collective courses:

- Omitted; all Austrian.

**Theoretical studies** (pursued before entering the college).—Law studies, 2 students; two years at the polytechnic, 1; seven classes in a school of practical science (real-schule); six classes in a real-schule, 11; five classes in a real-schule, 6; four classes in a real-schule, 9; three classes in a real-schule, 18; eight classes in a gymnasion (grammar school), 4; seven classes in a gymnasion, 2; six classes in a gymnasion, 2; five classes in a gymnasion, 2; four classes in a gymnasion, 13; higher agricultural institutes and schools, 8; military and commercial schools (Handel-schule), 6.

**Practical studies.**—Eleven years' practical work, 2; seven years' practical work, 2; five years' practical work, 1; four to two years', 24; one year, 46; no preliminary practical studies, 11.

**Tariff of yearly fees.**—Instruction: Ordinary students whose parents live in Bohemia, £8; ordinary students whose parents do not live in Bohemia, £10; extraordinary students, £12; board and lodging, £31 10s.

Scholarships given immediately to scholars.—Two of £45, given by the Department of Agriculture; three of £60, by Count Straka; four by the Moravian district council, of £40.

**Expenditure.**—Salaries of teachers, £807; board, £444; household, experiments, administration, &c., £1,140.

Contributed by the district.—Ordinary, £1,200; extraordinary, £10; taken in fees, £704.

**Remark.**—No account is taken of the students' board in the items of receipt and expenditure.

Preparatory course for an agricultural student in Austria.

It will be seen that the school of Liebwerd Tetschen tries to exact from its pupils a preparatory course of six classes in a realschule. Six classes mean about seven years' work, and the pupils' time is distributed pretty much as follows:—German, 4 to 5 hours; geography and history, 3 to 4 hours; arithmetic, 6 to 11 hours; natural history, 2 hours; physics, 2 to 4 hours; chemistry, 2 to 6 hours; geometrical drawing, 6 hours; architecture and machinery, 2 hours in the sixth class; averaging rather more than 30 hours' a week for each student, an allowance which seems excessive to English ideas. Besides this, French was taught in 1871 in 25 out of 40 schools, Italian in 20, and English in 7; but the study of these languages was optional. Altogether, the Austrian agricultural student, if he has worked according to programme, will know more mathematics and science than the scholar from a Victorian high school, but probably less language. At the same time it will be observed that the extreme condition of six classes was not insisted on at Liebwerd Tetschen.

Austrian students pay the cost of their own education.

In the next place it will, I hope, be noticed, that 77 out of 86 students paid their own expenses at the agricultural college. These expenses strike me as very high for so poor a country as Austria; and there are, in fact, cheaper schools of the kind, where the whole expenses only amount to £30 or even £20 a year. Meanwhile the capital fact remains, that even in so backward a country as Austria lately was, more than a thousand pupils are sent, mostly at their own expense, after a careful education, to study scientific agriculture in schools specially set apart for the purpose.

A letter from Professor Lacoppidan to Mr. Luplau, of Ballarat, gives an interesting account of the working of a Danish Agricultural College. "* * * * * * * Before I commence to describe Nøsgaard (his own school), I will draw your attention to the fact that the Royal Danish Agricultural Society has existed for more than 100 years, and has 700 members paying an annual subscription of 20 kroners (about £1 2s.) each, and has further an income of 16,000 kroners, altogether 30,000 kroners (about £1,650). This society places about 130 young men..."
every year, principally selected from the farmers, as apprentices amongst the most eminent agriculturists. They serve three years altogether, but only one year at one farm, serving their three years with three different employers. The apprentice receives his board and lodging and small pay; when his time is served out he receives a certificate from the society. This system has produced large benefit. Instruction at Nœsgaard school is all directed to agriculture. It was instituted in 1849 from the Classenske legacies, an institution that owes its creation to General Classen, who left two large landed properties and a large sum of money for philanthropic purposes. The school receives on the 1st May each year nine pupils from the farming classes, who remain there two years, so that there are always eighteen pupils, divided into two classes, a senior and junior class. The pupils pay 200 kroners each annually (£11), for which he receives board, lodging, and instruction. NÆsogard consists of 300 sonder (about 400 acres) arable land, and 160 sonder of land reclaimed from the ocean. The stock consists of 18 horses, 80 milk cows, 12 fattening cattle, and 200 sheep. The head master is the practical teacher, and he has a steward to assist him. The theoretical instruction is imparted by two resident teachers and a veterinary surgeon, who visits the school twice a week for two hours. The pupils receive theoretical instruction one half of the day, the other half they are engaged either in the field, stable, dairy, or practising with the axe, and learning to make the smaller implements; they are also employed at gardening. The lessons are so arranged that when the senior class are on practice, the junior are on theory, and vice versa; but it is so arranged that the two half-days' work follow one another. The practical work is carried on in the ordinary working hours, from 6 o'clock in the morning to half-past 11, and from 2 o'clock in the afternoon until evening; the theoretical instruction occupies three hours a day to each class. First half-year, the junior class is instructed in writing, arithmetic, drawing, and natural history; second half-year, geometry, a little stereometry, also chemistry and physics; third half-year, instruction is given in the uses of domestic animals, soils, and botany; fourth and last half-year, stock-rearing, agricultural teaching, land surveying and levelling. The object of our school is to impart to the youths of our farmers those subjects that especially apply to agriculture, and for this purpose it is requisite that they shall understand both the principles and auxiliaries on which success depends. Næsogard school is the only one in Denmark where both practical and theoretical education is imparted; all the other schools are principally theoretical. Besides the income Næsogard school receives from the pupils there is the income from the farm, so that you see the establishment is pretty expensive. It is much sought after. There are invariably at least thirty applications for the nine annual vacancies; more cannot be taken according to the regulations.

The instruction given at the Austrian agricultural schools is
Course of agricultural instruction in Austria.

divided into preparatory and special. The preparatory studies comprise natural philosophy, climatology, mechanics, chemistry, mineralogy, geology, and the constitution of soils; botany and the physiology of plants, zoology, and political economy. The special subjects include the science of the growth of plants on physiological principles, with an understanding of irrigation and draining, a knowledge of agricultural machinery, the scientific principles of stock breeding, agricultural chemistry, agricultural organization in connection with taxation, and a knowledge of the laws relating to agriculture. Without a larger staff than I dare as yet propose for our agricultural college, so comprehensive a course as this cannot be attempted. Moreover, some of the subjects, such as political economy, taxation, and land, seem to belong to the higher parts of a university course, rather than to an agricultural college. But assuming the students to come

up from the high school, knowing algebra up to quadratics, geometry to the extent of the first two books of Euclid, the elements of chemistry and botany, and so much of climatology as is taught in physical geography, they ought, during their two years at Dookie, to master—

- The principles of laying out a farm,
- The rotation of crops,
- The chief points in stock,
- The use of tools and machines; from the farm manager.
- The treatment of disease in stock, with some knowledge of anatomy, from the veterinary surgeon; and
- The analysis of soil's and manures, from the farm chemist. Nor would it be difficult, I think, to arrange for their receiving

What may be taught in Melbourne.

some practical instruction in land surveying, if the success of the school appeared to warrant any extra expense. This would leave mechanics, engineering, comparative anatomy and physiology, mineralogy, geology, and entomology, subjects that can be best taught in a university and in the neighbourhood of a museum, for the Melbourne course; to be arranged by the faculty of Practical Science, as it shall think fit.

Experience of Italy favours experimental farms.
In connection with this scheme of study I may observe that in Italy, where "technical" or "real" schools are
so popular that they are driving out the old grammar schools, the experiment has been tried of teaching agriculture in the lecture-room, and in the lecture-room alone. As a consequence of this method, the Minister of Agriculture reported in 1876 that "there was a general complaint that students who had obtained certificates of agriculture were deficient in practical training, and therefore could not easily get employment in the profession they had embraced." The Minister directed accordingly, that an experimental farm should be annexed to every school, "so that the pupils might not only see the farm machines at work, but might further execute every kind of work, for superintending which they might wish to fit themselves."

Programmi di Insegnamento per gli Instituti Tecnice, p. 7.

Schools of forestry and their use.

It is too early for ourselves to start schools of forestry, as we cannot employ any great number of trained foresters, or expect many pupils to attend such schools for their own instruction. But a certain knowledge of the insects that prove dangerous to trees ought, I think, to be demanded from every one holding a certificate of agriculture. A single instance will show the importance of such knowledge. Towards 1873 the ravages of an insect called the birch bug (bostrychus typographus), in the forests of Bohemia and Galicia, became so formidable that the Government was obliged to take stringent measures for arresting them. In one district alone more than a quarter of a million fir trees, which the birch bug had destroyed, were burned in nine months at the expense of the State; and in the year 1874, £51,880 were spent on labour for this purpose. Even this enormous sum represents only a fraction of the expense incurred. The work of barking and burning went on for years, and trees had to be planted again where the land had been partially cleared. There are no doubt parts of Victoria where the birch bug would be welcomed for a time, and where clearing and not planting is the necessity. But these parts are already becoming exceptional, and we are beginning to find out that insect life is more formidable than it was, whether because we have introduced new ravagers, or partly killed off some of the insect-eating birds, or because bush fires are less frequent than they were. On the other hand, our imported trees, such as the vine, the peach, and the apple, are sometimes very sensitive to disease, and are of quite other value from the gum-tree or stringy-bark. A lecturer on forestry would, I think, well earn his salary, if he taught his pupils to watch for and recognise these insect pests in their beginnings, when they are yet weak. But it need not be said, that he can also teach the farmer much about the growth and uses of trees, that would otherwise not be learned at all, or would only be learned after much costly experience.

There can scarcely be two opinions as to the importance of schools of mines at Ballarat and Sandhurst.

Schools of mines in Victoria. Two such schools have already sprung up, and are struggling on, doing excellent work with lamentably underpaid teachers. At Ballarat 132 students were in attendance during 1876. At Sandhurst the numbers in 1877 were 135, excluding the class in the school of design; a good result, and sufficient to show that the advantages of the school were thoroughly appreciated, men riding in several miles at night in some cases to attend classes. At Ballarat the local subscriptions and fees amounted in 1876 to more than £500. At Sandhurst they were £659 4s. 4d. in 1877, the subscriptions and donations having very much increased within two years. "Honarories and salaries" figure at Ballarat for £1,063 7s. 6d., and at Sandhurst for only £883 16s.; but this difference overstates the real facts, as the chemical lecturer at Sandhurst is partly paid by the laboratory, which at Ballarat contributes to the general income. Each school gives class-teaching in the following subjects:—

- Mathematics and mechanics;
- Chemistry, theoretical and applied;
- Mining and metallurgy;
- Land surveying; and
- Telegraphy;

while Ballarat has lectures in mineralogy and mining geology, and in German and French; and Sandhurst in shorthand and in design, with special reference to mining. Of these subjects telegraphy is not just now very important, as I am told the number of qualified students far exceeds the number of situations vacant; and German and French might in rigour be excluded from the plan of a school of mines. But as these classes meet with such support as to encourage the schools to maintain them, we must accept this as a practical reason for their continuance.

My impression is that the time has come when each of these schools may fairly be affiliated as a college to the Melbourne University. The teaching staff of the colleges would then prepare their pupils for the University certificates of mining, engineering, and commerce, while the University would relieve the colleges of the task of examining in those subjects. A few of the State exhibitioners, whose families resided in Ballarat and Sandhurst, would probably work at the schools of mines, instead of going into residence into Melbourne; and these will, I hope, form the nucleus for a class of students...
received from the high schools of those two towns, and passing in their fifth year into the new college of practical science. To put these on a fair footing with University students in Melbourne, they should be charged no fees except for matriculation and certificate. The present teaching staff of the schools will therefore find their work increased. Besides this, as there will certainly be a difficulty at first in procuring scientific teachers for high schools and grammar schools, I think the State will do well to stipulate that high school pupils in Ballarat and Sandhurst shall receive four hours' chemical teaching a week and two hours' teaching in mechanics free of cost in what I will now call the college of practical science. By high school pupils I mean pupils in such school or schools as the State has agreed to subsidize as a high school.

Evening classes may be retained as they are.

On the other hand, the evening classes, which are the chief source of income to the schools at present, may very well be continued as at present. The fees charged are so low as to hinder no one from coming, and the slight payment keeps idlers away, and makes the students more punctual in their attendance. I assume, therefore, in my calculations that the State need only pay for the fresh duties it imposes, and that it is no object to withdraw the lecturers from their present work. So again the colleges may perfectly well be left to examine their evening classes and give certificates in the subject of any special course. Two very useful certificates are now given, one to captains of shifts and underground managers, and one to engine-drivers. There is no reason why these should be interfered with.

Staff needed at a school of mines.

The staff of teachers that a college of practical science will need may be roughly estimated, I think, at—

- A lecturer of mathematics and mechanics, with a salary of £400.
- A lecturer of chemistry, specially qualified to assay metals and explain the chemistry of commerce, £400.
- A lecturer on land surveying and the mapping of mines, £250.
- A lecturer on mining geology and mineralogy. It should be contrived, if possible, I think, that this lecture should be given by the University lecturer of mines, who might run down once a week to lecture, and receive £100 a year from each college for his work.
- A lecturer on practical mining. This could probably be given by some mining manager at Ballarat and Sandhurst. £100.

Proposed endowment and organization of the schools of mines.

If the State paid these salaries, amounting altogether to £1,250 a year, its subvention to the two colleges would only be £1,000 a year higher than what it now pays to the two schools of mines. Freed from their present burden of partially providing salaries for their chief teachers, the colleges might easily defray the expenses of their classes in engine-driving, telegraphy, and modern languages out of fees and subscriptions. As it is important to keep alive the local interest which is now felt in these institutions, each should, I think, retain its local council, of which the State lecturers should be ex officio members. But some provision will have to be made to secure the election of properly qualified teachers now that the appointments are rendered more desirable. A regulation that the holders of the first four lectureships shall be University graduates and the holder of the last certificated in honours (existing rights being reserved), will not, I hope, be considered unreasonable. The lectureships in colleges of practical science ought to be stepping-stones to University chairs. In this way, Ballarat and Sandhurst will gain the services of young men anxious to win their spurs, and the University will be able to test the teaching power of some of its ablest students.

An account of a mining college in New York State by an Austrian

Columbia College, New York.

commissioner will show what importance is attached to scientific studies in the richest of the United States. Columbia College," says P. Hitter von Tunner "has, at present, a five-fold division according to the subjects taught in it, for civil engineers, mining engineers, metallurgy, geology and natural history, and analytical and applied chemistry. The teaching body consists, besides the director—who is also a member of the committee of trustees—of eight regular professors, two teachers of French and German, and fifteen assistants. Besides this, a librarian and registrar, a mechanic, and a porter figure in the official catalogue. The great number of the assistants is explained by the fact that there is one assistant for general chemistry and five for analytical chemistry, as many analyses are made for payment. * * The ordinary professors receive, if I am rightly informed, a salary of 6,000 dollars (£1,200) a-piece; probably, however, this is only the case with some of the older or more distinguished, inasmuch as the yearly expenditure of the school only amounts to 60,000 dollars. Of this sum about half comes from fees, as every student has to pay 200 dollars (£40) a year. However, it is not difficult for the needy scholar to be excused payment of fees, and about a third of the students are on this footing.

"The studies are spread over three years. * * There are half-yearly examinations, and the student cannot pass out of his class until he has satisfied the examiners in these. * * He receives the final diploma when he has passed every examination in subjects belonging to one of the five branches, and has given in a written thesis at
the end. Any one staying more than three years, and who has passed in one or two of the five subjects, may obtain the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in one or two years by scientific labours and papers."

In 1875-6 there were 206 students at the college, and the minimum cost of living there averaged about £110 a year.

At the time of the last report, there were 22 schools of design

Schools of design.

established in the colony, with 1,457 students on the rolls. Of these, 1,186 had entitled themselves by their attendances in the April quarter to the Government grant of half-a-crown a head, and more than 200 competed for the prizes at the July exhibition. The use of these schools is likely to become greater year by year, as pupils who have learned the outlines of geometrical drawing in our State schools, and something more in our high schools, pass out into the world. No one can visit the evening classes, in our large towns, without feeling that their moral use is scarcely second to their material; and that hundreds who find a healthy occupation in drawing or colouring would otherwise be listless or

Specially needed in a new country.

dissipated. But the material use of schools of design seems especially great in a young country. We cannot purchase or create works of art, whether it be in painting, sculpture, or architecture; and successive generations are doomed to grow up among us, shut out from all the culture which twenty centuries of civilization have naturalized in every part of Western Europe. When Schiller wrote from the comparative nakedness of a German city that the beggar at the gates of St. Angelo had a more glorious life than the people of the North, inasmuch as he looked out upon the only eternal Rome, he used words which scarcely seem overstained to those who have lived in Spain or Italy. I remember hearing of an Englishman, who came to Toledo meaning to spend a few hours only, and was so entranced by the cloisters of San Juan de los Reyes, that he lingered nine months, coming every day to admire their magical beauty. Cities such as this need no school of design but their own monuments. The Roman jeweller works on Etruscan patterns; the moulder of Granada copies from the columns of the Alhambra; and even if a single generation prefers a florid and debased style, the teaching of antiquity tells in its own time against the innovation. But in a young country, where the artist who settles among us can only hope for scanty patronage, and where the architect must strain art to the exigencies of public use, the public wants education, and our best men must, I think, toil with a sense that their labours are not likely to meet intelligent criticism or deserved praise. The contempt generally felt for English art on the Continent is not due, I apprehend, to any deficient sense of beauty in the English people. We have created landscape gardening; and English water-colour painters, from their subtle sense of natural beauty, hold their own against the best of France and Germany. Where England has lain at a disadvantage has been in the want of the highest specimens of architecture, and of great national collections of painting or statuary; yet the valleys of the Severn and the Wye teem with churches and castles, and English collectors have filled England with works that at least stand high in the second class.

How schools of design may be encouraged at small cost.

If then it is thought desirable to train our manufacturers and artisans, so that the industries we are anxious to promote—silk, tapestry, glass, china, or jewellery—may not be shut out from a foreign market by faults of colouring or design, it is of the last importance that schools of design should be encouraged. Looking at the results already attained, and the small cost to the State, I can only admire the excellent administration that has done so much. But a very trifling sum would remove what is now an unavoidable, but I think a grave defect. From sheer poverty, the teachers are compelled to set copies from engravings and lithographs of dubious or no value. A very trifling expenditure, not exceeding £100 a year at most, would enable the administration to form a circulating library of portfolios of Italian or Spanish photographs, or of fac-similes of plates from "Modern Painters," or of the "Stones of Venice," or of such works as Owen Jones's "Alhambra," that exhibit instances of effective colouring. It must be borne in mind that in proportion as these schools do their work, the students in them will rise above mere outline drawing, such as occupies the greater number at present, and will insist on higher work. The result will be good or bad in proportion as we supply them with common-place or with the best models.

The Industrial Schools.

The first article of my instructions was thus worded:—"You will enquire into the propriety of using the industrial schools as the training schools of the colony, so as to utilize the labours of the trainees, which are paid for by the State. Whether technical pursuits should be established in these schools with workshops attached, as at Chester, so that boys could learn some trade that
would enable them to earn their future livelihood; and whether the girls should be taught domestic economy, as at Warrington;

I have not succeeded in obtaining particulars from England about the Chester and Warrington schools. But it will be seen that arguments, which appear to me irresistible, have induced me to recommend that our present schools be abolished, and the children transferred to reformatories, orphanages, or in some rare cases to day industrial schools.

and generally to advise whether, in your opinion, the trainees should be under better discipline, and if they would be likely to take an interest in the future career of those they have had under their charge."

A reply to these questions must be preceded by a short review of the actual condition of our industrial schools.

There are at present three industrial schools altogether supported Coburg.

by the State, and two that are subsidized. Coburg is properly a reformatory as well as an industrial school. None enter in but children who have been convicted before a magistrate of some offence, such as larceny. The male side contained, when I last visited it, about 200 boys; who are supposed to do the ordinary work of a State school up to the fourth class, and who are taught tailoring and bootmaking. The female side contained about 35 girls. The class-teaching on the male side was some of the worst I have seen in any school of the colony; but I could not blame the master, who was heavily over-tasked, having no assistance except from monitors. I understood that this arrangement was temporary, during Mr. Duncan's absence from the colony, and I sincerely trust it has been changed. On the girls' side the teaching seemed very good; but here the classes were small, and the regular teacher's place was supplied during her absence by a very capable assistant.

Sunbury is properly an orphanage and truant school combined.

Children who have lost their parents are committed to it by a magistrate's order, no less than children who are troublesome to their parents, or who are charged with vagrancy by the police. The children, as at Coburg, are nominally trained up to the standard, but the teaching, which I have tested by reading over many of the examination papers, gives very meagre results. The causes for this seem to be, that the supply of teachers is inadequate; that a few boys of bad character affect the tone of the school unfavourably; and that the authorities are not very careful whether the standard is reached before they apprentice the boys out. The boys at Sunbury learn farm-work, baking, tailoring, and bootmaking. The situation is bleak; the land badly watered and infested with wire-worm; and the results of the farming are of course not very great. There were about 400 boys at Sunbury when I visited it. Their health seemed to be good.

Royal Park.

The Royal Park establishment has two sides. A large building contains about 200 girls, recruited in the same way as the inmates from Sunbury. These girls appear to suffer from eye-disease. Two or three of the inmates ought to be sent to a blind asylum.

and skin-disease to a degree that calls for searching investigation. Here, again, I have to report that they are placed out before they have properly reached the standard; and the inspector of last year tells me that he found an entire absence of moral tone on the subject of copying. The girls learn housework of all kinds and the use of sewing-machines.

At a short distance from the main building is a small farmhouse, with out-buildings and a few acres of farm. Boys drafted from Sunbury are sent here for various terms, apparently while situations are being found for them. The land is excellent farming land, but the farmer in charge is not left sufficiently to himself to work it profitably, and the boys under his charge are for the most part shifted so rapidly that they can learn little. Having been present at the inspector's examination I can testify that those who were there in November last were, with one exception, very badly taught. One of the mistresses in the school has helped some of them in the evening, but no regular provision is made at Royal Park for their instruction.

The teaching at the industrial schools bad.

Reviewing these facts, I may say that the teaching given at the industrial schools is, without exception, inadequate and bad. No doubt the children are sometimes difficult subjects. Coming, it maybe, from vicious families, or having been neglected when they were young, some of them are perhaps stupid beyond the average of ordinary State school children. Again, life within a strictly policed establishment and its grounds is not favourable to the development of any but a mischievous sharpness. Even at an orphanage it is found that the children are thrown back by their enforced seclusion from the world. On the other hand, it must be borne in mind that many of the children are simply orphans, the children of respectable parents, and who were well trained till the State cared for them. Again, in an industrial school there is no playing truant, and this enormous advantage of regular attendance

The Royal Park school must be excepted, as the attendance there is very irregular from the sicknessness of the
inmates. in early life ought to counterbalance the disad-
vantages of a slow intellect or a backward education. The
children ought to be rather better than average State scholars instead of decidedly worse.

The first cause of these deficiencies seems to me to lie in the
Defective classification of the industrial schools.

imperfect classification of the children. At Coburg girls who have been sentenced for petty larceny are put
to associate with girls who have been taken from Chinese brothels. At Sunbury the orphan children of
respectable parents are mixed up with street vagabonds, or with boys who have learned anything but good on
the Nelson. The practice of these establishments is to discourage all publicity. At Sunbury the head master was
lately reprimanded for mentioning in his report that he was not adequately supplied with school furniture. Not
long ago some of the boys there tried to set fire to a ward. They were sent to Coburg, but the matter was hushed
up, and excited no attention. Now I need scarcely say that, when the moral tone of a school is bad, the teaching
is not likely to be satisfactory.

In the next place, these institutions generally have less than
Insufficient staff of teachers.

the proper staff of teachers. I forbear to press this charge, as the deficiency may have been due only to Mr.
Duncan's temporary absence.

But the fatal fault of all has been that the authorities have
The children are taught too little and work under disadvantages.

aimed at reducing the instruction given to the minimum allowed by law. In the higher classes, for instance,
the children only attend half a day. The idea is that they are to do manual work during the greater part of the
day, and so fit themselves for a situation when they leave school. Practically the result of this method has not
been encouraging. The value of the work done by the children is small; and I am informed that they learn
nothing but the rougher kinds of farm-work adequately. It stands to reason that it should be so. Boys and girls,
as a rule, require constant supervision; and their labour can only be made profitable when there is a fair
proportion of overseers. The best mechanics and artisans are not easily induced to become instructors in
industrial schools. But, above all, the children work under a constant sense of discouragement. They know that,
when they leave school, and are placed out by the department, they will get little or no value for their labour
during the first three years. A boy who knows the value of work is well aware that sixpence or a shilling a
week, in addition of course to board, lodging, and clothes, does not represent what he could earn if he were free
to make contracts for himself. Hence the industrial school system appears to combine every conceivable defect.
It teaches badly, it supervises badly, and it offers no inducement to work.

Some of these defects might, of course, easily be cured. A
The fault lies in the system even more than its details.

regulation in the spirit of the present Act, which should forbid the officials to assign children as servants to
themselves, and which should direct them to give preference to the best situations offered and not to priority of
application, would strike at the root of much that is most vicious. But it is monstrous that the State should be
burdened with such a charge as it has at present; and some method of reducing the cost is imperatively
demanded. If we are right in telling parents that they must educate their children before they can profit by their
labour, we ought to deal in the same manner with those who are thrown upon the State's fatherhood. Our
industrial schools must reproduce family life, instead of being appendages to the gaol.

Good and bad children should be kept separate.

I assume as preliminary conditions to all improvement that some method for drafting the children
consigned to an industrial school must be devised. There should be some depôt in which they are watched for
two or three weeks, until their characters are known. Vicious boys and girls should then be sent to a
reformatory (under an improved system of management), unless an orphanage will take charge of them, as it
will in some cases.

Young children should be boarded out.

With young children there is no difficulty. They can be boarded out on fairly economical terms with
families who will adopt them as children, and where their treatment will be watched by boards of visitors. This
system has been found to answer so well that the Protestant Orphanage (of Brighton) is adopting it very
extensively. The elder children are more difficult to board out. Families do not care, in many instances, to take
charge of any but young children, whom they may treat as their own, and who will grow up as part of
themselves. Happily two of our public charities will help us in most cases.

The Abbotsford Industrial School.

The Lady Superior of the Convent of the Good Shepherd, Abbotsford, informs me that she is willing to
take charge of as many girls as the State will send her at 6s. a week, and to provide any new buildings that may
be required for their accommodation. Having paid two visits to this institution and been present at the
deceptive. For instance, the industrial schools are credited with the value of vegetables and fruit raised at the children's labour. On this point I would say that the present returns are, unintentionally no doubt, very small. It will be seen that the plan I suggest renounces all idea of directly reimbursing the State by the proceeds of the children's labour. On this point I would say that the present returns are, unintentionally no doubt, very deceptive. For instance, the industrial schools are credited with the value of vegetables and fruit raised at the depot, and the Brighton building is therefore looked upon only as a depot. I believe this policy to be a wise one. The weak point of a Protestant institution of this kind is that it is unavoidably short-handed, as it lacks the unbought services which the members of Catholic sisterhoods give to the poor. The teaching, the discipline, and the organization may be (as I believe they are) excellent, but nothing can supply the want of personal influence. Therefore it seems better that private homes should be used to place the Catholic boys out in families of their own faith. It remains the Catholic boys to be provided for, and, unhappily, there is at present no Catholic orphanage to which these can be sent. I can only suggest that the same organization which must be employed to draft the children at the depot, and to distribute them between reformatories and orphanages, should be used to place the Catholic boys out in families of their own faith. It has occurred to me that Catholic schoolmasters might, in many cases, be willing to receive them, and that none could be better fitted to care for them. I am encouraged to hope that Catholic charity may found an orphanage for these poor boys, if it receives some positive assurance that the institution will be treated by Government in the same way that I have proposed should be done with Brighton and St. Mary's. Value of the children's labour very small. It will be seen that the plan I suggest renounces all idea of directly reimbursing the State by the proceeds of the children's labour. On this point I would say that the present returns are, unintentionally no doubt, very deceptive. For instance, the industrial schools are credited with the value of vegetables and fruit raised at the depot, and the Brighton building is therefore looked upon only as a depot. I believe this policy to be a wise one. The weak point of a Protestant institution of this kind is that it is unavoidably short-handed, as it lacks the unbought services which the members of Catholic sisterhoods give to the poor. 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Sunbury and Royal Park, and consumed by the inmates, but they are not debited with any rent for the land, and no estimate is given of the cost at which these trifling results are obtained. Were the salaries of instructors, the rent of laud, and the transport of Royal Park produce to Sunbury; put against the proceeds of labour, the profit to the State would appear, as it is, infinitesimal. Meanwhile the education of the children is thrown back, that they may spend three or four, instead of two, hours a day in the attempt to repay the State its charges.

No doubt a better system than that of industrial schools might easily be devised. Yet even Mettray, Cochin’s Notice sur Mettray, pp. 40, 41.

where the methods employed were tenderness and an appeal to the sense of honour, and where the success achieved was very great, has been dependent for its support on voluntary contributions. The reasons M. Cochin assigns for this apply to all reformatories, that masses of young children separated from their families require numerous teachers, not only to direct their work but to maintain discipline and to form character, and that the children are necessarily placed out just as their labour begins to become profitable. Were the children whom the State takes charge of properly separated, so that those tainted with crime were not left to influence the innocent, the charge of supervision might no doubt be reduced. But an orphanage, conducted with the smallest possible staff, would then suffer from the objection that its inmates did not fall under any strong personal influence.

The State must renounce the idea of profit.

To myself it seems that the State cannot dispense with applying the principles of the compulsory Act to itself. It tells parents that they must first educate their children and set them to work afterwards. It must do this with its own orphans. If the plan I have suggested be followed the children will all be boarded out, except the Catholic girls sent to Abbotsford, and perhaps a few older children for whom it may be difficult for a time to find homes. Those who are boarded out, and those sent to Abbotsford, will alike fall under the provisions of the compulsory Act. Dealing thus with these, the State will be bound to deal similarly with the Catholic boys who may be left on its hands, should it decide to keep them together instead of distributing them among Catholic families. Only I would say that I do not wish it to be supposed that the children kept or boarded out are to do no manual work. By all means let them be made useful about the house or the farm where they live, as the children of their foster-parents are. I would back children who have spent three years in the country, under this system, for real usefulness against any élèves of Sunbury. The essentials I contend for are, that the State is to look first to their bringing up, and is to expect no profit from their work except that which will come indirectly but certainly, as they are boarded out at lower rates than would be charged if they were a mere burden on a family.

When the children reach the age of 12 they ought to have

Children brought up It the cost of the State should not be given back to their parents.

passed the standards, and the question will then arise, what is to be done with them? Let me first say, that under no circumstances ought they, I think, to be given back, as they sometimes! now are, to the parents or relatives who have quietly looked on while the State was supporting them, until these have defrayed the whole charges of State maintenance.

One of the most awful eases that has ever come under my notice has been that of ft child, given away to a merciful foster-parent while it was quite young by its mother, and enticed back by her when it was old enough for a Chinese brothel.

It is intolerable that, as sometimes happens, a man able to support his child should hand it over to the State because it is refractory, or because he finds that he can spend his wages more pleasantly than in feeding and clothing it, and should yet be allowed to intercept the profits of the child's labour when it becomes self-supporting.

Mr. Duncan on the other hand says, "The rule should be not to board out the children of parents living in the colony and known to be of good character although impoverished in circumstances."—Report for 1875, p. 4. Unless "impoverished" means "disabled from work," I should like to substitute a rule not to receive any such children into the schools.

I believe this abuse only needs to be stated to be abolished. I assume then that the child who has passed the standards will remain under State guardianship in the hands of the orphanages. Hitherto the Brighton Orphanage has received a fee of £5 for every orphan it has placed out, and has funded a portion of the small wages that were paid for the benefit of the child at 15. The industrial schools have followed the same system, except that, while they obtain rather smaller wages for their protégés, they receive no fee on putting them out. Practically, I believe, a child licensed from Sunbury or Royal Park has been given to its employer for board and lodging, and the trifle funded during the first year; as the clothes it takes with it are sufficient to last twelve months, and the pocket-money is very often not paid.

An orphan child of 13 put out to service from St. Joseph's, Geelong, earns £12 the first year. A girl of the same age put out to service from the State industrial schools gets its clothes and £1 6s. the first year. In the first case the employer contributes £1 to the outfit; in the second the whole charge falls upon the State.

It is certain that employers frequently regard themselves as armed with excessive power over the
children—keep back their wages, beat them, withhold proper food, and over-work them. There is no real security against these abuses. The police are ordered not to interfere if they can avoid it; the clergy have declined to report on licensed children in their districts, and the visiting committees of ladies are apt to neglect their work, and when they perform it to question the employers instead of the children, or the children in presence of the employers. The late acting superintendent, Mr. Neal, informed me that he did not think the fact of an employer having thrashed a boy ten or twelve times in a year any reason why that employer should not have children assigned to him. The children licensed out under the present system are therefore dissatisfied with their condition, are apt to work languidly, and often abscond, although they know that the police will be instantly put on their track. If the system were expressly designed to train liars and malingerers, it could hardly have been better framed.

Foster-parents to have the first claim to the children's labour.

Much will have been done to cure all this, when the orphans and neglected children are treated as such simply, and not as criminals under police surveillance. We cannot give complete liberty to boys and girls under 15, but we may make the restraints upon them gentle and honourable. Assuming them to be all boarded out, I think their foster-parents should have the first claim to their labour under the present condition of feeding and clothing them, allowing them a trifle as pocket-money, and funding a fair sum yearly, which they may be paid later on, with the orphanage. The orphanage has, I admit, a perfect right to recoup itself part of its expenses by the fee of £5 which the Brighton Orphanage now charges. Such a payment may act beneficially, by giving the employer an interest in attaching the child licensed to him to his service. But it is a question, I think, whether it would not be altogether better for this sum also to be kept in reserve, and added to the wage fund that accumulates year by year for the licensed child in cases where the child's conduct has been thoroughly satisfactory. On the other hand, if the child has left its place now and again, coming to reside in the orphanage at intervals, the expenses of such residence, which cannot be forbidden to homeless children, might fairly be defrayed out of the apprenticeship fee. My object in recommending that this sum should be renounced in cases of good conduct is that I know children who have once entered service soon learn to scrutinize their wages jealously, and are discontented with deductions, however justified. The great point to the State is, not that it or the orphanage should receive £5 head money, but that children reared under difficulties should be made efficient workmen by every possible incentive.

Possible use of day industrial schools.

Should the day industrial schools whose foundation I have suggested be established, I would recommend that the head teacher in each be required to receive a few inmates from among the children who are not good enough for an orphanage and who yet seem too good for Coburg. Half a dozen schools with as many boarders a-piece would pretty well dispose of this class.

Diminished expenditure under the proposed system.

I have reckoned the saving by the adoption of the system I recommend at 25 per cent, on present expenditure.

I base this on the returns of 1876, 1875, and 1874 for all the schools in which the whole expense was defrayed by the State. I omit the Nelson, because wages were there charged to another fund; Sandhurst for the same reason; and the convent schools of Abbotsford and Geelong, because the children were boarded out in these by a contract very favorable to the State, and not quite fair to the convents. I do not allow for maintenance money (the money obtained from parents), as that will apply to any system indifferently. In other respects taking the department's own figures, I find that the cost of a child at the industrial schools averaged, in 1876, £20 1s. 11½d.; in 1875, £20 15s. 03/8d.; and in 1874, £21 10s. 117/8d., or roughly about £20 16s. a year. Even this is an under-estimate, as I have shown; rent for buildings and land, and the first cost of farm stock, not being allowed for. The cost of 600 children, at £20 16s. a year, is £12,480. Boarded out in convents and orphanages, at 6s a week, it would be £9,360, and the State would thus save 25 per cent. But as the rate of payment on children already boarded out would have to be increased from 5s. to 6s., there would be a loss of from £400 to £500 a year on this item. In the last returns printed, the number of children in State industrial schools was nearly 800, but it is now smaller; and I have allowed a margin for the case of vicious children whom a Protestant orphanage would not receive. The Catholic schools, from their larger number of instructors, and from the system of drafting, are not fettered in this way; and two girls taken from a Chinese camp were actually sent to St. Joseph's, at Geelong! It is a curious commentary on the present system. Of course, Coburg or a Magdalen asylum would be the proper place for children of this kind.

A return presented to Parliament on 5th March 1878 shows that the cost of buildings has been £136,000. At five per cent, this represents nearly £7,000 a year, which ought to be added to the official estimate of £28,724.

But this only represents the saving on the maintenance and care of the children, who will be placed out at 6s. a week instead of being supported at 8s. There will be further economies. The buildings and grounds at Sunbury will be vacated, and may be turned to some other use, though the position is unfortunate. But the
greatest gain will be that commitments will, I am certain, become rarer when there are no longer large buildings
to fill, and children will be less in request, when there is no longer a large staff requiring occupation. It is
monstrous that a young boy, entitled to more than £400, and the child of respectable parents, should have been
committed by a magistrate’s order to an industrial school, which is practically a penal establishment. Yet not
only has this happened, but it took four months of constant applications to a Minister whose kindness was never
wanteared that this child might be handed over to the care of a gentleman who was willing to adopt him, and the
property vested in the hands of two most respectable trustees. With not much more than a thirtieth the
population of England, and with more even conditions of national well-being, we have about one-tenth the
English number of children in industrial and reformatory schools—that is, three times as many as we should
have by English proportions. This indeed seems to me very like communism.

Appendices.

Appendix A.
[See folding sheet, pp. 175-6.]

Appendix B.
See P 111.

A Bill
To extend the Powers and Benefits of the University of Melbourne.
WHEREAS a University consisting of a council and senate has been established at Melbourne for the
promotion of sound learning in the colony of Victoria and duly constituted and appointed a body politic and
and corporate by the name of "The University of Melbourne," according to the provisions of an Act entitled "An Act
to incorporate and endow the University of Melbourne" passed in the sixteenth year of the reign of her present
Majesty and numbered thirty-four: And whereas the said University has been of great service to education and
learning in the said colony of Victoria: And whereas it is expedient to enlarge the powers of and render the
instruction imparted by the said University available to all classes and denominations of Her Majesty's subjects
and to increase the staff of professors and lecturers and to give them a more direct share in the administration:
Be it therefore enacted, &c., &c.
1. The Acts mentioned in the First Schedule hereto shall be and the
   Schedule 1.
same are hereby repealed to the extent specified therein except as to all acts matters and things had done or
happened and all statutes and regulations made and all degrees conferred under or by virtue of the provisions of
the said Acts.
2. The council of the said University shall consist of thirty persons of whom not more than four shall be
   ministers of any religious denomination and shall be constituted as follows:—
   • The persons now forming the council shall continue members thereof and shall hold office for the terms
     of their natural lives unless their offices be vacated by resignation mental aberration or failure to attend
     meetings of the council as hereinafter mentioned:
   • The Governor in Council shall from time to time appoint two members from the roll of graduates of the
     University of Melbourne who shall hold office for the space of three years from such appointment:
   • The faculty of Medicine shall from time to time elect two members being respectively a professor and a
     lecturer of such faculty:
   • The faculty of Law shall from time to time elect two members out of such faculty who may both be
     lecturers in such faculty: and so soon as and whenever there are two professors in the faculty of Law then
     the faculty shall elect two members being respectively a professor and a lecturer of such faculty:
   • The Masters of Arts of the University of Melbourne until a faculty of Arts shall be constituted and after
     such faculty shall be constituted then such faculty of Arts shall elect two members being respectively a
     professor and a lecturer in the school or branch of study known as the Arts school until the constitution of
     such faculty as aforesaid, and after such constitution a professor and a lecturer of such faculty:
   • So soon as and whenever a faculty of Engineering and Practical Science shall be constituted such faculty
     shall elect from time to time while the number of members thereof shall not exceed ten one member of
     the said council being a professor or lecturer of such faculty, and when the number of members thereof
     shall exceed ten then two members of such council being a professor and a lecturer of such faculty:
   • The members of the council to be from time to time nominated and elected as aforesaid by the faculties of
Law Medicine and Engineering and Practical Science and the masters or faculty of Arts respectively (hereinafter referred to as the members of the council elected from the teaching body) shall take no part nor vote in the administration of the University finances, and the said members of the council elected by the teaching body shall hold office for two years from the date of their election respectively.

3. If any member whatever of the said council shall absent himself without special leave thereof previously granted from all meetings of the same during any period of six consecutive calendar months his place shall thereupon become vacant. And whenever a vacancy shall be caused in the said council by the death resignation mental aberration expiration of tenure or failure to attend meetings as aforesaid of or by any member being before this Act a member of the said council or of or by any member to be elected in his room under this provision, such vacancy shall be filled by the election of such person as the senate shall at a meeting to be duly convened for that purpose elect, and every such person to be so elected as aforesaid shall hold office for the term of five years from such his election; and whenever any vacancy shall be caused by the death resignation mental aberration expiration of tenure failure to attend meetings as aforesaid or otherwise of or by any member of the said council appointed by the Governor in Council as aforesaid or elected by the teaching body such vacancy shall be filled by the election of some person qualified in like manner as the deceased or vacating councillor by the Governor in Council or by the faculty school or body respectively which elected such deceased or vacating councillor, and such new member shall hold office for the like term from the date of such his election to that for which the deceased or vacating councillor was elected.

4. The said council shall elect out of their own body a chancellor and a vice-chancellor for such period respectively not exceeding in either case five years as the said council shall appoint, and whenever a vacancy shall occur in the office of chancellor or vice-chancellor either by death resignation mental aberration expiration of tenure or otherwise the said council shall elect out of their own body a chancellor or vice-chancellor as the case may be instead of the chancellor or vice-chancellor occasioning such vacancy.

5. The senate of the University shall consist of all persons heretofore admitted or who shall hereafter be admitted by the University to any of the degrees of—

- Master of Arts,
- Doctor of Science,
- Doctor of Literature,
- Doctor of Medicine,
- Master of Surgery,
- Doctor of Laws,
- Doctor of Music,
- Master of Engineering,
- Master of Practical Science,

and the said senate shall elect a warden out of their own body annually or whenever a vacancy shall occur,

6. All questions which shall come before the said council or senate respectively shall be decided by the majority of the members present who have power to vote on the question, and the chairman at any such meeting shall have a vote and in case of an equality of votes a casting vote; and no question shall be decided at any meeting of the said council unless six members thereof be present with power to vote on the question or at any meeting of the said senate unless twenty members thereof be present.

7. The said council shall have full power to appoint and dismiss all professors lecturers examiners officers and servants of the University, and shall have the entire management and superintendence of the affairs concerns moneys and property thereof subject to the statutes and regulations of the University, and shall fix the number stipend and manner of appointment and dismissal of the professors lecturers examiners officers and servants of the University; and shall have the right of final decisionion all matters whatsoever concerning the discipline teaching or administration of the University, with power to entertain and deal with any such matter direct or to remit the same for the opinion of or to be dealt with by the senate or any faculty school body or person or persons of the University: Provided that the members of the council elected from the teaching body shall not have power to take part in or vote in any division concerning the administration of the funds of the said University or the application thereof for any purpose or the ascertainment or determination of any stipend or payment or in any manner whatever in regard to the finances of the University.

8. The said council shall have full power to make any statutes and regulations and alter the same whether already made or hereafter to be made, and so as the same be not repugnant to any existing law or to the provisions of this Act touching the discipline of the University the number stipend and manner of appointment and dismissal of the officers thereof, the matriculation of students, the examination for fellowships scholarships prizes exhibitions degrees or honours and the granting of the same respectively, the fees to be paid as hereinafter mentioned, the lectures or classes of the professors and lecturers, the manner and time of convening the meetings of the said council and senate, and in general touching all other matters whatsoever regarding the
University: Provided always that no new statute or regulation or alteration or repeal of any existing statute shall be of any force until approved by the senate, and the senate shall have power to amend any such statute or regulation submitted by the council for their approval and to return the same so amended for reconsideration by the said council, but shall have no power to originate any statute or regulation.

9. The council shall have the power to confer after examination the several degrees of—

- Bachelor of Arts,
- Master of Arts,
- Doctor of Science,
- Doctor of Literature,
- Bachelor of Medicine,
- Doctor of Medicine,
- Bachelor of Surgery,
- Master of Surgery,
- Bachelor of Laws,
- Doctor of Laws,
- Bachelor of Music,
- Doctor of Music,
- Bachelor of Engineering,
- Master of Engineering,
- Bachelor of Practical Science,
- Master of Practical Science,

according to the statutes and regulations of the University: Provided always that it shall be lawful for the said University to make such statutes as the said University may deem fit for the admission without examination to any such degree of persons who may have graduated at any other University.

10. The council shall have power to confer certificates of merit or competency under and subject to such regulations as the University shall enact on persons who shall give evidence of proficiency in any of the following subjects:—

- Teaching,
- Mining,
- Agriculture,
- Forestry,
- Veterinary science,
- Pharmacy,
- Dentistry,
- Technology,
- Navigation, and
- Commerce;

and to grant the title of associate or of licentiate in one or more of these subjects as the University by statute shall enact; but no such title shall be deemed a degree in or to make the recipient a member of the governing body of the said University.

11. No religious test shall be administered to any person in order to entitle him or her to be admitted as a student of the said University or to hold office therein or to graduate thereat or to hold any advantage or privilege thereof.

12. It shall be lawful for any female to present herself for any examination held by the said University; and every female who shall have fulfilled the conditions prescribed by the statutes and regulations of the said University for the time being for matriculation or for admission to any degree may be admitted to matriculate or to such degree respectively in the said University. But the said council may preclude the attendance of females upon any course or courses of lectures in the said University: Provided always that if twenty matriculated female students offer themselves for a specified course of lectures which shall under the regulations for the time being form part of the course of study in any year for a degree or certificate of the University the council shall provide means for the delivery of such lectures to such female students therein.

13. After the passing of this Act no fee shall be payable for attendance upon any course of lectures or for admission to any examination or degree or for any certificate in the said University: Provided always that it shall be lawful for the council of the said University to require payment of the fees following, that is to say:—

- For admission to examination for matriculation and for admission to degrees and for certificates of engineer or of any examination respectively, the several sums respectively payable at the time of the passing of this Act in respect of such examination admission or certificate or any less sums.
- For admission to the degrees of Bachelor of Surgery and Master of Surgery, and to any of the degrees
which the council is hereby for the first time empowered to confer such respective sums as the University shall by statute enact.

- For admission to every examination other than the examination for matriculation or for certificates of competency and merit a deposit not exceeding Two pounds, such deposit to be returned to the candidate if he shall pass such examination.
- For admission to every examination for certificates of competency or merit under the tenth section of this Act a sum not exceeding Three pounds, such sum to cover the cost of the certificate if the candidates shall obtain the same.
- For attendance upon any course of dissections and of work in the chemical laboratory such fees as the council shall direct to meet the expenses thereof.

14. It shall be lawful for the council to lease any land granted or hereafter to be granted to the University and to apply the rents thereof in and towards payment of the current charges of the year: Provided that it shall not be lawful for the University to alienate mortgage charge or demise any lands tenements or hereditaments of which it shall be or become seised or to which it shall be or become entitled by grant purchase or otherwise unless with the approval of the Governor and Executive Council of the said colony.

15. It shall be lawful for the said Governor by warrant under his hand addressed to the public Treasurer of the said colony to direct to be issued and paid out of the general revenue thereof the sum of Thirty-two thousand pounds in every year as a fund for maintaining the University and the several faculties schools and branches of study thereof, and for defraying the several stipends which may be appointed to be paid to the several examiners and the professors officers and servants to be appointed by the University in each of the said faculties schools and branches of study, and for defraying the expense of such fellowships scholarships prizes and exhibitions as shall be awarded for the encouragement of students in the University, and for providing and maintaining a library for the same, and for discharging all necessary charges connected with the management thereof in the respective proportions which are specified in the Second Schedule hereto: Provided that Schedule 2.

the Governor in Council may from time to time alter the proportions in which the said fund is in the said Schedule applied for the purposes thereto mentioned: Provided further that it shall be lawful for the Governor in Council to pay to the University any capital sums in amounts of not less than One thousand pounds and to deduct the interest on such sums calculated at Five per cent, from the annual grant made to the University.

16. The said council shall during the month of May in every year report the proceedings of the University during the previous year to the Governor; and such report shall contain a full account of the income and expenditure of the said University audited in such a manner as the Governor may direct; and a copy of every such report and of all the statutes and regulations of the University allowed as aforesaid by the Governor shall be laid in each year before the Legislative Assembly.

17. The Governor of the said colony for the time being shall be the visitor of the University, and shall have authority to do all things which appertain to visitors as often as to him shall seem meet.

First Schedule.

Second Schedule.

Appendix C.

The following scheme shows the proposed distribution of the increased income of the University, as adopted by the Council:—

ARTS.

LAW.

MEDICINE.

ENGINEERING AND PRACTICAL SCIENCE.

VETERINARY SCHOOL.

MUSIC.

EXAMINERS.
In arts—Examiner in classics ... ... 100 0 0 Examiner in mathematics ... ... 100 0 0 Examiner in comparative anatomy and zoology ... ... 50 0 0 Examiner in geology and palaeontology 50 0 0 Examiner in political economy ... 50 0 0 Examiner in history ... ... 50 0 0 Examiner in natural philosophy ... 50 0 0 Examiner in logic ... ... 50 0 0 Examiner in English language and literature ... ... ... 50 0 0 550 0 0 Carried forward ... ... £25,200 0 0

Brought forward 550 0 0 25,200 0 0 Examiners in medicine—1. Elementary natural philosophy ... 50 0 0 2. Chemistry ... ... 50 0 0 3. Practical chemistry ... ... 50 0 0 4. Materia medica and therapeutics ... 50 0 0 5. Botany (for veterinary and medical school) ... ... ... 50 0 0 6. Anatomy ... ... ... 50 0 0 7. Pathology ... ... ... 50 0 8. Physiology ... ... ... 50 0 0 9. Theory and practice of medicine ... 50 0 0 10. Theory and practice of surgery ... 50 0 0 11. Obstetric medicine ... ... 50 0 0 12. Forensic medicine ... ... 50 0 0 13. Clinical medicine ... ... 50 0 0 14. Clinical surgery ... ... 50 0 0 15. Pharmacy ... ... 30 0 0 16. Dentistry ... ... 30 0 0 760 0 0 Examiners in—Veterinary school ... ... ... 150 0 0 Examiners in law—Jurisprudence ... ... ... Constitutional law ... ... ... International law ... ... ... The law of property ... ... 250 0 0 The law of obligations ... ... The law of wrongs ... ... The law of procedure ... ... Commercial law ... ... ... Examiners in—Engineering ... ... ... Practical science ... ... ... Technology ... ... ... Roughly estimated at Forestry ... ... ... Mechanics ... ... ... 550 0 0 0 Metallurgy ... ... ... Agricultural chemistry ... ... ... Mining ... ... ... 550 0 0 0 Carried forward ... ... ... £27,460 0 0

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<td>Brought forward</td>
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OFFICE.

OTHER ITEMS.
The expenditure under this head will be partially defrayed by the University receipts from fees.

Appendix D.

This schedule should be read as part of the chapter on the compulsory clauses, p. 64,

SCHEDULE VI.—RETURN OF TEACHER TO BOARDS OF ADVICE.

School No. 1600.

1st January to 31st March 1879

Children of School age on the School Roll ... ... ... 600 Attendances between 6 and 9, 50 days ... ... 230 Exempted, 40 days ... ... ... 30 Below statutory attendance ... ... ... 40 Attendances between 9 and 12, 40 days ... ... 160 Exempted, 32 days ... ... ... 20 Below statutory attendance ... ... ... 25 Attendances between 12 and 15, 30 days ... ... 70 Exempted, 24 days ... ... ... 10 Below statutory attendance ... ... ... 15 80 520 Full attendances ... ... ... ... ... 520 Defective attendances ... ... ... ... ... 80 600

Allotments of Staffs and Salaries.

FIXED Salaries and Premiums by way of results, to which will be added Bonuses for the Promotion of Pupil-teachers, in accordance with Regulation V.

Summarizing the text.

For schools having an average attendance under 100 the staff provided by the proposed regulations is more liberal than that allowed in England and Scotland; it is equivalent to that provided in Queensland, South Australia, New South Wales, and Canterbury; and is less liberal than that provided in Ireland.

In regard to schools with an attendance exceeding 500 a comparison can be made with England and Scotland only, as schools of this size are unknown in Ireland and the colonies before referred to, except where they serve some other purpose besides that of the ordinary public school (i.e., they serve as normal or model schools, &c.).

The proposed regulation provides a more liberal staff for schools between 500 and 1,000 than the English and Scotch codes, though the difference is not so great as in the schools below 500.

For a school of 1,000 the proposed Victorian regulation would require a staff of eight assistants and thirteen pupil-teachers, while the requirements of the English and Scotch codes would be met by a staff of four assistants and fifteen pupil-teachers or five assistants and thirteen pupil-teachers.

In the preparation of the Catalogue of THE MELBOURNE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION, 1880, the compiler has adopted and adhered to the classification announced in the original prospectus of the Exhibition. An Introduction containing a variety of statistical and other interesting and useful information precedes the List of Exhibits from each country, and will be found of value, as showing the resources and productions of each. Plans showing the various Courts, the Exhibition Grounds, and the places of entry and exit, will be found at the commencement of each volume; and the distribution of the space in the Picture Gallery precedes the Fine Arts Catalogue. The Catalogue is, in many respects, very imperfect. The compilation of the lists has had to be made, in most instances, rather from the applications sent in by intending exhibitors than from the exhibits themselves; and the result has been that some of the applicants having failed to avail themselves of the space allotted to them, their names and items will have to be expunged, while the particulars of others which were entered late were not in time for insertion. These defects will, however, be rectified in the second and subsequent editions of the Catalogue, and the work rendered as complete as possible.


Since the issue of the First Edition of the Official Catalogue the Lists of Exhibits in each Court have been re-compiled, and subsequently carefully scrutinised by the respective Executive Commissioners or Superintendents, so that they are now correct. The List of the Austrian Exhibits, and those of Ceylon and Fiji, have also been received and added to those previously published. Considerable improvements have also been effected in the Fine Arts department, and, besides extended notices of the Royal Exhibits, there has been appended a full description of the subjects portrayed in the collection known as the Victoria Cross Gallery. The Official Catalogue, therefore, now contains a complete record of the numerous Exhibits displayed in THE MELBOURNE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION.

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Various Paintings and Drawings.

CLASS 2.—Miniatures, water-colour paintings, pastels, and drawings of every kind. Paintings on enamel, earthenware, and porcelain. Cartoons for stained-glass windows and frescoes.

Sculpture and Die-Sinking.

CLASS 3.—Sculpture in high relief, bas-reliefs, chased and repousse work. Medals, cameos, engraved stones. Niello work.

Architectural Drawings and Models.

CLASS 4.—Studies and details. Elevations and plans of buildings. Restorations based upon existing ruins or documents.

Engravings and Lithographs.

CLASS 5.—Engravings, coloured engravings. Lithographs executed with pencil and with brush, chromo-lithographs.

Second Group.—Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.

Education of Children, Primary Instruction, Instruction of Adults.

CLASS 6.—Plans and models of orphan asylums, infant schools. System of management and furniture of such establishments. Appliances for instruction suitable for the physical, moral, and intellectual training of the child previous to its entering school.

Plans and models of scholastic establishments for town and country. System of management, and furniture for these establishments. Appliances for instruction: books, maps, apparatus, and models.

Plans and models of scholastic establishments for adult and professional instruction. System of
management and furniture for these establishments. Appliances for adult and professional instruction.
   Appliances for the elementary teaching of music, singing, foreign languages, book-keeping, political
   economy, practical agriculture and horticulture, technology, and drawing.
   Appliances adapted to the instruction of the blind and of deaf mutes.
   Works of pupils of both sexes.
   Libraries and publications.

Organisation and Appliances for Secondary Instruction.

CLASS 7.—Plans and models of establishments for secondary instruction, lyceums, grammar schools,
colleges, industrial and commercial schools. Arrangement and furniture of such establishments.
   Collections, classical works, maps, and globes.
   Appliances for technological and scientific instruction, and for teaching the fine arts, drawing, music, and
   singing.
   Apparatus and methods for instruction in gymnastics, fencing, and military exercises.

Organisation, Methods, and Appliances for Superior Instruction.

CLASS 8.—Plans and models of academies, universities, medical schools, practical schools, technical and
practical schools, schools of agriculture, observatories, scientific museums, amphitheatres, lecture-rooms,
laboratories for instruction and research.
   Furniture and arrangement of such establishments.
   Apparatus, collections, and appliances intended for higher instruction and scientific research.
   Special exhibitions of learned, technical, agricultural, commercial, and industrial societies and institutions.
   Scientific expeditions.

Printing, Books.

CLASS 9.—Specimens of typography; autographic proofs; lithographic proofs, black or coloured; proofs of
engravings.
   New books and new editions of books already known; collections of works forming special libraries;
   periodical publications. Drawings, atlases, and albums.

Stationery, Bookbinding, Painting, and Drawing Materials.

CLASS 10.—Paper; card and pasteboard; inks; chalks; pencils; pastels; all things necessary for
writing-desks and offices; inkstands; apparatus for weighing letters, &c.; copying presses.
   Objects made of paper: lamp shades, lanterns, flower-pot covers.
   Registers, copybooks, albums, and memorandum books; bindings, loose covers for books, cases, &c.
   Various products used in water-colour painting and tinting: colours in cakes, pastels, bladders, tubes, and
   shells; instruments and apparatus for the use of painters, draughtsmen, engravers, and modellers.

General Application of the Arts of Drawing and Modelling.

CLASS 11.—Designs for industrial purposes; designs obtained, reproduced, or reduced by mechanical
processes. Decorative paintings, lithographs, chromo-lithographs, or engravings for industrial purposes. Models
and small articulated wooden models of figures, ornaments, &c.
   Carvings. Cameos, seals, and various objects decorated with engraving. Objects modelled for industrial
purposes produced by mechanical processes, reductions, photo-sculpture, &c. Casts.

Photographic Proofs and Apparatus.

CLASS 12.—Photographs on paper, glass, wood, stuffs, and enamel. Heliographic engravings, lithographic
proofs. Photo-lithographic proofs, photographic stereotypes, stereoscopic proofs, and stereoscopes. Enlarged
photographs. Coloured photographs.
   Instruments, apparatus, and chemicals necessary for photography. Materials and appliances used in
photographic studios.
Musical Instruments.

CLASS 13.—Non-metallic wind instruments: with common mouth-pieces, with reeds with or without air-reservoirs.
Metallic wind instruments, simple, with lengthening pieces, with slides, with piston, with keys, with reeds.
Wind instruments with keyboards: organs, accordions, &c.
Stringed instruments played with the fingers, or without keyboards.
Stringed instruments with keyboards; pianos, &c.
Instruments played by percussion or friction.
Automaton instruments, barrel organs, bird organs.
Separate parts of musical instruments and orchestral appliances.

Music, Hygiene, and Public Relief.

CLASS 14.—Appliances, instruments, and apparatus requisite for anatomical and histological works.
Plastic anatomical models.
Instruments of medical research.
Apparatus and instruments for dressing wounds and for simple surgery, general and local; anaesthetic apparatus.
Surgical instruments grouped according to their purposes; instruments for amputations and dissection.
Special instruments, obstetrics, ovariotomy, urinary channels, ophthalmology, dentistry, &c.;
electro-therapeutic apparatus.
Apparatus for plastic and mechanical prosthesis, orthopedic apparatus.
Trusses.
Apparatus for restoring persons apparently drowned or suffocated.
Baths and hydro-therapeutic apparatus; gymnastical apparatus for medical and hygienic purposes.
Plans and models of hospitals, various asylums, houses of refuge, poor-houses, lunatic asylums.
Arrangements and furniture of such establishments. Various apparatus for infirm persons, invalids, and lunatics.
Accessory objects for the medical, surgical, and pharmaceutical services in hospitals or infirmaries.
Chests and cases of instruments and medicines for military and naval surgeons. Means and apparatus for succouring the wounded on battle-fields. Civil and military ambulances.
Apparatus, instruments, apparatus, and all things requisite for veterinary surgery.

Mathematical and Philosophical Instruments.

CLASS 15.—Apparatus and instruments used for mathematical purposes.
Apparatus and instruments illustrating practical geometry, land-surveying, topography, and geodesy;
compasses, calculating machines, levels, mariners' compasses.
Apparatus and instruments for measurement: verniers, micrometric screws, dividing machines, &c.; scales for scientific uses.
Weights and measures of various countries. Coins and medals.

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CLASS 16.—Topographical, geographical, geological, hydrographical, and astronomical maps, atlases, &c.
Physical maps of every kind. Plans in relief.
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Cheap and Fancy Furniture.

CLASS 17.—Sideboards, book-cases, tables, dressing-tables, beds, sofas, couches, billiard, tables, &c.
Upholsterers' and Decorators' work.

CLASS 18.—Bed furniture, stuffed chairs, canopies, curtains, tapestry, and other hangings.

Crystal, Glass, and Stained Glass.

CLASS 19.—Drinking-glasses of crystal, cut glass, plated and mounted crystal, &c. Table glass. Common glass-bottles.
Window and mirror glass. Cast, enamelled, crackled, frosted, and tempered glass.
Glass, crystals for optical purposes, ornamental glass, &c.
Stained glass. Mirrors, looking-glasses, &c.
Venetian glass.

Pottery.


Carpets, Tapestry, and other Stuffs for Furniture.

CLASS 21.—Carpets and rugs, moquettes, tapestry, terry, and velvet pile, See. Felt carpets, matting, &c. India-rubber floorcloth, &c.
Furniture stuffs of cotton, wool, or silk, plain or figured. Horse-hair fabrics and leather cloths, moleskins, &c. Leather for hangings, for covering furniture, &c. Oilcloths.

Paper-Hangings.


Cutlery.

CLASS 23.—Knives, penknives, scissors, razors, &c. Cutlery of every description.

Goldsmiths' and Silversmiths' work.

CLASS 24.—Church plate, ornamental plate, and table plate; gold and silver toilet articles; writing materials, &c. Electrotypes.
Enamels, cloisonne, champlevé.

Bronzes and Various art Castings and Repoussé work.

CLASS 25.—Statues and bass-reliefs in bronze, cast-iron, zinc, Sec. Castings coated with other metals by galvanic action.
Repoussé work in copper, lead, zinc, Sec.

Clocks and Watches.

CLASS 26.—Separate parts of clocks of large or small size.
Watches, chronometers, pedometers; various time-keepers, &c. Time-pieces and clocks working by springs or weights, regulators, metronomes.

Apparatus and Processes for Heating and Lighting.

Perfumery.

CLASS 28.—Cosmetics and pomatums. Perfumed oils, essences, extracts and scents, aromatic vinegar; almond paste; perfumed powders, pastilles, and scent bags; perfumes for burning. Toilet soap.

Leather work, Fancy Articles, and Basket-Work.


Fourth Group.—Textile Fabrics, Clothing, and Accessories.

Cotton Thread and Fabrics.


Thread and Fabrics of Flax, Hemp, &C.

CLASS 31.—Flax, hemp, and other vegetable fibres spun. Linen and drills. Cambric. Linen fabrics mixed with cotton or silk. Fabrics made from vegetable fibres as substitutes for flax and hemp.

Worsted Yarn and Fabrics.

CLASS 32.—Carded wool, worsted yarn. Muslins, delaine, Scotch cashmere, merinos, serges, &c. Ribbons and laces of wool, mixed with cotton or thread, silk or floss silk. Hair tissues, pure or mixed.

Woollen Yarn and Fabrics.

CLASS 33.—Combed wool and woollen yarn. Cloth and other woollen fabrics. Blankets. Felt of wool or hair for carpets or hats. Shoes. Woollen fabrics, unmilled or slightly milled; flannels, tartans, swansdown.
Silk and Silk Fabrics.

CLASS 34.—Raw and thrown silk. Floss silk yarn. Silk fabrics, pure, plain, figured, brocaded. Silk fabrics mixed with gold, silver, cotton, wool, or thread. Manufactures of floss silk, pure or mixed. Velvet and plush. Silk ribbons, pure or mixed.

Shawls.

CLASS 35.—Woollen shawls, pure or mixed. Cashmere shawls. Silk shawls, &c.

Lace, Net, Embroidery, and Trimmings.

CLASS 36.—Thread or cotton lace made with the distaff, the needle, or the loom. Lace made of silk, worsted, or mohair. Gold and silver lace. Silk or cotton net, plain or figured. Tambour embroidery, crochet-work, &c. Gold, silver, and silk embroidery. Church embroidery. Embroidery, tapestry, and other work done by the hand. Lace-work and trimmings of silk, floss silk, worsted, mohair, horsehair, thread, and cotton; laces. Lace-work and trimmings, real or imitation; lace-work for military uniforms.

Hosiery and Underclothing and Accessories of Clothing.

CLASS 37.—Hosiery of cotton, thread, wool, cashmere, silk, or floss silk, pure or mixed. Elastic fabrics. Underclothing for men, women, and children; baby linen. Flannel and other woollen garments. Stays, scarves, gloves, gaiters, garters, braces, fans, screens, umbrellas, parasols, walking-sticks, &c.

Clothing for both Sexes.

CLASS 38.—Men's clothes; women's clothes. Waterproof clothing. Men's and women's head-dresses; artificial flowers and feathers. Wigs and works in hair. Boots and shoes. Children's clothes. Clothing peculiar to various professions and trades. Native costumes of different countries.

Jewellery and Precious Stones.


Portable Weapons and Hunting and Shooting Equipments.

Travelling Apparatus and Camp Equipage.

CLASS 41.—Trunks, valises, saddle-bags, &c. Dressing-cases and travelling-cases. Various objects. Travelling-rugs, cushions, caps, travelling costumes and boots, iron-shod sticks, grapnel-hooks, sun-shaded, &c.

Portable apparatus specially intended for scientific voyages and expeditions; travelling photographic apparatus and instruments for astronomical and meteorological observations; equipments and implements for geologists, mineralogists, naturalists, colonists, pioneers, &c.

Tents and camp equipage. Beds, hammocks, folding-chairs, &c.

Toys.

CLASS 42.—Dolls and playthings; dolls and figures in wax.
Games for the amusement of children and adults.
Instructive games.

Fifth Group.—Raw and Manufactured Products.

Products of the Cultivation of Forests and of the Trades Appertaining Thereto.

CLASS 43.—Specimens of different kinds of forest trees.
Wood for cabinet work, for firewood, and for building. Timber for shipbuilding; staves; cleft timber shingles.
Cork: bark for textile purposes. Tanning, colouring, odoriferous, and resinous substances.
Products obtained from forests: charcoal and dried wood; raw potash; turnery; basket-work; straw-work; wooden shoes, &c.

Products of Hunting, Shooting, Fishing, and Spontaneous Products. Machines and Instruments Connected Therewith.

CLASS 44.—Collections and drawings of terrestrial and amphibious animals; of birds, eggs, fishes; of cetacea of mollusca, and Crustacea.
Products of hunting and shooting: furs and skins, hair, bristles, undressed feathers, down, horn, teeth, ivory, bone, tortoise-shell, musk, castoreum, and analogous products.
Vegetable products of the earth, obtained without culture: mushrooms, truffles, wild fruit, lichens used as dyes, food and fodder; fermented sap; Peruvian bark; useful barks and filaments; wax, resinous gums; india-rubber, gutta-percha, &c.
Traps and snares: fishing lines and hooks, harpoons, nets, bait, and fishing apparatus.
Apparatus and instruments for gathering the products obtained without culture.

Agricultural Products not used for Food.

CLASS 45.—Textile materials: raw cotton, flax and hemp, scutched and unscutched; textile vegetable fibres of all kinds; wool, washed and unwashed; cocoons of the silkworm.
Various agricultural products used in manufactures, in pharmacy, and for household purposes; oleaginous plants; oil, wax, resin.
Tobacco in leaves or manufactured. German tinder. Tanning and dyeing substances.
Preserved fodder, and substances specially intended for feeding cattle.

Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products.
CLASS 46.—Acids, alkalies, salts of all kinds. Sea salt and products extracted from mother water.
Various products of chemistry: wax and fatty substances; soaps and candles; raw materials used in perfumery; resins, tar, and the products derived from them; essences and varnishes; various coating substances; blacking. Objects made of india-rubber and gutta-percha. Dyes and colours.
Mineral waters and natural and artificial aerated waters. Raw materials used in pharmacy. Medicines, simple and made-up.

Chemical Processes for Bleaching, Dyeing, Printing, and Dressing.

CLASS 47.—Specimens of threads and fabrics, bleached or dyed. Specimens of fabrics prepared for dyeing.
Specimens of printed or dyed linen, of printed cotton fabrics, pure or mixed,
Specimens of printed worsted or woollen fabrics, pure or mixed, combed or carded.
Specimens of printed silk fabrics, pure or mixed.
Specimens of printed felt or cloth carpets. Oilcloth.

Leather and Skins.

CLASS 48.—Raw materials used in the dressing of skins and leather.
Raw hides, salted hides. Tanned, curried, dressed, or dyed leather. Varnished leather.
Morocco and sheepskin; skins grained, shamoyed, tawed, dressed, or dyed. Prepared skins for glove-making. Skins and furs, dressed and dyed. Parchment.
Gutwork: strings for musical instruments, gold-beater's skin, sinews.

Sixth Group.—Machinery, Apparatus, and Processes used in the Mechanical Industries.

Agricultural Implements and Processes used in the Cultivation of Fields and Forests.

CLASS 49.—Plans of culture, distribution, and management of crops. Apparatus and works for agricultural engineering, draining, irrigation, &c. Plans and models of farm buildings.
Tools, implements, machines, and apparatus used in husbandry, sowing and planting, harvesting, preparation and preservation of crops.
Various agricultural machines worked by horse-power or by steam.
Carts and other rural means of transport.
Locomotives, engines, and horse-powers.
Manures, organic or mineral.
Apparatus for the physical and chemical study of soils.
Plans of different systems of re-planting, managing, and cultivating forests.
Apparatus used in the cultivation of forests, and in the trades appertaining thereto.
Apparatus used in the manufacture of tobacco.

Apparatus and Processes used in Agricultural Works, and in Works for the Preparation of Food.

CLASS 50.—Apparatus used in agricultural works: manufacture of artificial manures; of drain pipes; cheese factories, dairies; apparatus used in preparing flour, fecula, starches, oils; apparatus used in breweries, distilleries, sugar manufactories and refineries; workshops for the dressing of textile materials; silk-worm nurseries, &c.
Apparatus used in the preparation of alimentary products, mechanical appliances for kneading and baking; apparatus used in making pastry and confectionery.
Apparatus for making ices and cool drinks; manufacture and preservation of ice.

**Apparatus used in Chemistry, Pharmacy, and Tanning.**

CLASS 51.—Laboratory utensils and apparatus.
Apparatus and instruments used in assays for industrial and commercial purposes.
Processes and apparatus used in the manufacture of chemicals, soaps, and candles.
Processes and apparatus used in the manufacture of essences, varnishes, and articles made of india-rubber and gutta-percha.
Processes and apparatus used in gasworks.
Processes and apparatus used in bleaching.
Processes used in the preparation of pharmaceutical products.
Processes used in tanyards, and in leather dressing.
Processes and apparatus used in glassworks, and in china and earthenware manufactories.

**Machines and Apparatus in General.**

Lubricators.
Machines for counting and registering. Dynamometers, steam gauges, weighing machines. Gauges for liquids and gas.
Machines used for moving heavy weights.
Hydraulic machines for raising water, &c.; norias (chain pumps), scoop wheels, hydraulic rams, &c.
Hydraulic engines, water wheels, turbines; hydraulic lifts; centrifugal, steam, and other pumps.
Accumulators and hydraulic presses.
Steam engines. Boilers, steam generators, and apparatus appertaining thereto.
Apparatus for condensing steam.
Machines set in motion by the evaporation of ether, chloroform, ammonia, or by a combination of gases.
Machines set in motion by gas, hot air, and compressed air.
Electro-magnetic machines. Windmills and panemones. Air balloons.

**Machine Tools.**

CLASS 53.—Travelling circular saw benches, self-acting, for breaking down heavy timber. Machines for boring timber used in fencing.
Engines and tools for preparing wood for the workshop. Machines for making casks.
Machines for cutting cork. Lathes, boring and planing machines. Slotting, drilling, and shaping machines.
Screw-cutting engines and riveting machines. Various kinds, of tools used in machine workshops.
Tools, engines, and apparatus for pressing, crushing, working-up, sawing, polishing, &c. Special tools and engines used in various trades.

**Apparatus and Processes used in Spinning and Rope-Making.**

CLASS 54.—Hand-spinning apparatus. Separate parts of spinning apparatus. Machines and apparatus used in the dressing and spinning of textile materials. Apparatus and processes for the subsidiary operations appertaining thereto; for drawing, winding, twisting, throwing, dressing. Apparatus for separating the qualities and numbering the thread.
Materials used in rope manufacture. Round, flat, tapering cables; cord and twine, wire ropes, cables with wire core, rope matches, quick-matches, &c.

**Apparatus and Processes used in Weaving.**

Hand looms and mechanical looms for the manufacture of plain fabrics. Looms for the manufacture of figured and brocaded stuffs: damask looms, electric looms.
Looms for the manufacture of carpets and tapestry.
Mesh weaving looms for the manufacture of hosiery and net. Apparatus for making lace. Apparatus used in the manufacture of lace-work.
High warp looms and different modes of preparing the bobbins for weaving. Accessory apparatus: machines for fulling, calendering, figuring, watering, measuring, folding, &c.

**Apparatus and Processes for Sewing and for Making-Up Clothing.**

CLASS 56.—Ordinary implements used by tailors and seamstresses. Sewing, quilting, hemming, and embroidering machines.
Implement for cutting out materials and leather for making garments and shoes.
Machines for making, nailing, and screwing boots and shoes.
Machines for the application of india-rubber.

**Apparatus and Processes used in the Manufacture of Furniture and Objects for dwellings.**

CLASS 57.—Machines for cutting veneers. Turning webs, vertical and circular saw frames, shingle cutters, &c.
Machines for cutting the mouldings and beadings of frames, the squares of inlaid floors, furniture, &c.
Lathes and other apparatus used in carpentering and cabinet-making.
Machines for stamping and burnishing. Machines and apparatus for working stucco, papier-maché, ivory, bone, and horn.
Machines for pointing, carving, and reducing statues; for engraving, engine-turning, &c.
Machines for making bricks and tiles; machines for making artificial stones.
Machines for sawing and polishing hard stones, marbles, &c.

**Apparatus and Processes used in Paper-Making, Dyeing, and Printing.**

CLASS 58.—Materials and products of the manufacture of pulps for making paper, of wood, straw, alpha, &c.
Processes and products of the bleaching of wood fibre.
Apparatus for making paper by hand and by machinery. Apparatus for pressing, glazing, watering, embossing, and ruling paper. Machines for cutting out, paring, stamping paper, &c.
Apparatus for bleaching and dyeing, and for the preparation of paper and tissues.
Apparatus for printing paper-hangings and tissues. Machines for engraving cylinders for printing.
Materials, apparatus, and products of type-founding, stereotypes, &c.
Machines and apparatus used in typography, stereotyping, copper-plate printing, autography, lithography, chalcography, pan iconography, chromo-lithography, &c. Machines for setting-up and sorting types. Printing of bank notes, postage stamps, &c.

**Machines, Instruments, and Processes used in Various Works.**

CLASS 59.—Coining presses.
Machines for making buttons, pens, pins, envelopes; packing machines, brush-making machines, machines for making cards, capsules; for affixing lead seals to merchandise; for corking bottles, &c.
Tools for, and processes of, making clocks, toys, marqueterie, baskets, &c.
Machines for binding books. Writing machines.

**Carriages and Wheelwrights; Work.**

CLASS 60.—Separate parts of wheels and carriages: wheels, tires, axles, axle-boxes, ironwork, &c. Springs and various methods of hanging carriages.
Different systems of harnessing. Brakes.
Wheelwrights’ work: wagons, tumbrils, drays, and other vehicles for special purposes.
Carriages: public, state, and private carriages; sedan chairs, litters, sledges, &c.; velocipedes.
Harness and Saddlery.

CLASS 61.—Various articles used for carriage horses and saddle horses; pack-saddles, saddles, bridles, and harness for saddle horses, beasts of burden, and draught horses; stirrups, spurs, whips.

Railway Apparatus.

CLASS 62.—Separate parts: springs, buffers, brakes.
Permanent way: rails, chairs, crossings, switches, fish plates, turn tables; buffers, feeding cranes, and tanks; optical and acoustic signals.
Permanent way for tramways.
Rolling stock: waggons for passengers, for carrying earth, goods, cattle; locomotives, tenders.
Self-moving carriages; locomotives, for roads.
Special tools and machines for the maintenance, repair, and construction of railways.
Apparatus for inclined planes and self-acting planes; apparatus and engines for atmospheric railways; models of engines, of systems of traction, of apparatus appertaining to railways.
Models, plans, and drawings of platforms, stations, and engine houses, and other buildings necessary for the working of railways.

Telegraphic Apparatus and Processes.

CLASS 63.—Appliances for telegraphs based on the transmission of light, sound, &c.
Apparatus for the electric telegraph, posts, wires, stretchers, &c.
Batteries and apparatus for sending and receiving messages.
Bells and electric signals.
Telegraphs for military purposes. Objects appertaining to telegraphy: lightning conductors, commutators, prepared paper for printing messages and for sending autographic messages.
Special apparatus for pneumatic telegraphy.

Apparatus and Processes of Civil Engineering, Public Works, and Architecture.

CLASS 64.—Building materials: stone, wood, metals; ornamental stone; lime, mortar, cements, artificial stone, and concrete; asphalt; roofing tiles, bricks, paving tiles; slates, pasteboard, and felt for roofing.
Apparatus and products of processes used in the preservation of wood. Apparatus and instruments for testing building materials.
Apparatus for earthworks, excavators. Apparatus used in building yards. Tools and processes used by stone dressers and cutters, masons, carpenters, tilers, blacksmiths, joiners, glaziers, plumbers, house painters, &c.
Locksmiths' work; locks, padlocks, railings, balconies, banisters, &c.
Apparatus and engines used in making foundations; pile drivers and pile work, screw piles, pumps, pneumatic apparatus, dredging machines, &c. Apparatus used in hydraulic works connected with harbours, canals, rivers; machines used in reducing stones, quartz, or other hard substances.
Apparatus used in the supply of water and of gas. Apparatus used in the maintenance of roads, plantations, and public walks.
Models, plans, and drawings of public works; bridges, viaducts, aqueducts, drains, canal bridges, dams, weirs, &c.
Lighthouses. Public buildings for special purposes; buildings for civil purposes; mansions and houses for letting; workmen's towns, industrial dwellings, &c.

Navigation and Life-Saving.

CLASS 65.—Drawings and models of slips, graving docks, floating docks, &c.
Drawings and models of vessels of all kinds, sea-going and for rivers. Models of the systems of ship-building adopted in the navy.
Boats and barges.
Materials for the rigging of ships.
Flags and signals. Apparatus for the prevention of collisions at sea. Buoys, beacons, &c.
Apparatus for swimming, diving, and life-saving; floats, swimming belts, &c. Diving belts, cork jackets,

Materials and Apparatus for Military Purposes.

CLASS 66.—Military engineering and fortifications.
Artillery, gun-carriages, and weapons and projectiles of every kind.
Military equipment, clothing, and encampments.
Military transport service.
Military topography and geography.

Seventh Group—Alimentary Products.

Cereals, Farinaceous Products, and Products Derived from them.

CLASS 67.—Wheat, rye, barley, rice, maize, millet, and other cereals in grain and in flour.
Grain without husk, and groats.
Fecula from potatoes, rice, lentils, &c., gluten.
Tapioca, sago, arrowroot, cassava, and other fecula, compound farinaceous products, &c.
Italian pastes, semolina, vermicelli, macaroni.
Alimentary preparations as substitutes for bread, home-made paste, &c.

Bread and Pastry.

CLASS 68.—Various kinds of bread, with or without yeast, fancy bread and bread in shapes, compressed bread for travelling, military campaigns, &c. (See Biscuits.) Pastry of various kinds peculiar to each country. Gingerbread and dry cakes capable of being preserved.

Fatty Substances used as Food. Milk and Eggs.

CLASS 69.—Fatty substances and oils good for food.
Fresh and preserved milk; fresh and salt butter; cheese.
Eggs of all kinds.

Meat and Fish.

CLASS 70.—Salt meat of all kinds. Meats preserved by various processes. Meat and soup cakes. Hams and prepared meats.
Poultry and game.
Salt fish, fish in barrels: cod, herrings, &c.; fish preserved in oil: sardines, tunny, &c.
Crustacea and shell fish: lobsters, shrimps, oysters, potted oysters, anchovies, &c.

Vegetables and Fruit.

CLASS 71.—Tubers: potatoes, &c.
Dry farinaceous vegetables: beans, lentils, &c.
Green vegetables for cooking: cabbages, &c.
Vegetable roots: carrots, turnips, &c.
Vegetables used for flavouring: onions, garlic, &c.
Salads, cucumbers, gourds, pumpkins, melons, &c.
Vegetables preserved by various processes.
Fresh fruit; dried and prepared fruits: prunes, figs, raisins, &c.
Fruits preserved without sugar.
Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery.

CLASS 72.—Spices, pepper, cinnamon, allspice, &c.
Table salt.
Vinegar.
Compound condiments and stimulants: mustard, kari, English sauces, &c.
Tea, coffee, and other aromatic beverages, chicory and sweet acorn coffee.
Chocolate.
Sugar for household purposes: grape sugar, sugar of milk.
Confectionery: sugar plums, bonbons, nougats, angelica, aniseed, &c., preserves and jellies.
Dried and preserved fruits: cedrates, lemons, oranges, pine-apples.
Fruits preserved in brandy.
Syrups and liqueurs.

Fermented Drinks.

CLASS 73.—Vin ordinaire, red and white.
Sweet wines and still wines.
Sparkling wines.
Ale, porter, cider, perry, and other beverages made from cereals.
Fermented drinks, made from vegetable sap, from milk, and sweet substances of all kinds.
Brandies and alcohols.
Spirits: whisky gin, rum, tafia, kirsch, &c.

Eighth Group.—Agriculture.

Specimens of Farm Buildings and Agricultural Works.

CLASS 74.—Examples of the farm buildings of various countries.
Examples of stables, cattle-sheds, sheepfolds, pig-sties, and of premises for rearing and fattening such animals.
Utensils used in stables, cattle sheds, kennels, &c.
Apparatus for preparing the food of animals.
Agricultural machinery in motion: steam ploughs, reaping and binding and mowing machines, hay-making machines, threshing, finishing, and dressing machines, &c.
Specimens of agricultural works: distilleries, sugar-mills, sugar refineries, breweries, works for the preparation of flour, fecula, starch; silkworm nurseries, &c. Apparatus for artificial hatching.
Presses for wine, cider, oil.

Ninth Group—Horticulture.

Conservatobies and Horticultural Apparatus.

CLASS 75.—Gardeners', nurserymen's, and horticulturists' tools.
Apparatus for watering and keeping turf in order, &c.
Large conservatories and apparatus appertaining thereto. Room and window conservatories.
Aquariums for aquatic plants.
Fountains and other means for ornamenting gardens.

Flowers and Ornamental Plants.
CLASS 76.—Species of plants and examples of culture exhibiting the characteristic types of the gardens and dwellings of each country.

Vegetables.

CLASS 77.—Species of plants and examples of culture exhibiting the characteristic types of the kitchen-gardens of each country.

Fruit and Fruit Trees.

CLASS 78.—Species of plants and specimens of products exhibiting the characteristic types of the orchards of each country.

Seeds and Saplings of Forest Trees.

CLASS 79.—Species of plants and specimens of products illustrating the processes followed in each country for planting forests.

Plants for Conservatories.

CLASS 80.—Illustrations of the mode of culture adopted in various countries, with a view either to pleasure or to utility.

Tenth Group.—Mining Industries—Machinery, and Products.

Apparatus and Processes of the Art of Mining and Metallurgy.


Mining and Metallurgy.

Victoria.

Statistical Account of the Colony of Victoria.

(By Henry Heylyn Hayter, F.S.S., F.R.C.I., Government Statist.)

Position.

1. Victoria is situated at the south-eastern extremity of, and is the southernmost colony in, the Australian Continent. It lies between the 34th and 39th parallels of south latitude and the 141st and 150th meridians of east longitude. Its extreme length from east to west is about 420, its greatest breadth about 250, and its extent of coast-line nearly 600 geographical miles.

Discovery.

2. The part of Australia now called Victoria was discovered by the eminent explorer, Captain Cook, in H.M.S. "Endeavour." He made the land on the 19th April, 1770, and estimated a prominent point, which he named after Lieutenant Hicks, one of the officers of his vessel who first observed it, to be in lat. 38° south, long. 148° 53 east. Cook, however, did not attempt to land, but passed on to other discoveries. It may be observed that Point Hicks appears to be identical with the present Cape Everard, in Gippsland, situated about midway between Cape Howe and the mouth of the Snowy River.

Early History.

3. New South Wales was colonised in 1788, and for nearly ten years afterwards nothing was done towards the exploration of the southern shores of Australia. At length George Bass, a surgeon in the Royal Navy, started in a whaleboat, manned by six seamen, and, passing Cape Howe, coasted along that part of Victoria now called Gippsland, and rounding Wilson's Promontory—the southernmost point on the Australian Continent—entered Western Port on the 4th June, 1798. He, however, returned to Sydney without discovering Port Phillip, which was first entered on the 5th January, 1802, by Acting-Lieutenant John Murray, in command of the armed brig "Lady Nelson." In the month of October, in the following year, an attempt was made to colonise Port Phillip by Lieutenant-Colonel David Collins, of the Royal Marines, in command of a party of convicts. Collins, however, after the expiration of three months, abandoned the country as unfit for settlement, and for the next twenty years the district attracted but little attention. When two explorers—Hume and Hovell—made their way overland from Sydney, and, on their return, gave a satisfactory report of the country, the result was that a convict establishment was soon afterwards founded on Western Port Bay, which, however, was in a short time abandoned, apparently on economic grounds. The first permanent settlement was formed at Portland Bay by Mr. Edward Henty, from Van Diemen's Land, as Tasmania was then called, who landed on the 19th November, 1834, and soon commenced to till the soil, run and breed stock, and carry on whaling operations. Others followed, but the absence of good land in the immediate vicinity of the port, and the openness of the bay, which rendered it unsafe for shipping during the prevalence of certain winds, caused it to be considered an unsuitable site for a capital, which was eventually founded on Hobson's Bay at the northern end of Port Phillip by two parties—one led by John Batman, who landed on the 29th May, 1835, and the other by John Pascoe Fawkner, whose party arrived at the site of Melbourne on the 28th August of the same year. Both these were from Van Diemen's Land, and they were soon followed by others from the same island, and from Sydney, who brought stock with them, and commenced to push their way into the interior. These were met by Major (afterwards Lieutenant-Colonel Sir) Thomas Mitchell, who, entering from New South Wales on the north, and traversing a considerable portion of the, as yet, unknown territory, was so struck with its wondrous capabilities that he
named it Australia Felix—a title the aptness of which a subsequent knowledge of the geniality of its climate, the excellence of its soil, and the then unsuspected richness of its mineral treasures, has proved to be fully justified. The reports of Sir Thomas Mitchell and the success of the first settlers caused great excitement, not only in the Australian settlements but in the mother-country. Herds of sheep and cattle, driven overland from New South Wales, speedily occupied the best parts of the new territory. Every available craft capable of floating was put into requisition to bring passengers and stock from Van Diemen's Land, and after a time shiploads of immigrants began to arrive from the United Kingdom. Regular government was first established under Captain William Lonsdale, who, having been sent from Sydney to take charge of the district, landed on the 29th September, 1836; and on the 2nd March of the following year Sir Richard Bourke, the Governor of New South Wales, visited it, and named the metropolis Melbourne. Mr. Charles Joseph La Trobe arrived on the 30th September, 1839, having been appointed to the principal official position in the settlement under the title of Superintendent, which was changed to that of Lieutenant-Governor, when, on the 1st July, 1851, it was separated from New South Wales, and erected into a separate colony under the name of Victoria. Shortly after that, rich deposits of gold were discovered, the fame of which soon spread throughout the world, and led to a great influx of population. After a time some discontent arose amongst the diggers, in consequence of the oppressive character of the mining regulations, which culminated in riots, which occurred on the Ballarat goldfield towards the end of 1854. The disturbance was soon quelled, with some bloodshed on both sides, and the grievances complained of were afterwards redressed. A new Constitution giving responsible Government to the colony was proclaimed on the 23rd November, 1855, and since then, although political struggles have been frequent, and party feeling has at times run high, this has had no permanent effect in setting class against class, or in any way lessening the good feeling which exists between all sections of the community. At times commerce has been depressed; but this has soon revived, and the material prosperity the colony has, upon the whole, enjoyed, is perhaps without a parallel in the history of any other country.

Area.

4. The area of Victoria is 88,198 square miles, or 56,446,720 acres. The whole Continent of Australia is estimated to contain 2,972,346 square miles, and therefore Victoria occupies about a thirty-fourth part of its surface. Great Britain, exclusive of the islands in the British seas, contains 89,644 square miles, and is therefore slightly larger than Victoria.

Boundaries.

5. On the north and east Victoria is bounded by the River Murray, and by a right line running in a south-easterly direction from a place near the head waters of that stream, called The Springs on Forest Hill, to Cape Howe. On the west it is bounded by South Australia, the dividing line being about 242 geographical miles in length, approximating to the position of the 141st meridian of east longitude, and extending from the River Murray to the sea. The southern boundary is formed by the Southern Ocean, Bass's Straits, and the Pacific Ocean.

Physical Features.

6. Victoria is traversed, with more or less regularity, throughout its entire length from east to west by a chain of mountains and lesser hills, completely dividing it into two parts, and known as the Dividing Range. The summit of this range runs generally at a distance of 60 or 70 miles from the coast. The streams to the north of it flow towards the River Murray, and those to the south of it towards the sea. The eastern part of the range, which divides the Gippsland District from that of the Murray, is named the Australian Alps; and that part which separates the County of Ripon from that of Borung, and extends into the County of Kara Kara, is named the Pyrenees. The higher peaks of the Dividing Range are covered with snow for several months in the year. The mountainous country is for the most part densely wooded to the very summits with fine timber, but the peaks above the winter snow line are quite bare, or only partially covered with dwarfed trees or shrubs. From near Kilmore eastward, a distance of 200 miles, the mountains are generally so steep and inaccessible as to present a considerable barrier between the parts of the colony north and south of them, and they can only be traversed with great labour by the few passes that exist. From Kilmore westward the range rapidly dwindles, so that, although presenting in places points of considerable height—such as Mount William and Mount Macedon—it is easily crossed. From Mount Macedon it becomes, as it stretches away to the Western District, a chain of hills, in parts only of considerable altitude, and offering no serious obstructions to crossing in very many places. That portion of the Murray basin commencing at Wodonga on the east as a point, and extending in the form of a regular triangle to a width of 200 miles along the western boundary of Victoria, has almost a flat surface, with a
very slight inclination towards the Murray. The remaining country north and south of the Dividing Range and its spurs is moderately undulating; it is in some parts destitute of timber, but closely wooded in others.

Mountains.

7. Besides the main Dividing Range, there are also other ranges extending in different parts of the country, many of them being spurs of the main chain. The highest peaks are found in the Dividing Range and its offshoots, between St. Clair and the eastern boundary of Victoria. The chief of these are:—The Bogong Range, 6508 feet; Mount Feathertop, 6303 feet; Mount Hotham, 6100 feet; Cobberas, 6025 feet; Mount Cope, 6015 feet; Mount Bulla, 5911 feet; Gibbo Range, 5764 feet; Mount Wills, 5758 feet; Mount Howitt, 5715 feet; Mount Buffalo, 5645 feet; The Twins, 5575 feet; Mount Tamboritha, 5381 feet; Mount Wellington, 5363 feet; Mount Cobbler, 5342 feet; and Mount Kent, 5129 feet. So far as is at present known by observation, there are at least 15 peaks over 5000 feet high, and 15 between 4000 and 6000 feet. There are, however, many peaks above 4000 feet whose actual heights have not yet been determined.

Rivers.

8. The rivers in Victoria are, for the most part, inconsiderable. Many of them are liable to be partially dried up during the summer months, so as to be reduced at that season to mere chains of pools or waterholes. With the exception of the Yarra, on the banks of which the metropolis is situated; the Goulburn, which empties itself into the Murray about eight miles to the eastward of Echuca; and the Murray itself, with, perhaps, some of the Gippsland streams, not one of them is navigable except by boats. As, however, they drain the watershed of large areas of country, some have already been, and others will ultimately be, made feeders to permanent reservoirs for the purposes of irrigation, gold washing, and manufactures. The Murray, which forms the northern boundary of the colony, is the largest river in Australia. Its total length is 2400 miles, for 670 of which it flows along the Victorian border. The names and lengths of the other principal Victorian rivers are as follow:—The Goulburn, 230 miles; the Glenelg, 205 miles; the Loddon, 150 miles; the Wimmera, 135 miles; the Avoca, 130 miles; the Hopkins, 110 miles; the Wannon, 105 miles; the Ovens, 100 miles; the Latrobe, 90 miles; the Mitta Mitta, 90 miles; the Yarra Yarra, 90 miles.

Lakes.

9. Victoria contains numerous salt and fresh-water lakes and lagoons, but many of these are nothing more than swamps during dry seasons. Some of them are craters of extinct volcanoes. Lake Corangamite, the largest inland lake in Victoria, covers 76 square miles, and is quite salt, notwithstanding its augmentation by numerous fresh-water streams. It has no visible outlet. Lake Colac, only a few miles distant from Lake Corangamite, is a beautiful sheet of water, 10 square miles in extent, and quite fresh. Lake Burrumbeet is also a fine sheet of fresh water, embracing 8½ square miles. The Gippsland lakes—Victoria, King, and Reeve—are situated close to the coast, and are only separated from the sea by a narrow belt of sand. Through this there is an entrance which is often navigable, but is subject to be closed at irregular intervals in consequence of the shifty nature of the sand at its mouth. Works have been commenced with the view of making the entrance permanent. Lake Wellington, the largest of all the Gippsland lakes, lies to the westward of Lakes Victoria and Reeve, and is united with the first-named by a narrow channel. South-east of Geelong is Lake Connewarre, connected with the sea at Point Flinders.

Climate.

10. From its geographical position Victoria enjoys a climate more suitable to the European constitution than any other colony upon the continent of Australia, as within a comparatively limited area it possesses the climatic advantages of the more favoured portions of Southern Europe. Upon examining a chart showing isothermal lines, it will be found that Melbourne is situated upon or near the line corresponding with that in the Northern Hemisphere on which Marseilles, Bordeaux, Bologna, Nice, Verona, and Madrid are situated. The difference, however, between summer and winter, and the hottest and coldest month, is far less in Melbourne than in any of these places. In the ten years ended with 1879, the maximum temperature in the shade was 111°, which occurred once only, the minimum was 27°, which also occurred only once, and the mean was 57°. Upon the average on four days during the year the thermometer rises above 100° in the shade; and generally on about three nights during the year it falls below freezing point. The mean atmospheric pressure, noted at an observatory 91 feet above the sea-level, was in the same ten years 29.93 inches; the average cumber of wet days was 132, and the average yearly rainfall was 28 inches.
Population.

11. The territory of Victoria, as has been already stated, occupies no more than the thirty-fourth part of the Australian Continent. Owing to various causes, however, such has been its attractiveness as compared with the other colonies of the group that 43 per cent. of the inhabitants of the whole continent have taken up their abode in this colony. The population at the last census, which was taken on the 2nd April, 1871, was 731,628. Between that period and the end of 1879 the inhabitants are estimated to have increased to 899,333, or by nearly 23 per cent. This large increase in less than nine years occurred after State-assisted immigration had virtually stopped, and irrespective of any special attractions offered by the discovery of new goldfields of importance, since none such were opened up during the period.

Males and Females.

12. At the end of 1879 males numbered 489,559; females, 409,774. These numbers show an average of 84 females to 100 males, or 119 males to 100 females. The relative proportions of the sexes have not changed in Victoria during the last seven years.

Population of Principal Towns.

13. The metropolis of Victoria is Melbourne, the most populous and important city in the Southern Hemisphere. With its immediate suburbs, consisting of sixteen municipalities, all lying within a radius of ten miles from the centre of the city, it is estimated to contain 265,000 inhabitants. Next to Melbourne, the most populous cities in Victoria are Ballarat, consisting of three, and Sandhurst, consisting of two municipalities. Each of these is situated in the centre of an extensive gold-mining district, and contains about 33,000 inhabitants. Next to these towns is Geelong, an important seaport town, situated on Corio Bay, a branch of Port Phillip, consisting of three municipalities, and containing 23,000 inhabitants. The total urban population of Victoria amounts to 460,000, or rather more than half the population of the colony.

Houses.

14. The number of inhabited dwellings in Victoria at the time of the census of 1871 was 158,481, in which 731,528 persons were housed, this being the total land population of the colony, exclusive of persons actually travelling. This shows a proportion of nearly five persons to a house, or more correctly, of forty-six persons to ten houses. The dwellings in the colony have not been enumerated since the census, but the number rated in municipal districts was returned in 1879 as 185,713, or 27,232 more than the whole number at the census.

Municipalities.

15. Municipalities in Victoria are of two kinds, the first being called cities, towns, and "boroughs, and the second, shires. They are regulated under an Act of the Legislature, each municipality being a body corporate with perpetual succession, and a common seal, and capable of suing and being sued, and of purchasing, holding, and alienating land. The cities, towns, and boroughs number fifty-seven, and the shires 115. Together, they covered, in 1879, an extent of 79,348 square miles, or nine-tenths of the area of the colony, and contained 869,917 inhabitants, or thirty-two thirty-thirds of its population. The total value of rateable property in that year was assessed at £83,244,116, and the annual value at £7,141,649. Rates may be levied as low as 6d. in the and as high as 2s. 6d., but the most common rating is one shilling.

Immigration and Emigration.

16. More people come to Victoria than to any other of the Australasian colonies, and more depart therefrom than from any of the other colonies. In 1879 the arrivals numbered 44,384, and the departures 39,212; in the eleven years ended with that year, 378,085 persons came to, and 314,376 persons left the colony. The net gain by immigration during the period was 63,709. Immigrants to Victoria must pay their own passages, as of late years it has not been the policy of the colony to foster immigration by means of State assistance.

Nationality.

17. According to an estimate brought on to the year 1879, about 95 per cent, of the colonists are British subjects by birth, and only 5 per cent, are foreigners. The native Victorians number about 490,000, or 55 per
cent, of the population; the natives of other Australian colonies number 42,000; the English, 165,000; the Irish, 97,000; the Scotch, 54,000; the Chinese, 12,000 or 15,000; and the natives of other countries, about 36,000.

Religions.

18. The following is an estimate of the religions of the people, based upon the proportions found to exist at the census of 1871:—Protestants, 642,000; Roman Catholics, 211,000; Jews, 5000; Pagans, 22,000; and persons of other sects or of no denomination or religion, about 22,000.

Occupations.

19. The occupations are classified at the census under a great number of heads. Like the nationalities and religions, they have been brought on by estimates to the past year, and may be arranged in the following groups:—Ministering to Government, 5000; ministering to religion, 1000; ministering to health, 3000; ministering to law, 1400; ministering to education, 7000; ministering to art, science, and literature, 2300; traders, 13,000; assisting in exchange of money or goods, 9500; ministering to entertaining or clothing, 33,000; domestic servants, 28,000; contractors, artisans, and mechanics, 51,000; engaged in mining, 39,000; engaged in pastoral pursuits and agriculture, 110,000; engaged in land carriage, 15,000; engaged in sea navigation, 3000; dealing in food, 17,000; labourers, 34,000; wives, widows, children, &c., 500,000; following other pursuits or no occupation, about 20,000.

Aborigines.

20. It is estimated that, at the first colonisation of the district now called Victoria, the Aborigines numbered 5000. When the colony was separated from New South Wales, the number was officially stated to be 2693. In 1877, the Central Board for the Protection of the Aborigines took a census by means of which they ascertained that the Aboriginal population had become reduced to 1067, of whom 633 were males and 434 were females; the adults numbered 770, and the children 297; those entirely black numbered 774, and those of mixed blood 293.

Mining Population.

21. According to an estimate made in the Department of Mines, the gold-mining population in Victoria numbered at the end of 1879 37,553; of these 14,784 were engaged in quartz, and 22,769 in alluvial workings; 28,443 were Europeans, and 9110 were Chinese. The followers of this occupation in 1869 are estimated to have amounted to 63,787, and since then they have been gradually falling off in numbers.

Marriages, Births, and Deaths.

22. Marriages in Victoria numbered 4986 in 1879, or 5.61 to every 1000 of the population. This rate is low as compared with that which prevailed in Victoria formerly, but the decline has resulted not from any disinclination to marry on the part of either sex, or from inability to support a family, but from the number of single men at marriageable ages being abnormally small in proportion to the total population. This has arisen from the fact that at the time immigrants flocked to the colony in the early days of the gold discoveries, these consisted, to a very large extent, of adults without a corresponding proportion of younger persons, so that when immigration became very much reduced, there was an insufficient youthful class growing up to supply the places of those adults who had married, died, or left the colony. In proportion to the marriageable men living, the number marrying is, at the present time, as great as it was at any period of the colony's history. Births in 1879 numbered 26,839, or 30.21 per 1000 of the population. Owing to the same causes as those which have affected the marriage rate, the birth rate is not so high as formerly. Deaths in 1879 numbered 12,120, or 13.64 per 1000 of the population. This is a low proportion, especially for a country where the number of persons at the adult or strongest period of life is below the average. Seventeen deaths per 1000 persons living has been held by high authority to be a natural rate of mortality in countries where adults and children exist in their normal proportions, but few countries can boast of so low a rate. The births in 1879 exceeded the deaths by 14,719, or 121 per cent.

Naturalisation.

23. Letters of naturalisation are granted to aliens residing in Victoria upon their taking an oath of allegiance
to Her Majesty; but without becoming naturalised, alien friends resident in the colony may acquire real and personal property, and may convey, devise, and bequeath it in the same manner as if they had been British subjects by birth. Alien women married to British subjects become naturalised thereby. During the eleven years ended with 1879, the following persons of different nationalities have become naturalised:—French, 35; Belgians, 5; Dutch, 10; Austrians, 14; Germans, 546; Italians, 24; Spaniards, 4; Portuguese, 3; Russians, 9; United States subjects, 13; Chinese, 42; subjects to other countries, 251; total, 956.

**Parliament.**

24. There are two Houses of Legislature in Victoria—viz., the Upper House or Legislative Council, consisting of 30 members returned in six provinces, one member for each province retiring every two years, but being eligible for re-election, a property qualification existing for both electors and members; and the Lower House or Legislative Assembly, which consists of 86 members, returned in 55 districts or electorates. There is no property qualification for members of this House, and every male of 21 years of age or upwards, untainted by crime, is allowed a vote. In May of the present year (1880) the electors on the rolls of the Legislative Council numbered 32,772, and those on the rolls of the Legislative Assembly 200,701. Of the whole population of the colony 2 in every 9 are electors for the Lower House, and there is a member to every 10,457 persons. If Victoria were to be represented according to population in the same proportion as the United Kingdom, she would, instead of sending 86 members to Parliament, return only 16.

**Revenue and Expenditure.**

25. The revenue of Victoria in the financial year ended with the 30th June, 1879, was £4,621,520, and the expenditure was £4,833,379; the former was the largest amount ever raised in any year except 1877, and the latter was the largest amount ever spent in any year. The revenue per head was £5 5s. 3d., and the expenditure per head was £5 10s. 0¾d.; the amount raised by taxation was £1,730,088, or 37 per cent, of the whole revenue. The Customs revenue amounted to £1,378,384, the land revenue to £969,235, and the railway revenue to £1,222,241. These sums are included in the figures of revenue given above, but a sum of £1,402,214 spent during the year, resulting from the proceeds of loans, is not included in the amounts represented by the figures.

**Municipal Revenue and Expenditure.**

26. The revenue of municipalities in 1879 amounted to £1,053,488, and their expenditure to £1,012,280. The excess of revenue over expenditure was thus £41,205, or about 4 per cent. Although this was the case in the municipalities taken as a whole, the expenditure exceeded the revenue in 51 of those bodies—viz., 21 cities, towns, or boroughs, and 30 shires. The municipal revenue includes the State endowment, which amounted to £310,000.

**Public Debt.**

27. On the 30th June, 1879, the public debt of Victoria amounted to £20,048,222, which is equivalent to a proportionate indebtedness of £22 11s. 10½d. to every man, woman, and child in the colony. About three-fourths of the debt was borrowed for the construction of railways, a seventh for works of water supply, and the remainder for defences, State-schools, graving dock, improvements to the city of Melbourne and town of Geelong, and for miscellaneous public works and buildings. Of the total amount of 20 millions, 9 millions was borrowed at 6 per cent., 2½ millions at 5 per cent., 3 millions at 4½ per cent., and millions at 4 per cent. The debentures are repayable at various periods from 1883 to 1904.

**Municipal Debt.**

28. The loans contracted by municipalities amounted in September, 1879, to £719,340, of which £577,153 was borrowed by cities, towns, and boroughs, and £142,187 by shires. The rates of interest paid were between 6 and 8 per cent., except in the case of one borough, in which the rate was as low as 5 per cent., and of one shire in which it was as low as 4 per cent., and of another shire in which it was as high as 9 per cent.

**Royal Mint.**

29. The Melbourne branch of the Royal Mint was established in 1872. From the time of its opening to the end of 1879, 3,385,655 ozs. of gold had been received thereat, valued at £13,495,328. Gold is issued from the
Mint as coin or as bullion. The former, with the exception of 165,000 half-sovereigns in 1873, and 80,000 in 1877, has consisted entirely of sovereigns, which have numbered 13,283,000. The bullion issued has amounted to 23,168 ozs., valued at £87,538.

Banks.

30. There are 11 Banks of Issue in Victoria, with 329 branches within the colony. According to the sworn returns of these institutions, their note circulation at the end of 1879 was £1,090,760, and their total liabilities £17,818,225, as against which the coin and bullion on hand amounted to £3,475,345, and the total assets to £25,339,843. At the same date the capital stock paid up was £9,026,250, and the amount of reserved profits was £2,698,097. The last dividend paid amounted to £482,800, or at an average rate of 10 per cent per annum.

Savings' Banks.

31. Two kinds of Savings' Banks exist in Victoria—the ordinary Savings' Banks, which were established in 1842, and the Post-office Savings' Banks, which were established in 1865. Of the former there are 11, and of the latter 185. According to the returns for 1879, the number of depositors in the two institutions was 82,941, who had to their credit £1,520,296, or an average of £18 6s. 7d, to each depositor. The highest rate of interest savings' banks are permitted to give on moneys left on deposit is 4 per cent. The full rate is paid by both kinds of institutions.

Imports and Exports.

32. In 1879 the declared value of goods imported into Victoria was £15,035,538, and that of goods exported therefrom was £12,454,170. The excess of imports over exports was thus £2,581,368, and the total value of external trade was £27,489,708. Per head of the population the average value of the imports was £16 18s. 5d., and that of the exports was £14 0s. 4d. These proportionate values, although lower than they have generally been in Victoria, are higher than corresponding amounts in most other countries in the world.

Shipping.

33. The vessels entered and cleared at Victorian ports in 1879 numbered 4167, of an aggregate burden of 1,940,222 tons, and carrying 86,324 men. The tonnage was in excess of that in any former year, but the number of vessels and of men was slightly exceeded in some years. More than half the vessels were steamers. About two-thirds of the tonnage and three-fourths of the men belonged to vessels of the same description.

Post Offices.

34. A very efficient postal system exists in Victoria, and Post-offices are established throughout the length and breadth of the colony; 1069 of such institutions existed in 1879, as against 802 five years previously. In the same quinquennial period the letters, newspapers, and packets despatched and received in a year increased from less than 24,000,000 to 36,500,000.

Money Orders.

35. Money-order Offices in Victoria in connection with the Post-office had been established in 273 places up to the end of 1879. Besides the issue and payment of many orders at these places, such orders are issued in favour of Victoria, and Victorian orders are paid at places in Great Britain and Ireland, and in the various Australasian colonies. The number of money-orders issued during the year was 138,577, of an aggregate value of £398,019; and the number paid was 150,525, of an aggregate value of £453,723. The number and value of orders issued in favour of the United Kingdom are always much greater than the number and value of those received therefrom; but the reverse is the case with orders between Victoria and the neighbouring colonies. The net amount remitted to the United Kingdom by this means has, however, been gradually falling off, whilst the net amount received from the neighbouring colonies has been fast increasing.

Electric Telegraphs.

36. Telegraphic communication exists in Victoria between 257 stations within her own borders. Her lines are connected besides with the lines of New South Wales, and by means of them with Queensland and New Zealand. They are also connected with the lines of South Australia, and by their means with Western Australia.
and with the Eastern Archipelago, Asia, Europe, and America. They are likewise united with a submarine cable to Tasmania. In 1879 the miles of line along which poles extended numbered 3155, and the miles of wire 5736; the telegrams transmitted numbered 1,010,116, of which 284,317 were on Government business a considerable extension of the lines, as well as an increase of business, takes place each year.

**Railways.**

37. All the Railways in Victoria are the property of the State. At the end of 1879 1125½ miles were open for traffic, 174¼ miles of which were laid with double lines. The cost of construction, exclusive of preliminary surveys, rolling-stock, and building a bridge over the Murray to connect with the New South Wales lines, was £15,350,859, or an average of £13,645 per mile. About 4,000,000 miles were travelled during the year. The total receipts amounted to £1,500,000, and the working expenses to £750,000. The railway system is being rapidly extended.

**Public Estate.**

38. Of the total area of Victoria, already stated to be 56,446,720 acres, the extent which at the end of 1879 had been granted, sold, and selected was 19,201,780 acres, leaving a residue of 37,244,940 acres. This embraces lands occupied by roads, the unsold portions of the sites of towns, the State forests, auriferous, pastoral, and timber reserves, and land which is at present useless, owing to its mountainous character or to its being covered with mallee scrub, lakes, or lagoons. Deducing these lands, amounting in the aggregate to 26,533,918 acres, from the extent unalienated and unselected, already stated to have been 37,244,940 acres, it will be found that the extent open for selection at the end of 1879 was 10,711,022 acres, or something less than a fifth of the area of the colony.

**Crown Lands Sold.**

39. The land alienated in fee-simple during 1879 was 283,694 acres, and the amount realised therefor was £384,432, or at the rate of £1 7s. 1¼d. per acre. The total extent alienated in fee from the first settlement of the colony to the end of the same year was 11,742,328 acres, for which £19,136,572 was received by the State, or at the rate of £1 12s. 7¼d. per acre.

**Agriculture.**

40. The extent of land returned as in occupation for agricultural purposes at the end of the first quarter of the current year was 16,615,000 acres. It is invariably the case that less land is shown by the agricultural returns than the whole area alienated and selected; for the statistical collectors are not required to take account of holdings which do not exceed one acre, nor of gardens or grounds attached to residences which are kept merely for ornament and pleasure, nor of any lands which show no signs of occupation, or which are used for other purposes than agriculture or the keeping of stock. The number of occupiers returned was 49,025, and the extent of land under tillage was 1,687,400 acres. The five principal crops are wheat, which covered 707,738 acres; oats, 43,208 acres; potatoes, 41,600 acres; and hay, 201,169 acres. In addition to these, green forage and permanent artificial grasses covered 307,475 acres, vines covered 4285 acres, and gardens and orchards occupied an extent of 20,305 acres. The other crops were maize, rye, peas and beans, mangel-wurzel, turnips, beet, carrots, parsnips, onions, and other vegetables, chicory, grass for seed, hops, and tobacco. The produce of wheat was 9,407,503 bushels, or 13.3 bushels to the acre; that of oats was 4,024,962 bushels, or 24 bushels to the acre; that of barley was 1,065,759 bushels, or 25 bushels to the acre; that of potatoes was 167,986 tons, or 4 tons to the acre; and that of hay was 291,781 tons, or ½ tons to the acre. The area under tillage has doubled, and that under wheat has much more than doubled during the last ten years.

**Live Stock.**

41. The live stock in the colony, according to the returns of 1879, amounted to 210,105 horses, 290,407 milch cows, 894,436 other horned cattle, 9,379,276 sheep, and 177,373 pigs. The returns of horses and cattle generally show increased numbers from year to year, and those for 1879 were greater than those of any previous year; but this has not been the case of late years as regards sheep; and the number of pigs fluctuates considerably. The largest number of sheep ever returned was in 1876; since then, however, there has been a falling off, and the number in 1879 was smaller than in any year since 1867.
Manufactures.

42. Statistics of manufactures and works in operation are collected by means of the staff employed by the municipal bodies to collect statistics of agriculture. The collectors are instructed to obtain returns only from establishments of an extensive character, except when the existence of industries of an unusual or interesting character seems to call for special comment. No attempt is made to enumerate mere shops, although some manufacturing industry may be carried on thereat. Were this done, the manufactories of the colony might be multiplied to an almost indefinite extent. There were in 1879 149 flour mills in the colony, which, during the year, operated upon 5,665,791 bushels of wheat, and produced 125,000 tons of flour; 102 breweries, in which 15,371,000 gallons of beer were brewed; 198 brick yards, some being also potteries, which made nearly 60,000,000 bricks, and pottery valued at over £25,000; 118 tanneries and fellmongeries, which operated upon 2,500,000 hides and skins, and produced leather, basils, wool, pelts, &c., valued at £1,240,000; 9 woollen mills, which used 1,750,000 lbs. of wool, and produced over 1,000,000 yards of tweed cloth and flannel, 22,000 yards of felt, 3000 blankets, and 378 shawls; 61 establishments working in books or stationery; 9 in musical instruments; 11 in prints and pictures; 23 in carving and figures; 6 in designs, medals, and dies; 7 in philosophical instruments; 6 in surgical instruments; 14 in arms and ammunition; 102 in machines, tools, and implements; 188 in carriages and harness; 25 in ships and boats; 25 in houses, buildings, &c.; 66 in furniture; 38 in chemicals; 167 in dress; 16 in fibrous materials; 38 in animal food; 36 in vegetable food; 160 in drinks and stimulants; 104 in animal matters; 389 in vegetable matters; 17 in coal; 46 in stone, clay, earthenware, and glass; 2 in water; 34 in gold, silver, and precious stones; and 177 in metals other than gold and silver. The total number of these establishments is 2343, of which 908 use steam-engines, the total horse-power of which is 13,064. They employ 33,278 hands, and the approximate total value of lands, buildings, machinery, and plant, is £6,800,000.

Gold.

43. The gold raised in Victoria during 1879 amounted to 758,947 ozs., as against 775,272 ozs. in the previous year. Since the first discovery of the Victorian goldfields in the middle of 1851, the total quantity of gold recorded as having been raised therefrom is 48,817,596 ozs., of an aggregate value at £4 per oz. of £195,270,384. These figures give an average per annum during the period of about 1,700,000 ozs., which is more than twice the quantity raised in 1879.

Friendly Societies.

44. Friendly Societies in Victoria have for years past been much patronised by the industrial classes, many of whom have derived great benefit from their connection therewith. So far as their relations with the State are concerned, they are under the supervision of the Government Statist and Registrar; and there are also public auditors and valuers. Thirty-four parent institutions, having 756 branches, furnished returns to the Government Statist for 1878. The number of members was 45,660, of whom 8207 received sick pay during the year for periods extending over 55,289 weeks, the total amount of sick pay being £45,141. The number of members who died was 467, and the number of wives who died was 291, the funeral donations paid on account of which deaths amounted to £11,412. The total income during the year was £161,880, and the total expenditure was £140,050. The amount to the credit of the funds at the end of the year, after deducting debts, was £392,562, or an average of £8 11s. 11d. to each member.

Clergy.

45. There being no State religion in Victoria, and no money voted for any religious object, the clergy are supported by the efforts of the denomination to which they are attached. In 1879 the total number of registered clergy was 703, of whom 156 belonged to the Church of England, 94 to the Roman Catholic Church, 156 to the Presbyterian Church, 139 to the Wesleyan Church, 48 to the Independent Church, 40 to the Baptist Church, 16 to the Bible Christian Church, 46 to other Christian churches, and 8 to the Jewish Church. Besides these there are other officials connected with some of the sects who, without being regularly ordained, perform the functions of clergymen, and are styled lay readers, lay assistants, local preachers, mission agents. See. The number of these is not known, but it, no doubt, materially swells the ranks of religious instructors in the colony.

Churches and Chapels.
46. The buildings used for public worship throughout Victoria in 1878 numbered 2815, of which 1585 were regular churches and chapels, 425 schoolhouses, and 805 public or private buildings. The approximate number of services performed during the year was 226,343; the number of persons for whom accommodation was provided was 420,051; and the number usually attending at the principal weekly services was 293,772. Of the whole number of buildings used for religious worship, 485 belonged to the Church of England, 454 to the Roman Catholics, 677 to the Presbyterians, 828 to the Wesleyans, 93 to the Independents, 78 to the Baptists, 101 to the Bible Christians, 90 to other Christians, 7 to the Jews, and 2 to other sects.

Charitable Institutions.

47. There is no poor law in Victoria, but a very complete organisation exists for the relief of the sick, the infirm, and the necessitous by means of the many excellent charitable institutions which are scattered throughout the length and breadth of the colony. These establishments are for the most part subsidised by the State, and many of them are also largely contributed to by private persons. There are 33 general hospitals, besides a Lying-in Hospital, an Eye and Ear Hospital, and a Children's Hospital; there is also a Blind Asylum, a Deaf and Dumb Asylum, and an Immigrants' Home. There are 5 Benevolent Asylums, 7 Orphan Asylums, 9 Industrial and Reformatory Schools, 5 Hospitals for the Insane, and 5 Female Refuges. These institutions had in all 28,277 inmates during 1878; their total receipts were £313,071, of which £230,949 was from the Government, and their expenditure was £303,553. There are 37 other associations for the relief of distressed or indigent persons which are generally managed by ladies. These are termed Benevolent Societies; the names of three of them indicate their connection with the Jewish body, but no distinctive denomination is perceptible in the titles of the others. One of these societies is devoted to the assistance of discharged prisoners. The acts of relief during the year numbered 9568; the receipts amounted to £13,217, of which £5500 was from Government, and the expenditure was £13,201.

Public Libraries.

48. The Melbourne Public Library is open to all classes of persons over 14 years of age without payment, on week days, between ten a.m. and ten p.m. The buildings, up to the end of 1878, had cost £111,604, and are still unfinished. These funds were provided by the Government, as also were further moneys amounting, with the sum just named, to £280,316. The estimated value of the private contributions, consisting of books, pamphlets, maps, &c., is £12,408; and the total number of books in the library 101,035. The institution was visited in 1878 by 256,400 persons. In most of the towns in the colony there are free libraries, athenaeums, or scientific, literary, or mechanics’ institutes, some of which receive books on loan from the Melbourne Public Library. One hundred and sixty-seven of these institutions furnished returns for 1878. Their statements show that the total receipts in that year amounted to £25,590, of which £6925 was contributed by Government, and £18,665 by private individuals; that the number of volumes amounted to 221,614; and that the number of visits during the year amounted to 2,600,000.

National Gallery and Museums.

49. The National Gallery contained, at the end of 1878, 84 oil paintings, 172 objects of statuary, and 6004 drawings, engravings, and photographs. The school of painting connected with this institution was attended in the year by 5 male and 57 female students, and the school of design by 43 male and 121 female students. The Industrial and Technological Museum, which joins the last-named institution, contains 1400 publications, 27,000 specimens, and 150 drawings. Class lectures, given in 1878, on chemistry and mineralogy, were attended by 27, on engineering by 23, and on telegraphy by 50 students. The collections of the National Museum, which is situated on the grounds of the Melbourne University, consist of specimens of minerals, stuffed animals and birds, insects and other objects of curiosity. The cost of the edifice was £8500, and it was visited in 1878 by 98,149 persons. All these institutions are open to the public free of charge.

Education.

50. The educational system of Victoria, the basis of which is that secular instruction shall be provided by the State, without payment, for all children whose parents may be willing to accept it, but that whether accepted or not, satisfactory evidence must be produced that all children are educated up to a given standard, has been most successful in its operation; and for securing the object sought to be attained, it is believed compares favourably with any other country in the world. In 1872, just before the present system came into operation, the number of children returned as attending school was 137,978, whilst in 1878, after the system had been in force
for six years, the number had increased to 227,037, or nearly 65 per cent., although during the same, period the population of the colony had increased by only 14 per cent. It was officially estimated by the Government Statist that in 1878 all the children in Victoria between the ages of 6 and 15, except about 7 4-5ths per cent., were receiving education during some portion of the year. It has also been estimated that the children attending school for not less than thirty days in a quarter amounted to about 68 per cent, of the numbers on the rolls, a proportion of efficient school attendance which, it is believed, has been attained in but few countries.

Crime.

51. Whilst advancement is shown in so many directions, it is satisfactory to find that crime has steadily decreased. Taking the years 1869, 1874, and 1879, it is found that the persons arrested were in the proportion of 1 to every 28 of the population at the first period, of 1 to every 33 at the second, and only 1 to every 36 at the third. The diminution of serious offences is shown by the decreasing number of commitments for trial at each successive period; these were in the proportion of 1 to every 29 arrests at the first period, of 1 to every 34 arrests at the middle period, and of 1 to every 39 arrests at the third period.

Wages and Prices.

52. Tables showing the rates of labour and the prices of the principal articles of consumption for 1879 and the first year of the two previous quinquennial periods are given in the appendix.

Table VIII.—Victoria.—Average Rates of Wages,

The rates of wages given are those prevailing in the metropolis. The rates in country districts are generally somewhat higher. 1869, 1874, 1879.

Description of Labour. 1869. 1874. 1879. Agricultural Labour. Farm labourers ... per week, with rations 12s. to 20s. 15s. to 20s. 15s. to 20s. Ploughmen ... ... 15s. to 20s. 15s. to 20s. 15s. to 20s. Reapers† ... ... per acre 6s. to 10s. 12s. to 15s. 9s. to 10s. Mowers† ... ... per care" 4s. to 8s. 3s. to 5s. 3s. 6d. to 7s. 6d. Thresh erst ... ... per bushel" 3d. to 6d. 5d. to 7d. 5d. to 6d. Pastoral Labour. Shepherds ... ... per annum, with rations £35 to £40 £30 to £50 £25 to £40 Stock-keepers ... ... £20 to £30 £25 to £30 £20 to £30 Generally useful men on stations, per week 15s. to 20s. 15s. to 20s. 14s. to 20s. Sheep washers ... ... £20 to £30 £25 to £30 £20 to £30 Shearers ... per 100 sheep sheared" 10s. to 13s. 12s. to 15s. 8s. to 20s.† The reaping, mowing, and threshing has of late years been, to a large extent, done by machinery.

Description of Labour 1869. 1874. 1879. Artisan Labour.* Masons ... ... per day, without rations 8s. to 10s. 8s. to 10s. 10s. to 12s. Plasterers ... ..." 8s. to 10s. 8s. to 10s. 10s. to 11s. Bricklayers ... ..." 8s. to 10s. 8s. to 10s. 10s. Carpenters ... ..." 7s. to 9s. 7s. to 9s. 10s. to 11s. Blacksmiths ... ..." 7s. to 9s. 7s. to 9s. 10s. to 11s. Married Couples. Married couples, without families per annum, with board and lodging £40 to £70 £90 to £120 £70 to £90 Married couples, with families ... ..." £35 to £40 £40 to £50 £35 to £40 Servants—Males and Married Couples. Married couples, without families per annum, with board and lodging £40 to £70 £90 to £120 £70 to £90 Married couples, with families ... ..." £35 to £40 £40 to £50 £35 to £40 Men cooks on farms and stations ... ..." £35 to £40 £40 to £50 £35 to £40 Women cooks on farms and stations ... ..." £35 to £40 £40 to £50 £35 to £40 Servants—Females. Cooks ... per annum, with board and lodging £35 to £40 £40 to £50 £35 to £40 Laundresses" £30 to £40 £30 to £40 £30 to £40 General servants" £30 to £35 £30 to £35 £30 to £35 Housemaids", £30 to £35 £30 to £35 £30 to £35 Nursemaids", £50 to £60 £50 to £60 £50 to £60 Miscellaneous Labour. General labourers ... per day, without rations 6s. to 7s. 6s. to 7s. 6s. to 7s. Stonebreakers ... per cubic yard" 1s. 10d. to 2s. 28s. 2s. to 3s. 2s. to 3s. Seamen ... ... per month, with rations £4 to £5 £5 to £6 £5 to £6. Miners ... ... per week, without rations £2 5s. to £3 2s. £2 5s. to £3 2s.

Table IX.—Victoria.—Average Prices,

The prices given are those prevailing in the metropolis. In country districts the cost of groceries, tobacco, wine, coal, &c., is naturally higher, and that of agricultural and grazing produce, firewood, &c., naturally lower, than in Melbourne. 1869, 1874, 1879.

Articles. 1869. 1874. 1879. Agricultural Produce. Wheat ... per bushel 4s. 9d. to 8s. 4s. 9d. to 7s. 3d. 4s. 8d. to 6s. 1d. Barley ... " 4s. to 6s. 3s. to 7s. 1s. 9d. to 7s. 6d. Oats ... " 3s. 6d. to 5s. 6d. to 5s. 6d. to 5s. 6d. to 4s. 1d. Maize ... " 3s. 4d. to 5s. 1d. 3s. 4d. to 5s. 9d. 2s. 10d. to 3s. 6d. Bran ... " 1s. 4d. to 2s. 1s. to 1s. 4½d. 1s.
Addendum to the Second Edition.

University.

The Melbourne University was established under a special Act of the Victorian Legislature, which was assented to on the 22nd January, 1853. This Act provides for its endowment by the payment of £9000 annually out of the general revenue; also, that no religious test shall be administered to any one to entitle him to be admitted to the rights and privileges of the institution; also, for the appointment of a council, consisting of twenty members, of whom sixteen, at least, must be laymen, and for the election by them, out of their own body, of a chancellor and a vice-chancellor; also, for the constitution of a senate, to be presided over by a warden, as soon as the superior degrees should amount to not less than 100. This number was reached in 1867, and the senate was constituted on the 14th of June of that year. By the Act of Incorporation, the council were empowered to grant degrees in arts, medicine, laws, and music, to which degrees in surgery were added by a subsequent statute. Royal letters-patent, under the sign-manual of Her Majesty Queen Victoria, were issued on the 14th March, 1859, declaring that all degrees granted, or thereafter to be granted, by the Melbourne University should be recognised as academic distinctions and rewards of merit, and should be entitled to rank, precedence, and consideration in the United Kingdom, and in British colonies and possessions throughout the world, just as fully as if they had been granted by any University in the United Kingdom. The foundation-stone was laid on the 3rd July, 1854, and the building was opened on the 3rd October of the Mowing year. On the
22nd March, 1880, the University was thrown open to females, and they can now be admitted to all its corporate privileges, except the study of medicine. Affiliated to the University is a college in connection with the Church of England, and one in connection with the Presbyterian Church. The latter is called the Ormond College, after Mr. Francis Ormond, who contributed £10,000 towards its erection and £2500 towards its endowment. The University Hall, which is now being built at a cost of £40,000, is to be called the Wilson Hall, after Sir Samuel Wilson, M.L.C., who contributed the greater portion of the funds for its erection. From the opening of the University to the end of 1879, 1325 students matriculated and 594 degrees were granted, of which 373 were direct and 221 ad eundem. The students who matriculated in 1879 numbered 112, and the graduates in the same year numbered 65.

Index.

Victorian Exhibits.

[Any Exhibits classed under Fine Arts Group are transferred to Fine Arts Section of Catalogue, and will be found there under heading "Victoria."]

II.

Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.

Class 6.—Education of Children, Primary Instruction, Instruction of Adults.

Education Department.

- **BUILDING.**—Ordinary country school, for sixty children, with teachers' quarters (four rooms).
- Furniture and School Apparatus. Complete.
- Lesson-books and Requisites supplied by the Department. Complete set.
- School Work.—Samples of penmanship, needlework, mapping, drawing, notes of lessons, &c
- Time Tables, Approved samples of.
- Training.—Complete set of books supplied.
- Samples of examination papers.
- Papers.—Acts, regulations, circulars, forms, annual report 1879-80, teachers' certificates, &c.
- Miscellaneous.—Model of State school building to be erected in Hotham.
- Photographs and drawings of State school buildings.
- Map showing number and position of State schools throughout the colony.

1 Axford, Emily L., Francis-st., Echuca.—Specimens of Pitman's phonography.
3 Bartlett, Sarah, 162 Swan-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Specimens of penmanship. The text an account of the early history of Victoria.
5 Bolger, H., Faraday-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Cardboard model of State-school.
8 Jones, D., Snake Valley, Carngham.—Manuscript music.
9-10 Mackay, P. F., 18 Moray-place, Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Specimen of shorthand writing.
11 M'Naughtan, J. D., Bowen-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Commercial reckoning and calculating tables.
12 Meyer, A., Rowe-st., North Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Original music, copied in pen-and-ink.
13 Miles, Jane E., 7 Bellevue-terrace, Princes-st., Fitzroy.—Shorthand.
14 Patton, Emily S., Studley Park-road, Kew, Melbourne.—Harmony simplified.
15 Roberts, J. H., Wedderburn.—Arithmetical card, with explanatory pamphlet.
16 Stewart, J. E., 22 Eldon-chambers, Bank-place, Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Placard of directions for saving life; for the use of schools.

Class 9.—Printing, Books.

18 Allan & Co., 17 and 19 Collins-st East, Melbourne.—Music.
19 Arnall & Jackson, 42 and 44 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Legal and other publications. Specimens of printing, lithography, embossing, &c.
20 Asher, A., 114 Swan-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Copy of "Richmond Guardian."
22 Capper, R., Northcote, Melbourne.—Printed and manuscript dramas.
24 Deputy Postmaster-General, Melbourne.—Specimens of stamps.
28 Knobel, G. A., Royal Park Hotel, Queensberry-st., Hot ham, Melbourne.—Treatise on Knobel's system of ventilation.
30 Marshall, W., The Lorgnette Office, Royal-lane, Melbourne.—Specimens of printing.
31 Mason, Firth & M'Cutcheon, 51 and 53 Little Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Books and specimens of newspaper, periodical, and miscellaneous printing, viz.:—
   • BOOKS.—"The Melbourne International Exhibition Catalogue, 1880."
   • "The Expectation of the Christ," by the Bishop of Melbourne.
   • "The Age Annual, 1879."
   • D. Munro and Co.'s Catalogue of Machinery and Implements.
   • "God's Purpose with Mankind and the Earth," Vols. I. and II.
   • "Transactions of the Royal Society of Victoria" (annual volume).
   • "Annual Register of the Merchant Shipping and Underwriters' Association of Melbourne."
   • "Euclid," by Pirani and Andrew.
   • "The Victorian Almanac, 1880," and other Almanacs.
   • NEWSPAPERS.—"The Australasian Shipping News" (weekly).
   • "The Spectator and Methodist Chronicle" (weekly).
   • "The Melbourne Prices Current of the Journal of Commerce" (fortnightly).
   • "The Church of England Messenger" (monthly).
   • "The Chemist and Druggist" (monthly).
   • "The Missionary at Home and Abroad" (monthly), &c., &c.
   • PAMPLETS.—"The Melbourne Harbour Trust Commissioners' Report."
   • "The Melbourne Harbour Trust Commissioners' Regulations."
   • "The Trustees and Executors' Agency Company's Prospectus."
   • "The Victorian Irish Famine Relief Fund Report," &c., &c.; and
   • SAMPLES OF GENERAL PRINTING.
33 Perkins & Co., 51 Bourke-st., Melbourne.—Illustrated publications.
34 Schorer, A., 25 Atherton-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Descriptive Album, with maps and photographs explanatory of trigonometrical exhibits.
36 Smith, T., 156 Gertrude-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Printing from either stones or types, done by the same machine.
38 Ware, W., 78 and 80 Gore-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Collection of bottle labels.

Class 10.—Stationery, Bookbinding, Painting and Drawing Materials.

40 Arnall & Jackson, 42 and 44 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Lithogram.
41 Buxton, J. T., 131 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Artists' materials—easels, colour-boxes, crayons, stretchers, drawing-boards, models, &c.
43 Cooke, S., & Co., 38 Little Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Printing inks and other materials used in printing.
44 Cowan & Co., 72 to 76 Little Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Account-books, blank books of every description, stationery, &c.
45 Detmold, W., 44 Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—
   • Bookbinding (plain and ornamental).
   • Account-books.
   • Machine-ruling.
   • Marble papers.
   • Leather goods, Pocket-books, &c.
46 Empress Chemical Works, 26 and 28 Victoria-st., West Melbourne.—Writing inks.
48 Fox, C. J., 40 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Cardboard mounts.
49 Frame & Co., 23 Lonsdale-st. West, Melbourne.—Plain and fancy boxes for drapers, hatters, stationers, chemists, &c.
50 Graham, G. L., Graham-st., Sand ridge, Melbourne.—Writing and other inks.
51 Harratt, H., Chetwynd-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Copying-presses.
52 Malett, J., Albert-st., Windsor, Melbourne.—Ink.
53 Penal Establishment, Pentridge, Melbourne—Bookbinding.
54 Ramsden's Paper Mills, Yarra Bank, Melbourne.—Paper.

Class 11.—General Application of the Arts of Drawing and Modelling.

59 Alexander. A., Dudley-st., West Melbourne.—Longitudinal section of gasworks.
60 Anderson, J., 100 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Heraldic and general engraving, on ivory and soft steel. Carved metal monograms. Heraldic paintings.
61 Bodington, R., 37 Barry-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Sectional elevation of flour-mill.
62 Brabson, W., Royal-lane, Bourke-st. East, Melbourne.—Models of figures.
63 Brennan, L., 11 James-st, Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Wood carvings.
64 Buttle & Jackson, Sandhurst.—Sketch of self-acting railway-brake.
65 Byrne, J. P., 64 Cambridge-st., Collingwood.—Box of geometrical drawing models.
67 Fullerton, G., 396 Lygon-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Front and side elevations of yacht-engines.
68 Harding, R., Peel-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Water-colour drawing of a locomotive engine.
69 Harper, C., Department of Public Instruction, Melbourne.—Heraldic blazonry.
70 Kelly, R., 53 Fitzroy-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Longitudinal section of gasworks.
71 Kendall, T. W., Williams-road, Prahran, Melbourne—Picture of Australian coat-of-arms.
72 Lennon, H., North Melbourne.—Paintings and drawings on agricultural subjects.
73 Lezza, S., 45 Madeline-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Plaster models for confectioners.
74 Mahoney, P.—Plaster medallion and ventilators.
76 Mowling, G., 120 Punt-road, Windsor, Melbourne.—Drawings of compound marine engines.
77 Munro, D., & Co., 154 Queen-st., Melbourne.—Drawings of Victory windmill and machinery used for mining and other purposes.
78 Murphy, E., Sandridge-road, Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Ornamental plaster-work.
79 Murphy, E. P., jun.—Plaster model of a fountain.
80 Penal Establishment, Pentridge, Melbourne.—Bone carving.
82 Robertson, A., 6 Bridport-st. East, Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Longitudinal section and elevation of brewery.
83 Roeszler, C. G., 41 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Engraving in relief.
84 Rowlands, 67 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Engraving and enamelling on metals.
85 Sands & M'Dougall, 46 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Impressions from steel dies.
86 Stevenson, T., Dudley-st., West Melbourne.—Heraldic painting.
87 Trembling-, G., Upper Hope-st., Ashby, Gee-long.—Plans and designs for greenhouse.
88 Twentyman, A. C., Regent-st, North Richmond, Melbourne.—Heraldic painting.
89 Twentyman, G. O., & Son, Regent-st., North Richmond, Melbourne.—Heraldic engraving on stone, and heraldic die-sinking.
90 Waters, T. T., Castlemaine-st., Yarraville, Melbourne.—Copy of water-wheel.
91 Whitehead, I.—Die-sinking and embossing.
92 Wilson, G., Station-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Heraldic paintings.

Class 13.—Musical Instruments.

93 Bear, R. D., 76 Dudley-st., West Melbourne—Banjo.
94 Brown, J., 57 Lygon-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Violins and bows.
95 Brown, W. J., 56 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Violins by ancient makers.
96 Close, J. S., employed at Allan & Co.'s.—Cottage pianoforte, trichord check-action, seven octaves, in walnut-wood case, and electroplated sconces, fittings, &c. The action finished and regulated by A. E. Morey, employed at Allan & Co.'s.
98 Fuller, A., Main-road, Kew, Melbourne.—Organ.
100 Haughton, C., jun., 58 Elgin-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Banjo, mounted in electroplate.
101 Haughton, J. T., 58 Elgin-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Banjo.
102 James, s. W., Cubitt-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Violin.
104 Peacock, J., 62 Palmerston-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Violins.
106 Weatherill, T., Bridge-road, Richmond, Melbourne.—Pianofortes.

Class 14.—Medicine, Hygiene, and Public Relief.

111 Bennet, P., 1 Market-buildings, Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Parlour gymnasium, for the practice of muscular exercises.
112 Birkmyre, W., Mona-place, South Yarra, Melbourne.—Purified Yan Yean water.
113 Brown, D., Rathdown and Reilly sts., Carlton, Melbourne.—Drawing, and key, of the anatomy of a horse.
114 Burston, L., 72 Lonsdale-st. East, Melbourne.—Surgical boots.
115 Callia, Isabella, 4 Barkly-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Ladies' surgical appliances.
116 Chambers & Clutten, Lonsdale and Stephen sts., Melbourne.—Dripstone filters, &c.
117 Chatfield, A. W., Brunswick-st., North Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Specimens of dentistry.
118 Crisp, H., Main-st., Ballarat East.—Medical coils.
121 Draper & Sons, 83 Bourke-st. West, Melbourne.—Huon pine patent earth-closet commode, with pull action; ditto in deal, self-acting.
123 Fouracre, T., & Son, Eastham-st., North Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Disinfecting earth-closet, self-acting.
124 Gilbrook Pottery, Park-st., Brunswick, Melbourne.—Filters.
127 Heath & Kernot, 67 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Specimens of mechanical dentistry, apparatus used in construction of artificial teeth.
130 Jeans, S. E., High-st., St. Hilda, Melbourne.—Cedar plunge-bath.
132 Knight, G., 159 Russell-st., Melbourne.—Galvanic medical appliances. Lung-testing apparatus.
133 M'Lean Brothers & Rigg, 69 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Portable Turkish bath.
137 Parker & Co., 29 Post Office-place, Melbourne.—Portable Turkish bath.
138 Romanis & Cooper, 95 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Artificial teeth.
139 Simmons, Dwyer & Co., 104 Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Artificial teeth, palates, nostrils, and noses.
140 Stevens, H., 90 Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Artificial teeth and mechanical dentistry.
141 Timperley, W. J., & Brother, 13 Gwynne-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Improved filters.
142 Wilson, Corben & Co., 168, 170, and 172 Lonsdale-st. East, Melbourne.—Enamelled baths, enamelled lavatories, &c.

Class 15.—Mathematical and Philosophical Instruments.
143 Barton, R., Royal Mint, Melbourne.—Dividing machine, divided glass tubes, &c.
144 Crisp, H., Main-st., Ballarat East.—Microphones.
145 Gaunt, T., Royal Arcade, 14 Bourke-st. East, Melbourne.—Surveying, meteorological, and scientific instruments. Microscopes, telescopes, &c., as per list in case.
150 Myers, W., 65 Mint-place, Lonsdale-st. West, Melbourne.—Georemeter, &c.
151 Rasche, W., C.E., 55 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Planimeter.
152 Royal, H., Sackville-st., Collingwood, Melbourne.—Phonograph.

Class 16.—Maps, and Geographical and Cosmographical Apparatus.
155 Bond, A. S., Vaucluse, Richmond, Melbourne.—Maps.
III. Furniture and Accessories.

Class 17.—Cheap and Fancy Furniture.

163 Alcock & Co., 132 Russell-st., Melbourne.—
- Billiard-table, carved mouldings, of figured black-wood, patent adjusting toes, lamp, complete.
- Combination cabinet, electric marker.
- Billiard-room settee.
- Billiard-table, of tulipwood, with adjusting toes and lamp.
- Combination cabinet and marking-board.
- Billiard-room settee.
- Combination reversible dining and billiard table, with adjusting castors.
- Verandah lounge.

164 Bailey, Ann, Sydney-road, Brunswick, Melbourne.—Table.


166 Boll Brothers, 14 Lennox-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Pedestal library table, of Australian woods.

167 Bennett, J., 174 Queen-st., Melbourne.—Enclosed console sideboard, in Australian woods.

168 Brown, E., Shire Engineer, Benalla.—Furniture, with improved castors.


170 Dellit, W., 10 Arden-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Wicker chairs, made of Tasmanian willows.

171 Dillon, P., Ryrte-st., Geelong.—Draught-table.

172 Fallshaw, D., jun., Errol and O'Shannassy sts., Hotham, Melbourne.—Cane furniture.


174 Gottliebsen, T., 14 Victoria-st. West, Melbourne.—Pavilion.

175 Hickson, J., 131 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Child's cot of colonial woods.


177 Lachal, G., 72 and 74 Bourke-st. East, Melbourne.—Sideboards.

178 Leach, C., 132 Lygon-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Table-top.

179 Lording, H., Canning-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Fancy dressing-table, made of Australasian woods.


181 M'Ewan, J., 361 Spencer-st., Melbourne.—Diningroom, library, and bedroom furniture.

182 M'Lean Brothers & Rigg, 69 Elizabeth st., Melbourne.—Luncheon-tables. Folding-chairs.

Garden-seats.

183 Plumridge, I., Bridge-road, Richmond, Melbourne.—Wood and cane seated Chairs.

184 Rowland, T., Pelham and Berkeley sts., Carlton, Melbourne.—Inlaid table.

185 Sheedy, J., Lyndhurst-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Inlaid loo-table.

186 Stanway, W., Park-st., South Yarra, Melbourne.—French bedsteads, with spring mattresses, easy chairs, couch, coffee-table.


188 Steinfeld, LeVinson & Co., 93 to 99 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Furniture. Cane summer-house and furniture;

189 Sturrock, A. W., jun., 9 University-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Loo table.

190 Tiernan, P., Abbotsford and Spencer sts., West Melbourne.—Inlaid circular table.

191 Trapp, A., Cecil-St., Williamstown, Melbourne.—Model chest of drawers. Spiral staircase.

192 Trapp, C., Cecil-st., Williamstown, Melbourne.—Chest of drawers, wardrobe.

Class 18.—Upholsterers' and Decorators' Work.

200 Bennett, G. R., 29 Darling St., South Yarra, Melbourne.—Inlaid marble chess table.
201 Blight, C., 55 Johnston-st., Collingwood, Melbourne.—Fancy bracket-.
201a Blogg Brothel's, 18 Stewart-st., Windsor, Melbourne.—Gilding and lettering on glass.
202 Bolton, J., Docker-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Imitation graining in oak, cedar, marble, &c.
203 Brooks, Robinson & Co., 39 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Embossed mirror, ebonite and gold.
204 Campi, A., 122 Russell-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Mirror, in gilt frame.
205 Carr & Sons, Spring-st., Melbourne.—Venetian and other window-blinds.
207 Cohen Brothers & Co., Lonsdale and Stephen sts., Melbourne.—Upholstery and cabinet work.
208 Curtain, J., York-st., North Fitzroy.—Carved and inlaid Gothic mantelpiece, in various woods.
210 Fuller, V., 41 Cameron-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Decorative panels.
212 Heathcote, T. S., Beaufort House, Drummond-st., North Carlton, Melbourne.—Imitation woods and marbles.
213 Heinzle, J., 211 Smith-st., Collingwood, Melbourne.—Upholstery.
214 Henderson, D. M., 137 Canning-st., North Carlton, Melbourne.—Carved frame, for mantelpiece mirror.
216 M'Lean Brothers & Rigg, 69 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Spring mattresses. Cabinet Turkish bath.
219 Norman, W. J., 7 Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Picture-frames. Mouldings, &c.
220 Radley, W. B., Peel-st., Ballarat.—Scagliola lady's work-table.
221 Robertson, F., 4 Collins-st. East. Melbourne.—Drawingroom folding-screens, with pictorial and allegorical designs.
222 Rocke, W. H., & Co., 36, 38, 40. and 42 Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Pavilion of Art Furniture and Decorations, as described below, each article entered as a separate exhibit:—
• Bedroom suite, consisting of wardrobe, pedestal duchesse-table, pedestal wasbstand, chest drawers, pedestal cupboard, commode, and towel-rail, in colonial Blackwood and Huon pine, marqueterie, inlaid with ebony and holly, carvings in blackwood. Style, Italian renaissance.
• Stuff-over Couch and Lounge-chairs, upholstered in turquoise-blue and silver sateen.
• Blackwood and Huon pine occasional table, marqueterie, inlaid with ebony and holly.
• Chimney-piece and glass, in Blackwood and Huon pine, marqueterie, inlaid with ebony and holly. Style, Italian renaissance.
• Window cornices, in wood, gilt. Style, Italian renaissance. With valances in turquoise-blue and silver sateen.
• Hangings, for bedstead, in turquoise-blue and silver sateen.
• Parquet floor, in Blackwood and Huon pine.
• Wall and ceiling decorations for bedroom, painted in oil colours, with panels of turquoise-blue and silver sateen.
• Drawingroom Cabinet, in Satinwood and black and gold, incised ornaments, gilt and marqueterie; inlaid with ebony, holly, and purple woods; panels, figures painted on gold ground. Style, early English.
• Drawingroom Cabinet, in thuya-wood and ebony, incised ornaments, gilt and marqueterie; inlaid with ebony, holly, purple, beef, orange, palm woods, and ivory; panels, figures painted on gold ground. Style, early English.
• Drawingroom Jardiniere and Console glass, ebonised and gold, with painted panels. Style, Italian renaissance.
• Drawingroom black and gold Occasional Chairs, upholstered in plush and velvet.
• Drawingroom Wall Decoration, painted in oil colours. Style, early English.
• Drawingroom Cornices, in black and gold, and valances in silk.
• Oak Sideboard, 8-ft. 6-in., incised and carved panels, with cove and panels in painted figures on gold ground. Style, early English.
• Mahogany pedestal Sideboard, 8-ft. 6-in. Style, modern.
• Mahogany diningroom Chair, in colonial morrocco. Style, modern.
• Oak diningroom Chair, in colonial morrocco. Style, early English.
• Diningroom Wall Decoration, painted in oil colours. Style, early English.
• Bedroom Suite, in colonial Blackwood, with mouldings, carvings, and handles of nickel silver, consisting of wardrobe, duchesse-table, washstand, chest of drawers, and pedestal cupboard.
• Bedroom Wall Decoration, painted in oil colours.
• PAVILION, containing above.

225 Sommer, J. C., 89 Victoria-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Painted decoration for walls, &c.
228 Waters, S. T., Castlemaine-st., Yarraville, Melbourne.—Decorative panel, mantelpieces, and door grained in imitation of woods and marble.
229 Watson, W., Upper Macedon.—Rustic tables. Rustic picture-frames, &c.
230 Wehsack, P., 18 Little Collins-st East, Melbourne.—Parquet flooring.
231 Whitehead, I., 87 Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Gilt pier-glass and table, window cornices, brackets, picture-frames, &c.

Class 19.—Crystal, Glass, and Stained Glass.

235 Australasian Glass Manufacturing Co. Limited. 21 Little Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Glassware.
236 Beer, C., Sydney-road, Brunswick.—Fish globes.
237 Bell, J., View-place, Sandhurst.—Ornamental glass windows.
238 Brooks, Robinson & Co., 39 Elizabeth-st, Melbourne.—Plate-glass, silvered and embossed.
241 Simonsen, P., 96 Commercial-road, Prahran.—"Vitracmane"—imitation of stained glass.
242 Thomas & Richardson, Boundary-road, Hotham, Melbourne.—Glassware in variety.
244 Woodroffe's Glassblowers, 101 Bourke-st. East, Melbourne.—Fancy glass. Philosophical instruments in glass.

Class 20.—Pottery.

245 Austin, J. H., Barkly-st., Brunswick, Melbourne.—Glazed stoneware pipes.
246 Australasian Tile Works, Malvern, Melbourne.—Agricultural pipes. Vases.
248 Nolan, L., Sydney-road,Brunswick, Melbourne.—Earthenware and terra-cotta articles.
249 Dahlke's Filter Co., Sandridge-road, Melbourne.—Wine-cooler.
250 Gilbrook Pottery, Park-st., Brunswick, Melbourne.—Vase, fountains, &c., in terra-cotta and earthenware.
251 Kilpatrick & Co., 39 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Terra-cotta vases, medallions, &c.
253 Teale, G., Malvern-road, Prahran, Melbourne.—Wedgwood-ware beer jug, having won first prize at the London Exhibition of 1851. (Loan.)
254 Timperley, W. J., & Brother, 13 Gwynne-St., Richmond, Melbourne.—Spirit barrels.
255 Knight, A., & Co., Lai Lai.—Stoneware.
256 Wolstencroft, J. & W., Miller-st, Back Creek, Sandhurst.—Earthenware mouldings.

Class 21.—Carpets, Tapestry, and other Stuffs for Furniture.
258 Corrie, W., 21 A Beckett-st., Melbourne.—Bedding materials.
259 Miller, J., & Co., 61 Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Coir mats and matting.
260 Penal Establishment, Pentridge, Melbourne.—Coir mats and matting.
261 Piper, J., 3 Francis-st., Collingwood, Melbourne.—Hair for upholstery, bedding materials.
262 Tronson & Rutherford.—Bedding materials.

Class 22.—Cutlery.
263 Lillycrap, H., Urquhart-st, Castlemaine.—Cutlery for the use of butchers, curriers, &c.
264 Marsden, A., Barkly-st, Footscray, Melbourne.—Cutlery.
265 Walker, T., 95 Clarendon-st., Emerald Hill, Mel bourne.—Cutlery.
267 Wragg, G., Powell and Chapel sts., South Yarra, Melbourne.—Bread, butchers', and cooks' knives.

Class 23.—Goldsmiths' and Silversmiths' Work.
269 Denis Brothers & Co., 72 and 74 Bourke-st. East, .Melbourne.—Goldsmiths' and silversmiths' work.
270 Edwards & Kaul, 5 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Goldsmiths' and silversmiths' work.
271 Evett, W., 85 York-st. East, Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Materials for goldsmiths' and silversmiths' work.
272 Gartner, W., 30 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Mounted emu eggs. Plated-ware.
273 Henty, P., Studley Park, Kew.—Prizes obtained at London agricultural shows. (Loan.)
274 Joseph Brothers, 77 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Mounted emu eggs.
275 Kilpatrick & Co., 39 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Goldsmiths' and silversmiths' ware.
276 Myers, W., 65 Mint-place, Lonsdale-st. West, Melbourne.—Clocks.
277 Rowland, J. R., 87 and 91 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Enamelled gold and silver ware; the enamelling chamlevé.
278a Stokes & Martin, 100 Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Military badges and ornaments. Plated dishes, &c.

Class 24.—Bronzes and various Art Castings and Repousse Work.
279 Kilpatrick & Co., 39 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Statuettes and vases in bronze.

Class 25.—Clocks and "Watches.
281 Bosch, G., Burwood-road, Hawthorn, Melbourne.—Lever watch movement
282 Edwards, J. B., 78 Brunswick-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Regulator clock, made of odds and ends picked up on the goldfields.
284 Joseph Brothers, 77 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Turret-clock. Specimen of clock-making.
288 Maudsley, J., Yarra-st, Geelong.—Chrono-metrical clock-work.
287 Thicthener, H., 112 Brunswick-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Clocks, skeleton and other.
Class 27.—Apparatus and Processes for Heating and Lighting.

290 Bond, Ruth, Farmer-st., St. Kilda, Melbourne.—Box-iron, to be heated by gas.
291 Briscoe & Co., 11, 13, and 15 Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Kitchen-range.
292 Brown, W., 23 William-st, Melbourne.—Tailor's iron, heated by gas.
293 Brunswick Foundry, Brunswick.—Grates.
294 Butcher, T., 124 Brunswick-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Atmospheric oven.
296 Connelly, J. T., High and Forest sts., Sandhurst—Gas reflectors. Steamboat lamp.
298 Drysdale & Fraser, 131 King-st., West Melbourne.—Cast-iron ventilators. Silent blast-fan.
300 Goby, A., 85 Flinders-st. East, Melbourne.—Cooking stoves and utensils.
301 Harnwell, W., 62 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Colonial ovens.
302 Hutchison, J., 5 and 7 Post Office-place, Melbourne.—Ranges and ovens.
304 Knobel, G. A., Royal Park Hotel, Queens-berry-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Knobel's improved compound ventilator.
307 M'Lean Brothers & Rigg, 69 Elizabeth-st, Melbourne.—Economical kitchen ranges.
308 Mahoney, F., 22 Rathdown-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Ventilators.
309 Murphy, E., Sand ridge-road, Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Patent ventilator.
310 Nicholson J., & Son, 183 Victoria-parade, Collingwood, Melbourne.—Range boilers.
313 Patton, Emily S-, Studley Park-road, Kew. Melbourne.—Patent portable iron plate, for cooking over colonial oven.
314 Porta, J., & Sons, 140 Little Lonsdale-st. East, Melbourne.—Bellows and portable forges.
319 Toms, W., 138 Swan-st.. Richmond. Melbourne.—Bath, with furnace. Ventilators for roof.
321 Wallis Brothers & Co, 211, 213, and 215 Wellington-st.. Colling wood, Melbourne.—Gas stoves, improved colonial ovens, kitchen-ranges, &c.
322 Williams, T., Gold-st., Collingwood, Melbourne.—Colonial oven.
323 Willis, W., & Co., 31 Little Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Steel lamps.

Class 28.—Perfumery.

324 Apollo Stearine Candle Co. Limited, Footscray, Melbourne.—Perfumed soaps.
325 Atkin, C. A., 43 Errol-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Eau-de-Cologne and lavender water.
326 Bosisto, J., Bridge-road, Richmond, Melbourne.—Perfumery obtained from native flowers.
327 Graham, J., 95 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Hair washes and pomades.
328 Johnstone, Jeannie H., Latrobe-terrace, Geelong.—Soap tablets and powders.
329 Kitchen, J., & Sons, 28 Little Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Soaps.
330 Lewis & Wkitty, 36 Charles-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Perfumery and hair oils.
Class 29.—Leatlier-work, Fancy Articles, and Basket-work.

333 Tilley & Clack, Surrey-road, South Yarm, Melbourne.—Toilet Soaps. Violet powder.

334 Bryse, A., 225 Lygon-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Hair and nail brushes, glove-stretchers, shoe horns.
335 Gaunt, T., Royal Arcade. 14 Bourke-st East, Melbourne.—Samples of hair-work devices.

Writing-cases, &c.
341 Parker, C. M., 2 Apsley-terrace, Station-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Inlaid tea-caddy.
342 Pettit, E., 33 Latrobe-st. East, Melbourne.—Basketware.
343 Porteous & Gibaud, 120 Little Flindert-st East, Melbourne.—Brush ware. Painters', household, fancy brushes, &c.
344 Rosenthal, S., 1 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Meerschaum pipes and amber goods.
346 Sands & M'Dougall, 46 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Dressing-cases.
347 Wehsack, F., 18 Little Collins-st East, Melbourne.—Improved cash-boxes.
348 Wheeler, E. J., Miller-st., West Melbourne.—Lady's cabinet.
349 Zevenboom, J., 223 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Brushware, painters' and general.
350 Zevenboom & Thompson, 1 and 3 Little Lonsdale-st. West, Melbourne.—Brooms. Brush-ware.

IV. Textile Fabrics, Clothing, and Accessories.

Class 31.—Thread and Fabrics of Flax, Hemp, &c.
351 Miller, J., & Co., 61 Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Jute goods; sacks, woolpacks, &c.

Class 33.—Woollen Yarn and Fabrics.
352 Albion Woollen Mill Co., Geelong, and 44 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Plain and fancy tweeds.
355 Castlemaine Woollen Co., Castlemaine.—Yarn and woollen goods.
356 Gray Brothers, 23 and 25 Latrobe-st. East, Melbourne.—Woollen piece goods.
357 Melbourne Woollen Mill Co. Limited, 29 Little Flinders-st. East, Melbourne.—Woollen piece goods, tweeds.
358 Penal Establishment, Pentridge, Melbourne.—Blankets.

Class 34.—Silk and Silk Fabrics.
360 Bowen, Eliza, Jeffcott-st., Melbourne.—Raw silk and cocoons.
361 Goldstein, A., jun., Ross' Bridge.—Raw and floss Silk.
362 Herman, Elizabeth, 181 Skipton-st., Ballarat.—Raw Silk.
363 Ladies' Silk Association, Rutherglen.—Silk cocoons. Raw and manufactured silk. This silk colonial-grown from European grain.
365 Page, Mrs. R., High-st., Maldon.—Silk and silk cocoons.
366 Talbot, Sarah P., 1 Hoddle-st., East Melbourne.—Raw and floss silk.
Class 35.—Shawls.
368 Ballarat Woollen Co., Ballarat.—Shawls.
369 Jackson, Ellen A., Buckingham-st., North Richmond, Melbourne.—Shawls.
370 Victorian Woollen and Cloth Manufacturing Co. Limited. The, Barwon River, Geelong.—Shawls.

Class 36.—Lace, Net, Embroidery, and Trimmings.
371 Alston, Rose, 25 Bourke-st. West, Melbourne.—The Queen's monogram, embroidered.
372 Burrage. T. A., 63 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Embroidered ornaments, for theatrical and dress costumes.
374 Mack & Ellis, Little Flinders-st. East, Melbourne.—Frilling and trimming.
375 Martin, C. R., 3 Little Flinders-st. East, Melbourne.—Naval, military, and masonic embroidery. Friendly societies' regalia.
377 Mowbray, Rowan & Hicks, 33, 35, and 37 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Net, lace, and embroidered silk goods.
379 Spedding, J. D., 17 and 19 Royal Arcade, Melbourne.—Embroidered silk goods.

Class 37.—Hosiery and Underclothing and Accessories of Clothing.
381 Alexander, Mrs. S., 74 Gertrude-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Ladies' and gentlemen's underclothing.
383 Braeside Shirt Factory, Little Clifton-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Gentlemen's haberdashery and underclothing.
384 Danelli, Virginia, Sydney-road, Melbourne.—Embroidered shirts.
385 Decourtet, Eulalie S., 92 Russell-st.. Melbourne.—Ladies' improved corsets, and materials for stay-making.
388 Hughes, R., Franklin-st. West, Melbourne.—Walking-sticks.
389 Jackson, Sarah E., Buckingham-st., North Richmond, Melbourne.—Machine-knitted socks and stockings.
390 M'Diarmed, A., Post-office, Mansfield.—Walking-sticks. &c.
391 M'Diarmed, D., Post-office, Mansfield.—Walking-sticks. &c.
392 M'Gillivray, Sarah. 148 Moray-St., Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Knitted hosiery, jackets, &c.
393 Mack & Ellis, Little Flinders-st. East, Melbourne.—Ladies' and children's underclothing.
394 Mowbray, Rowan & Hicks, 33, 35, and 37 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Underclothing.
399 Turner, J. H., 49 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Hatters' materials.
400 Youl, J. B., 10 Howe-crescent, Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Hosiery.

Class 38.—Clothing for both Sexes.
401 Ashford, J. C., Buckingham-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Ladies' and gentlemen's boots and shoes.
403 Bissmir, C., 67 Brunswick st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Bonnet-shapes.
405 Brown, J. C., 92 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Wigs. Ladies' ornamental Hair-work. Theatrical Wigs.
408 Cantor & Loel, 6 Bourke-st. East, Melbourne.—Clothing.
409 Carson, D., 39 Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Boots, shoes, and slippers.
410 Coutie, J., 119 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Boots and shoes, clogs, carved wood lasts.
411 Dennis, A., Post Office-place, Melbourne.—Boot-uppers.
413 Dudon & Beaupin, 80 Bourke-st. East, Melbourne.—Wigs and ornamental hair-work.
415 Eve, J. S., 171 Bourke-st. East, Melbourne.—Wigs. Hair-work.
416 Ford Brothers, 425 King-st., West Melbourne.—Hats, helmets, and sunshades made of native pith, from the plant Scriptus lacustris.
417 Gaskell, Anne, 118 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Artificial flowers, in wax.
418 Gibson, G., 36 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Boots and shoes.
419 Graham, J., 95 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Wigs, scalps, ornamental hair-work.
420 Harris, J., & Sons, 41 Little Flinders-st. East, Melbourne.—Boots and Shoes.
421 Higginbotham, W. J., sen., 122 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Theatrical wigs and beards. Fancy hair-work.
423 How Brothers, Islington-court, Collingwood, Melbourne.—Boot and machine laces, manufactured from Victorian kangaroo.
425 M Bean & Hickmer, 57 and 121 Smith-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Boots and boot-uppers.
426 M'Guigan, J., 75 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Boots and shoes.
427 Mackle, J. B., 3 Collins-st West, Melbourne.—Hats and caps.
428 Mack & Ellis, Little Flinders-st East. Melbourne.—Ladies' and childrens clothing.
429 Marks, M., 166 Gertrude-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Cossack mantle.
430 Marsh, J. T., 97 Doveton-st. North, Ballarat.—Hats.
432 Monster Clothing Co., The. 21 Bourke-st. East, Melbourne.—Men's and boys' clothing.
436 Penal Establishment, Pentridge, Melbourne.—Clothing. Boots.
437 Roberts, W. L., Morris-st., Ballarat—Trousers and vest, Geelong tweed.
438 Robinson, T., Ryrrie-st., Collingwood, Melbourne.—Boots and Shoes.
439 Roelans & Burdett, 14 Brunswick-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Boots and shoes.
440 Rosier, J., 46 Swanston-st, Melbourne.—Boots and shoes.
441 Samuel, Esther, 128 Smith-st., Collingwood, Melbourne.—Knickerbocker suits and children's costumes.
442 Shelmerdine & Co., Denton Mills. Colling-wood, Melbourne.—Felt hats, fur and woollen hats, in various stages of manufacture.
443 Simons, Eliza P., Royal Arcade, Melbourne.—Artificial flowers, in wax, paper, and muslin.
446 Speeding, J. D., 17 and 19 Royal Arcade, Melbourne.—Ladies' and children's clothing. Infants' robes, cloaks, and costumes.
447 Staff, Hester, Royal Arcade, Melbourne.—Artificial flowers, in wax, paper, and shells.
448 Stevenson, L., & Sons, 14 Little Flinders-st. East, Melbourne.—Men's and boys' hats, caps, and helmets.
449 stokes & Martin, 100 Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Copper toes for children's boots.
450 Storer, J., 83 Bourke-st East, Melbourne.—Ornamental stitching on boots.
451 Thomas, P., 3 Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Boots and shoes.
452 Turner, J. H., 49 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Hats, helmets.
453 Vale, W. K., 84 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Fancy dresses, gentlemen's clothing.
456 Waterman, Cohen & Co., 26 Little Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Tweed hats and caps.
458 Weigel, Madame, 12 and 14 Eastern Arcade, Melbourne.—Paper patterns of ladies' dresses.
459 Wholesale Clothing Co., Market-buildings, Melbourne.—Men's clothing.
460 Wynne, J. H., 74 Leicester-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Ladies' boots and shoes.

Class 39.—Jewellery and Precious Stones.
461 Armfield Brothers, 38 Stanley-st., Collingwood, Melbourne.—Gold and silver chains, &c.
462 Blashki, P., 120 Bourke-st. East, Melbourne.—Gold and silver jewellery.
463 Burnard, S., 171 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Gold and silver jewellery.
465 Dubroca, G., 313 Nicholson-st, Melbourne.—Imitation jewellery and ornaments in nickel, white metal, &c.
466 Edwards Brothers, Yarra Bank, Prince's Bridge, Melbourne.—Prizes obtained for steering and rowing.
(Loan.)
467 Flegeltaub, L., 35 Bourke-st. East, Melbourne.—Jewellery.
468 Gant, Eliza, Toorak-road, South Yarra, Melbourne.—Hair guards, &c., gold-mounted.
469 Gourlay, J. B., 124 Napier-st. Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Shell and figure jewellery.
471 Holloway, H. W., 73 Elizabeth-st, Melbourne.—Jewellery.
473 Larard & Sons, 42 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Jewellery.
475 Robertson, F. H., 45 Clifton-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Quondong necklace, bracelet, earrings, and brooch.
476 Spink, H., 80 Little Flinders-st. East, Melbourne.—Gems and precious stones, cut.

Class 40.—Portable Weapons, and Hunting and Shooting Equipments.
477 Allan, A. H., 56 Chancery-lane, Melbourne.—Fishing-rods and tackle.
479 Draper & Tillett, 104 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Fireworks.
480 Hatton, J., 185 King-st., West Melbourne.—Greyhound slips.

Class 41.—Travelling Apparatus and Camp Equipage.
485 Jackson & M'Ewan, 61 Flinders-st. East, Melbourne.—Trunks, portmanteaus, &c.
486 Leigh ton, J. J., 1 Little Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Portmanteaus and cricket bags.
488 Pausacker, Evans & Co., 8 and 10 Lonsdale-st West, Melbourne.—Trunks, portmanteaus, and bags.

Class 42.—Toys.
490 Fox, W. B., Kangaroo Flat, Sandhurst—Cricket balls.
491 Moore, J., & Son, 177 and 179 Smith-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Dissolving views. Magic-lantern
V. Raw and Manufactured Products.

Class 43.—Products of the Cultivation of Forests and of the Trades appertaining thereto.

495 Bonetti, G., 130 Spring-st., Melbourne.—Wine casks. Samples of cooperage.
496 Caughey, A. & R., Yarra Bank, Melbourne.—Wine-vats.
498 Dardel, J. H., Batesford, Geelong.—Pine slabs.
499 Davies, W., Stockyard Creek. Gippsland.—Blackwood slab.
500 Department of Agriculture, Melbourne.—Indigenous timbers, fibres.
501 Faziola, J., Avend.—Charcoal.

Paper material. Vegetable extracts. (As per Special Catalogue.)
503 Harrison, T. S. & Co., 2-1 Little Collins-st East, Melbourne.—Bottle-corks, &c.
504 Lowan Shire Council, The, Dimboola.—Mallee wood.
505 Penal Establishment, Pentridge, Melbourne.—Basketware.
506 Petersen, G. H., 184 Moray-st., Emerald Hill.—Collection of Victorian woods.
507 Phoenix Steam Cooperage, Prince's-bridge, Melbourne.—Wine-casks.
508 Pow. J. K., & Co., 24 King-st, Melbourne.—Mimosa bark, ground, powdered, and chopped; extract of same.

509 Quiggin, J. E., Toolamba—Redgum slabs.
510 Schofield, W., Somerset-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Knife-cut veneer.
511 Shire & Borough of Ararat.—Timber.
512 Taylor, H., & Son, Kangaroo Flat, Sandhurst.—Samples of willow.
513 United Shire of Metcalfe, Metcalfe.—Native woods.
514 Webber, J., Geelong Cooperage, Ryrie-st, Geelong.—Articles of cooperage.

Class 44.—Products of Hunting, Shooting, Fishing, and Spontaneous Products. Machines and Instruments connected therewith.

515 Aborigines, Central Board for the Protection of, 69 Temple-court, Melbourne.—Native weapons.
517 Ballarat Bone Mills, Ballarat.—Horns, hoofs, and bones, polished. Horns and hoofs, crushed.
518 Best, D., Brunswick-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Entomological specimens.
519 Borland, Martha, Maryborough.—Stuffed birds and flying squirrels.
520 Bryse, A., 225 Lygon-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Ox-bones prepared for brush-backs; and bristles, washed and unwashed.

521 Campbell, A. J., H.M. Customs, Melbourne.—Collection of Australian birds' eggs.
522 Coles, A, Mollison-st., Kyneton.—Stuffed birds.
523 Connor, W., Ryrie-st., Geelong.—Native bears, stuffed.
524 Costello, P., Camp Hill, Creswick.—Curled horse-hair.
525 D'Alton. St. E., Dimboola, Horsham.—Collection of dried plants.
526 French, C., Botanic Gardens, Melbourne.—Entomological, ornithological, and reptile collections.

Australian and foreign birds, &c.
528 Godfrey, F. R., 69 Temple-court, Melbourne.—Stuffed birds.
529 Hart, L. H., 28 Royal Arcade, Melbourne.—Native curiosities.
530 Hordern. W., Auburn-road, Hawthorn, Melbourne.—Birds' eggs.
531 Leith, T. A. F., Martin-st., Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Stuffed birds.
532 Le Souef, A. A. C., Royal Park, Melbourne.—Miniature native weapons.
533 Lucas, Dr. T. P., 43 Bank-st. East, Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Biros' eggs.
534 Mandevelle, L., High-st., Wedderburn.—Black snake.
535 North, A. J., Holmes-road, Moonee Ponds, Melbourne.—Victorian birds' eggs.
536 Nyulas, C., 28 King William-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Portion of skull showing saw of a saw-fish.
537 O'Sullivan, Theresa, Highett-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Collection of insects.
538 Pollard, E. F., Victorian Railways, Melbourne.—Stuffed birds.
539 Shanklin, Maria B., Upper Maffra, North Gippsland.—Artificial flies.
541 Somers, Sarah, Sydney-road, Brunswick, Melbourne.—Hammer-headed shark, stuffed.
542 Swallow & Woolley, Rouse-st., Sandridge, Melbourne.—Collection of birds' eggs.
544 Weeks, A., 36 Palmerston-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Undressed feathers.
545 Wilson, J. G., Orphan Asylum, Brighton, Melbourne.—Collection of dried ferns.

Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food.

548 Cameron Brothers & Co., Virginia Factory, 97, 99, and 101 Bourke-st. West, Melbourne.—Tobacco, manufactured and unmanufactured.
549 Department of Agriculture, Melbourne.—Grasses.
550 Doran, F., Franklin River, Gippsland.—Raw and manufactured flax.
551 Dudgeon & Arnell, 125, 127, and 129 Lonsdale-st. West, Melbourne.—Manufactured tobacco and snuff.
552 Fitts Brothers, Sandridge Bend, Melbourne.—Glue. Animal oils.
553 Fogelson & Markwald, 140 Elgin-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Cigarettes.
556 Jewell, E., Clovelly Farm, Bridgewater-on-Loddon.—Wheat-straw. Chaff.
557 Kyneton Agricultural Association, The, Kyneton.—Grass seeds.
558 Lincolne, A., Kirk's Bazaar, Bourke-st. West, Melbourne.—Tobacco leaf, bunch of grasses, named grass seeds.
559 M'Connell, J., Rochford.—Grass seeds.
560 M'Ewan, James, & Co., 81 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Cigars made of Fijian tobacco. Manufactured in Melbourne.

Class 46.—Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products.

565 Adams, G., Latrobe-terrace, Ashley, Geelong.—Eye lotion.
567 Apollo Stearine Candle Co. Limited, Footscray, Melbourne.—Candles in variety. Oils, chemicals; glycerine, medicinal and crude, &c.
568 Atkin, C. A., 43 Errol-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Quinine tonic made with colonial wine.
569 Australian Lithofracteur Co., 29 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Nitric, sulphuric, and other acids.
571 Bosisto, J., Bridge-road. Richmond, Melbourne.—Essential oils from Eucalyptus, others from indigenous trees, &c. Chemical products from same.
Epsom salts. Senna leaves, &c.

573 Carwardine, W. H., Charlton-road, Sandhurst.—Soap.
574-5 Cooper, A., Park-st., Brighton, Melbourne.—Aerated waters.
577 Dawbarn, W. H., & Son, 35 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Soda-water and lemonade.
578 Dixon, P. G., Rosslyn-st., West Melbourne.—Aerated waters.
579 Eve, J. S., 171 Bourke-st. East, Melbourne.—Hair dyes, &c.

Disinfecting liquid.

583 Hepburn Spring Water Co., 142 Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Aerated waters.
584 Hesse, L., Argyl-st., St. Hilda, Melbourne.—Disinfectants, liquid and in powder.
586 Hunter, A. D., Mercer-st., Geelong.—Patent composition for destroying rabbits and other vermin.
587 Kingsland, G., 259 King-st., West Melbourne.—Chemical and pharmaceutical preparations.
588 Kitchen, J., & Sons, 28 Little Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Stearine candles, soda crystals.
589 Lewis & Whitty, 36 Charles-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Blue, blacking, seidlitz-powders, soda crystals, knife-powders, extract of soap.
590 Loan, L., Walhalla, Gippsland.—Aerated waters.
591 Longmore, F., Flinders and Kingsts., Melbourne.—Drugs, chemicals, and pharmaceutical preparations.

Class 48.—Leather and Skins.

605 Alston, D., 25 Bourke-st. West, Melbourne.—Leather, for harness and saddlery purposes.
608 Marks, N. S., 108 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Kram's pills and ointment, chlorodyne, eye lotion, &c. Essence of sarsaparilla, tonic syrup.
610 Prevot & Bilton, 11 Madeline-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Aerated waters.
613 Sullivan, J., 15 King William-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Sullivan's disinfecting preparations.
614 Sutherland, J., 16 Little Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Specimens of soap, and the materials used in its manufacture.
616 Tilley & Clack. Surrey-road, South Yarra, Melbourne.—Woodleigh's patent washing solution.
VI. Machinery—Apparatus and Processes used in the Mechanical Industries.

Class 49.—Agricultural Implements and Processes used in the Cultivation of Fields and Forests.

631 Australian Deodorising, Disinfectant, & Fertilising Co. Limited, 66 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Artificial manures.

632 Birkmyre, W., Mona-place, South Yarra, Melbourne.—Residuum from purified Yan Yean water, to be used as a manure.

633 Bromfield, J., Union Foundry, Horsham.—Model of plough.


635 Byrne, J. K., Echuca.—Model plough.

636 Clark, J., Majorca.—Ploughs. Harrows.


639 Department of Agriculture, Melbourne.—Soils.


645 Hesse, L., Argyle-st., St. Kilda, Melbourne.—Artificial manures.

646 Higgins, J. F., 39 Little Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Block of compressed patent manure.

647 Hoy, R., Ararat.—Farrier's shoe-turning hammer.

648 Howden, J., Darraweit Guim.—Harrows.

649 Kelly & Preston, Creswick-road, Ballarat.—Ploughs.


653 Lyon, C. H., Ballanee, Ballan.—Grubbing-machine.
655 M’Millan, A., 7 Madeline-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Tobacco-cutters.

- Horse-power, with intermediate gear.
- The S. M’Caughey patent automatic earth-scoop, mounted on four wheels, to be worked by one man and two horses. Capable of removing 150 to 200 yards of earth per day of ten hours.

657 Munro, G., Alfredton, Ballarat.—Horse-works.
658 Musgrove, J., Greenvale.—Horse-works.
662 Petti grew, A., Cropley.—Extra heavy plough, for special uses.
663 Randall, T., & Co., 81, 83, and 85 Rose-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Hay and drag rakes.
664 Robinson & Sons, 6, 8, and 10 A’Beckett-st., Melbourne.—Ploughs.
665 Roche, J. E., Union Foundry, Horsham.—Plough.
666 Rouse, F. A., Argyle-st., Talbot.—Tobacco-cutting machine.
667 Shire and Borough of Ararat.—Model of double-furrow plough.
670 Tynan, J., Mair-St., Ballarat.—Plough.
671 Vulcan Foundry, Geelong.—Agricultural machinery.
672 Williams, G., Gippsland.—Model ploughs.

Class 50.—Apparatus and Processes used in Agricultural Works, and in Works for the Preparation of Food.

674 Bey, T., Crescent. Talbot.—Patent double-action churn.
675 Bodington, R., Queensberry-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Flour-mill machinery, and tools used in flour-making.
676 Bult, G., High-st., Echuca.—Chums and cheese-vats.
677 Burne, J., jun., Strathfieldsaye, Sandhurst—Wine-making model.
678 Cherry, E., Gisborne.—Churns.
680 Davis, G., 270 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Churns and other dairy utensils.
682 Foulton & Wylie, Greville-st., Prahran, Melbourne.—Arctic economic ice safes. Refrigerators, &c.
683 Hall, A., 48 Douglas-parade, Williamstown, Melbourne.—Cabinet bottle-rack.
684 Harratt, H., Chetwynd-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Cheese-presses and screws.
685 Hulme, E., Milawa, Oxley.—Model of Dairy.
686 Johnstone, A., Stawell.—Churn.
688 Lezza, S., 45 Madeline-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Apparatus for the manufacture of confectionery, ice creams, &c.
691 Parkes, w. H., 14 Market-buildings, Collins-st West, Melbourne.—Machine for moulding, for kitchen use.
694 Thirkettle, W. J., Kyneton.—Diagonal box-churns.
695 Victoria Ice Co., 77 Collins-st., Melbourne.—Ice chests.
Class 51.—Apparatus used in Chemistry, Pharmacy, and Tanning.

697 Apollo Stearine Candle Co. Limited, Footscray, Melbourne.—Apparatus for making fancy soap.
698 Kitchen, J., & Sons, 28 Little Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Candle-making machinery, in operation.

Class 52.—Machines and Apparatus in general.

699 Abraham, J., Shepperd-st., Ballarat.—Windmill.
700 Anscombe. W. W., Kangaroo Flat, Sandhurst.—Engine for elevating water.
701 Arnott, J. L., Albert-st., Footscray, Melbourne.—Vertical engine and boiler.
702 Atlas Co. of Engineers, Latrobe and Queen sts., Melbourne.—Sleeper adzing and boring machine.

Windmill.
703 Baker, J., 32 Bank-st. West, Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Washing, wringing, and mangleing machine.
704 Batten, E. G-. & Co., Fernleigh-st., Chilwell, Geelong.—Model of beam-engine, with boiler attached.
705 Brierly, W., Moray-st. and Sandridge-road, Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Bolts, nuts, screws, &c.
706 Brown, E., Shire Engineer, Benalla.—Windmill.

Winding-gear.
708 Browning & Calvert, 12 Brunswick-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Horizontal engine.
709 Buchanan & Nodrum, Sandridge, Melbourne.—Horizontal engine. Vertical boiler.

Aqueducts.
711 Cowley & Davis. 10 Legare-st., Ballarat West.—Improved method of affixing clothes-lines for household purposes.
712 Croker, M. & F. G., East Carlton.—Rabbit annihilator.
713 Dalton, W., Finch-st., Beechworth.—Horizontal engine.
714 Danks, J., 42 Bourke-st. West, Melbourne.—Engineers' and plumbers' brass-work. Windmill. Steam and hand pumps.
715 Davison, G., 44 Latrobe-st. West, Melbourne.—Cocks and valves.
716 Drysdale & Fraser, 131 King-st., West Melbourne.—Ship and crab winches. Patent double-acting pump.
719 Ford, F. W., Union-st., East Brighton, Melbourne.—Vertical steam-engine.
720 Ford, R. G., East Brighton, Melbourne.—Ford's patent boiler.
722 Godfrey, R., 12 Franklin-st. West, Melbourne.—Bankers' and butchers' scales. Weighing-machines.
726 Hatty, J., Lennon's Agricultural Works, North Melbourne.—Model of stationary steam-engine.
728 Langland's Foundry Co. The. 144 Little Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Portable 10-horse power steam engine

Models.
729 Lawrence, W. H., Lewisham-road, Prahran, Melbourne.—Model of vertical engine.
730 Lowe, J. E., Darling-st., South Yarra, Melbourne.—Hydraulic engines.

Steam boilers.
732 M'Bean, W., 21 Collins-st. West Melbourne.—Model of horizontal engine.

738 Munday, J., Geelong.—Leather belting, &c.
739 Munro, D., & Co., 154 Queen-st., Melbourne.
• Stationary engine, with hoisting-gear, for mining and other purposes.
• Boiler for stationary engine.
• 9-inch centrifugal pump.
• 7-inch do. do.
• 4-inch do. do.
• 2½-inch do. do.
• Deep well pumps.
• “Victory” patent self-adjusting windmills, for pumping water for farm and station use. Constructed of metal, and mounted on tripod stand.
• Derrick crane, Suitable for contractors and quarrymen.
• Portable do. Suitable for contractors and quarrymen.
• Self-filling tanks, for squatters’ use.
• Model of “Victory” windmill and pump.
740 Murray, R., Chiltem.—Model of horizontal steam-engine.
741 Nicholls, C. F., Abbotsford Lodge, Abbotsford, Melbourne.—Boiler and steam-pipe coverings.
743 Pitkeithly, R., Pampa, Lake Boloke.—Improved windmill.
745 Rasche, W., C.E., 55 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Steam-engine.
746 Reade, R., Talbot.—Model of winding steam-engine.
748 Richmond, S. G., 45 Elizabeth-st. North, Melbourne.—Mangles.
750 Robinson & Sons, 6, 8, and 10 A’Beckett-st., Melbourne.—Fountain and other washing-machines. Bolts, nuts, rivets, spikes, &c.
751 Union Foundry, Drummond-st., Ballarat—Model of traction-engine.
752 Victoria Ice Co. Limited, 77 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Ice chests and cabinets.
753 Victoria Iron Rolling Co., Dudley-st., West Melbourne.—Marine engine shaft, with collar; two-throw crank shaft.
754 Vulcan Foundry, Geelong.—Steam-engines. Washing-machines.
758 Watson, W. R., 104 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Knife cleaner and sharpener combined with boot and shoe cleaner.
759 Williams, P., Franklin-st. West, Melbourne.—Washing-machine; Wringer; and Washing-boiler.
761 Wolter & Echberg, 6 Russell-st., Melbourne.—Washing-machines.
763 Young, W. C., Hotham-st., East Melbourne.—Small vertical engine and boiler.

Class 53.—Machine Tools.
764 Atlas Co. of Engineers, Latrobe and Queen sts., Melbourne.—Moulding, planing, tonguing, and grooving machine.
765 Drysdale & Fraser, 131 King-st., West Melbourne.—Punching and shearing machine.
767 How, H. M. C., Gipps-st., Collingwood.—Postborer.
768 Lankester, E., Colac.—Foot-power drilling-machine, auger-machine, circular saw.
769 Letham, J., Bouverie and Victoria sts., Carlton, Melbourne.—General masons’ tools.
• Patent travelling self-acting breaking-down circular-saw bench, with top and bottom saws, &c., complete.
• Vertical saw-frame.
• Circular-saw bench.
• Post-boring machine, used in fencing.


773 Willis, W., & Co., 31 Little Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Post-borer.

Class 54.—Apparatus and Processes used in Spinning and Rope-making.

774 Donaghy, M., Geelong.—Rope. Cordage.

Class 55.—Apparatus and Processes used in Weaving.

780 Higgins, J., jun., Napier-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Weavers reeds.
781 Jackson, Ellen A., Buckingham-st., North Richmond, Melbourne.—Machine for manufacture of knitted hosiery.
783 Macintosh H., 9 Post Office-place, Melbourne.—Loom for wire-weaving.
784 Youl, T. B., 10 Howe-crescent, Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Knitting-machine.

Class 56.—Apparatus and Processes for Sewing and for Making-up Clothing.

785 Crowley, C., 5 Little Lonsdale-st., Melbourne.—Stands for clothing.
786 Groom, B., Edward-st., Brunswick, Melbourne.—Hatters’ irons, &c.
787 Shelmerdine, T., Mollison-st., East Collingwood, Melbourne.—Machines and appliances used in the manufacture of hats.
788 Wilson, H., & Sons, Flemington-road. Hotham, Melbourne.—Machines and knives used in the manufacture of boots and shoes. Lasts.

Class 57.—Apparatus and Processes used in the Manufacture of Furniture and Objects for Dwellings.

789 Musgrove, J., Greenvale.—Foot lathe.

Class 58.—Apparatus and Processes used in Paper-making, Dyeing, and Printing.

792 Clark, W. T., 32 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Rubber Stamps. Pads, Specimen Books; &c.
793 Purse, C., Gwynne-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Wood type and printing apparatus.
794 Grant, J., Walsh-st., West Melbourne.—Printers' composing-sticks.

Class 59.—Machines, Instruments, and Processes used in various Works.
797 Aitken, T., Victoria-parade Brewery, East Melbourne.—Cask-washing Apparatus.
798 Flegeltaub, L., 35 Bourke-st. East, Melbourne.—Tools used in the manufacture of jewellery.
799 Harratt, H., Chetwynd-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Copying and embossing presses.
802 Rule, H., Racecourse-road, Flemington, Melbourne.—Machine for hanging wall-paper.
803 Stokes & Martin, 100 Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Medal and embossing presses.

Class 60.—Carriages and Wheelwrights' Work.

807 Armfield, T. G., 113 Peel-st., Windsor, Melbourne.—Carriage and buggy springs, fixtures for same.
808 Baalman, J., jun., Russell-st., Sandhurst-Bicycle and stand.
810 Carroll, E., 1 Argyle-square North, Carlton, Melbourne.—Eccentric buggy-lock.
813 Dickason Brothers, 175 Bridge-road, Richmond, Melbourne.—Double-seated Abbott's buggy.
814 Evans, W., 22 and 24 Grant-st., Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Carriage springs.
816 Gardiner, J. H., Courtney-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Invalid's chair and perambulator.
817 Hamilton, G. W. N., 11 Post Office-place, Melbourne.—Carriage and harness mountings.
818 Harding, W., 49 Hoddle-st., Collingwood, Melbourne.—Lorries. Carriage and wheelwrights' work.
820 Harvie, J., Bridge-road, Richmond, Melbourne.—Park phaeton.
822 Holden & George, Cresswick-st., Ballarat.—Model of delivery cart.
823 Houghton & Co., 8 Bridge-road, Richmond, Melbourne.—Bath chair. Perambulators.
824 Jamieson Brothers, Rhoea,.—Improved single-seated buggy.
826 Kelly & Preston, Cresswick-road, Ballarat.—Farm waggon.
828 Musgrove, J., Greenvale.—Hay dray.
830 Perry, J., 167 Russell-st., Melbourne.—Articles used in carriage-building.
832 Proctor, W., Sturt-st., Ballarat.—Sociable wagonette.
833 Reade, R., Talbot.—Model of Farm waggon.
834 Rose, J., Yarra-st., Geelong.—Carriage axles.
835 Ross, D., Toorak, Melbourne.—Steel bicycles.
837 Russell, R., 142 Victoria-st., West Melbourne.—Model of jump-seat buggy.
839 Schaefer, M., Ironbark, Sandhurst.—Model of spring-cart.
840 Sharpe, A. M., Lennox-st, North Richmond, Melbourne.—Whitechapel dog-cart.
841 Stephens Brothers, Liebig-st., Warrnambool.—Buggies. Carriages.
843 stickland & Sons, 133 Latrobe-st. East. Melbourne.—Victoria extension-top phaeton, mail or Stanhope.
phaeton.


845 Sturtevant, B., 1 Victoria-st. East, Melbourne.—Electroplate carriage mounting, &c.


848 White, D., 245 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Stanhope phaeton. Double or single seated buggy. Ladies’ phaeton.

849 Williams, M., & Sons, 123 and 125 Johnston-st., Collingwood, Melbourne.—Phaetons. Wagonette.

850 Williams & Sons, 125 Johnston-st., Collingwood, Melbourne.—Four-wheeled buggy.

Class 61.—Harness and Saddlery.

851 Alliband, T. G., Post-office, Echuca.—Green hide and kangaroo-skin stock-whip thongs.


854 Brooke, A., Post-office, Echuca.—Whip-thongs and handles.

855 Carey, W., Bourke-st. West, Melbourne.—Horse-shoes.


857 Cook, J., Barton-st.. Hawthorn, Melbourne.—Harness mountings, silver and aluminum plated, &c.

858 Coyle, T., Sandhurst.—Horse-shoes.

859 Cunnack, G., Barkly-st., Castlemaine.—Harness. Crop, &c.


862 Eyton, T., 95 Queen-st., Melbourne.—Saddles.

863 Forster, C., & Son, 31 Post Office-place, Melbourne.—Saddlery and harness.

864 Furley, J. F., 113 Rathdown-st, Carlton, Melbourne.—Model horse-shoes.


866 Hatton, J., 185 King-st., West Melbourne.—Harness.

867 Henderson, F., Dandenong.—Whip-thongs.

868 Kelly, J. T., 380 Brunswick-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Horse-shoes.

869 Kelly, J. T., 380 Brunswick-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Horse-shoes.

870 Kennon, J., & Sons, Riverst., Richmond, Melbourne.—Whip-thongs and fancy plaited work.

871 Kermode, W., 111 Little Lonsdale-st. West, Melbourne.—Horse-collars.

872 Keyston, J., 36 Bourke-st. West, Melbourne.—Whips and whip-thongs.

873 Kinnear, G., Sydney-st., Kilmore.—Saddlery.

874 Murrel, A., Little Malop-st., Geelong.—Horseshoes and shod horse-hoofs.


876 Pemberton, F., Beech worth.—Horse-shoes.


879 Rothwell, W., 52 Bourke-st. East, Melbourne.—Saddlery and harness.

880 Rutledge, J., 129 Latrobe-st. West, Melbourne.—Saddles.

881 Tinning, J., Sydney-road, Brunswick, Melbourne.—Whip-thongs.


883 Willis, W., & Co., 31 Little Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Harness brackets.

Class 62.—Railway Apparatus.

884 Ballarat Model Locomotive Co., Phoenix Foundry, Ballarat.—Model bogie locomotive.


887 Evans, W., 22 and 24 Grant-st.,. Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Railway-carriage springs and ironwork.

888 Jordan, J., Yarra Boiler Works, Yarra Bank, Melbourne.—Working model of locomotive engine and tender.

889 Kelly, R. H., 25 Urquhart-st. Ballarat.—Brass domes for locomotive engine-boilers, or others.
890 Langlands Foundry Co., The, 144 Little Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Locomotive engine and railway-carriage wheels.
891 Milligan & Wilkinson, 22 Swanston-st, Melbourne.—Gates for railway-crossings or other purposes.
893 Phoenix Foundry Co., The, Limited, Ballarat.—Locomotive engine and tender. Steam lorry.
894 Rule, H., Racecourse-road, Flemington, Melbourne.—Model of railway-carriage safety coupling.
896 Thompson & Co., Castlemaine.—Points and crossings manufactured for Victorian railways.
899 Victorian Railway Department, Williamstown, Melbourne.—Locomotive goods-engine and tender. First-class American saloon car.
900 Wilson, A., 201 Gertrude-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—working model of Pullman's railway saloon car.

Class 63.—Telegraphic Apparatus and Processes.
905 Harris, L., 169 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Electric induction apparatus.
906 Joseph Brothers, 77 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Telegraphic apparatus.

Class 64.—Apparatus and Processes of Civil Engineering, Public Works, and Architecture.
907 Atyeo, P., Lytton-st, Carlton, Melbourne.—Monument in Italian and colonial marble. Works in marble.
909 Barningham & Lacey, Barkly-st., Brunswick. Melbourne.—Bricks of various kinds.
910 Buncle, J., Parkside Machine Works, North Melbourne.—Engineers' tools, &c.
911 Butcher, T., Brunswick.—Verandah columns.
912 Carey, J., 246 Fitzroy-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Model of wooden bridge.
915 Clayton, E., 5 Flinders-st. East, Melbourne.—Longitudinal elevation and plan of iron railway girder-bridge.
917 Cregan & Shearon. 96 Bourke-st. East, Melbourne.—Cement for glass and household purposes.
918 Cumming, Smith & Co., 47 William-st., Melbourne.—Model of chemical and manure works.
919 Danks, J., 42 Bourke-st. West, Melbourne.—Gas and water fittings.
920 Davis, J., Avon Cottage, Lennox-st, North Richmond, Melbourne.—Davis's patent Victorian sashes.
921 Drysdale & Fraser, 131 King-st., West Melbourne.—Friezes, brackets, panels.
922 Finn, Quin & Co., Dowling-st., Sandhurst.—Granite monuments and columns.
923 Footscray Stone-cutting Co., 59 Bourke-st. West, Melbourne.—Sawn bluestone flags and steps.
924 Grand Victorian North-Western Canal Co., The, 86 Queen-st., Melbourne.—Map of Victoria, showing its canalisation.
925 Hoffman Patent Steam Brick Co., The, Albert-st.. Brunswick, Melbourne.—Foundation, building, paving, and fancy bricks; clays, &c.
926 Home, A., 275 Smith-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Masons' and bricklayers' tools.
927 Howitt, W., Little Latrobe-st. East, Melbourne.—Masons' tools.
928 Hutchison, J., 5 and 7 Post Office-place, Melbourne.—Cast-iron staircase. Iron castings for verandahs.
929 Kaufmann, L., Dunkeld.—Ornamental stone gate-pillars.
930 Kelly, R., 53 Fitzroy-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Longitudinal section and plan of iron lighthouse.
932 Mahoney, F.—Patent valveless ventilator.
934 Murphy, E., Sandridge-road, Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Patent bivalve ventilator, self-acting; ventilating centre-flowers, chimney-cap.
935 Nicol, D., 51 Adderley-st., West Melbourne.—Bell-knocker.
936 Parker, E., Brougham-st., Sandhurst.—Cast-steel hammers.
938 Peppercorn, J. P., Balaclava-road, Caulfield.—Design for centre-piece of fish-basin or fountain.
940 Phillips, M’Walter & Chambers, Victorian Foundry, Carlton, Melbourne.—Ornamental iron castings for verandahs.
941 Sexton, Nellie, 17 Little Lonsdale-st West, Melbourne.—Roller for window-blind.
944 Taylor, J., Mitchell-st, Sandhurst.—Granite monuments, fountains, &c.
945 Thirkettle, W. J., Kyneton.—Model of grand staircase.
946 Thorpe, J., Creswick.—White bricks.
948 Trapp, A., Cecil-st., Williamstown, Melbourne.—Model of spiral staircase.
949 Victoria Pottery Co., Lal Lal.—Tiles.
950 Vivian, J. E., 24 Wellington-st., Collingwood.—Model of Melbourne Town Hall, made from bottle corks.
951 Watts, T., Sale, Gippsland.—Model of swing bridge.
952 White, J., 48 Dawson-st, South, Ballarat West.—Ornamental tomb-railing.
954 Willis, W., & Co., 31 Little Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Fire-proof strong-room door.
955 Wolsentcroft, J. & W., Miller-st., Back Creek, Sandhurst.—Tiles. Fire-bricks, &c.

Class 65.—Navigation and Life-saving.

957 Barker, J., Bedford-st., Collingwood, Melbourne.—Drawing of caisson for graving-dock.
958 Brierly, E., Mount Alexander-road, Essendon, Melbourne.—Model of schooner yacht.
959 Burton, H. W., Pitt and Fnn st{s}, Fleming-ton, Melbourne.—Life-boat, fitted with cork, covered with cane-work.
960 Cosgrave, J., 7 Ferrars-place, Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Models of yachts.
961 Dawbarn, W. H., & Son. 35 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Cork life-buoys and belts.
962 Durand, W., 125 Sandridge-road, Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Model of turret ironclad ram.
964 Firman, W. H., Malvern House, Brunswick-road East, Brunswick.—Cork life-buoy.
965 Fuller, R. S., Yarra Bank, Prince's-bridge, Melbourne.—Racing-boat.
967 Greenland, W. T., Prince's-bridge, Yarra Bank, Melbourne.—Sculler's outrigger racing-boat, with patent swivel rowlocks.
968 Handfield, F. O., 4 Albion-st., South Yarra, Melbourne.—Model of apparatus for extinguishing lire on board ship.
969 Inglis, Smith & Co., 123 Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Ships' blocks.
971 Meyer, L. S., Robe-st, St Kilda, Melbourne.—Built-up model of a yacht.
972 Morgan, W., 14 Swanston-st, Melbourne.—Flags.
973 Murray, H. R., 17 Clarendon-st, Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Models and half-models of yachts and steam-launches.
974 Petersen, P. H., 60 Swan-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Model of steamship.
975 Prendergast, M., 4 M’Kean-st., North Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Models of ship, barque, and brig.
976 Roberts, W. J., 1 Cornwall-terrace, George-st., East Melbourne.—Model of ship.
977 Seger, A., Cooper-st., Footscray, Melbourne.—Model of a steamer.
978 Selby, J., 102 Market-st., Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Model of steamer.
980 Stevenson, J., Kangaroo Flat, Sandhurst.—Model and drawing of life-boat.
Life-buoy. Life-jacket.
983 Thirkettle, W. J., Kyneton.—Models of yachts and screw steamer.
986 Williams, H. W. L., Office of Titles, Melbourne.—Model paddle-wheel steamer.
987 Wooldridge, H., South Yarra, Melbourne.—Model of steamer, showing the best means of extinguishing fire.

Class 66.—Materials and Apparatus for Military Purposes.

989 Harvey, R., Balaclava-road, Caulfield, Melbourne.—Mechanical model for defence purposes.
990 Hooke, T., Victoria Barracks, St. Kilda-road, Melbourne.—Model of field forge.
991 Jones, T. S., 12 Jeffcott-st., West Melbourne.—Plan of fortification.
993 Salmon. P. M., Nott-st., Sandridge, Melbourne.—Model of smooth-bore gun on garrison carriage.
Sword-belts.
995 Wallworth, S., 55, Bourke-st. East, Melbourne.—Army and navy head-gear.

VII. Alimentary Products.

Class 67.—Cereals, Farinaceous Products, and Products derived from them.

996 Baines, G. P., Spring Vale, Merrygum.—Wheat.
997 Beaufort Agricultural Society, The, Beaufort.—Flour.
Groats. Maize-meal
999 Billson, G., Last-st., Beechworth.—Malt.
1000 Boobier, W. J., Market-square, Sandhurst-Wheat and oats.
1002 Charles worth, J., Marong.—White Tuscan and red-straw wheat, &c.
1003 Church of England Mission Station, Lake Tyers, Gippsland.—Arrowroot.
1004 Collard, J. T., Dimboola.—Flour.
1006 Danelli, S., Sydney-road, Brunswick, Melbourne.—Italian paste, macaroni.
1007 Day, J., South Murchison.—Flour.
1008 Department of Agriculture, Melbourne—Cereals.
1009 Deutscher, C. T., Murtoa.—Purple-straw wheat.
1010 Dimboola Flour Mill Co., Dimboola.—Flour.
1011 Edwards, W., White Ilills, Stawell.—Wheat. Flour.
1012 Fry, J., Dimooola.—Flour.
1013 Galbraith, H. L., Rosemount, Lancefield.—Field peas.
1015 Hagenaur, Rev. F. A., Aboriginal Mission Station, Ramahyuck, Lake Wellington, Gippsland.—Arrowroot.

1016 Hanning, T. W., Franklin River, Gippsland.—Arrowroot.

1017 Harper, R., 12 Little Flinders-st. East, Melbourne.—Farinaceous products, tapioca, maize-meal, arrowroot, oatmeal.

1018 Hirth, H., Dimboola.—Wheat.

1019 Hubbard, W., Yarra Flats.—Oats.


1023 Jewell, E.—Wheat, chaff.

1024 Keene, M.—Flour.

1025 Kelson, J. H.—Peas, barley, wheat, oats.

1026 Kempton, W. S.—Flour, wheat.

1027 Kensington Maizena and Starch Co., Kensington, Melbourne.—Maizena. Starch.

1028 Kidde, A., Glenlyon Flour Mills, Glenlyon.—Flour.


1031 Lal Lal Flour Mills, Rupanyup.—Wheat, purple-straw and golden drop.

1032 Laurens, J., Musk Creek, Daylesford.—Oats.

1033 Lewis & Whitty, 36 Charles-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Starch.


1035 Lowan Shire Council, The, Dimboola.—Grain.

1036 Lucini, P., Spring Creek, Hepburn.—Macaroni and vermicelli.


1042 Maxwell, D., Cohuna, Echuca.—Wheat.

1043 Minchen, L.—Short sandy oats.

1044 Mitchell, P., Eden Park, Romsey.—Barley.

1045 Moira Agricultural Society, Cashel.—Cereals.

1046 Moncrieff, J., Tabilk.—Purple-straw wheat.

1047 Moran, J., Kiora.—Tartarian oats.

1048 Murray Valley Flour Mills, Koondrook.—Flour.


Dressed rice.

1051 Perrin, W., jun., Stephenson-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Victorian-made malt, from different sorts of barley.

1052 Player & Kitchen.—Wheat, oats, beans.


1054 Richardson, S., & Sons, Bolwarra, Ballarat.—Arrowroot.

1055 Rowbottom, E. S., Harcourt-parade, Richmond, Melbourne.—Barley. Malt.

1056 Schmitt, F., Berwick.—Barley.

1057 Schmitt, L., Berwick.—Oats. Tares.

1058 Schultz, C. C., Mount Bolton.—Oats in sheaf.

1059 Smeaton, Spring Hill, & Bullarook Agricultural Association, Smeaton.—Barley, wheat, maize, peas, oats, buck wheat.


1062 Smith, J., Buninyong East.—Wheat.

1063 St. Arnaud Pastoral & Agricultural Society, The, Town Hall, St. Arnaud.—Wheat in sheaf. Oats in sheaf.

1064 Stanton, J., & Co., Islington-st., Collingwood, Melbourne.—Malt.

1065 Students' Model Farm, Cashel.—Strawrick.
1066 Swallow & Ariell, Sandridge and Melbourne.—Flour, &c.
1067 Swallow & Sons, Shepparton.—Flour.
1068 Taylor, R. S., Streatham Park, Streatham.—Wheat
1069 Throssell & Tankard, Chapel-st, South Yarra, Melbourne.—Barley. Pale, amber, brown, and black malt, made from Victorian barley.
1070 Tickner, A. M., Burrum Burrum, Banyena.-Canary-seed.
1071 Tinning, J., Tarrawinge.—Flour.
1074 Westcott, T., Catumna.—Wheat.
1075 White, W. E.—Flour.
1077 Wise Brothers, Avoca Flour Mills, Avoca.—Flour.
1079 Yeaman, A., Pannoobamawn.—Wheat. Purple-straw wheat.

Class 68.—Bread and Pastry.
1082 Swallow & Ariell, Sandridge and Melbourne.—Biscuits and cakes.
1083 Walker, J. H., & Son, 203 Bourke-st. West, Melbourne.—Biscuits.

Class 69.—Fatty Substances used as Food. Milk and Eggs.
1084 Adams, J. S., Alphington.—Olive oil.
1086 Bird, G., The Heart, Sale, Gippsland.—Cheese.
1087 Burke, M., Woodstock-on-Loddon.—Cheese.
1088 Foy, F., Lancefield.—Cheese.
1090 M'Donald, M., The Springs, Berwick.—Cheese.
1091 Mitchell, P., Eden Park, Romsey.—Cheese.
1092 O'Nial & Davies, Briagolong, Gippsland.—Cheese, Stilton and others.
1094 Watson & Paterson, Bourke and Queen sts., Melbourne.—Cheese.
1095 Wilson, W., Lancefield.—Cheese.

Class 70.—Meat and Fish.
1096 Bartram, J., & Sons, 8 Queen-st., Melbourne.—Bacon.
1097 Danelli, S., Sydney-road. Brunswick, Melbourne.—Italian sausages.
1101 Kierath, C., Cornish Town, Indigo.—Hams, bacon.
1102 Melbourne Ham & Bacon Curing Co., 55 Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Hams and bacon.
1103 Melbourne Meat Preserving Co., The, 56 Queen-st., Melbourne.—Preserved meats and soups.
1104 Red Cross Preserving Co., The, Chapel-st., South Yarra, Melbourne.—Potted meats. Anchovy and bloater paste. (See advertisement).
1106 Watson & Paterson, Bourke and Queen sts., Melbourne.—Bacon and hams, sausages, lard, &c. Turtle soup.
1107 Western Meat Preserving Co., Limited, The, Colac.—Preserved meats, game, soups, &c.

Class 71.—Vegetables and Fruit.
1108 Bennett, H., 43 Armstrong-st., Ballarat.—Potatoes.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Products</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1109</td>
<td>Cochrane, R. &amp; J.</td>
<td>Bairnsdale, Gippsland</td>
<td>Hops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1110</td>
<td>Dods, R., Marong.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Muscatel raisins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1111</td>
<td>Ferguson, J., 32 Queen-st.</td>
<td>Melbourne</td>
<td>Gippsland hops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1112</td>
<td>Henley, J., Milawa, Oxley.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Hops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1113</td>
<td>Henty, J., &amp; Co., 11 Little Collins-st.</td>
<td>West, Melbourne</td>
<td>Hops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1114</td>
<td>Laurens, J., Musk Creek, Daylesford.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Peas, Potatoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1115</td>
<td>Lewis, W. E., Avenel.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Zante Currants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1116</td>
<td>M'Connell, J., Rochford.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1117</td>
<td>Madresfield Hop Plantation, Bairnsdale, Gippsland.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Hops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1118</td>
<td>Mellon, F., Dunolly.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Fruits preserved in brandy, fruits preserved in water.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1120</td>
<td>Red Oross Preserving Co., The, Chapel-st., South Yarra, Melbourne.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Bottled fruits. Tomatoes. Spiced curries. (See advertisement)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1121</td>
<td>Redenbach, P., Bairnsdale, Gippsland.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Hops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1122</td>
<td>Slater, W. H., Mitcham Grove, Box Hill Distillery, Nunawading.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Dried Fruits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1123</td>
<td>Smith, C., &amp; Co., 150 Little Flinders-st. East, Melbourne.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Hops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1124</td>
<td>Smith, J., Thornbury Farm, Northcote, Melbourne.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Sugar beet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Products</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1126</td>
<td>Adams, S., Somerset-st., Richmond, Melbourne.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Confectionery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1127</td>
<td>Barrett, W., Lal Lal-road, Ballarat.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Worcestershire sauce.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1128</td>
<td>Browne, M., 4 Henry-st., Windsor, Melbourne.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Tomato sauce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1130</td>
<td>Bush, J., 35 Argo-st., South Yarra, Melbourne.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Tomato sauce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1133</td>
<td>Comport, H., Cheltenham.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Tomato sauce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1134</td>
<td>Cooper, A., Park-st., Brighton, Melbourne.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Syrups and liqueurs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1137</td>
<td>Dickson, J., &amp; Co., Franklin-st. East, Melbourne.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Vinegar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1139</td>
<td>Dods, R., Marong.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Oil of sweet almonds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1145</td>
<td>Kruse, J., 6 Hanover-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Sauce piquante</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Currie-powder.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1149</td>
<td>Longmore, F., Flinders and King sts., Melbourne.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Compound jam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1150</td>
<td>McClean, E., &amp; Sons, Bridgewater-on-Loddon.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Liqueurs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1151</td>
<td>M’Donald, M., 18 Franklin-st. West, Melbourne.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Liqueurs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1152</td>
<td>M'Douglall, W., Young-st., East St. Kilda, Melbourne.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Tomato sauce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1155</td>
<td>Marks, N. S., 108 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Culinary essences.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1159 Oriental Tea Co., 144 to 148 Little Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Specimens of teas and tea-packing.
1162 Reed, H., & Co., South Yarra.—Raspberry vinegar and lime-juice cordial.
1163 Riordan, F., Creswick.—Sauces.
1164 Russell, T., Kingston.—Tomato sauce.
1168 Victorian Confectionery Co., The, Prince's-bridge, Melbourne.—Confectionery. Preserved fruits, &c.
1169 Victoria Sugar Co., The, 12 Queen-st., Melbourne.—Raw and refined sugar. Syrup, &c.
1170 Victoria Vinegar Works, The, Toorak-road, South Yarra, Melbourne.—Vinegar.

Class 73.—Fermented Drinks.

1177 Andersen, R. & S., Sunbury.—Verdilho.
1178 Anderson, T., Bet-Bet.—Unfermented wine.
1180 Baynes & Hearn, Wangaratta.—Bulk and bottled ale. Bottled stout.
1181 Baynes, A., Wangaratta.—Ale, in bulk.
1184 Borland, A., Laanecoorie-on-Loddon.—Hermitage.
1185 Boyd & Head, Shamrock Brewery, Collingwood, Melbourne.—Ales and porter, in bulk and bottled.
1189 Buchanan, C., Ondit.—Carbinet. Mataro. Liqueur wine.
1190 Caldwell & Co., 114 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Wine, bottled.
1192 Caughey, A. & R., Yarra Bank, Melbourne.—Wine.
1193 Cohn Brothers, Sandhurst.—Ale in bulk.
1194 Cooper, A., Park-st., Brighton, Melbourne.—Cordials.
1196 Coyle, P., Royal Mint Brewery, Melbourne.—Ale and porter, in bulk and bottled.
1197 Crippa, F., Spring Creek, Hepburn.—Hermitage.
1198 Daly, H. O'B., Dunolly.—Hermitage. Chasselas.
1199 Daniel, C., Oaklands Junction, Bulla.—Nar-bonne wine.
1201 Davis, R., Sunbury.—Hermitage. Pineau.
1202 Dickson, J., & Co., Franklin-st. East, Melbourne.—Gordials, British wines.
1203 Dixon, P. G., Rosslyn-st., West Melbourne.—Cordials.
1204 Dunns, P., Glenlyon-st., Balaclava, Melbourne.—Stout and ale, bottled.
1205 Egli, L. F., Tabilk.—Hermitage. Wine from Pineau and Riesling grapes.
1207 Faux, P., Lyre Vineyard, Dunolly.—Hermitage. Riesling.
1208 Fehring, J., Yarra Track.—Black currant and gooseberry wine.

Muscat.
1211 Fuller, C., Inverleigh.—Pinnogree. Pineau Grès.
1213 Giovannoni, D., Spring Creek, Hepburn.—Hermitage.
1214 Gooch, H. M., 99 Collins-st West, Melbourne.—Wine.
1216 Greene, S., & Co., Kent and Young sts., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Cordials.
Hermitage.
1219 Hanson, G., Waurn Ponds, Geelong.—Chaselas. Hermitage.
1220 Harris, J., Axedale, Bendigo.—Hermitage.
1222 Hennelly & Co., 140 Latrobe-st West, Melbourne.—Ale, in bulk and bottled.
1223 Hopper, T., Snake Valley, Carngah.—Milk punch.
1225 Jones, W., Wedderburn.—Hermitage.
1226 Joske, A., 5 Little Collins-st, East, Melbourne.—Wine.
Chasselas. Blended wines.
1230 Licensed Victuallers' Brewery Co. Limited, OS Collins-st. East Melbourne.—Ale, in bulk.
1232 Lyon, G., Beechworth.—Ale and porter, in bulk and bottled. Cordials.
1234 M'Bride & Martin, Melbourne Brewery, West Melbourne, Melbourne.—Ale and porter, in bulk and bottled.
1235 McClean, E., & Sons, Bridgewater-on-Loddon.—Cordials. Fruit wines.
1236 McCracken, R., & Co., City Brewery, Melbourne.—Beer and stout, in bulk and bottled.
1237 M'Donald, M., 18 Franklin-st, West Melbourne.—Cordials. Fruit wines.
1240 Marks, R., & Co., Maldon.—Beer, in bulk.
1242 Martin, P. J., Australian Brewery, Melbourne.—Ale and porter, in bulk and bottled.
1244 Merle, J., Daylesford.—Samois.
1247 Moore, C. R., Bridport-st., Daylesford.—Cordials.

Unfermented wine.
1249 Mueller, A., Yackandandah.—Wine, red and white. Liqueur, wine.
1250 Myring, J., Campbell's Creek.—Ale and porter.
1251 Perini, V., Spring Creek, Hepburn.—Hermitage. Pineau.
1252 Pin, J. B., Brighton.—Chasselas. Vin Cint.
1256 Ritchie Brothers, Murgeboluc, Geelons,.—Hermitage.
1260 Shaw, P. K., Goornong.—Hermitage. Riesling.
1262 Smith, T., Riddell's Creek.—Rhubarb wine.
1264 Stokes, S., Church-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Cordials.
1265 Taegtw, P., Hobson's Bay Brewery, Williamstown, Melbourne.—Bottled ale and porter. Lager beer.
1266 Tracy, J., West End Brewery, Geelong.—Ale and stout, in bulk and bottled.
1268 Turner, J., & Co., 117 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Whiskey.
1269 Victoria Brewery, Wangaratta.—Ale.

VIII. Agriculture.

Class 74.—Specimens of Farm Buildings and Agricultural Works.

1273 Alston, G., Bulla.—Hay-rake. Models of haymaking machinery.
1274 Brown, E., Shire Engineer, Benalla.—Model of new sheep-washing apparatus.
1276 Flood, F., 139 Lonsdale-st. West, Melbourne.—Incubators. Artificial mothers.
1277 Fraser, A., 191 Little Bourke-st. East, Melbourne.—Grape-mill—to strip, crush, and discharge stems.
1278 Giles, A., Napier-st., St. Arnaud.—Model of sheep-watering apparatus, dam and troughs.
1279 Gray, R., 77 Napier-st., Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Laundress washing-machines.
1280 Groom, B., Edward-st., Brunswick, Melbourne.—Binder heads, complete and in parts. Wire-cutters for reaping and binding machines.
1283 Joyce, A., Norwood, Maryborough.—Incubator.
1286 M'Donald, D., Eureka-st., Newtown, Geelong.—Plan of farmhouse and yard.
1287 M'Donald, D., Sydney-road, Coburg, Melbourne.—Improved field elevator.
1288 M'Lean Brothers & Rigg, 69 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Wire fence.
1289 Miller, J., 123 Lonsdale-st West, Melbourne.—Portable plug reservoirs.
1290 Munro, G., Alfredton, Ballarat.—Stripper. Reapers.
1291 Murray, Maria J., Barkly-st., Brunswick, Melbourne.—Wire screen for winnower.
1292 Musgrove, J., Green vale.—Mowing-machines. Thresher.
1296 Quinlivan, T., Coghill's Creek.—Patent band-cutter and threshing-machine.
1299 Stanford & Co., Bourke and Russell sts., Melbourne.—Reaping and binding machine.
1302 Vulcan Foundry, Geelong.—Wool-presses.
1303 West, J. & B., Mount Alexander-road, Essen-don, Melbourne.—Horse hay-rake.
1306 Wright & Edwards, 99 and 101 Little Bourke-st. West, Melbourne.—Sheep-washing machine.

IX. Horticulture.

Class 75.—Conservatories and Horticultural Apparatus.

1307 Bauld, R., 10 Liardct-st., Sandridge.—Aquarium.
1308 Breslin, N., Horticultural Hall, M'Kenzie-st., Melbourne.—Room or window conservatories.
1309 Dower, J., Esplanade, Sandridge, Melbourne.—Aquarium. Fernery.
1311 Trembling, G., Upper Hope-st., Ashby, Geelong.—Model of greenhouse.

Class 76.—Flowers and Ornamental Plants.

1312 Creswell, C. F., 37 Swanston-st, Melbourne.—Flower seeds.
1313 Guilfoyle, W. R., F.L.S., &c.. Director Botanical Gardens, Melbourne.—Carpological collection. (As per Special Catalogue.)
1314 Watt, D., Rotherwood-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Collection of ferns and tropical plants.

Class 78.—Fruit and Fruit Trees.

1315 Department of Agriculture, Melbourne.—Fruits.

Class 79.—Seeds and Saplings of Forest Trees.

1316 Creswell, C. F., 37 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Tree, and shrub seeds.

X. Mining Industries—Machinery and Products.

Class 81.—Apparatus and Processes of the Art of Mining and Metallurgy.

1318 Allan, J., Ballarat.—Model of safety-cage.
1319 Allan, R., 102 Creswick-road, Ballarat.—Model of safety mining cage.
1321 Bland, R. H., Clunes.—View of Port Phillip and Colonial G. M. Co.'s surface works, and the underground sections of the mine.
1322 Bright Brothers & Co., Little Flinders st., Melbourne.—Plumbago crucibles.
1323 Catherine Reef United, Eaglehawk.—Plan of workings.
1325 Cottew, J. E., 179 Spencer-st., West Melbourne.—Patent mining signals.
1326 Davidson, J., Ironbark.—Davidson's safety-cage as used in the Garulner Gully United Co.'s mine.
Ironbark.
1327 Fletcher, D., Beechworth.—Model of sluice-boxes.
1328 Ford, R. G., East Brighton, Melbourne.—Ford's patent pumping-engine, electric fuse for blasting, improved patent rock-boring machine, &c.
1329 Goyne, J., & Co., Epsom, Sandhurst.—Stamper-gratings used for quartz-crushing mills.
1330 Great Extended Hustler's Co.—Collection of miners' tools. Plan of Company's mine.
1331 Harvey, T., Yackandandah.—Metallic mining hose.
1332 Her Majesty's Mint (Melbourne Branch).—Models and apparatus illustrating the operations of minting, as carried out in that department.
1333 Hickman, J., Ballarat.—Complete set of mining tools.
1335 Hopkins, J. R., Ballarat.—Horizontal engine and ten head of stamps, and showing copper plates, blanket-tables, &c., &c.
1337 Knobel, G. A., Royal Park Hotel, Queens-bridge-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Model of twin ventilators, improved blast and exhaust fan.
1338 Lal Lal Iron Co.—Iron ore and products.
1339 Langlands Foundry Co., Melbourne.—Quartz-crushing battery and appliances.
1340 Long Tunnel G. M. Co., Walhalla.—Samples, illustrating process of separation of gold from pyrites.
Plan of chamber, shaft, and tunnel.
1341 M'Caw, D. B., & Son, Ballarat.—Model of safety-cage.
1342 Macdonald, A., Church-st., Royal Park, Melbourne.—Model of amalgamating-machine.
1343 McKay, J., Ballarat.—Model of safety-cage.
1345 Mathieson, J., 71 Elizabeth-st. North, Melbourne.—Mining tools.
1346 Matthews, W., Havelock-st., Soldier's Hill, Ballarat.—Model of patent safety-cage.
1347 Mines, Department of, Melbourne.—Mining plans and geological maps. As per departmental catalogue.
1348 Morgan, W., 14 Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Whim buckets.
1349 Morrison, A. T., Ballarat.—Sectional plan of underground works.
1350 Munro, D., & Co., 154 Queen-st., Melbourne.—Winding, pumping, and quartz-crushing machinery.
1351 Perry, J., 167 Russell-st, Melbourne.—Mining pick-handles.
1352 Pryor, J., Ballarat.—Model of safety-cage.
1353 Queen G. M. Co., Ballarat.—Sectional plan of underground works.
1355 Sale Borough Council.—Model of Artesian well.
1356 School of Mines, Sandhurst.—Hendy's "Challenge" ore feeder. Collection of mining models.
1357 Sutherland, A., & Co., 96 and 9S Little Bourke-st. West, Melbourne.—Fire-clay retorts.
1358 Temperance Co., Little Bendigo.—Plan of underground workings.
1359 Thomas, R., California Gully.—Model of winding and pumping engine, and crushing-battery.
1360 Thureau, G., Sandhurst.—"National" rock-drill and compressors (single and double).
1361 Trezise, H., Long Gully, Sandhurst.—Model of Davidson's safety-cage.
1362 Union Foundry, Drummond-st., Ballarat.—Model of engine and quartz-crushing battery.
1365 White, D., Stawell.—Model of safety-cage and appliances for working in mining shafts.
1367 Young, P., 25 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Strong wire-work, for screening ores.

Class 82.—Mining and Metallurgy.

1368 Abel, A. T., Mair st., Ballarat East.—Collection of minerals.
1369 All Nations Reef, Talbot.—Auriferous quartz.
1370 Altman, E. A., 80 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Models in oxydisea silver.
1371 Anderson, Capt., S.S. "Pharos."—White sand, Waterloo Bay.
1372 Ararat Shire & Borough Councils.—Granite, freestone, and limestone.
1373 Back Creek.—Ferruginous and auriferous "cement."
1375 Band of Hope Quartz Co., Ballarat.—Quartz specimens.
1376 Bank of Australasia.—Gold specimens.
1377 Bartlemore, T.—Ferruginous and auriferous "cement."
1378 Beechworth Committee.—Minerals, auriferous quartz, &c.
1379 Benedetta, G., Blackwood, Green Hills.—Various stones found on alluvium soil.
1380 Bentley, c., 56 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Electroplated work and stampings.
1381 Berry, H., 142 Spencer-st., Melbourne.—Salt, in blocks and bags.
1382 Betts & Walker, Garden Gully and Perseverance. Sandhurst.—Calc-spar occurring in "lava streaks" or dykes.
1383 Black Horse G. M. Co., Egerton.—Auriferous quartz. Amalgam, retorted and smelted gold.
1384 Bland, R. H., Clunes.—Mineral specimens.
1385 Blight, J., Mount Alexander Quarries.—Granite, with copper pyrites and molybdenite. Cubes of polished granite.
1386 Boulter, J., Ararat.—Salt.
1387 Brache, J., Northcote, Melbourne.—Manganese and cobalt ore, from near Walhalla.
1388 Bright Brothers & Co., Little Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Antimony—"Star" and "Regulus."
1389 Bristol Hill, Maryborough District.—Auriferous quartz.
1390 Bombay Gold & Antimony Co. (H. Browne), Heateote.—Selwynite, diorite, and limestone or marble, from Mount Camel Range.
1390a Brunswick Pottery, The, Sydney roa Brunswick. Melbourne.—Clays, raw and prepared, for the manufacture of earthenware.
1391 Butler's Reef Co., Heathcote.—Gold specimens in a casket.
1393 Carter, G. D., Melbourne.—Lignite, from Crossover, M Kirley's Creek, Gippsland.
1394 Castlemaine Paving Co.—Rough flags, sawn flags, and mouldings in slate.
1395 Castlemaine Town Quarry.—Metamorphic sandstone (a good road metal).
1396 Cawkwell, H. A., Australian Steam Tile Works, Malvern.—Clays, raw and prepared, used in tile manufacture.
1397 Chapman & Edwards, United Pyrites Co., Sandhurst.—Samples, illustrating pyrites roasting.
1398 Chapman, C. W., Sandhurst.—"Lava streak," with olivine in large masses.
1399 Clarke, S. H., Fryer's Creek.—Quartz with gold, pyrites, and galena. English and Australian
1401 Connelly, T. J., High and Forest sts., Sandhurst.—Tinware. Copperware.
1404 Cresswell, Rev. A. W., Camberwell.—Victorian fossils.
1405 Croker, E. J., 182 Bridge-road, Richmond, Melbourne.—Minerals.
1406 Crook & Busst, 13 Post Office-place, Melbourne.—Wire-work cloths, netting, See. Domestic articles in wire-work.
1407 Cuten, W. C., Railway Department, Sale.—Rough, polished, and mounted stones (ferro calcites).
1408 Dangerfield Brothers.—Iron castings.
1409 Danks, J., 42 Bourke-st. West, Melbourne.—Electroplating and gilding in gold, silver, copper, and nickel.
1410 Davidson, H., Beechworth.—Auriferous quartz, minerals.
1411 Davison, G., 44 Latrobe-st. West, Melbourne.—Bells.
1412 Dixon, W., Anderson's Creek.—Specimens of diorite.
1414 Duggan, D. J., Tarnagulla.—Large crystal of smoky quartz.
1415 Dyring, W., Tawangatta.—Tin ores, smelted tin.
1416 Eaglehawk Union Mine, Tarrengower.—Metamorphic schist from crosscut at 1200 feet. Elvan rock.
1417 Egerton Co., Egerton.—Auriferous quartz.
1418 English & Australian G. M. Co.—Quartz with gold, galena, and pyrites.
1419 Enticott & Shawcross, 174 Lonsdale-st. East, Melbourne.—Ornamental, japanned, and embossed
brass, tin, and copper goods.

1420 Flato, J., 26 Capel-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Minerals.

1421 Fone's Reef Q. M. Co., Burke's Flat.—Auriferous quartz with copper, zinc, galena, and pyrites.

1422 Footscray Stone-Cutting Co.—Sawn slabs of Milestone.

1423 Fraser, R., Castlemaine.—"Slickenside" of quartz with gold. Quartz with gold and galena. From "Eureka Reef," &c.

1424 Galbraith, P., Patrick-st., Stawell.—Block of dressed freestone from the Grampian quarries.

1425 German Reef Tribute Co., Maldon.—Auriferous quartz and arsenical pyrites. Roasted quartz.

1426 Gilbert, T., New North Clunes Co., Clunes.—Auriferous quartz, raw pyrites, and pyrites refuse.

1427 Great Southern Co., Great Extended Hustler's.—Auriferous quartz.

1428 Greenwood, J., 222 Drammond-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Fac-similes of nuggets found in Victoria.

1429 Greer & Ashburner, 38 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Wire cloth. Wire fire-stands.

1430 Gregory, J. W., Wandiligong.—Quartz from various reefs (six).

1431 Guthrie, G. D., Bendigo Pottery, Epsom, Sandhurst.—Minerals and clays used in pottery.

1432 Hale, T., Daylesford.—Auriferous quartz and washdirt.

1433 Harris & Hollow, Bethanga.—Three blocks copper ore from "Pride of Bethanga" mine.

1434 Hoffman Patent Steam Brick Co., The, Albert-st., Brunswick, Melbourne.—Specimens of clay, raw and specially prepared, for brick-making.

1435 Holdsworth, B., Victoria Quarry, Waurn Ponds.—Limestone.

1436 Holloway, H. W., 73 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Specimens of galvano-plastic art, electrotypes, &c.

1437 Holstein, G., Bright.—Auriferous quartz, washdirt, from Freerburgh and Bright.

1438 Howes, D. J., Melbourne.—Coal, from Mosquito Creek, Moe, Gippsland.

1439 Howitt, W., jun., 2 Little Latrobe-st. East, Melbourne.—Smiths'-work.

1440 Hughes & Harvey, 144 Lonsdale-st. East, Melbourne.—Japanned and other tinware.

1441 Hughes & Preston, Reilly-st., Collingwood.—Star antimony, pig lead, and ores.

1442 Hunter, J., Stawell.—Blocks of quartz.

1443 Jessop, J. P., Yackandandah.—Drift and cement.

1444 Jewell, E., Clovelly Farm, Bridge water-on-Loddon.—Gypsum.


1446 Kirkwood, H., Eaglehawk.—Samples, illustrating the treatment of gold-quartz.

1447 Kissane, W. R., 22 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Coal from Cape Paterson.

1448 Kitchingman, E. L., Pyrites Works, Bethanga.—Mineral specimens, &c.

1449 Knobel, G. A., Royal Park Hotel, Queens-berry-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Antimony ore, with traces of gold, from Arcona mine.

1450 Lane, Zebina, Ironstone Hill Lead G. M. Co., Malmsbury.—Washdirt, secondary pyrites, cement, &c.

1451 Leonard, S. S., P. O., Cowley's Creek, Cobden.—Burnt limestone, slacked and unslacked.

1452 Levi, N., 149 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Coal from Cape Paterson.


1454 Lock, The Messrs., Tarrengower.—Auriferous quartz from their claim.


1457 Maclvor, R. W. E., F.C.S., Melbourne.—The new guano minerals Hannayite and Newberyite, from the Skipton Caves.

1458 Macintosh, H., 9 Post Office-place, Melbourne.—Woven wire, and quartz-grating. Wire bird-cages and flower-stands.

1459 McMasters, R. J., Malmsbury Confluence G. M. Co.—Washdirt, and the usual minerals and gems found in it.

1460 M'Millan, A., 7 Madeline-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Articles of hardware.

1461 Malmsbury Borough Council.—Sandstone and granite, bluestone.

1462 Mansfield, C. & W. J., Bethanga.—Ores from Pride of Bethanga, Gift, and Polsen's claims, and their products.

1463 Manuel, R., 11 Capel-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Triturating-amalgamating gold-saving machine.

1464 Marks, J., 131 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne-Gilding and electroplating.

1465 Marks, M., & Co., 124 Swanston-st, Melbourne.—Electroplated ware.

1466 Massey, J. W., German Reef Tribute Co., Maldon.—Arsenical pyrites.


As per departmental catalogue.
1468 Mitchell, D., Lilydale.—Marble from Yering, near Lilydale, polished and unpolished.
1469 Munday, J., Walhalla Copper Mine Co., Cooper's Creek.—Collection of ore, "country" rock, and products of the mine.
1470 New Chum Consolidated.—Auriferous quartz.
1471 New Era G. M. Co.—Auriferous quartz, with pyrites and zinc blende. Group of quartz crystals. Quartz with gold and pyrites.
1472 Nicholas, H. B., Senior-inspector of Mines, Castlemaine.—Quartz crystals, auriferous quartz, and cement.
1473 Nicholls, C. F., Abbotsford Lodge, Abbots-ford, Melbourne.—Specimens of quartz, coal, tin, &c.
1474 Normanby Quartz Mining Co., No Liability, Dargo.—Quartz specimens.
1475 North Shenandoah.—Auriferous quartz.
1476 Oakley, G. N., 49 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Samples of quartz and other ores.
1477 Ogier, J. C. H., 17 Temple-court, Melbourne.—Specimens of quartz and crystal.
1478 Ogilvie & Robinson, Geelong.—Waurn Ponds limestone.
1479 Ord, M., Stawell (for local Exhibitors).—Mineral specimens.
1480 Page,—, Maldon.—Quartz crystals, from Eureka reef.
1481 Parker, W., Long Tunnel Extended, Walhalla.—Diorite and other rocks.
1482 Parkins' Reef Tribute Co.—Auriferous quartz, with pyrites and mixed sulphides.
1484 Pearson, W., East St. Kilda, Melbourne.—Auriferous quartz, from Long Tunnel Gold Mining Co., Walhalla; pyrites.
1485 Penal Establishment, Pentridge, Melbourne.—Tinware. Furniture castings.
1486 Pigdon, J., Melbourne.—Flagging sawn out of Lethbridge stone, for Parliament House.
1487 Pleasant Creek Cross Reef Q. M. Co., Stawell.—Model or trophy of gold from the mine (over nine tons).
1488 Rowley, W. & G., 34 Post Office-place, Melbourne.—Metallie bird-cage.
1489 Queen Co., Ballarat.—Case of reef showing the mundie vein and indicator slates.
1490 Queen's Birthday Co., Dunolly.—Golden quartz.
1492 Rea, Mary E., Main-st., Eldorado.—Tin specimens. Furnace droppings.
1493 Ristori Co., Seven Hills Estate, Kingston—Box of alluvial washdirt.
1494 Rosales, H., Walhalla Co., Walhalla.—Specimens illustrating his patent process for extracting gold from pyrites without roasting; models, &c.
1495 Rowe Brothers, Duke of Cornwall and Mosquito mines, Fryers.—Quartz crystals. Quartz with gold and galena, &c.
1496 Rowe, E. W. H., Fryer's Creek.—Conglomerate of secondary pyrites and quartz, from the Black Hawk mine.
1497 Royal Saxon Co., Golden Gully.—Quartz with coarse gold, and "country" rock from hanging and foot walls of reef.
1498 Schlossman, S., Little Collins and William sts., Melbourne.—Model of the "Viscount Canterbury" nugget.
1499 School Of Mines, Sandhurst—Antimony ore(stibnite with cervantite), from Whroo. Pyrites, graptolites, auriferous quartz, &c.
1500 Scott, R., Melbourne.—Sample of infusorial earth, from Lillicur, Amherst.
1501 Selle, C. H., 102 Canning-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Pewter goods, candle-mould, non-corroding taps, &c.
1504 Stawell Committee.—Collection of mineral specimens.
1506 Sutherland, A., & Co., 96 and 98 Little Bourke-st. West, Melbourne.—Fire-clay.
1507 Swanston, Willis & Stephen, Geelong.—Block of limestone from Dryden Estate.
1509 Talbot.—Ferruginous and auriferous "ement."
1510 Tasmanite Manufacturing Co., 95 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.—Castings. Raw material and prepared.
1511 Technological Museum, Melbourne.—Trophy of the rare Zeolites, "Phacolite" and "Phillipsite," from the corporation quarries, &c.
1512 Telegraph Extended G. M. Co.—Auriferous quartz, with pyrites and galena; with hanging and foot wall.
1513 Temperance G. M. Co., Little Bendigo, Ballarat.—Auriferous quartz.
1514 Thomson, A., Long Tunnel G. M. Co., Walhalla.—Auriferous quartz, diorite, slate quartz, calcite, tailings, and pyrites.
1515 Thureau, G., Sandhurst.—Specimens of rocks of the Sandhurst district.
1517 Union G. M. Co., Church Hill, Amherst.—Auriferous quartz, with pyrites and zinc blende.
1518 United Shire of Metcalfe, Metcalfe.—Granite, rough and polished.
1521 Virtue, P., jun., Daylesford.—Washdirt.
1522 Vulcan Foundry, Geelong.—Wire strainer.
1523 Washington G. M. Co.—Auriferous quartz.
1524 Walker, R. B., Lara, Geelong.—Hydraulic lime.
1525 Watkins, F., Stawell.—Grampians freestone, for building purposes, &c.
1526 Western Port Coal Mining Co. Limited, 22 Market-st., Melbourne.—Coal.
1527 White, D., Stawell.—Cores taken out by the diamond drill, and showing sections of the bore. Quartz. Pyrites, &c.
1528 White, W. W., Castlemaine.—Potholed stone.
1529 Willis, W., & Co., 31 Little Collins-st, West, Melbourne.—Wire strainers.
1531 Wischer, W. H., 1 Little Flinders-st. West, Melbourne.—Marble and limestone, from Waratah Bay, Gippsland.
1532 Wolstencroft, J. & W., Miller-st., Back Creek, Sandhuret.—Clays for brick-making purposes.
1533 Wraith, H., Harrietville.—Minerals, rocks, and fossils.
1534 Yates, G., Castlemaine Pyrites Works.—Oxide of iron, crude arsenic. Arsenic and sulphuric acid.
1535 Young, P., 25 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.—Arches, arbours, flower-stands, fireguards, in wire-work.

Ladies' Court.

1536 Adair, Elise M., Stanley-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Fern tables.
1537 Addis, Miss, S Murphy-st., South Yarra, Melbourne.—Point lace, embroidery on satin.
1538 Alderson, Mrs. A. G., 22 George-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Fancy-work in satin.
1539 Anderson, Annie, Lighthouse, Belfast.—Cuttlefish flowers.
1540 Anderson, Catherine, Ardmillan-road, Moonee Ponds, Melbourne.—Feather flowers.
1541 Armitstead, Alice E., 4 Trafford-place, Chetwynd-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Wool flowers.
1542 Austin, Mrs.—Hearthrug.
1544 Barclay, Georgina M., Skipton-st., Ballarat.—Wool-work slippers.
1545 Barry, Isabella H., O'Hea's-road, Coburg, Melbourne.—Wax flowers.
1546 Basett, Eliza, Murphy-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Limerick lace; velvet cushion, embroidered with Irish salmon scales; velvet cushion, &c.
1547 Batters, Eleanor A., 76 Commercial-road, Prahran, Melbourne.—Wool-work picture.
1548 Bedford, Miss, Geelong.—Flowers embroidered on satin.
1549 Bell, Mrs. L. W., Alma-road, St. Kilda, Melbourne.—Hand-painted table.
1550 Bibbey, Blisda, Bridge-st. East, Richmond, Melbourne.—Cover, in tape work.
1551 Bice, Helena, Brick-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Children's woollen boots.
1552 Boobier, Nellie, Waterloo-place, Sandhurst.—Paintings on silk, &c.
1553 Bower, Martha, Maryborough.—Picture in leather-work frame, stuffed birds and flying squirrels.
1555 Bragge, Mary J., 1 Grattan-place, Keppel-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Cross, in imitation Parian marble.
1557 Brearley, Josephine L., Studley Park-road, Kew, Melbourne.—Embroidery on crewel canvas, for bedroom suite.
1558 Bride, Abina, High-st., Heathcote.—Siik patchwork cushion.
1559 Broadbent, Isabella, Elsternwick, Melbourne.—Child's dress. Lady's dress.
1560 Brooker, G., sen., 12 Yarra-st, Abbotsford, Collingwood, Melbourne.—Vase of cuttlefish flowers.
1561 Brookman, Margaret R., M'Larcn-st., Sandhurst.—Painted groups of flowers. Point laee.
1562 Brown, Miss E. A., Kincaird, Balaclava, Melbourne.—Imitation old Venetian point lace.
1563 Bruce, Mary A., 13 Hotham-st., Windsor, Melbourne.—Crochet antimacassar.
1564 Bryer, Katie, 25 Park-st., Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Dolls' millinery.
1566 Burton, Miss, St. John's School, Latrobe-St., Melbourne.—Ottoman and antimacassar.
1567 Burton, Isabella A., St. John's State School, Latrobe and Elizabeth sts., Melbourne.—Fancy-work made in the school.
1568 Caldwell, Edith, Commercial Rank, Geelong.—Fancy-work in perforated cardboard.
1569 Chapman, J., Colac.—Bracelets, rings, crosses, &c., in hair-work.
1570 Clarkson, Eliza, Rae-st., North Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Wool flowers.
1571 Clarkson, Jane, Rae-st., North Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Wool flowers.
1572 Coates, Alice C., Mayroyd, South Yarn, Melbourne.—Fret-work bracket and frames.
1573 Cocking, Jane, St. John's-parade, Cotham road, Kew, Melbourne.—Splash-work table. Venetian point-lace handkerchief.
1574 Cole, Chassie, Geelong.—Flowers painted on silk.
1575 Cooper, Emma S., 91 Gertrudc-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Embroidered cushion and fender-stool.
1576 Cruikshank, Fanny & Bessie, Sandhurst.—Fancy-work, painting on silk, bead-work, &c.
1577 Davison, Jane A., Woodend.—Frilling caps, and bugle collar.
1578 Dawbin, Mrs. T.—Needle-work and woolwork pictures.
1579 De Grandet, Mrs., Ararat.—Hair flower*.
1580 Denham, Miss.—Painted screen and cushion.
1581 Dimelow, Miss, Richmond, Melbourne.—Cone whatnot.
1583 Douglass, Mrs. A., Corio Villa, Geelong.—Skeleton leaves.
1584 Elsburry, Mary, Fryerstown, Castlemaine.—Knitted quilt.
1586 Esmond, Sarah, A. E., 28 Dawson-st, Pallarat West.—Lace, silk embroidery.
1587 Farquharson, Mrs., Melbourne.—Hand, painted table.
1588 Finley, Alice & Eva, Drayton, Kew, Richmond.—Embroidery in silk. Doll.
1589 Fisher, Agnes, Clarke House, Geelong.—Fret-work.
1590 Fisher, Sarah A., Moorabool-st., Geelng.—Fancy work in straw.
1593 Forrest, T., Pakenham, Gippsland.—Ornamental work made from fern-trees, &c.
1594 Frazer, Elizabeth F., Albert-st., Creswick.—Tapestry pictures.
1596 Fuller, Elizabeth, Inverleigh.—Feather flowers.
1598 Gerson, Rika A., 163 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Embossed silk flowered banner-screen.
1599 Gerson, Sarah L., 163 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.—Paper flowers.
1600 Goldberg, Mrs., East Melbourne.—One large and two carte-de-visite albums.
1601 Gomm, Sarah A., Cheltenham.—Ornamental flower-stand and bride's cake made from the pith of rushes.
1602 Goode, Louisa, 224 Cardigan-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Leather-work frame.
1603 Gourlay, Mrs. J., 200 Cecil-st, Albert Park, Melbourne.—Ornamental writing.
1604 Grandison, Margaret, Newry-st., Windsor, Melbourne.—Paper flowers.
1605 Grant, Mrs. J., Chapman-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Wool-work picture.
1606 Greathead, Sarah P., 33 Chetwynd-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Smoking-cap.
1607 Griffin, Mrs., Victoria-parade, Melbourne.—Point lace.
1609 Hardbottle, B., Yarra Bend Lunatic Asylum, Melbourne.—Fancy articles in leather-work.
1610 Haughton, C., jun., 58 Elgin-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Miniature suite of drawingroom furniture, carved in bone, &c.
1611 Hayward, Maria E., 49 Rowena-parade, Richmond, Melbourne.—Pictures cut out with scissors.
1612 Heinzle, Annie, 211 Smith-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Needle-work upholstery.
1614 Henry, Mrs. M., 40 Faraday-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Pictures in paper flowers, fern leaves, &c.
1615 Henty, Mrs. R., Toorak-road, South Yarra, Melbourne.—Collection of lace.
1616 Higgins, Mary J., Glen Huntly-road, Caulfield, Melbourne.—Wool-work picture.
1617 Hillas, Mrs., Drummond-st., Melbourne.—Patchwork tablecover and cushions.
1619 Holder, Margaret S., 57 Spring-st., Melbourne.—Wax and paper flowers.
1620 Holland, Mrs. John, Ararat.—Patchwork quilt.
1621 Holland, Mrs. Margaret, 5 Sussex-st., Ballarat.—Down quilt.
1622 Horder, Cicelia, Auburn-road, Hawthorn, Melbourne.—Fender stool, footstools.
1623 Howe, Mrs. S., 1 Marine-parade, Collingwood. Melbourne.—Patchwork quilt.
1624 Hurst, Kate & Edith, Glenferrie-road, Hawthorn, Melbourne.—Point-lace parasol cover, antimacassar, toilet set, &c. Crewel-work apron.
1625 Irvine, Jemima F., 8 Canterbury-terrace, Powlett-st., East Melbourne.—Fancy-work.
1626 Jamieson, Margaret, 6 Moor-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Wool-work pictures.
1627 Janes, Lydia & Harriet, 27 Peel-st., Collingwood, Melbourne.—Imitation marble cross and harp.
1628 Jefferson, Etta, Fernshaw.—Collection of preserved ferns.
1629 Jefferson, Caroline, Howitt-st., South Yarra, Melbourne.—Hand-made lace.
1631 Johnston, P., Bull and Mouth Hotel, Ararat.—Plate, knife, fork and spoon, chains, &c., carved in wood.
1633 Jones, Minnie, Queen-st, West Melbourne.—Embroidered toilet set.
1634 Keen, Elizabeth, Fyans Ford, Geelong—Patchwork quilt
1635 Kelsall, J. E., Postmaster, Cape Otway.—Boxes of muskroot and other Cape Otway woods.
1636 Kitz, Mrs. C., Simpson-st., East Melbourne.—Wax flowers. Fret-work.
1637 Laing, Maggie M., Aberdeen-road, Prahran, Melbourne.—Crystal cross and flowers.
1638 Lancelot, A., Castle Donnington Hotel, Brunswick-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Fret-work fan, for photographs.
1639 Laurance, Amelia, 11 Byron-st, Hotham, Melbourne.—Gold, silver, black, and white point lace.
1640 Laurance, Catherine, 11 Byron-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Darned net antimacassar. Lace darned upon Brussels net.
1641 Lee, Esther, Earl of Zetland Hotel, Swanston-st., Melbourne.—Ladies' underclothing.
1642 Leek, Elizabeth, Hyde-st., Yarraville, Melbourne.—Fancy picture, in leather-work frame.
1643 Le Souef, Eva W., Royal Park, Melbourne.—Splashed fern table.
1644 Lewelling, Grace E., Chapel-st., Prahran, Melbourne.—Skeleton leaves.
1645 Liddelow, A., State School, Tarraville, South Gippsland.—Cone picture-frames.
1646 Lister, Mary, Beech-st., Sand ridge, Melbourne.—Wax flowers.
1647 Little, F., Thomas-st., Little Brighton, Melbourne.—Point-lace veil, fac-simile of that worn by the Princess of Wales at her marriage.
1649 M'Alpine, Miss, Campbell-parade, Richmond, Melbourne.—Mottoes on perforated card.
1650 M'Alpine, C. A., Campbell-parade, Richmond, Melbourne.—Fancy articles in wood and metals.
1651 M'Donald, Margaret, Chapman-st., Hotham Hill, Melbourne.—Wax flowers. Leather-work frame.
1653 McGivern, Emilia, Chetwynd-st, Hotham, Melbourne.—Wool flowers.
1655 McWalter, Elizabeth, 20 Ireland-st., West Melbourne.—Basket of flowers.
1656 McWalter, Jeannie W., 20 Ireland-st., West Melbourne.—Alum cross, with passion flowers.
1659 Meyers, J. S., Collingwood, Melbourne.—Baskets, leather-work frames.
1660 Miller, Mabel C., Bosisto-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Wool flowers.
1661 Mills, H. W., 40 Albert-st., Windsor, Melbourne.—Silk picture, worked in 1779.
1662 Mirams, Isabella C., Vaucluse, Richmond, Melbourne.—Crochet quilt.
1663 Monkhouse, Susan, 3 Fraser-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Patchwork quilt.
1665 Morgan, Maria, Nicholson-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Wool flowers.
1666 Mowat, Mary A., Derby-st., Collingwood, Melbourne.—Pictures, &c., in seaweed and shells.
1667 Murphy, Kate J., R. C. School, Heathcote, Melbourne.—Point-lace antimacassar, collar and cuffs.
1668 Nail, Hannah, Derbyshire Farm, Waaragee, Beechworth.—Hand-knitted woollen hosiery.
1669 Naughton, Bridget, Church-st. North, Richmond, Melbourne.—Patchwork counterpane.
1670 O'Callaghan, Miss E.—Flowers, in water-colours.
1671 O'Callaghan, Katie. Church-st., Hawthorn, Melbourne.—Lace toilet set.
1672 O'Callaghan, Miss M.—Flowers, in water-colours.
1673 O'Connell, Mrs. J.—Socks.
1674 Oliver, Sarah, Grant-st., Ballarat East.—Lace curtains and dress.
1675 Ormond, Mrs. M. E., Aberdeen-st., Geelong.—Hand-painting on glass.
1677 Paterson. Emma J., St. James's Park, Hotham, Melbourne.—Needle-work picture.
1678 Patton, Emily S., Studley Park-road, Kew, Melbourne.—Poem on Sydney International Exhibition.
1679 Pearson, Elizabeth, Argyle-square, Carlton, Melbourne.—Paper flowers.
1680 Peebles, Florence J., Agnes-st., Jolimont, Melbourne.—Wax flowers.
1681 Penny, E. T., 7 Lygon-terrace, Lygon-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Skeleton leaves.
1684 Pidgeon, Margaret, 18 Raglan-st. Hotham, Melbourne.—Shell and seaweed ornaments.
1685 Pinkus, Sophia. 64 Victoria-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Wool flowers.
1686 Plimpton, Rose, 131 Young-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Leather-work table. Wax flowers.
1687 Potts, Mary A. & R., 109 Church-st., Richmond.—Point lace, handkerchiefs, imitation honiton lace, and feather hand screen.
1688 Power, Misses H. & S., 43 Collins-st East, Melbourne.—Fancy needle-work and embroidery).
1689 Prunty, Mrs., Queen-st., Footscray, Melbourne.—Antimacassar, collar and cuffs.
1690 Puckey, Eliza P., Grosvenor School, Colling, wood, Melbourne.—Wool flowers.
1692 Reed, Annie, Toorak-road, South Yarra, Melbourne.—Crochet quilt.
1693 Reid, Mrs. R., Post-office, Flemington, Melbourne.—Cross, in imitation Parian marble.
1694 Rich, Hannah, 132 Brunswick-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Point lace.
1695 Richardson. Mrs., Roden-st., West Melbourne.—Embroidery on velvet.
1696 Riley, Isabel, 3 Eastbourne-st., Windsor, Melbourne.—Paper flowers.
1697 Robertson, Rebecca L., 45 Clifton-st., Richmond, Melbourne.—Cone frame.
1698 Roberts, Isabella, Roden-st., West Melbourne.—Knitted bed-covers.
1699 Roddy, Sarah, 1 Wodonga-terrace, Cardigan-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Wool picture.
1700 Rooke, Ellen C., Clifton Hill, Collingwood, Melbourne.—Picture in Berlin wool.
1701 Rosman, Mrs. M., 75 Fitzroy-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Knitted quilt.
1702 Rumbell, W., 116 Nicholas-st., Geelong—Vase and picture-frames in shell-work.
1703 Russell, Catherine H. G., 104 George-st., East Melbourne.—Tatted piano stool-cover.
1704 Sage, Catherine, Avenue-road, Camberwell.—Embroidery on satin.
1705 Sage, Catherine, Avenue-road, Camberwell, Melbourne.—Wool-work.
1706 Sage, Charlotte H., Avenue-road, Camberwell, Melbourne.—Darned net.
1707 Sainsbury, Ellen L., Halcyon Farm, Newstead.—Leather-work picture-frames.
1709 Sasse, Sophia, & Purnell, A., Geelong.—Macramé fringe. Fret-work.
1711 Seekamp, F. W., 85 Barkly-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Eggshell ornaments.
1712 Shand, Martha, Erskine-st., Hotham Hill, Melbourne.—Fern-work table.
1713 Shaw, Jessie, High-st., Maryborough.—Lace. Wool, silk, and bead work.
1714 Simons, Lizzie, 49 Bridport-st. West, Albert Park, Melbourne.—Paper flowers and trees.
1716 Sinclair, Mary A., 4 Princes-st., Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Crochet quilt.
1717 Smith, Mrs. S., Sunny Bank, Tavendara.—Honiton lace kerchief.
1722 Sturrock, Grace, 9 University-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Wool-work pictures.
1723 Syme, Jane, Cheltenham.—Ornamental pith-work.
1724 Symons, Polly, 2 John-st. Fitzroy, Melbourne.—Point and honiton lace.
1725 Taylor, Anna, 138 Capel and Peel sts., West Melbourne.—Crochet antimacassar.
1726 Taylor, Ann E., 13 Miller-st. West Melbourne.—Paper flowers and alum cross.
1727 Taylor, Lilly, 138 Capel and Peel sts., West Melbourne.—Fancy card baskets. Carved bookmark.
1729 Taylor, Mrs. R., 138 Capel and Peel sts., West Melbourne.—Leather-work cornices.
1731 Teale, Sara, 69 Cobden-st., Emerald Hill, Melbourne.—Articles of ladies' dress in lace.
1732 Thom, Annie, 3 Richardson-st., North Carlton, Melbourne.—Hosiery.
1733 Thompson, Mary A., Hibernian House, Kew, Melbourne.—Cone frame.
1736 Tilly, Claranda, 18 Howe-crescent, Albert Park, Melbourne.—Silk quilt 10,555 pieces.
1737 Tomspsitt, Mrs., Toorak, Melbourne.—Coloured tatting.
1739 Uggles, Emmeline, 1 Lygon-st., Carlton, Melbourne.—Needle-work for suite of furniture.
1740 Van den Houten, Mrs., 2 Henry-st., Windsor, Melbourne.—Patchwork quilt, made from remnants of dresses of Queen Adelaide.
1741 Vines, Rebecca, Brougham-st., Kew, Melbourne.—Fancy picture-frames, Canterbury and brackets.
1742 Wade, Miss, Hoatham-st., East St. Kilda, Melbourne.—Tea cosie.
1743 Wagg, Amelia, Murray-st., Colac.—Doll-house furniture made from Victorian wild-fowl bones.
1744 Wallis, Eliza, 9 O'Connell-st., Hotham, Melbourne.—Wool-work picture.
1745 Warner, Isabella, Sydney-road, Coburg, Melbourne.—Wax flowers.
1746 Watson, Kate, 131 Rosslyn-st., West Melbourne.—Wool-work picture.
1747 Watts, Fanny C., 101 York-st., North Richmond, Melbourne.—Wax and paper flowers.
1749 Wearne, Margaret J., Springs, Maldon.—Leather-work frame.
1750 Whittle, Catherine A., Islington-st., Collingwood, Melbourne.—Wool-work.
1751 Whybrow, Miss, Brighton, Melbourne.—Undergarment for infants.
1752 Whyte, Jessie A, Palmerston-st., Sandhurst.—Point-lace apron, handkerchief, and sleeves.
1753 Williams, Miss E. A., Mitchell's Reef.—Wool flowers.
1754 Windsor, Kate.—Wild Tasmanian flowers embroidered on cloth.
1755 Wing, Marie, Lincoln-st., North Richmond, Melbourne.—Wool flowers.
1756 WitheH, Mrs. M., 1 Railway-gate, Mac-arthur-st., Ballarat West.—Cuttlefish and seaweed flowers.
1757 Wright, Emily, Post-office, Narree Warren.—Vase of artificial flowers.

**Victorian Wines**

Entered for Competition.
De Castella & Rowan,  
St. Hubert's, Lilydale.  
C. Gordon & Son,  
Axedale, Sandhurst.  
  • Red Hermitage  
  • Carbinet  
  • Verdeilho  
C. Buchanan,  
Ondit.  
  • Mataro  
  • Carbinet  
  • Pinaud Blanc  
A. Trinhaus,  
Muckleford.  
  • Reisling  
  • Burgundy  
  • Tokay  
  • Hermitage  
F. Schmidt,  
Berwick  
  • Reisling  
  • Hermitage  
Jean Merle,  
Daylesford.  
T. Alderson.  
Bet-Bet.  
  • Unfermented wine  
Jas. Scott,  
Wahgunyah.  
L. Kitz & Son,  
Melbourne.  
T. Hopper,  
Snake Valley (Carngham).  
  • Milk punch  
  • Milk punch  
J. Kahland,  
Sandhurst.  
J. F. Martin,  
Brown s Plains.  
H. D. O'Brien,  
Dunolly.  
  • Hermitage  
  • Chasselas  
D. Giovannoni,  
Spring Creek (Hepburn).  
  • Hermitage  
Jos. Pearce,  
Wahgunyah.  
  • (Wine not named.)  
W. Jones,  
Wedderburn.  
C. Fuller.  
Inverleigh.  
  • Pinaud Gris  
  • Burgundy  
  • Hermitage  
A. Farrell, sen.,  
Baringhup.
• Reisling
• Hermitage
G. F. Morris, Brown's Plains.
F. Mellon, Dunolly.
• Verdeilho
• Reisling
• Muscatel
• Pedro Ximenes
• Hermitage
• Pinaud
J. B. Pin.
Carlton
Carl Pohl, Strathfieldsaye.
E. Bronsing, Nagambie.
• Burgundy
• Reisling
• Hermitage
• Gouais
Guillaume de Pury, Yeringberg.
A. W. Fox, Sandhurst.
A. Bruhn, Sandhurst.
Camille Reau, Wahgunyah.
• Baxter Sherry
• Carbinet
• Hermitage
• Reisling
Peter Faux, Dunolly.
Ritchie Brothers, Murgheboluc (Geelong).
Chateau Tahbilk, Tabilk.
T. S. Johnston, Sunbury.
Alex. Joske, Melbourne.
J. & L. Mooney, Ararat.
• Hermitage
• Chasselas
F. Egli, Tabilk.
R. P. Anderson, Melbourne.
Fabrizio Crippa, Hepburn.
• Hermitage
Alex. Borland, Loddon.
• Hermitage
E. Schroeder, Castlemaine.
- Reisling
- Carbinet
- Burgundy
- Chasselas

G. Hanson, Waurn Ponds.
- Chasselas

H. Meyer, Sheepwash.
J. Eadie, Sunbury.
Henry Best, Gt. Western.
E. Graham Fulton, Murray.
J. Macpherson.
- Pinaud
- Hermitage

Robt. M'Bean, Benalla.
Robt. Kurrle, Sunbury.
Augt. Mueller, Yackandandah.
J. Mackiehan, Penshurst.

G. S. Smith, Wahgunyah.
J. Gemmell, Wooragee.
Augt. Fisher, Sandhurst.
F. Grosse, Sandhurst.
- Tokay
- Verdeilho
- Pedro Ximenes
- Carbinet
- Hermitage
- Reisling

J Davies, Ngarveno.
- Hermitage
- Claret
- Hermitage
- Hermitage
- Hock
- Hock
- Hock

W. M'Donald, Docker's Plains.
Thos. Ford.
John Burne, Strathfieldsaye.
F. K. Shaw,
Goornong.
W. Griefenhagen,
Strathfieldsaye.
A & R. Caughey,
Yarra Bank.

- Reisling
- Hermitage
- Malbec
- Shiraz, E.
- Shiraz, C.
- Red Muscatel
- Shiraz, D.
- Madeira
- Shiraz, B.
- Sauterne
- Grenache
- Tokay
- Aucarot
- Reisling, A.
- Mataro
- Claret
- Reisling, D.
- Reisling, E.
- Reisling, B.
- Gouais

Jos. Best,
Great Western.
Travers Adamson,
Sunbury.
V. Perini,
Hepburn.

- Hermitage
- Spirits
C. Daniel,
Bulla.

- Red
Trouette & Blampied,
Great Western.

  Vinegar also.
  Reisling, No. 1
  Burgundy, No. 1
  Chablis, No. 1
Duncan Logan,
Rutherglen.

- Shiraz
- Pedro Ximenes
- Shiraz
- Reisling
- Tokay
Caldwell & Co.,
Collins-st.

- Sauterne
- Tokay
- Shiraz
- Reisling
- Verdeilho
- Dry Muscat
- Malbec
• Shiraz
• Shiraz
• Shiraz
• Tokay
• Claret
• Port
• Muscat
L. L. Smith,
Nunawading.
• Claret
• Carte Blanche Champagne
• Creme de Bouzie
• Sillery Rosé
• Perle d'Australie
• Sparkling Burgundy
• Sparkling Cider
• Sparkling Perry
A. Schwerkolt,
Ring wood.
• Sherry wine
• Peach wine
• Mead wine
J. Smith & Son,
Riddell's Creek.
• Rheum
H. Brown,
Emerald Hill.
• Orange wine
J. Fehrny,
Yarra Track.
• Gooseberry wine
• Black currant wine
Warrenheip Distillery,
Ballarat.
• Rectified spirits, wine
• Malt whisky
• Geneva

Victorian Ales, &c.

T. Jacton.
• Bottled ale and stout
Baynes & Hearn,
Wangaratta.
• Bottled ale and stout
• Bulk ale and stout
R. Marks & Co.,
Maldon.
• Bulk ale
G. Billson,
Beechworth.
• Bulk ale
• Bottled ale and stout
J. Myring,
Campbell's Creek.
• Bottled ale
• Bulk ale
J. Wood & Son,
"Yorkshire," Collingwood.
- Bulk ale
- Bottled ale and porter.
- Bulk vinegar

R. M'Cracken & Co.,
"City," Melbourne.
- Bulk ale
- Bottled ale and stout

Patrick Coyle,
"Royal Mint," Melbourne.
- Bottled ale and stout
- Bulk ale

Thomas Aitken,
"Royal Mint," Melbourne.
- Bottled ale and stout
- Bulk ale

Jas. Hennelly,
"Metropolitan," West Melbourne.
- Ale, in bottle and bulk

Jas. Hunter.
- Ale, in bulk

P. J. Martin,
- Ale and porter, in bulk and bottled

M'Bride & Martin.
"Melbourne," West Melbourne.
- Ale and porter, in bulk and bottled

E. Latham,
"Carlton," Carlton.
- Ale, stout, and porter, in bulk and bottled

J. Treacey,
"West End," Geelong.
- Ale and stout, in bulk and bottled

Fitzgerald & Newman,
"Castlemaine," Castlemaine.
- Ale, in bulk

Fitzgerald & Perrin,
"Castlemaine," Emerald Hill.
- Ale, in bulk

Boyd & Head,
"Shamrock," Collingwood.
- Ales and porter, in bulk and bottled

Hornby & Co.,
"Williamstown," Williamstown.
- Ale, in bulk

Cordials.

J. Wood & Son,
Collingwood.
New South Wales.

(Prepared under the authority of the New South Wales Commission.)

It is a matter of interest in the history of the world at large, no less than in that of the Australasian colonies, that in the year 1770 Captain Cook landed in the neighbourhood of what has since become the city of Sydney; and the statue which adorns Hyde Park, and looks over the beautiful region which he was the first to discover, bears witness to the gratitude of the country to the intrepid navigator who opened to mankind so fair a portion of the world. Less than one hundred years ago Captain Phillip reached the shores of Port Jackson, with an expedition numbering one thousand souls; and from that beginning sprang not only the mother-colony of New South Wales, but also the other colonies which are fast peopling the great southern continent.

Until thirty years ago the history of Australia was contained in that of New South Wales, for from Sydney went forth the pioneers who first opened up and populated the continent, penetrating further and further away from the mother-city, until the distance that separated those settlers from it became so great that the Home Government found it advisable to concede to them the right of self-government. Victoria first separated in 1851, and Queensland followed eight years after.

Meanwhile the population and importance of New South Wales had increased so far that, in 1854, it was considered that the colonists were fully capable of managing their own affairs, and the system of responsible government was established which now prevails. The franchise is based on manhood suffrage, and a measure has lately been passed which will tend still further to popularise the already popular Government. By the Electoral Bill, which was passed in the last session of Parliament, the number of members in the Legislative Assembly will be increased from 73 to 108. It is probable that the census, which will be taken in all the Australian colonies in the course of the ensuing year, will show the population of New South Wales to number about 800,000 souls.

If facilities of communication may be taken as a fair test of progressive tendencies, New South Wales cannot be considered backward in proportion to the size of her territory. There are, at the present time, 790½ miles of railway open, and 850 miles in course of preparation or projected. Within a few weeks the railway will bring Sydney fifty miles nearer to Melbourne, and it is anticipated that by the close of the year that important line will be extended to Albury—that is, within about three miles of the terminus of the Victorian railways. When that extension is complete, the journey between the capitals of New South Wales and Victoria will only...
occupy about twenty-six hours. At the same time lines are being rapidly pushed on which will open up the great districts lying to the north and west. At the present time the railway has been opened for traffic 228½ miles to the north, and 251 miles to the west, while 340 miles on the west and 257 miles on the north are in preparation or projected. A model of the Lithgow Valley railway, generally known as the Zigzag, which will be found among the New South Wales exhibits, illustrates one of the most interesting feats of modern engineering; while various other exhibits will indicate the apparatus in use on the Government railways.

In the adaptation of steam tramways to street traffic, New South Wales may claim to have taken the lead of the other colonies. A tramway line which was constructed from the Redfern railway-station to the centre of the city, in order to afford easy access to the Sydney International Exhibition, proved so successful an experiment that it was determined by the Government to construct a system of tramways similar to that adopted with such success in the capital of Belgium, which would connect the principal suburbs with the centre of the city. The work has already been commenced, and it is estimated that when it is completed the facilities for traffic will compare favourably with those possessed by any European city. Among the exhibits will be found specimens of the rails in use and of a new method of working the points, as well as some cars made in the colony from colonial materials.

Communication with the country districts is effectively maintained also by a complete postal and telegraphic system, which has of late been largely extended, and which will be further improved as the work of railway extension proceeds. There are 12,426 miles of telegraph wire open in the whole colony, and post-offices are established wherever the circumstances of the people require it.

In passing to the subject of mercantile marine, we come to treat of one of the greatest resources and most important industries of the colony. Being provided with one of the finest harbours in the world, and situated close to the great coalfield of Australia, Port Jackson is fitted to become the centre of the shipping trade in the south seas. Natural facilities for the formation of docks and wharves have been to some extent taken advantage of, and the Fitzroy dock and Mort’s dock are capable of receiving vessels of the largest size. Sydney is now the terminus of four great lines of steamers—the Peninsular and Oriental, and the Orient Steam Navigation Company (whose vessels arrive fortnightly), of the Pacific Steam Navigation Company, and the Torres Straits mail steamships. The new steamers employed by the Orient Steam Navigation Company are among the finest afloat, and the "Orient," which made its first visit in the beginning of the present year, ranks in point of size and power with the largest vessels of mercantile marine. The P. & O. Company are also now sending their best vessels to Sydney. The fact that four such lines as those find sufficient inducement to supply such a service demonstrates sufficiently the importance of the Australian trade. Besides those four great companies there are 17 principal local companies, with vessels which, for intercolonial trade, may be ranked with the lines just referred to. The total amount of tonnage of ships visiting the harbour in 1879 was 1,268,377. The shipbuilding industry is increasing rapidly, and a proof of what has already been done may be seen in the models exhibited in the New South Wales Court by Mort’s Dock and Engineering Company, as well as to the shaft of the s.s. "Maitland," the latter being of special interest.

It is impossible, in so brief a space, to convey an adequate impression of the natural resources of the colony. Although population has increased with great rapidity, many years must elapse before the vast tracts of country lying at a distance from the coast are anything but sparsely populated; and thus by far the larger proportion of the country is still in the pastoral stage, and the greatest source of wealth lies in the production of wool. In this New South Wales has for many years held the first place in the world; and it is believed that, in the forthcoming wool show, it will not fall short of its reputation. Another enterprise has lately been inaugurated which should greatly benefit those engaged in pastoral pursuits. The success of the "Strathleven" experiment in conveying frozen meat to England, and the favourable reception afforded to Australian meat in the London market, in part justifies the hope that before long another source of wealth to the colony may be found in the exportation of meat from Australia to England.

But the natural course of progress in the history of a young country is from the pastoral to the agricultural stage; and the great problem which the statesmen of the colony have for years been endeavouring to solve is the settlement and population of the country by its division into smaller agricultural holdings. At present the agrarian system is founded on the principle of "free selection before survey;" but, for further information on this subject, reference should be made to the land laws of New South Wales. In spite of great difficulties the area of land under cultivation is steadily increasing. Maize is grown most successfully in the Hawkesbury district, both the yield and the quality of the grain being highly creditable. The wheat grown in the western districts of Bathurst and Orange, in the south-west about Goulburn and Yass, and in the north in the neighbourhood of Tamworth, is of fine quality. By the great variety of vegetable products, the size of the colony and its many different climates are perhaps best illustrated. The yield includes semi-tropical fruits and the fruits of the colder latitudes in profusion. The county of Cumberland seems specially favourable for the growth of the citrus tribe, the many varieties of which will be displayed at the forthcoming fruit show as a special exhibit.
The production of sugar in the northern district of the Clarence has already assumed great importance; and the business carried on by the Colonial Sugar Refining Company, which has its works on the Clarence River, is very large. The quality of their produce may be tested by reference to their exhibit. The fertility of the Clarence River district, and the industry and energy of its inhabitants, are further illustrated by a collective exhibit characteristic of the district.

Tobacco is grown here in considerable quantities; but the districts which produce most tobacco in the colony are those on the Hunter River. It is much to be regretted that this industry is on the present occasion almost unrepresented.

The southern districts, from Illawarra to the frontier, are best adapted for dairy farming; and the district of Bega, which makes an effective representative exhibit, is specially famous in that respect.

The wine-producing capabilities of Australia are fast attracting the attention of the world; and at the Paris Exhibition the wines of New South Wales received the consideration which they merited. Since that time they have fast been growing in favour. A representative exhibit has been forwarded, which is not, however, sufficient to indicate the great importance of that rising industry—which the natural advantages of favourable soil and climate must necessarily render, in course of time, one of the most prominent in the colony.

A collection of birds indigenous to the colony, and of food fishes, exhibited at the instance of the trustees of the Museum, by Mr. Ramsay, the curator, will be found to be of interest.

Perhaps the most interesting exhibit in the New South Wales Court will be found in the display of minerals. Collected and arranged by able and experienced officers, acting under the direction of the Minister of Mines, they will convey a correct impression of the vast mineral resources of the country in almost all the metals; and will, above all, attract attention to the unequalled richness of the coalfields of New South Wales.

The manufacturing industries of the colony are of the highest importance, and it is, in consequence, much to be regretted that some of the most important of these, including the numerous breweries and carriage manufactories, are inadequately represented. The show of manufactures in leather, made by Messrs. Alderson and Son, and others, in itself affords a proof of the importance of that industry and of the success of the labour which is brought to bear upon it. Samples have been supplied of the work done by the enterprising firms of Messrs. Hudson and Mr. Wereae.

With regard to the intellectual progress of the colony, the question of national education has of late years been the subject of considerable discussion and most important legislation. By the Public Instruction Act the Council of Education has been abolished, and the whole system of primary instruction has been placed under a Minister for Public Instruction. The Act, which is mainly due to the foresight and ability of the Honorable Sir Henry Parkes, K.C.M.G., Colonial Secretary, provides also for the establishment of high or grammar schools for both sexes, in all the principal centres of population throughout the colony, as an intermediate stage between the primary schools and the University. The whole educational fabric is crowned by the University of Sydney, which was incorporated in 1851, and seven years afterwards was placed on the same footing as the Universities within the United Kingdom. A chancellor, vice-chancellor, and elective senate of sixteen members constitute the governing body; the studies are directed by seven professors and lecturers. The endowment amounts to an income of £5000 per annum. A reference to the University Calendar will show that considerable sums have been given by private individuals for annual and other prizes; and a munificent bequest of £100,000 was, a few months ago, bestowed by the will of the late Mr. Challis.

The Technical or Working Man's College affords by its display of work substantial proof that the mechanics of Sydney are not behindhand in higher education. The exhibits of the Royal Society of New South Wales, and the valuable display made by the Government Printer, supply sufficient evidence of the diffusion of superior knowledge; while the public taste for learning is borne witness to by the fact that the present Public Library, though by no means a small building, has been found insufficient, and a new library on a larger scale is about to be commenced. In considering the part taken by the colony in art, the great difficulties which must necessarily beset a young country in this pursuit must receive full consideration, together with the irreparable loss of the advantage derived from the study of great masters. It is, however, undisputed that a decided tendency to improvement in artistic taste has of late prevailed, and the creditable efforts made by a new art society to be well represented, in spite of its recent foundation, is an earnest of a desire to excel.

To those who have watched the progress of the colony it must be apparent that, in the last three or four years, its prosperity has advanced with rapid strides. The seed sown with so much toil and labour in past time is now producing a harvest, the full richness of which has yet to be enjoyed. In great natural resources, and almost boundless mineral wealth, lie the best securities of a great future; while some proof of the fact that the inhabitants of New South Wales are not unworthy of the bounties which nature has bestowed on their country, is to be found in the surprising quickness and energy which, in preparing the late Sydney International Exhibition in so short a time, accomplished a feat which might well have been considered impracticable. Although it might be somewhat exacting to demand a display equal to that in the New South Wales Court of the
Garden Palace after so short an interval, it may at least be allowed that, in its contribution to the success of the Melbourne International Exhibition, New South Wales has not been forgetful of its own reputation, or of the lively interest it must always feel in the well-being of the sister colony.

NEW SOUTH WALES EXHIBITS.

[Any Exhibits classed under Fine Arts Group are transferred to Fine Arts Section of Catalogue, and will be found there under heading “New South Wales”]

II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.

Class 6.—Education of Children, Primary Instruction, Instruction of Adults.

1 Department of Public Instruction.—Collective exhibit.
2 Department of Public Instruction.—Plans, models, and photographs of public school buildings, &c.
3 Department of Public Instruction.—Samples of pupils' work.
4 New South Wales Institute for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind (E. Robinson, Hon. See.).—Articles made by scholars of the Institute.
5 Troughton & Boulton, 150 Macquarie-st., Sydney.—Improved school-desks and educational apparatus.

Class 8.—Organisation, Methods, and Appliances for Superior Instruction.

6 Fitzgerald, R. D., Deputy Surveyor-General, Sydney.—Five parts of a work on Australian orchids; 26 plates of same work.

Class 9.—Printing, Books.

8 Batson, C., 30 Wynyard-square, Sydney.—Specimens of printing.
9 Drew, Amelia B., Oak-terrace, Parramatta-road.—Musical compositions of lady amateur.
10 Gardner, J., Young.—Specimens of coloured printing.
11 Gaden, Eliza B., Hampton Villa, Balmain.—Armorial album.
12 King, P. G., Tamworth.—Letter-book of Governor King.
13 Richards, T., Government Printer, Sydney.—Collective exhibit of books.
14 Royal Society of New South Wales (A. Liversidge, Secretary)—Journal of the Society and pamphlets.
15 Silver, S. W., & Co. (J. Henniker Heaton, 148 Pitt-st., Agent).—Colonial publications and maps for use of tourists and emigrants.

Class 10.—Stationery, Bookbinding, Painting and Drawing Materials.

16 Alderson & Sons, 101 York-st., Sydney.—Bookbinding leathers—rough and smooth calf, kangaroo, goat, sheep, morocco, Russia hides.
17 Short, G., South Head-road Public School, Paddington.—Bookbinding, showing advantage of flexible over non-flexible backs.
18 Smithers, H., 83 Victoria-st., Darlinghurst.—Large frame of postage stamps.

Class 14.— Medicine, Hygiene, and Public Relief.

20 Chaim, J., 3 Enmore-road, Newtown.—Artificial teeth.
21 Guyatt, G., 301 George-st., Sydney.—Various surgical instruments and appliances.
22 Spencer, J., 44 Margaret-st., Sydney.—Mechanical dentistry in gold and vulcanite.

Class 16.—Maps, and Geographical and Cosmo-graphical Apparatus.

24 Butterfield, G., Marrickville.—Astronomical planispheres, &c.
25 Department of Mines, Sydney.—Geological sketch map of New South Wales (collective exhibit).
26 Hunt, G. H., Ryde Public School, Parramatta.—Maps.
27 Searchfield, E., 43 Collins-st., Surrey Hills.—Port Jackson Harbour.

III. Furniture and Accessories.

Class 17.—Cheap and Fancy Furniture.

28 Forster, S., & Sons, 106 Harrington-st., Sydney.—Brass and iron bedsteads.
29 Hasarts, L., 81 Goulburn-st., Sydney.—Ebonised gilt sideboard, with oil painting.
30 Holterman, B. O., 674 George-st., Sydney.—Carved furniture.
31 Hudson Brothers, Botany-road, Redfern.—Cabinet-work.
32 Jones, W., & Son, Ross-st., Glebe.—Pine-wood bookcase, dark oak mounting.
33 Millson, A., 121½ Liverpool-st., Sydney.—Furniture.
34 Wearne, T., 386 Sussex-st., Sydney.—Fireproof safes.

Class 18.—Upholsterers' and Decorators' Work.

35 Doubleday, Miss Mary, Napier-st., Paddington.—Wax imitation of Parian marble.
36 Greenhalgh, J., 11 Beaufort-st., Sydney.—Wood revolving shutters.
37 Kean, J. A., 242 Castlereagh-st., Sydney.—Table-top, imitation of inlaid wood and stone.
40 Rowe, T., & Son, 282 Pitt-st., Sydney.—Venetian and wire blinds.

Class 19.—Crystal, Glass, and Stained Glass.

43 Cornish, J. C., Illawarra-road, Marrickville.—Kent glass and show-case.
44 Lyon, Cottier & Co., 119 Liverpool-st.—Stained-glass windows.

Class 20.—Pottery.

45 Baldock Brothers, London Pottery, Camperdown.—Pottery-ware.
46 Davis, J., Campbell-st., Camperdown.—Terracotta work.
47 Stevens & Kyle, Albury.—Six varieties of bricks.

Class 21.—Carpets, Tapestry, and other Stuffs for Furniture.

49 Read, J. C., Principal Gaoler, Darlingtret.—Matting, hammocks, network, &c.

Class 23.—Cutlery.

Class 24.—Goldsmiths' and Silversmiths' Work.
51 Bartlett, S., 42 Hunter-st., Sydney.—Rings, earrings, and studs of New South Wales gold.
52 Jones, E., 11 Hunter-st., Sydney.—Gold and silver plate, &c.
53 Joubert, J., Sydney.—Tea and coffee service, presented to exhibitor in 1868.
55a Prize Cups, Presentation Plate, &c., lent by C. Belisario, Esq., Dr. Milford, and others.

Class 25.—Bronzes and various Art Castings and Repousse Work.
56 Smith, R. B., M.P., Macquarie-st., Sydney.—Model of the statue of Captain Cook.
57 House Committee Sydney Infirmary.—Brass plate found at foundation.

Class 26.—Clocks and Watches.
58 Smith, J. M., 17 Hunter-st., Sydney.—Watch and clock wheels, bevel wheels.

Class 27.—Apparatus and Processes for Heating and Lighting.
60 Penson, J. A., 279 Pitt-st., Sydney.—Two kerosene sun lights, kerosene lamp.

Class 29.—Leather-work, Fancy Articles, and Basket-work.
62 Alexander. Mrs., 48 Margaret-st., Sydney.—Flowers made from seeds and lobster-shell.
63 Hunt. Mrs. G. H., Ryde Public School, Parramatta.—Seed-work, shells, &c.
64 Stratton. E., Tamworth.—Two miniature chairs carved in wood.

IV. Textile Fabrics, Clothing, and Accessories.

Class 30.—Cotton Thread and Fabrics.
65 Humberstone, Laura, 217 Elizabeth-st., Sydney.—Cushion, embroidered with crewel-work.
66 Jenkins. Mrs., Pyrmont.—Knitted quilt.

Class 31.—Thread and Fabrics of Flax, Hemp, &c.

Class 33.—Woollen Yarn and Fabrics.
68 Humberstone, Laura, 217 Elizabeth-st., Sydney.—Wool-work.
69 Minnis. Helen, St. Peter's-st., Woolloomooloo.

Class 34.—Silk and Silk Fabrics.
70 Affleck, T., Alburv.—Reeled silk and cocoons.

Class 36.—Lace, Net, Embroidery, and Trimmings.
71 Calvert. May M., Woodlands, Marrickville.—Silk braces, worked.
72 Haviland. Lucy M., 1 Enmore-terrace, Pitt-st., Redfern.—Collar and cuffs (tatting), of No. 100 machine cotton.
73 Humberstone, Laura, 217 Elizabeth-st, Sydney.—Lace apron, collar, handkerchief, buttonhole piece.
74 Hunt, G. H., Ryde Public School, Parramatta.—Fancy-work, embroidery, &c.
75 Hunt. Mrs. G. H., Ryde Public School. Parramatta.—Fancy-work, embroidery, &c.

Class 37.—Hosiery and Underclothing and Accessories of Clothing.

77 Hunt, Mrs. G. H.. Ryde Public School, Parramatta.—Knitted stockings and gloves.
78 Magrath, P., Yass.—Knitted woollen gloves.

Class 38.—Clothing for both Sexes.

79 Alderson & Sons, 101 York-st., Sydney.—Colonial-made boots and shoes; goat, kangaroo, kid, enamelled, and patent leathers.
80 Gillespie, C., Goulburn.—Ladies', men's, and children's boots and shoes; lawn-tennis made boots.
81 Taylor, E., 22 York-st., Sydney.—Boots and shoes.
82 West, A., 44 Cleveland-st., Darlington.—Copper toe-tips for children's boots.

Class 39.—Jewellery and Precious Stones.

83 Alonzo, S., Dowling-st., Sydney.—Process of manufacturing imitation jewellery; imitation jewellery, so manufactured.
84 Altman, L. J., 277 Pitt-st., Sydney.—Fancy-made silver trinkets.
85 Moonen, L., Lambert-st., Camperdown.—Colonial gold, enamel, and other jewellery.

Class 41.—Travelling Apparatus and Camp Equipage.

86 Alderson & Sons. 101 York-st., Sydney.—Telescope trunks; railway portmanteaus, various kinds, solid and patent leather; valises, brown and patent leather.

Class 42.—Toys.

87 Altman, L. J., 277 Pitt-st., Sydney.—Digitine, for athletes; cricketing and lawn-tennis goods.
88 Kerr, E., 508 George-st., Sydney.—Mechanical and scientific toys.
89 Lasseter, F., & Co., 417 George-st., Sydney.—(1) Roller skates; (2) Indian clubs, skittles of colonial wood.

V. Raw and Manufactured Products.

Class 43—Products of the Cultivation of Forests and of the Trades appertaining thereto.

90 Clarence River Group (T. Page, Grafton).—Fifty varieties of the timber of the district.
92 Department of Mines. Sydney.—Collection of samples of New South Wales woods (collective exhibit).
93 Fag-an, W., 65 Riley-St., Wooolloomooloo.—Graining imitations of various woods and marbles.
95 Magrath, P., Yass.—Specimens of timber.
96 Milton, H. M., 4 York-terrace, Balmain.—Cork in various stages, from raw to manufactured.
97 Walker & Halliday, Melbourne.—Wood, from cylinder of bridge between Moama and Echuca.

Class 44—Products of Hunting, Shooting, Fishing, and
Spontaneous Products. Machines and Instruments connected therewith.

98 Australian Museum, Sydney (E. F. Ramsay, Curator).—Collection of Australian birds, &c.
99 Bray, J-S., 263 George-st., Sydney.—150 specimens of birds.

Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food.
100 Campbell, D. H., Cunningham Plains.—Sheep burnet (Poterium sanguisorba).
102 Clarence River Group (T. Page, Grafton).—Tobacco-leaf and cotton grown in district, cigars.
103 King, P. G., Peel River Co., Goonoogoonoo.—Wool.
104 Samuel, Hon. S-, C.M.G., 3 Spring-st., Sydney.—Glue made from sheep's pelts and pieces of ox-hides.

Class 46.—Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products.
105 Altman, L. J., 277 Pitt-st., Sydney.—Cement for glass and china.
108 Davies, W., Goulburn.—Dr. Waugh's baking-powder.
109 Gibson, G. W., Forcaux-st., Surrey Hills.—Odontalgic essence.
111 Holterman, B. O., 674 George-st., Sydney.—Furniture polish, Holtermann's life drops.
112 Hudson Brothers, Botany-road, Redfern.—Non-poisonous paint.
113 Icke, C., Wickham, Newcastle.—Pure soldering liquid, invented and produced by exhibitor.
114 Kerr, E., 508 George-st., Sydney.—Cement for veneers, cabinet-work, household purposes.
115 Mulcahy, J. & J., Regent-st, Redfern.—Toilet and other soaps, candles.
116 Orchard, A., 145 Cleveland-st., Redfern.—Exhibition cement and marking-ink.
117 Peate, L., George-st., Bathurst.—Baking-powder.
119 Saunderson, M., 55 Point-st., Pyrmont.—Bonanza (a cleansing cream).
121 Starkey, J., 156 Phillip-st., Sydney.—Aerated waters.
122 Watson & Young. Albury.—Aërated waters.

Class 47.—Chemical Processes for Bleaching, Dyeing, Printing, and Dressing.
123 Holterman, B. O., 674 George-st., Sydney-Leather dressing.

Class 48.—Leather and Skins.
124 Alderson & Sons, 101 York-st., Sydney.—Sole, wax kip, harness, stirrup, mill belt, lacing, and other leathers.
125 Davenport & Alcock, 5 Barrack-si, Sydney.—Sole, caff, and kangaroo leathers.
126 Ewington, E. R., 108 Phillip-st., Waterloo.—Rennet (calf's), for cheese-makers; sausage skins.
127 Forsyth & Sons, 17 George-st., Sydney.—Leather of various kinds, kips, tweed.

VI. Machinery—Apparatus and Processes used in the Mechanical Industries.

Class 49.—Agricultural Implements and Processes used in the
Cultivation of Fields and Forests.
129 Drysdale & Roberts, 397 George-st., Sydney.—Automatic pump.
130 Forsyth, J., Ryde Bone Mills.—Bone dust, and bone and animal manure.
131 Manners, J., Taree, Manning River.—Double-wheeled plough, corn-sheller.
132 Wolsely, F. G., Eureka, Walgett.—Earth-scoop.

Class 50.—Apparatus and Processes used in Agricultural Works, and in Works for the Preparation of Food.
135 Johnston, W. J., 120 Gipps-st., Surrey Hills.—Two colonial ovens (1st and 2nd class).
137 Smith & Hamilton, Sussex-st., Sydney.—Soda-water machinery and fountain.
138 Warren, W., Eden, Twofold Bay.—Oscillating cylinder chum, without a dash.

Class 52.—Machines and Apparatus in general.
139 Alderson & Sons, 101 York-st., Sydney.—Machine belts, hose-leather; fire-buckets, solid leather and riveted.
141 Hack, H. J. C., 74 Bay-st., Glebe.—Electric machine for doing away with quicksilver and acid.
142 Knibbs, J. H., Municipal Stores, Market-wharf, Sydney.—Leather mill-belt, fire-engine hose, laces, fastenings, &c.
144 Mort's Dock & Engineering Co., Sydney.—Compound launch-engines, 12-h.p. (nominal), non-condensing, compound.
145 Pitkethly, R., 210 Bourke-st.—Windmill.
146 Smith & Hamilton, Sussex-st., Sydney.—Gas machinery, plumbers' and engineers' work.
147 Warren, W., Eden, Twofold Bay.—Compressor washing-machine.

Class 53.—Machine Tools.
150 Milham, R., & Sons, George-st., Sydney.—Saws and tools, plasterers' trowels, joint-rules, chaff and machine knives.

Class 57.—Apparatus and Processes for the Manufacture of Furniture and Objects for Dwellings.
151 Millson, A., 121½ Liverpool-st., Sydney.—Turnery for builders.
152 Tall, G., 268 Pitt-st., Sydney.—Locks, saws, and plasterers' tools.

Class 58.—Apparatus and Processes used in Paper-making, Dyeing, and Printing.
154 Williams 6s Murray, Collingwood Paper Mills, Liverpool.—Various papers, in reams and reels.

Class 59.—Machines, Instruments, and Processes used in various Works.
156 Jones, E., 11 Hunter-st., Sydney.—Stampinsr-press for medals
157 Stevens, J., Darling Point. Sydney.—Machine newly-designed and made for bottling aerated waters.

Class 60.—Carriages and Wheelwrights' Work.
158 Angus, W. T., Castlereagh-st, Sydney.—Two "Angus" buggies (1st and 2nd class).
159 Drysdale & Roberts, 397 George-st., Sydney.—Buggy hood.
161 Haining & Schimmel, 207 Castlereagh-st., Sydney.—C-spring buggy.
162 Keary Brothers, 252 Pitt-st., Sydney.—Cubunder buggy, patent two-row top.
164 Ristoul, R-, 147 Palmer-st., Sydney.—Two-wheeled car, in varnished wood.

Class 61.—Harness and Saddlery.
166 Dadd, E., 117 Darlinghurst-road, Sydney.—Horse-shoes of various kinds.
167 M'Eacharn, J. T., Albury.—Horse-shoes.

Class 62.—Railway Apparatus.
168 Commissioner for Railways, New South Wales.—Gjedsted's tramway rail and chair, G. T. Evans' patent self-acting tramway points, &c.
169 Hudson Brothers, Botany-road, Kedfern.—Sleeping-car, tram-car.
170 Icke, C., Wickham, Newcastle.—Locomotive side-valves; phosphor bronze bearings, invented and produced by exhibitor.
171 Wearne, T., 386 Sussex-st., Sydney.—Tram-car, patent chilled tram-car wheels and axles.

Class 63.—Telegraphic Apparatus and Processes.
172 Smith, J. M., 17 Hunter-st., Sydney.—Scape or patted wheels for telegraphic instruments.
173 Superintendent of Telegraphs, Sydney.—Telegraphic, philosophic, and scientific instruments; torpedo apparatus.

Class 64.—Apparatus and Processes of Civil Engineering, Public Works, and Architecture.
174 Gardner, J., Young.—Patent keyless lock for safes.
175 Marshall, A. A., 8 Macquarie-place, Sydney.—Water cocks.
176 Palmer, H., Railway Department, Sydney.—Model of centre span of railway bridge over River Macquarie, Bathurst.
177 Parrott. T. S., 57 Pitt-st., Sydney.—Plans, section, and elevation of proposed high-level girder-bridge connecting Sydney and North Shore.

Class 65.—Navigation and Life-saving.
178 Buckingham, W., 90 Forbes-st, Woolloomooloo.—Model of 10-ton yacht, scale 1 inch to the foot.
179 Kinnermann, E., Little Stcphn-st., Balmain.—Sailing-boat.
181 Mort's Dock Co., Sydney.—Models of vessels built by the Company, river steamers, surf-boats, launches.
182 O'Dwyer, E., 601 Bourke-st., Sydney.—Model of self adjusting, feathering floats, for paddles of steamships.
183 Stephenson, M., & Son, 19 Princes-st., Sydney.—Oars, sails, and steering gear.

VII. Alimentary Products.
Class 67.—Cereals, Farinaceous Products, and Products derived from them.

184 Brown, J. D. (care of Wells and Smith), 699 George-st., Sydney.—Wheat.
185 Clarence River Group (T. Page, Grafton).—Nino varieties maize, maize-meal, arrowroot, millet for cattle food.
186 Cole, W., & Sons, Fullerton Farm, Tomago.—Manufactured arrowroot.
187 Connell, J., Down Hill, Yass.—English and Cape barley, wheat, oats, rye.
188 Faint, G., Spring Valley, Armidale.—White wheat, red wheat, Mammoth rye, oats (1 bushel each), flour, rye flour.
189 Hawkesbury District (G. Davies, Windsor).—Maize trophy: six varieties maize, wheat, and other cereals.
190 Lawrie, A. T., Rawdon Vale.—Arrowroot.
191 Manning-, J., Bega.—Farm produce.
192 Munns Maizena Co., Merimbula.—Maizena.
193 Wade, J., & Co., 7 King-st., Sydney.—Corn flour and starch.

Class 69.—Fatty Substances used as Food. Milk and Eggs.

194 Candelo Butter Co. (W. F. Harris, 2 King-st., Sydney).—Butter, in tins and jars, preserved to keep in tropical climates.
195 Kiama & Gerringery Milk Condensing, Butter, & Cheese Co. Limited.—Condensed milk.
196 Manning, J., Bega.—Farm produce.

Class 70.—Meat and Fish.

197 Manning, J., Bega.—Farm produce.

Class 71.—Vegetables and Fruit.

198 Hawkesbury District (G. Davis, Windsor).—Fruits of the district, pumpkins, &c.
199 Clarence River District (T. Page, Grafton).—14 varieties sugar-cane, 8 varieties potatoes; preserved fruits and pickles, 8 varieties each.
200 Giraud, L., George-st., Sydney.—Preserved fruits.
201 Manning, J., Bega.—Farm produce.

Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery.

202 Colonial Sugar Refining Co., Sydney.—Sugar.
203 Clarence River Group (T. Page, Grafton).—Sugar (1st and 2nd quality); jams and jellies (tomato, guava, rosella, melon).
204 Giraud, L., George-st., Sydney.—English and French confectionery.
205 Monk, D. J., 275 Sussex-st., Sydney.—Pure malt and wine vinegar, free from adulteration or acid.
206 Starkey, J., 156 Phillip-st, Sydney.—Cordials.
207 Watson & Young, Albury.—Cordials.

Class 73.—Fermented Drinks.

208 Bouffier, F., Sydney.—White Pineau and Madeira, red Hermitage, and light Claret.
209 Brecht, C.—Red Claret, white Pineau, red Hermitage, white Riesling.
210 Buchholtz, F., Mudgee.—Red Hermitage and Muscatel, white Verdeilho, and Riesling.
211 Carmichael, G. T.—Porphyry, Scaham, white light Porphyry (4 kinds).
212 Clarence River Group (T. Page, Grafton).—White Riesling, red Burgundy (1877 vintage).
213 Davies, A. & E., Mount Huntly, Lochinvar.—White light Shiraz, S. Riesling, Tokay; full-bo lied Riesling, Madeira, and Pineau, and other kinds.
214 Doyle, J. F.- Kaludah, Lochinvar.—White Verdeilho and Shiraz.
216 Fallon, J. T., Murray Vale and Albury.—Tokay, Riesling, Shiraz, Hermitage, Burgundy, Champagne, Port.
217 Fenn, J. J., Fern Hill, Port Macquarie.—Red full Isabella.
218 Forsaith, Mrs. E. M., Parramatta.—Rich orange wine.
219 Gow, J., Mulgrave.—Red Isabella, straw-coloured Tokay, red Greenhatche, and rose Traminer.
220 Greer, E., & Co., Albury.—Shiraz, Burgundy, Cabernet, Malaga, Muscatel, Verdeilho, Ducarot, Malbec, &c.
221 Hill, J., Hamilton Vineyard, Whittingham.—Red light Verdot, red light Claret, white light Riesling, white full-bodied sweet Riesling, &c.
222 Jack, D., Inverell.—Red Hermitage, white Shiraz, red Malbec, white Madeira.
223 Kelman, J., Branxton.—Red Hermitage, Verdeilho and Blanquette, Pineau and Shiraz, Hermitage, Riesling.
224 Klauss, V., Grafton.—White full-bodied Riesling, red full-bodied Burgundy.
225 Lindsay, H. L., Hay.—Beers, cordials, &c.
226 Macarthur, J. & W., Camden Park.—Red sweet Muscatel, red light Riesling, white light Riesling.
227 Milne, G. M., West Maitland.—Beers.
228 Meyer, S. A., Corowa, Midarro.—Red Shiraz and Malbec, white Ducarot and Tokay.
229 Munro, A., Rebeah Vineyard, Singleton.—Verdeilho, Shiraz, Riesling, Pineau, white Hermitage.
230 Powell, E., Richmond.—White full-bodied Sherry.
231 Schofield, J., sen., Windsor.—Red full-bodied black Hamburgh.
232 Stephen, G. H., Ivanhoe, Hunter River.—Red Ivanhoe Hermitage, white Ivanhoe Riesling.
233 Vile Brothers, Coquon Vineyards, West Maitland.—Hermitage, Lambrescat, Burgundy, Verdot.

IX. Horticulture.

Class 76.—Flowers and Ornamental Plants.
234 The New South Wales Commission.—Collection of ferns indigenous to the colony.

Class 78.—Fruit and Fruit Trees.
235 The New South Wales Commission.—Orange trees, in various stages of growth.

X. Mining Industries—Machinery and Products.

Class 81.—Apparatus and Processes of the Art of Mining and Metallurgy.
236 Department of Mines.—Gold trophy; quantity, 9,066,601 oz.; value, £33,743,019.
237 Department of Mines.—Silver trophy; quantity, 661,270 oz.; value, £161,572.
238 Department of Mines.—Phototypes of the Binda or Fish River caves, New South Wales, taken by the electric light.
239 Purified Coal & Coke Co., Wallsend.—Model of coal-washing machine.
240 Herrenschmidt, H., East Kempsey.—Model of antimony smelting works.

Class 82.—Mining and Metallurgy.
241 Atkinson, J. J. O., Oldbury, near Berrima.—Block of iron ore.
242 Australian Asbestos Co., Gundagai.—Asbestos and its connections; asbestos, in the crude and in its various prepared states.
243 Australian Kerosene Oil & Mineral Co.—Australian boghead mineral, from Goadja Creek.
245 Barber, R. A., Yass.—Galena.
247 Barton, R., Sydney.—Copper ores, with gold, &c., from the Great Cobar Copper Mine.
248 Brown & Brown, City Iron Works, Pyrmont.—Trophy of bar and angle iron, tee and bridge nails, samples, &c.
249 Browne, T., Bishop's Bridge, West Maitland.—Sana stone, from Ravensfield quarries.
250 Beyers, H. L., M.P.—Gold, in quartz, from Beyers and Holterman's claim, Hill End.
252 Coal Cliff Colliery Co.—Vertical section of seam worked at the Coal Cliff Company's Colliery, county Camden.
253 Cochrane, A.—Marble, from Kempsey, Macleay River.
254 Cochrane, G., North Willoughby.—Bricks and earthenware clay.
255 Cook Brothers, Harris-st., Ultimo.—Antimony ore, star antimony, &c.
256 Co-operative Colliery Co.—Coke made from Co-operative Colliery Co.'s coal, belonging to W. Laidley, Esq.
257 Copeland, H., M.P.—Quartz crystals, from Peel River.
258 Department of Mines.—Collection fossils of New South Wales, chiefly from the collection of the late Rev. W. B. Clarke.
259 Department of Mines.—Strata bored through by the diamond rock-drill to a depth of 2170 feet, on the Sutherland estate.
260 Douglas, W., 126 Pitt-st., Sydney.—Slate.
261 Eskbank Iron Co., Lithgow Valley.—Coal-coke, iron ores, limestone, fire-bricks, &c.; pig, iron, rails, and stampers.
262 Fountain, J., Brisbane Water.—Iron ore and fire-clay.
263 Francis, H., 201 Cumberland-st., Sydney.—Collections of iron ores, paint ochres, sandstone, fire-clay, &c.
265 Great Cobar Copper Mining Co.—Copper ores, from the Great Cobar Copper Mine.
266 Greta Colliery Co.—Part of vertical section of seam worked at the Greta Colliery.
267 Hayton, G.—Iron ore, from Newbridge.
268 Herrenschmidt, H.—Natural oxide and sulphide of antimony, crude antimony, regulus of antimony, &c.
269 Herrenschmidt, H.—Different paints and chemicals produced from antimony ores.
270 Hume, J. K., Cooma House, Yass.—Auriferous quartz, from Dalton.
271 Hurley, J., & Shepherd, J., M's.P.—Auriferous and argentiferous sulphides of iron, copper, and lead.
272 Icke, C., Newcastle, New South Wales.—Nickel ore, from New Caledonia; ingot of pure nickel, ingot of German silver, and ingots of white metal.
273 Illawarra Coal Co.—Vertical section of seam worked at the Illawarra Coal Company's Colliery, Wollongong, county Camden.
274 Isaacsohn, M., Mindlc.—Collections of gold, minerals, and fossils.
275 Liversidge, A., Professor of Mineralogy, Sydney.—Specimens of gems and precious stones, from New South Wales.
276 Lucas, J., M.P., Camperdown, New South Wales.—Stalactites, from Bindia or Fish River caves.
277 McCallum, A., Good Hope, Yass.—Copper ore and galena.
278 Magrath, P., Yass, New South Wales.—Specimens of soils.
279 Mackenzie, W. H., Exchange Corner.—Crystallised blue, carbonate of copper, azurite.
280 Mackenzie, Dr. W. F., & Moore, C. K.—Boghead coal, from Sugar Loaf, Mount Victoria.
281 Mackenzie, Dr. W. F., & Moore, C. K.—Boghead coal, from Bathgate, near Wallerawang.
282 Mining Department.—Specimens of auriferous quartz, from the goldfields of New South Wales.
283 Mining Department.—Specimens of silver ores, from New South Wales.
284 Mining Department.—Specimens of silver ores, from Boorook silver mines, near Tenterfield.
285 Mining Department.—Specimens of copper ores, from New South Wales.
286 Mining Department.—Blocks of coal from the seams worked in New South Wales.
287 Mining Department.—Specimens of marbles, from New South Wales.
288 Mining Department.—Specimens of refined tin, in ingots, bar and grain. New South Wales.
289 Mining Department.—Refined copper, in ingots. New South Wales.
290 Mining Department.—Specimens of antimony ore, star antimony. New South Wales.
291 Mining Department.—Collection of gem stones of New South Wales.
292 Mining Department.—Infusorial earth, from Barraba, New South Wales.
293 Mining Department.—Specimens of lode tin, from New South Wales.
294 Mining Department.—Specimens of stream tin, from New South Wales.
295 Mining Department.—Specimens of lode tin, from Bolitho Mine, Cope's Creek, New England, New South Wales.
296 Mining Department.—Specimens of ores of antimony, from New South Wales.
297 Mining Department.—Specimens of ores of lead, bismuth, &c., New South Wales.
298 Mining Department.—Specimens of various rocks and minerals of New South Wales.
299 Mining Department.—Specimens of iron ores, from New South Wales.
300 Mining Department.—Specimens of coal, from the coal seams of New South Wales.
301 Newcastle Wallsend Coal Co.—Vertical section of coal-seam, worked at the Newcastle Wallsend Colliery.
302 Newcastle Coal Mining Co.—Vertical section of seam worked at the Newcastle Coal Mining Company's Colliery, Burwood.
303 New Lambton Colliery Co.—Vertical section of seam worked at the New Lambton Colliery, near Newcastle.
304 New South Wales Shale & Oil Co.—Australian boghead mineral, or torbanite.
305 North, J. B., 105 Pitt-st., Sydney.—Section of coal, from Katoomba.
306 O'Neil, D. J.—Flagging, from Burrowa.
307 Osborne Wallsend Colliery Co.—Vertical section of seam worked at the Osborne Walls-end Colliery.
308 Powrie, J., Sydney.—Antimony ore and star antimony, from Gara Antimony Mine, near Armidale.
309 Purified Coal and Coke Co., Wallsend.—Small coal and coke.
310 Rudder, E., sen., East Kempsey, Macleay River.—Collection of pigments, made from minerals.
311 Rudder, E., jun., Oaklands, Macleay River.—Collection of lead and silver ores, and marble.
312 Samuel, S., M.L.C.—Vesicular basalt, containing opal, from Rocky Bridge Creek.
313 Saunders, R., Ultimo, Sydney.—Freestone (12 blocks).
314 Suttor, W. H., Alloway Bank, Bathurst—Gold in quartz, part of the "Kerr Hundredweight" found at Ophir in 1851.
319 Vale of Clwydd Coal Co.—Coal, from Vale of Clwydd, Lithgow, Western district.
320 Osborne Wallsend Colliery Co.—Vertical section of seam worked at the Waratah Company's Colliery, Waratah.
321 Young, J., Contractor, Sydney.— Samples of sandstone, from Mr. J. Young's quarries, Sydney.

Queensland.

(Compiled under the authority of the Commissioners for Queensland.)

The Colony of Queensland contains an area of 609,520 square miles. Its territory is more than eleven times greater than that of England and Wales. It is larger than the German and Austrian empires, France, and Belgium combined. There are 100,000 square miles more in the one colony of Queensland than there would be in an empire comprising Portugal, Spain, Italy, Greece, Turkey in Europe, and the independent states of Servia, Roumania, and Bulgaria. Or, taking North America for a standard of comparison, it will be found that the states of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Tennessee, together with three-fourths of Kentucky, contain, all together, no more territory than Queensland. And the colony equals in size the united areas of California, Oregon, Washington, Nevada, Arizona, and Utah.

Nearly the whole of Queensland is fit for human occupation, the only exceptions being a few sterile and desert tracts, of limited extent; and much of the land is exceptionally fertile. The colony has now been very thoroughly explored, and the greater part of it is actually held under pastoral lease, or in some way occupied; and yet even in the far north there are no known pestilential tracts, or localities unfit for the habitation of Europeans. There are neither wide, marshy, fever-smitten expanses, nor great sterile mountain ranges. The colony enjoys a climate which is never cold enough to interrupt the processes of nature—its fertility does not lie frost-bound for half the year. At the same time, Queensland has not to pay for those advantages by enduring the havoc wrought by volcanic eruptions, earthquakes, or hurricanes, such as desolate wide tracts of country in
other parts of the tropical or sub-tropical zones.

It is often supposed that from its position the colony cannot be fitted for European settlement, and that its climate must be unhealthy. The fact is that Queensland is remarkably favoured by nature in these respects. Even in the purely tropical part of the colony no other diseases prevail than those common all over Australia and in almost all newly-occupied waste lands. There is no general tendency in such diseases as fever and ague to assume especially virulent types. There have been occasions when groups of pioneer settlers have brought on themselves fatal visitations of fever by a more than ordinarily reckless defiance of sanitary precautions. Such an outbreak of fever occurred many years ago on the formation of a township known as Burketown on the Gulf of Carpentaria. The settlement was formed in a hurry. A number of men occupied a rich river-side bluff, clothed with thick, rank vegetation, just before the annual rainy season, and hastily erected a number of flimsy huts and houses. The rains set in, saturating the rotting mass of down-trodden vegetation on which the township had been built, and it was soon churned into a horrible, evil-smelling mud. The people living in the place—with the putrid mass steaming underfoot, the hot sun overhead alternating with pelting showers—were reckless pioneers, who, compelled to subsist mainly on bad flour and preserved provisions, washed down that food with enormous quantities of the most fiesty spirit. The inevitable consequence was that outraged nature smote them with a fever of an unusually fatal type. But the fever vanished with the circumstances that produced it, leaving a tradition of unheal thin ess on the shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria which has little foundation.

At times there has been much sickness and even death among miners; but that has generally been due to exceptional circumstances. On the occasion of the first rush to the Palmer hundreds of men attempted to push inland, through the bush, amidst the incessant downpour of a tropical wet season. Camped by swollen and impassable streams, living without proper food, some even on a miserable allowance of wet flour, exposed almost without shelter to the pitiless rain and fierce sun, they were scourged with dysentery and fever. But although many died, it may be questioned whether in any other tropical country Europeans could have exposed themselves in such a manner with so little loss. Over 12,000 white men must have been wandering, during the year 1875, over country within eighteen degrees of the equator, exposed to the vicissitudes of the weather, living on the roughest fare, undergoing incessant toil under the full blaze of the sun, sleeping anyhow and anywhere, in gullies, on river banks, near swamps, taking no precaution whatever, and often indulging in mad drinking bouts; and yet the deaths among them, and the 5000 Chinese who arrived in the district in the same year, amounted in the twelve months to a total of 378 only. But there, as elsewhere, the exceptional sickness diminished as the residents began to occupy better houses, lead more regular lives, and live on better food. How little the diseases that prevail in Northern Queensland resemble the virulent fevers which decimate Europeans in other tropical countries will be seen by the following table, compiled from the Registrar-General's report for 1878. It shows the number of patients treated for what are classed as miasmatic diseases, including all fevers, dysentery, scarlatina, measles, diphtheria, &c., in all the hospitals of tropical Queensland:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of Patients</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1878</td>
<td>378</td>
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It is noteworthy that in that part of the colony, although there are thousands of Chinese and Kanakas, white men toil constantly at the hardest open-air work. All the public works are constructed, roads made, and houses built by Europeans, who work in very much the same fashion as they do elsewhere, and generally cling with obstinacy to habits formed in cooler climates.

But tropical Queensland includes only the smaller portion of the colony. Concerning the perfect suitability of the rest of it for Europeans there can be no question. Winter frosts occur as far as the tropical line on the coast, and for a considerable distance inside of it further inland. In these, the southern and central districts, the summer heat is great, but varying in character according to the situation. Near the coast, and about the sea-level, it is sometimes oppressive, though the extreme heat is never continuous, being interrupted by days and even weeks of cooler weather. Inland, where the general level of the country is rather high, the heat of the sun, though absolutely greater, is seldom oppressive, because it hardly ever subdues the elasticity of the air, and the nights are invariably cool. There are no hot winds. The winter frosts, which are slight on the coast, are severe inland, the thermometer often falling to 27° and even 26° Fahrenheit. Speaking generally for this part of Queensland, it may be said that in April the extremely hot days are rare, in May the temperature is very moderate, and in June the hoar-frosts impart an invigorating sharpness to the air; in July the frosts are severe, particularly on the table-lands, and inland they continue into the middle of August; in September the midday sun becomes perceptibly warmer, and in October occasional hot days give warning of the coming summer.

The productiveness of the soil varies with the amount and distribution of the annual rainfall. Except in the northern part of the colony, where the well-marked tropical wet and dry seasons are experienced, the rainfall is less in quantity, and more unevenly distributed, throughout the year in proportion to the distance from the coast. This general rule is subject, however, to severe variations, due to the height and position of the mountain ranges and other local causes. In all the coast country the natural rainfall is sufficient for the growth of crops, and it is everywhere well, and in some parts abundantly, watered by running rivers and streams. The inland plateau in some places approach the coast closely, in others are broad belts of comparatively low country. Portions of
these plateaux are well adapted for agriculture. As an instance, the Darling Downs, in the southern part of the colony, although at a considerable elevation above the sea, has been called the "Garden of Queensland," from the fertility of the soil and the suitability of the climate for agriculture. But the pre-eminence attached to this district is chiefly due to the fact that it was first settled, and is yet the only inland district in which agriculture has been carried on. There are other districts, comprising many millions of acres, with equally good soil, and enjoying a similar climate, where agriculture has not yet been attempted, simply because the mere handful of people in the colony are not sufficiently numerous to attempt farming in more than a few isolated spots, amounting in the aggregate to a very insignificant area, compared with the extent of available land. There are as yet only about 130,000 acres under cultivation in all Queensland. But further to the westward the inland plateaux assume a different character. The soil is throughout of remarkably high average fertility, but the rainfall is less in quantity and the showers fall at longer intervals. There is little moisture in the air, night dews are rare, and in place of running streams and spring-fed brooks, the watercourses contain chains of ponds, only connected after heavy rain. This—the distinctly pastoral region of Queensland—consists for the most part of plains and rolling downs, either quite open or very lightly timbered. The scrubs or thick-growing forests differ widely from the coast jungles; the trees are generally small, there is little undergrowth, and there are no climbing vines or lianas. The open downs and plains, however, are covered with highly nutritious grasses and herbs; and even the scrubs abound in saline plants useful in maintaining the health of the stock. There is probably no better pastoral country in Australia. Even the dryness of the climate, except in so far as it limits the carrying capacity of the country, is no great disadvantage, as the native grasses are perfectly adapted to the conditions of growth imposed on them, and some of the most useful have the faculty of lying dormant during a drought, retaining sufficient vitality to spring into active growth when rain falls; even when dormant these grasses are nutritious, although apparently white and dead. The main defect of this country—scarcity of water—is one that can be easily remedied by the construction of dams and reservoirs, and the watercourses are generally of a formation suitable for the work. It often happens that the most thickly-grassed and fertile country is found in places where surface-water is unusually scarce.

In the coast country of Southern Queensland an immense variety of agricultural products can be and are grown. The winter frosts not being severe, sugar-cane can be profitably grown, although it flourishes better a few degrees further north. Arrowroot of excellent quality is produced, on a small scale at present, but its production is increasing. An idea of the agricultural capabilities of this part of the colony can best be conveyed by the following list of plants, grown in a nursery at Brisbane:—Asparagus, beans (two varieties), French beans (four), runners (two sorts), beet, Brussels sprouts, kale, broccoli (two sorts), cabbage (eight varieties), Savoy cabbage, capsicum, carrot (three), cauliflower (two sorts), Cape gooseberry, celery, Chinese cabbage, cress, cucumber, egg-plant, endive, granadilla, kohl rabi, leek, lettuces, melons (water and rock), mustard, okra, onion, parsley, parsnip, peas (eight varieties), pea-nut, pepper, pumpkin, passion-fruit, radish, rosella spinach, squash, tomato, turnip (seven kinds), vegetable-marrow, Jerusalem artichokes, horseradish, yams, sweet potatoes, cassava, liquorice, ginger, sorghum, sesame, tobacco, mangold-wurtzell, arrowroot, maize, English potatoes, sugar-cane, cotton, millet, lucerne, orange, grapes, vines, tea and coffee plants, bananas, pine-apples, apples (ten varieties), American apples (five varieties), apricot, alligator pea, Brazilian cherry, citron, custard-apple, date-palm, date-plum, figs, flacourtia, guavas, hovenia dulcis, jach-fruit, jube-jube, leech, longan, lime, loquats, mango, mulberry, nectarine (one variety), Papau apple, peas (one variety), peaches (nineteen sorts), American plums, pomegranates, quince, rose-apple, strawberry, shaddock, and tamarind.

Further north, on the coast country, all the tropical plants and trees grow vigorously. The sugar district of Mackay, on the 21st parallel, now the principal one in the colony, enjoys a climate which combines to a marked degree all the requisites for successful cultivation of cane. Beyond it, and still proceeding northward, great tracts of remarkably fertile land occur. One of these on the Johnstone river, which is now being settled for the first time, was calculated by Mr. Dalrymple, who was sent up to examine it in 1874, to contain at least 800,000 acres of sugar land of a high and remarkably uniform degree of excellence. And the northern coast country is exceedingly well watered, rivers descending at short intervals from the inland plateau.

At some distance from the coast in Southern and Central Queensland the severe frosts forbid the cultivation of purely tropical plants. But if the agricultural capabilities of the country are limited in the one direction, they are extended in another, for nearly all the products of the temperate zone are at the command of the settlers. On the Darling Downs sugar gives place to wheat, barley, oats, potatoes, &c.; and the more tropical fruits are replaced by apples, pears, plums, &c. What little cultivation has been carried on in the inland districts lying to the north of the Darling Downs has been of the same nature. In the western interior, so far, cultivation has only been found possible in exceptionally wet seasons, or by the help of copious irrigation.

In order to encourage settlement land is sold at almost nominal rates. A homestead of any size up to 160 acres may be acquired by the residence of the selector for five years, and the payment of 6d. per acre annually, a grant in fee-simple being issued at the expiration of the term without further condition. For larger areas the
terms are higher, varying from 10s. an acre upwards; but in all cases the purchase-money is divided into ten
annual instalments. The selector is required to reside personally, or keep a servant on the land, until he has
completed the term; and he must make certain improvements before he can obtain the grant in fee-simple. All
through the agricultural districts of Southern and Central Queensland selectors can work hard in the open air.
The climate, though warm enough to allow them to surround themselves with nearly all the products of the
tropical as well as of the temperate zones, permits continued out-door labour; the winter rest being sufficient
to enable Europeans to maintain their vigour unimpaired. In the neighbourhood of the older towns of the colony,
where agricultural settlement has long been established, there are settlers who have passed twenty and thirty
years on the land. The strong, sunburnt parents show no signs of enfeeblement, and the stalwart lads and
healthy lasses growing up around them do not look like degenerate scions of the old stock.

To the capitalist agriculture has many special attractions in Queensland. The cultivation of sugar-cane is
now an established industry, safely past all the preliminary difficulties which obstruct the progress of a new
enterprise. The supply of coloured labour considered to be necessary for cultivation of this kind is obtained
from the South Sea Islands, and can be relied upon. Besides this proved industry, the cultivation of other
tropical products has been experimentally successful. The coffee-bush thrives so well along the whole coast of
Queensland that the absence of regular coffee plantations can be accounted for only by the same explanation
given for the long period that intervened between the experimental growth of sugar-cane and the establishment
of regular plantations—viz., the numerous other openings for the employment of capital in a colony with such
multifarious resources. The command of coloured labour opens the whole coast of Northern Queensland to the
moneyed settler, and he can have the unusual advantage of living in an exceptionally healthy climate while
growing rich by utilising the tropical fecundity of the soil. The following description of a tract of such country
now being settled for the first time is from the official report of Mr. Dalrymple, sent by the Colonial Secretary
to examine it in 1874. The explorer describes the view from the top of a low hill—"A round of compass
bearings was at once secured, including the Barnard Islands, Double Point, Mourilgan Harbour, and the hills at
the mouth of the Johnstone river. Bellender Kerr mountains were shrouded in dense clouds of smoke from
blacks' fires, but the lofty peak of Mount Bartle Frere cut the clear blue sky to the north-west far above them.
Thence, west and south, ranges beyond ranges bounded the great coast basin, the whole of the wide-spread
floor of which presented one vast unbroken expanse of dense tropical jungles; no differing shades or outlines
permitting of any other opinion than that the vegetation and soil over the whole of this magnificent area were of
exactly the same character and quality as that immediately around us. At a rough computation, not less than
half a million acres of a soil unsurpassed by any in the world all fitted for tropical agriculture, and fully 300,000
acres of which are suitable for sugar, with a fine harbour and river estuary on its seaboard. We had suddenly
come face-to-face with a true tropical Australia—with a vast and hitherto hidden region, the qualifications of
which, for every description of tropical cultivation, at one stroke place our noble colony far beyond all
Australian competition as an agricultural country." In another part of the report he describes another spot
thus:—" On the north beach the land was generally high, above all possibility of flooding. The steep banks of
dark brown and reddish loam of 20 to 40 feet in height, clothed with dense masses of lofty forests, heavily
festooned with flowering creepers of convolvuli, climbing bamboo, and lawyer palms, descend to the water's
edge in steep slopes of luxuriant entanglement and variety of undergrowth; palms, bananas, ferns, lilies, arums,
and large-leaved tara, struggling for prominence of position—a dazzling commingling of shades, colours, and
intricate minutiae of outline that would puzzle even a Millais to paint or a laureate to describe—the
deliciously-scented arums all in full-bloom, and hanging moon-flowers greeting us, as we passed, with whole
greenhouses of rich perfume."

Agriculture in Queensland has not as yet made progress commensurate with the wide possibilities of soil
and climate. In other new countries a large proportion of settlers have attached themselves to the soil because it
offered the surest and most certain hope of a home and pecuniary independence. In Queensland, however, so
many chances have been offered to the adventurous of reaching fortune by a shorter cut than the slow track
opened by the plough, that the fertility of the soil has not received its due attention. Chief among these for men
of means has been the pastoral industry. The whole colony is one great pasture-ground, its capabilities varying
according to the climate. Cattle can be kept in every part of it. In the southern coast districts the grass is not so
rich in nutritive properties as in the interior; but, on the other hand, the more frequent showers cause it to spring
oftener, and grow more thickly. On some of the black-soil basaltic plateaux of tropical Queensland the cattle
are almost hidden in the tall, thick-springing, sweet grasses. For sheep, however, only a portion of the colony is
suitable, equal in area to about 300,000 square miles of good country. The sheep country is on the interior high
lands; but it is impossible to define exactly the division between it and that which is only suitable for cattle. The
true sheep districts include those that are known as the North and South Gregory, Mitchell, Warrego, Maranoa,
Leichhardt, Darling Downs, South Kennedy, and part of the Burnett, besides portions of other districts. In the
divisions named the amount of country held under pastoral lease at the close of 1878, according to the report of
the Under-Secretary of Lands, was—available, 235,280 square miles; unavailable, 83,624 square miles. It
should be explained that much country taken up as "unavailable"—i.e., unfitted for pasturage, and therefore
subject to a reduction of rent—proves on official examination to be very good indeed. It is at least certain that the
good sheep country of Queensland largely exceeds in extent the whole colony of New South Wales, and most
of it is of a quality not to be surpassed in Australia. Nearly the whole of it is now occupied up to the border line
of the South Australian territory. Except in tropical Queensland, and more especially in the huge Burke district,
which includes the watershed of most of the rivers falling into the Gulf of Carpentaria, there is not very much
good country not already included in the existing pastoral leases.

The cattle stock of the colony is, proportionately, very much larger than that of sheep, official reports
giving the number of the former at 2,469,555 in 1878 (the figures of 1879 not yet being published), and of the
latter 5,796,742 at the close of 1879. The disproportion is due to several causes. Of these the simplest is the fact
that while the whole colony is suitable for cattle-breeding, only a portion is fitted for sheep. But a good deal of
the sheep country has been occupied with cattle. Its occupation has been quite recent, and cattle are preferred by
pioneers for many reasons? they are more easily managed, fewer hands are required—a great consideration
when land-carriage is long and costly—and less expensive improvements are needed. Consequently, during the
year that the great movement for the occupation of western country was in progress, there was a constant
demand for store cattle. This constant demand increased prices, and stimulated production. Much of the capital
and energy available for pastoral enterprise was therefore diverted from sheep to cattle during the last decade.
This diversion was the more marked because during the preceding ten years a great many mistakes had been
made in sheep-breeding. Unsuitable country had been stocked with sheep, and the proper attention to breeding
and appliances for getting up wool in good marketable condition had been neglected. The financial difficulties
of 1860, followed by some bad seasons, came with disastrous effect on an industry which had not been firmly
established on a sound basis, and brought about something like a collapse, followed by a regular rush into
cattle-breeding. But this branch of the pastoral industry has quite recovered itself, and sheep are increasing in
numbers. The pitfalls into which the early breeders fell are well known and marked now, and capitalists, both in
the colony and from other parts of Australia, are preparing to stock with sheep great tracts of suitable country,
on which they are storing water, and making other provisions for their maintenance.

If squatting has monopolised too great a share of the capital that might otherwise have been devoted to
agriculture and the formation of large plantations, mining has had as powerful an effect in diverting labour from
farming, on a smaller scale. The colony abounds in minerals. It may almost be said that the ores of every known
metal are to be found in Queensland, and some of them in great abundance, and distributed over a great many
districts. Indeed, as an industry, mining has decidedly suffered from the great extent and wide distribution of the
mineral fields, leading to much purposeless and desultory effort, and too great diffusion of the scanty capital
available. This has been markedly the case in gold-mining. The alluvial ground in Queensland is now only
being worked by Chinese, and hardly any "deep leads" or permanent workings of this sort have been found. But
the quartz-reefing area is practically unlimited. How large it may be cannot yet be told, because there is what
miners would call "likely country" by thousands of square miles not yet searched; there are fields that have been
discovered and abandoned, generally because when found they were too remote from port or centres of
settlement to allow of their being profitably worked; and even on the proclaimed goldfields (especially in the
north) not more than a small percentage of the reefs have been properly tested. Still, in the last report of the
Department of Mines it is stated that there are 1453 distinct lines of reefs "proved" on the various goldfields,
and these include an area of auriferous ground amounting to 14,878 square miles. In the same report the returns
given by the crushing mills amounted to a total for the year, of 110,032 tons stone, yielding 165,786 oz. gold,
or an average all round of 1 oz. 10 dwt. 3 gr. The lowest average return for each miner working on any field
was 29 oz. 8 dwt. 23 gr. of gold, worth £97 3s. 7d.; and the highest was 68 oz. 7 dwt. 8 gr., worth £239 5s. 9d.
The appliances on some of the outside fields are very rough and wasteful, and in the particular year for which
the figures are quoted—1878—the miners were hindered by a severe drought. In quartz-mining, carried on as it
is in Queensland, the poorest working miner can ensure not only good wages—reaching, in the north, £3 10s.
and £4 a-week—but can take a chance in the golden lottery, often drawing sudden wealth as a prize.

Besides gold, Queensland has a great quantity of other metals. Copper has been found in many places in the
Burnett and Wide Bay districts, of which the ports are Maryborough and Bundaberg. It is also found near
Gladstone and Rockhampton, and a splendid lode has been worked for many years at Peak Downs, some
distance inland from the last-named port. Lodes have been worked near Mackay, and the ore has been noticed
at many other places on the northern coast. On the water-shed of the Gulf of Carpentaria, at a distance of about
200 miles inland, a most remarkable deposit of copper was found nearly twelve years ago. The Cloncurry Mine,
as it is called, besides containing large quantities of rich oxides and other ores, had huge blocks of virgin copper.
A considerable quantity of ore and copper was raised at the time of its discovery, but the high price of carriage
in that remote country prevented the enterprise from being a commercial success. This branch of mining is not
in a satisfactory condition in the colony just now. About eight years ago there was a wild outburst of speculation in copper, stimulated by the high prices then ruling for the metal. Lodes previously neglected were eagerly taken up, and new companies to work them were floated almost weekly, both in Sydney and the principal Queensland towns. But this activity was mainly speculative. A number of mines were opened, and, in the majority of cases, were shown to contain payable lodes of ore, just when the insufficient capital of the companies became exhausted. Investors, who had lost heavily by stock-jobbing speculations in shares, became disgusted with the whole business, declined to furnish more capital, and the fall in the price of copper completed the collapse of the enterprise. Even the established mines were infected with the prevailing mania, and the managers exhausted almost all the ores "in sight" to produce big dividends. However, although as an industry copper-mining in Queensland is yet under a cloud, the ores remain, and if mined judiciously, and with sufficient capital, the profitable output of metal may become very great.

Tin has also produced a "mining mania." The ore was first discovered in a creek-bed near the southern border, and in the neighbourhood of what is now the town of Stanthorpe. It was stream tin, the deposits were thick and rich, and the metal at the time was high-priced. In 1872 there was a regular scramble for tin land, and mining companies sprang up like mushrooms. The excitement ran its course; but as the ore, unlike copper, could be prepared for market without costly appliances, its production was considerable. The maximum was reached in 1873, when the value of tin exported was £370,912. Since then the amount has decreased considerably, partly because the annual weight of tin ore raised diminished as the more accessible deposits were worked out, and partly because the price of the metal had fallen very largely. But there is every prospect that the diminution in the yield of Stan-thorpe will be more than counterbalanced by the output in the north; deposits of stream tin near the Palmer are being worked, and several important discoveries have quite recently been made in the coast country near the ports of Cairns and Port Douglas.

Coal has been worked since the separation of the colony from New South Wales in a basin intersected by the Bremer and Brisbane rivers. The total output for the colony in 1878 was 104,960 tons. Of this amount about 2000 tons came from the Burrum—a little river a few miles to the north of Maryborough, which also intersects a large and apparently valuable coal-basin—and the Government have before them offers from the coal-owners to construct a short railway connecting their pits with the port of Maryborough. Coal has also been found in several other places in the same district (Wide Bay) in which the Burrum is situated. Very excellent seams have been found near Bowen, further north, besides several other points on the coast and inland. But of these places the majority being neither on nor near navigable water, the coal cannot be got at without much expense.

Of other minerals the list is extensive and varied. Antimony is being mined at one place near Maryborough, and lodes of the same ore have been found in other localities in the country inland from the same port. Cinnabar abounds at Kilkivan, near Gympie; and small quantities are reduced for the supply of quicksilver to the crushing-machines at that great mining centre. Galena has been found in several places, and the silver ores at Bavorswood—a goldfield near Charters Towers—have recently attracted attention. Mineral selections have been at various times taken up in localities where lodes have been found of lead, zinc, bismuth, plumbago, kerosene shale, and iron; but the collapse of mining enterprise already alluded to led to their subsequent abandonment.

The colony is rich in timbers. Of these the cedar is most highly prized; but very large quantities of pine are cut, not merely for the construction of wooden houses, but for export. The value of timber exported in 1878 was estimated by the Customs Department at £56,233; but this is admittedly under the mark. Large quantities of cedar are cut on the banks of remote northern rivers, floated down in rafts, and shipped in the log at places distant from official centres. These cargoes are not all, or not accurately, reported, there being no export duty on the timber. There are large quantities of cedar yet uncult, and practically inexhaustible stores of pine and hardwood.

Another source of wealth possessed by the colony is its fisheries. In the tropical waters of the north a large number of ships and boats are engaged procuring pearl-shell and bêche-de-mer. The dugong, a marine animal found along the whole coast, is captured by parties of fishermen. The oil prepared from its fat is quite equal in medicinal value to cod-liver oil, and far less nauseous. Its flesh is palatable and nutritious, its bones are dense and well adapted for manufacturing purposes, its short tusks are of fine-grained ivory, and its hide when tanned makes exceedingly thick, tough leather. Well-flavoured oysters are found in Moreton Bay and Wide Bay, as well as at other points on the coast; and, besides supplying local requirements, the fishermen export small quantities by the coastal steamers going south. All the bays, inlets, and rivers swarm with numerous varieties of excellent fish.

The colony of Queensland contains an estimated population of about 220,000 souls, but of these it is probable that about 20,000 are Kanakas and Chinese. As these last are, with few exceptions, unmarried men, it follows that there is a marked disproportion between the sexes, the males numbering about 130,000. This disproportion affects the vital statistics of the colony, the Kanakas and Chinese living apart from the rest of the
population, although swelling the totals on which both the birth and death rates are calculated. The South Sea Islanders are, vitally, a feeble people, the ordinary death-rate among them being largely in excess of that among Europeans in any part of the world. These facts must be remembered, as well as the exceptional mortality among the diggers who opened up the far-northern goldfields, in making deductions from the following table, compiled by the Registrar-General to show the birth, marriage, and death rates per 1000 of the mean population:

Queensland is a self-governed colony. The legislature consists of two Chambers—a Council and an Assembly; the first being composed of members nominated for life, the second of representatives elected by the general body of the people. The franchise is manhood suffrage, restricted only by conditions of residence in the electoral district for which the voter desires to be enrolled. The administration of justice is provided for by a Supreme Court, consisting of four judges, one having his head-quarters in the north, at Bowen; and the judges hold assizes half-yearly in the more important towns. District courts are held quarterly in every important centre in the form of judicial districts, into which the colony is divided. Finally, police courts are established in almost every township, presided over in most cases by paid magistrates, assisted by a number of unpaid justices.

Primary education is free by law; and no expense is spared in the establishment of schools wherever enough people have settled to furnish a reasonable contingent of children requiring instruction, and prepared to subscribe a small proportion of the cost of erecting wooden school buildings. Liberal grants from the revenue are also made in aid of the establishment of grammar schools, of which three—in Brisbane, Ipswich, and Toowoomba—have been opened for some time, and two—in Maryborough and Rockhampton—are about to be established. To stimulate further the education of the people, moneys are voted annually by Parliament for about fifty bursaries, open to pupils in the primary schools, to enable the winners to go to the grammar schools; and three scholarships of £100 a-year are annually open to competition, to enable the winners to obtain the higher educational advantages not yet obtainable elsewhere in the colony.

Schools of arts or public libraries are established in every town in the colony, and grants are made to them from the general revenue in the proportion of one pound for each pound of private income. Hospitals are supported by private subscriptions, supplemented by grants of two pounds for one. Grants are also made for the maintenance of public gardens in the most important towns, and to supplement the income of a very excellent and well-managed acclimatisation society in Brisbane.

There were 428 miles of railway open for traffic in the colony in 1878, and 5718 miles of telegraph line. In 1878 the total length of railway open was increased by 110 miles, and the lines are being rapidly pushed forward. The whole system of roads in the colony has been placed under the charge of local bodies, who have the power of rating property-owners, and receive grants from general revenue in the proportion of two pounds for one raised by assessment. The estimated value of rateable property in corporate towns is given in the official statistics for 1878 at £5,124,352.

In conclusion, tables compiled by the Customs Department for the year 1879 give the tonnage of shipping visiting Queensland ports at 637,695 tons inwards and 618,699 tons outwards, and the following lists of articles imported and exported during the year:

**QUEENSLAND EXHIBITS.**

[Exhibits classed wider Fine Arts Group are transferred to Fine Arts Section of Catalogue, and will be found there under heading "Queensland"]

**II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.**

**Class 6.—Education of Children, Primary Instruction, Instruction of Adults.**

1 Beenleigh State-school, Logan River.—Two maps, by Otto Danth (age, 13½ years).

2 Department of Public Instruction (Building Branch), Queensland.—8amp'e of school wall construction, school window, desk and form, &c.

3 Department of Mines, Queensland.—Collection of geological maps.

4 Fox, H. W., Survey Office, Brisbane.—Specimen of school map of Queensland, lithographed by
exhibitor.
5 Hurworth, C., Fortitude Valley, Head Teacher.—Pupil-teacher’s cabinet, pupil-teacher’s easel.
6 Knight, W., Government Engraver, Brisbane.—New school map of Queensland, lithographed by H. W. Fox.
8 Normal School, Brisbane, Senior Drawing Class.—Specimens of drawings, &c.
9 Superintendent of School Buildings, Queensland.—Two plans of school construction, with set of illustrative lithographs.

Class 9.—Printing, Books.
10 Gardiner & Cool, Brisbane.—Assortment of vulcanite rubber stamps.
11 Thorne, W., Brisbane.—Pugh’s Almanac, 1880, bound.

Class 10.—Stationery, Bookbinding, Painting and Drawing Materials.
12 Beal, J. C., Government Printer, Queensland.—Specimens of commercial, law, and library binding, executed at the Government Printing Office.
13 Beal, J. C., Government Printer, Queensland.—Specimens of ruling.
14 Macpherson, A.. Brisbane.—Specimens of paper made from Sida ritusa, Ficus macrophylla, and tea-tree bark.

Class 11.—General Application of the Arts of Drawing and Modelling.
15 Uther, S. H., Brisbane.—Model for a town-hall, designed and executed by the exhibitor.

Class 14.—Medicine, Hygiene, and Public Relief.
16 Walker, J. H., South Brisbane.—Lady’s cork boot (price, £4 10s.).

Class 15.—Mathematical and Philosophical Instruments.
17 Weaber, H., Brisbane.—Collection of spectacles made by exhibitor.

III. Furniture and Accessories.

Class 17.—Cheap and Fancy Furniture.
18 Bowden, W., St. Helena.—Inlaid writing-desk, of woods grown on St. Helena.
19 Bowden, W., St. Helena.—Round inlaid table, of woods grown on St. Helena.
20 Carey, J. W., Brisbane.—Cedar show-case, in two parts, containing F. W. Wilson and Co,’s exhibit of biscuits, designed for centre or wall space.
21 Kasch, J., Rockhampton.—Inlaid table, showing varieties of timbers grown near Rockhampton.
22 Kasch, J., Rockhampton.—Cabinet, made of native woods.
23 Macintosh,—, Rockhampton.—Dressing-table.
24 Pettigrew, Hon. WM M.L.C., Brisbane.—Cedar hall-door, with side panels, complete (£40).
26 Petrie, J., Brisbane.—One pedestal dressing-table, with looking-glass; made of silky oak and cypress pine.
27 Queensland Government.—Dutch wardrobe; sideboard, cedar and other Queensland woods; trophy of wood turnery and fret-work.
28 Rockhampton Committee.—Furniture.
Class 18.—Upholsterers' and Decorators' Work.

29 Hislop, J. & J., Brisbane.—Drawingroom suite, Queensland oak, and ebonised black and gold, upholstered in crimson and gold, with springs.
30 Murdoch, J. S., Brisbane.—Specimens of graining and staining imitation woods.
31 Sturgess, H., Rockhampton.—Hall chairs, made from varieties of timber grown in the Rockhampton district.
32 Thomle, P., Brisbane.—Small loo-table, inlaid with 50 distinct varieties of Queensland woods (value, £16).
33 Thomle, P., Brisbane.—Two chests of drawers, manufactured from Queensland timbers (value, £32).
34 Thomle, P., Brisbane.—Writing-table, with cabinet, designed and manufactured by exhibitor, of Queensland woods.
35 Thomle, P., Brisbane.—Jewel cabinet, inlaid with 34 varieties of Queensland woods.
36 Thomle, P., Brisbane.—Book-case, made of Queensland timbers (value, £80).

Class 20.—Pottery.

37 Fensom, D., South Brisbane.—Collection of pottery, manufactured by exhibitor.
38 Fischer, G., Breakfast Creek.—Fire-bricks.
39 Petrie, J., Brisbane.—Fire-bricks, building bricks (white, pressed), building bricks (red, pressed).
40 Simpson, A., Allanton Pottery, Clifton, Darling Downs.—Cement.
41 Simpson, A., Clifton, Darling Downs.—Fireclay goods, crucibles, retorts, bricks, &c.
42 Staiger, K. T., F.L.S., Brisbane.—Collection of fire-bricks (soft); will stand heat exceedingly well.

Class 21.—Carpets, Tapestry, and other Stuffs for Furniture.

43 Dunsdon, Mrs. George, Ipswich.—Patchwork quilt.
44 Rawlins, Mrs., Warroo.—Two marsupial rugs.

Class 33.—Woollen Yarn and Fabrics.

45 Queensland Woollen Manufacturing Co., Ipswich.—Assortment of white blankets, white flannels.

Class 34.—Silk and Silk Fabrics.

46 Chubb, C. F., Ipswich.—Collection of reeled silk, grown by exhibitor.
47 Chubb, C. F., Ipswich.—Silk material, from the grain to the manufactured article; grown in Queensland, and manufactured at Macclesfield.

Class 36.—Lace, Net, Embroidery, and Trim-mings.

43 Kunzli, B., Rockhampton.—Hair-work.

Class 38.—Clothing for both Sexes.

49 M'Donald, J., Penal Establishment, St. Helena.—Warden's lace-up boots, blucher boots, warden's canvas shoes, prison blucher boots, &c.
50 M'Donald, J., Penal Establishment, St. Helena.—Women's lace-up boots, prison women's canvas shoes.
51 M'Donald, J., Penal Establishment, St. Helena.—Native police duck trousers, dress trousers, serge jumper, warden's serge coat, and other clothing.
52 Shields, M., Gympie.—Collection of boots and shoes.

Class 41.—Travelling Apparatus and Camp Equi page.

53 Lade, N., Brisbane.—Assortment of portmanteaus, Queensland leather, made by exhibitor.

Class 42.—Toys.

54 Thomle, P., Fortitude Valley, Brisbane.—Automatic boy, entitled "The Successful Beggar" (£15).
V. Raw and Manufactured Products.

Class 43.—Products of the Cultivation of Forests and of the Trades appertaining thereto.

56 Botanic Gardens.—Collection of Queensland timbers, by Walter Hill, Colonial Botanist, and Director of Botanic Gardens, Brisbane.

57 Government of Queensland.—Ornamental stand, with 142 cups turned and polished, illustrating the varieties of indigenous timber.

58 Government of Queensland.—Ornamental stand, with turned and polished cups and drops, illustrating 133 varieties of indigenous timber.

59 Botanic Gardens, Brisbane.—Barks, medicinal and tanning.

60 Cooke, W. D., West wood.—Collection of native woods, polished.

61 Gordon, J., Townsville.—Mangrove bark.

62 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Timbers: collection of polished specimens, useful and ornamental, collected and prepared by exhibitor.

63 Petrie, J., Brisbane.—Timbers: cedar board and piece yellow-wood.

64 Pettigrew, Hon. W., M.L.C., Brisbane.—Trophy of mouldings, illustrative of varieties of Queensland woods.

65 Queensland Commission.—Timbers, polished.

66 Queensland Government.—Trophy of wood panels, polished, showing varieties of Queensland timbers.

67 Queensland Government.—Cross section of Queensland kauri pine, grown at Noosa, cut 12 feet from the ground.

68 Rockhampton Committee.—60 varieties of new native timbers.

69 Rockhampton Committee.—Collection of indigenous timbers of the Rockhampton district (50 varieties), polished.

70 Spence, D., Cairns.—Collection of indigenous woods.

71 Sturgess, H., Rockhampton.—Trophy of turnery work, executed to display indigenous timbers.

72 Staiger, K. T., F.L.S., Brisbane.—Duboisia leaves (dried, loose, and pressed).

73 Staiger, K. T., F.L.S.—Pterosigma viscum (Queensland bitter bark), 10 lb., with preserved twigs of the tree.

74 Staiger, K. T., F. L. S.—Alstonia constricta (quinine bark), 15 lb.

Class 44.—Products of Hunting, Shooting, Fishing, and Spontaneous Products, Machines and Instruments connected therewith.

75 Alder, A., Brisbane.—Natural history specimens—"In Extremis" (group, native bear and wedge-tail eagle).

76 Alder, A., Brisbane.—Natural history specimens—"No Laughing Matter" (group, carpet snake and laughing jackasses).

77 Alder, A., Brisbane.—Natural history specimens—"A Surprise at the Mid-day Camp" (group of three wallabies).

78 Alder, A., Brisbane.—Natural history specimens—"The Successful Piscator" (white-bellied sea eagle, with bream).

79 Alder, A, Brisbane.—Natural history specimens—Two lyre-birds.

80 Alder, A.—Moreton Bay turtle, preserved with shell complete.

81 Blakeney, C. J., Brisbane.—Autographs of celebrated men.

82 Boyd, A. J., Brisbane.—Collection of aboriginal curios.

83 Coxen, Mrs. C., Brisbane.—Six birds, mounted by the late Charles Coxen, C.M.Z.S.

84 Coxen, Mrs. C., Brisbane.—One case male and female bower-birds and playground (Chlamydo-dera nuchalis).

85 Coxen, Mrs. C., Brisbane.—One case spotted bower-birds (C. mainluba)—two males, with playground.
86 Coxen, Mrs. C., Brisbane.—Regent birds (Sericulus melonus)—two males in full plumage, two
young males, one female, bower and ornamentation.
87 Coxen, Mrs. C., Bulimba, Brisbane.—Pair of nautilus shells, carved; also cowries.
88 Crate, J. S., Brisbane.—Collection of vegetable sponges, colvandoth or bitter cucumber; also seed of
same.
89 Diggles, S., Brisbane.—Cabinet collection of Queensland beetles and butterflies (£250).
90 Diggles, S., Brisbane.—One case foreign beetles.
91 Diggles, S., Brisbane.—Two volumes—"Birds of Australia."
92 Gulliver, T. A., Thornborough.—Collection of native birds from the Norman River.
93 Hartmann, C. H., Toowoomba.—Collection of insects injurious to trees and plants.
94 Johnstone, R., Sub-Inspector, Herbert River.—Collection of aboriginal weapons and utensils.
95 Palmer, Hon. A. H., M.L.A., Colonial Secretary of Queensland.—Collection of native implements and
aboriginal curios.
96 Palmer, Hon. A. H., Colonial Secretary of Queensland.—Collection of New Guinea curiosities.
97 Palmer, Hon. A. H.—Two mummies, from the coast of New Guinea.
98 Parbury, Lamb & Knox, Sydney.—Collection of pearl shell, from the Torres Straits fisheries.
99 Pilcher, G. L., Secretary School of Arts, Rockhampton.—Six cases entomological specimens, found near
Rockhampton, preserved by exhibitor.
100 Queensland Government.—Collection of coral, from the Great Barrier reef.
101 Queensland Government.—Collection of shells
102 Queensland Government.—Four rams' heads, preserved and mounted by A. Alder, taxidermist,
Brisbane.
103 Queensland Government.—One stuffed dugong or sea cow (Halicore Australis), estimated to be 40 years
old when caught.
104 Queensland Commission.—Scented iron-bark gum leaves, from Maytown; and essence extracted
therefrom.
105 Rockhampton Committee.—Natural history specimens.
106 Rainbird, J., Bowen.—Collection of land and marine shells (£6 10s.).
107 Robinson, W. R., Toowoomba.—Queensland scrub birds.
108 Sachs, F. L., Brisbane.—Mummy, from Central Queensland.
109 Sandrock, G. F., Bowen.—Collection of coral and shells.
110 Staiger, K. T., F.L.S., Brisbane.—Collection of Queensland spears, shields, swords, nullah nullahs, and
other aboriginal curios.
111 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Native cats, water rat, scrub wallabies, opossum, &c., mounted by A.
Alder, Brisbane.
112 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Collection of conchologic specimens.
113 Trustees Queensland Museum.—One pair of Aquita andax (wedge-tailed eagle), mounted by A. Alder,
Brisbane.
114 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Stuffed specimen of Ceratodus Forsferii, with preserved lung; and
contents of stomach.
115 Wickham, G. J., Rosenthal.—Opossums' fur, 1½ lb., the produce of two opossums.
116 Williams, A., Eight-Mile Plains, near Brisbane.—Cinnamon bark, from 4-year-old trees.

Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food.

117 Botanic Gardens, Brisbane.—Indigenous pasture grasses and fodder plants.
118 Botanic Gardens, Brisbane.—Collection of fibres.
119 Botanic Gardens, Brisbane.—Gum resins.
120 Bridgman, R., Mackay.—Collection of tobacco, manufactured from leaf grown in Queensland.
121 Corten, C. G., Glenora, Rockhampton.—Tobacco, grown and manufactured by exhibitor.
122 Cribb & Foote, Ipswich.—Sample of cotton, ginned, grown near Ipswich.
123 Cribb & Foote, Ipswich.—Sample of cotton in the boll, grown near Ipswich.
124 Hocker, J. H., Kangaroo Point, Brisbane.—Tobacco leaf.
125 Jones, A., Cavarral, Rockhampton.—Tobacco leaf.
126 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Collection of Queensland indigenous grasses, dried and mounted on
frames by exhibitor.
127 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Specimens of Queensland indigenous grasses, growing in tubs.
128 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Perennial ryegrass, two varieties of New Zealand grasses, red clover,
prairie grass, and Italian grass.
129 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Specimens of dried prickly comfrey and white and grey millet, in sheaves.
130 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Varieties (two) dried jute plants—Corchorus capsularis, 13 feet long; Corchorus oliotaris, 14 feet long.
131 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Glass case, containing wax figure, dressed with fibres collected and manufactured by exhibitor.
132 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Textile fabric, made from the inner bark of the Ficus macro-phylla.
133 Macpherson, A., Brisbane—Jute fibre.
134 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Flax fibre.
135 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Rosella hemp fibre.
136 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Sida retusa fibre.
137 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Collection of Queensland fibres, grown and prepared by exhibitor.
138 Soegard, H., Logan River.—Collection of tobacco, manufactured from leaf grown in Queensland.
139 Turner, F.—100 varieties of Queensland indigenous fodder grasses, dried and mounted by exhibitor.
140 Wickham, H. A., Lower Herbert.—Fibres.

Class 46.—Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products.
141 Baker, T., Maryborough.—Glass case, containing coralline.
142 Berkley, Taylor & Co.—Dugong oil, refined.
143 Berkley, Taylor & Co.—Dugong oil, unrefined.
144 Boldemann, W., Rockhampton.—Plain soap, one block (2 cwt.).
145 Botanic Gardens, Brisbane.—Essential oils, tinctures, &c., prepared by L. Carmichael, Chemist
146 Clarke, D., Warwick.—Collection of essences, perfumes, and tooth-powders.
147 Ruddell, R., Bundaberg.—Sample bars first quality soap.
148 Staiger, K. T., F.L.S.—Samples of pyroligneous acid, acetic acid, methylated alcohol, wood tar, acetate of soda, kerosene, paraffine.
149 Staiger, K. T., F.L.S.—Essential oil, made from the leaves of the Eucalyptus citriodora, found near Gladstone.
150 Staiger, K. T., F.L.S.—Essential oil, from leaves of ironbark tree on the Palmer River (not yet named); samples of the leaves therewith.
151 Staiger, K. T., F.L.S.—Essence made from the leaves of the ironbark tree on the Palmer River (not yet named); samples of the leaves therewith.
152 Staiger, K. T., F.L.S.—Essence made from the leaves of the Eucalyptus citriodora, found near Gladstone.
153 Staiger, K. T., F.L.S.—Duboisine, extract from duboisa leaves.
155 stiller & Co., Amity Point, Moreton Bay.—Dugong oil.
156 Yeo, C. H. F., Brisbane.—Collection of essences and perfumes.

Class 47.—Chemical Processes for Bleaching, Dyeing, Printing, and Dressing.
157 Botanic Gardens, Brisbane.—Collection of dyeing materials.

Class 48.—Leather and Skins.
158 Alderson & Sons, Brisbane.—Dugong leather.
159 Hatton, W., Maryborough.—Specimen of dugong leather.
160 Mortimer, W., Stan thorpe.—Collection of kangaroo and wallaby skins.
161 Queensland Government.—Collection of rugs and mats, manufactured from marsupial skins.
162 Queensland Government.—Collection of skins, tanned with hair on, consisting of wild horse, kangaroo, wallaroo, native bear, opossum,
163 Queensland Government.—Collection of marsupial skins, tanned with the hair on.
164 Queensland Government.—Collection of leather, comprising harness, bridle, bag, grain, kip, cow tweed, horse tweed, calf, kangaroo, fee.
VI. Machinery—Apparatus and Processes used in the Mechanical Industries.

Class 49.—Agricultural Implements and Processes used in the Cultivation of Fields and Forests.

165 Booth, J. S., Fortitude Valley.—Bone dust (three samples, each about 2 cwt.), manufactured by exhibitor.
166 Fitzallan, E. B.—Model gate, showing improved fastening that can be easily opened on horseback.
167 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Machine and appliances for dressing rice, made by exhibitor.

Class 54.—Apparatus and Processes used in Spinning and Rope-making.


Class 56.—Apparatus and Processes for Sewing and for Making-up Clothing.

169 Wilson, J., Rockhampton.—Sewing-machine oil, in bottles.

Class 60.—Carriages and Wheelwrights' Work.

170 Morris, G. R., Bowen.—Model waggon, made by exhibitor's apprentices.
171 Queensland Government.—Whitechapel cart, to show suitable Queensland woods (£20).

Class 61.—Harness and Saddlery.

172 M'Donald, J., Superintendent Penal Establishment, St. Helena.—Saddlery.

Class 62.—Railway Apparatus.

173 Locomotive Department, Southern & Western Railway, Ipswich.—Double saloon bogie carriage, manufactured at Ipswich, 1879.
174 Stanley, H. C., Chief Engineer, Public Works Department.—Photographic views of recent railway construction in Queensland.

Class 65.—Navigation and Life-saving.

175 Norris, C. S., Townsville.—Model of 16-ft. centre-board skiff.
176 Norris, C. S., Townsville.—Model of boat.
177 Norris, C. S., Townsville.—Model of 7-ton centre-board yacht "Maud."

VII. Alimentary Products.

Class 67.—Cereals, Farinaceous Products, and Products derived from them.

178 Atherton, J., Rockhampton—Purple arrowroot, (lewt.; value, £8 Ss.).
179 Atherton, J., Rockhampton.—Tapioca (8 lb. 4 oz.; value, 14s.).
180 Baker, T., Maryborough.—Arrowroot, white and purple.
181 Baker, T., Maryborough.—Collection of starches from wheat, maize, arrowroot (two kinds), potatoes
(three kinds), rice, plantains, and yams.

182 Botanic Gardens, Brisbane.—Collection of arrowroot, &c.—West Indian and East Indian; and cassava, sweet and bitter; tapioca and zamia.

183 Burnett, J., Brisbane.—Sample of tapioca.

184 Botanic Gardens, Brisbane.—30 varieties of sugar-cane, in stools, showing their growth, age, and habit.


187 Botanic Gardens, Brisbane.—Collection of roots (ground-nut, sweet potatoes, yams, ginger, and taro).

188 Castles, W., Pimpama.—Arrowroot (purple), in bulk.

189 Castles, W., Pimpama.—Arrowroot (purple), different process.

190 Castles, W., Pimpama.—Arrowroot (purple), in packets (price, £34 per ton; in bulk, £25 per ton).

191 Cribb, J. B., Gatton.—One bag maize.

192 Grimes, G. & S., Brisbane.—Arrowroot (56 lb), in packets and bottles.

193 Kates, F., Allora.—Wheaten flour, 1st quality.

194 Kates, F., Allora.—Wheaten flour, 2nd quality.

195 Kates, F., Allora.—Wheaten meal.

196 Kates, F., Allora.—Maize meal.

197 Kates, F., Allora.—Buckwheat meal.

198 Kates, F., Allora.—Rye meal.

199 Lahey & Sons, Pimpama.—Arrowroot trophy, containing one ton, in packets grown and manufactured by exhibitors.

200 Lahey & Sons, Pimpama.—Two glass bottles, containing samples of above.

201 Lahey & Sons, Pimpama.—Purple arrowroot (Canna edulis).

202 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Trophy of rice in sheaf, grown near Brisbane by exhibitor.

203 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Paddy rice.

204 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Dressed rice, grown and prepared by exhibitor.

205 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Glass case, containing varieties of rice, in ears, and sample of grain.

206 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Rye.

207 Macpherson, A., Brisbane.—Broom millet, grown by exhibitor.

208 M'Dowall, W., Oxley.—Bag maize.

209 O'Leary, A., Warwick.—Maize, bag small.

210 O'Leary, A., Warwick.—Maize, bag large.

211 Oxenford, W. R., Coomera.—Rice, grown on alluvial scrub land, without irrigation, average yield two tons per acre.

212 PettigTew, Hon. W.—Ground rice.

213 Robson, R. T., Laidley.—Bag maize.

214 Strong, J., Rocky Waterholes.—Maize, small yellow, snelled (4 bushels).

215 Wilson, J. T., Swan Creek, Warwick.—Wheat (2 bushels), propagated from Talavera wheat; early, hardy, not subject to rust.

Class 68.—Bread and Pastry.

216 Clarke, D., Warwick.—Baking-powder.

217 Sanderson, F., Brisbane.—Baking-powder.

218 Wilson, F. W., & Co.—Biscuits, in tin and show-case.

219 Yeo, C. H. F., Brisbane.—Baking-powder.

Class 70.—Meat and Fish.

220 Beardmore, F. J. W., Cooktown.—Assortment of bêche-de-mer, preserved in spirit, from Reef Fishery, 10 miles from Cooktown.

221 Beardmore & Olive, Cooktown.—Collection of bêche-de-mer, dried.

222 Hartley, W. J., & Co., Cooktown.—Collection of bêche-de-mer, from Barrier Reef.

223 Lake, Captain, Sydney.—Specimens of bêche-de-mer, preserved in spirits, from the Barrier Reef, 30 miles E.N.E. from Cooktown.

224 Municipal Council, Bowen.—Collection of bêche-de-mer, dried.

225 Skinner, B., Fortitude Valley.—Assortment of preserved meats, consisting of savoury tongues and
delicacies for breakfast and luncheon.
226 Skinner, B., Fortitude Valley.—Preserved turtle, in soup, jelly, stewed, &c., for use of invalids; also potted dugong.
227 Skinner, B., Fortitude Valley.—Trophy of preserved meats.
228 Staiger, K. T., F.L.S.—One jar bêche-de-mer, in spirits of wine.
229 Stiller & Co., Amity Point, Moreton Bay.—Dugong bacon.
230 Stiller & Co., Amity Point, Moreton Bay.—Dugong lard, a sovereign remedy by outward application and absorption for defective nutrition.

Class 71.—Vegetables and Fruit.
231 Baker, T., Maryborough.—Preserved potatoes.
232 Botanic Gardens.—Collection of fruits, bunya bunya, sweet sop, Chinese date plum, Ac.
233 Christoe,—,—, Rockhampton.
234 Chubb, C. F., Ipswich.—Olives, bottled.
235 M'Donald, J., St. Helena.—Olives, bottled.
236 Marwedel, E., Raceview, Toowoomba.—Orange marmalade, 1-lb. tins (Scotch fashion).
237 Skinner, B., Fortitude Valley, Brisbane.—Collection of jams.
238 Skinner, B., Fortitude Valley.—Collection of jellies.
239 Skinner, B., Fortitude Valley.—Collection of marmalades.
240 Skinner, B., Fortitude Valley.—Preserved fruits in syrup, consisting of guavas, loquats, pineapples, and gunquats.
241 Thozet, Mrs., Rockhampton.—Preserved fruits.

Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery.
242 Acheson & Allen, Rockhampton.—Chutney (I doz.).
243 Acheson & Allen, Rockhampton.—Jellies (4 doz.).
244 Amhurst, F. T., Foulden Plantation, Mackay.—Golden syrup.
245 Amhurst, F. T., Foulden Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), any process open or vacuum pan, boiled, but not refined.
246 Amhurst, F. T., Foulden Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), any process, open or vacuum pan, boiled, but not refined.
247 Amhurst, F. T., Foulden Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), any process, open or vacuum pan, boiled, but not refined.
248 Amhurst, F. T., Foulden Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
249 Amhurst, F. T., Foulden Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
250 Amhurst, F. T., Foulden Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
251 Black, M. H., The Cedars, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), common process, open pan, boiled.
252 Black, M. H., The Cedars, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), common process, open pan, boiled.
253 Black, M. H., The Cedars, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), common process, open pan, boiled.
254 Boreham J. H., South Brisbane.—Chutney.
255 Boreham, J. H., South Brisbane.—Chili pepper.
256 Botanic Gardens, Brisbane.—Tea, coffee, spices, &c.
257 Botanic Gardens, Brisbane.—Ordinary commercial samples of sugar, taken from bulk.
258 Cairroll & Avery, Meclere, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), common process, open pan, boiled.
259 Cairroll & Avery, Meclere, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), common process, open pan, boiled.
260 Cairroll & Avery, Meclere, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), common process, open pan, boiled.
261 Cowley, A. S., Bemerside, Herbert River.—Cayenne.
262 Davidson, J. E., Alexandra Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
263 Davidson, J. E., Alexandra Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
264 Davidson, J. E., Alexandra Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
265 Donaldson & Co., Cassada, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
266 Donaldson & Co., Cassada, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
267 Donaldson & Co., Cassada, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
268 Duval, L., Nebia, Mackay.—Sugar (brewers' crystals), common process.
269 Duval, L., Nebia, Mackay.—Sugar boilers' prize.
270 Duval, L., Nebia, Mackay.—Sugar, white vacuum pan, common process.
271 Hewitt & Co., Pleystowe Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts).
272 Hewitt & Co., Pleystowe Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), open pan.
273 Hewitt & Co., Pleystowe Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), open pan.
274 Hewitt & Co., Pleystowe Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), open pan.
275 Hewitt & Co., Pleystowe, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), common process, open pan, boiled.
276 Hewitt & Co., Pleystowe, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), common process, open pan, boiled.
277 Hewitt & Co., Pleystowe, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), common process, open pan, boiled.
278 Holland, Miskin & Co., Bundall Plantation, Nerang Creek.—Sugar (1sts), manufactured from ten months old Rappoe cane
279 Hyne, W., & Co., Meadowlands, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
280 Hyne, W., & Co., Meadowlands, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
281 Hyne, W., & Co., Meadowlands, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
282 Hyne, W., & Co., Balmoral, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), common process, open pan, boiled.
283 Hyne, W., & Co., Balmoral, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), common process, open pan, boiled.
284 Hyne, W., & Co., Balmoral, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), common process, open pan, boiled.
285 Jack, D., & Sons, Barrie, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), common process, open pan, boiled.
286 Jack, D., & Sons, Barrie, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), common process, open pan, boiled.
287 Jack, D., & Sons, Barrie, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), common process, open pan, boiled.
288 King, G. H. M., Branscombe, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), common process, open pan, boiled.
289 King, G. H. M., Branscombe, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), common process, open pan, boiled.
290 King, G. H. M., Branscombe Estate, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), open pan.
291 Lloyd & Walker, Dumbleton Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), common process, open pan, boiled.
292 Lloyd & Walker, Dumbleton Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), common process, open pan, boiled.
293 Lloyd & Walker, Dumbleton Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), common process, open pan, boiled.
294 M'Donald, J., St. Helena.—Sugar—1 bag, yellow counter, open pan, unrefined, manufactured by prison labour at the Penal Establishment.
295 M'Donald, J., St. Helena.—Sugar—1 bag, molasses, open pan, unrefined, manufactured by prison labour at the Penal Establishment.
296 M'Donald, J., Superintendent, St. Helena.—Trophy of sugars and sugar canes.
297 M'Cready, H., Tekowal, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts).
298 M'Cready, H., Tekowal, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts).
299 Muir, R., Benowa.—Two mats sugar.
300 Raff, G., & Co., Inverness, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), common process, open pan, boiled.
301 Raff, G., & Co., Inverness, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), common process, open pan, boiled.
302 Raff, G., & Co., Inverness, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), common process, open pan, boiled.
303 Skinner, B., Fortitude Valley.—Preserved jams and jellies.
304 Sloan, W., & Co., Nebia Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
305 Sloan, W., & Co., Nebia Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
306 Sloan, W., & Co., Nebia Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
307 Sloan, W., & Co., Tekowai Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
308 Sloan, W., & Co., Tekowai Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
309 Sloan, W., & Co., Tekowai Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
310 Sloan, W., & Co., Tekowai Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), any process, open or vacuum pan, boiled but not refined.
311 Sloan, W., & Co., Tekowai Plantation Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), any process, open or vacuum pan, boiled, but not refined.
312 Sloan, W., & Co., Tekowai Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), any process, open or vacuum pan, boiled, but not refined.
313 Spiller, J., Pioneer Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (1sts), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
314 Spiller, J., Pioneer Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
315 Spiller, J., Pioneer Plantation, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
316 Spiller, J., River Estate, Mackay.—Sugar (1st s), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
317 Spiller, J., River Estate, Mackay.—Sugar (2nds), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
318 Spiller, J., River Estate, Mackay.—Sugar (3rds), vacuum pan, boiled, unrefined.
321 Watt, A., Beenleigh.—Two mats sugar.
322 Williams, A., Eight-Mile Plains.—Ginger, cinnamon.
323 Williams, A., Eight-Mile Plains.—Coffee beans.

Class 73.—Fermented Drinks.
324 Childs, D. J., & Son, Toombul Vineyard, Brisbane.—1877, red, dry, and full-bodied wines.
325 Childs, D. J., & Son, Toombul Vineyard, Brisbane.—1877, red, dry wines.
326 Chubb, C. F., Ipswich.—Espar, 1877; in stock, 100 dozen, red, full-bodied wines.
327 Couldery, W. H., Ageston, Beenleigh.—Rum.
328 Couldery, W. H., Ageston, Beenleigh.—Oin.
329 Davidson, J. E., Alexandra Estate, Mackay.—Rum.
330 Gerler, C. T., & Son, Carlsburg Vineyard, Brisbane.—In stock, 4000 gallons, red, light, and dry wines.
331 Gerler, C. T., & Son, Carlsburg Vineyard, Brisbane.—In stock, 3000 gallons, red, sweet wines.
332 Hewitt & Co., Pleystowe Distillery, Mackay.—Rum, bottled.
333 Hewitt & Co., Pleystowe Distillery, Mackay.—Rum, bulk.
334 Kircher, J., Assmanshausen, Warwick.—Verdeilho, 1876; in stock, 50 gallons, white, light, and dry.
335 Kircher, J., Assmanshausen, Warwick.—Salvina, 1878; in stock, 550 gallons, white, light, dry.
336 Kircher, J., Assmanshausen, Warwick.—Verdeilho, 1877; in stock, 100 gallons, white, light, dry.
337 Kircher, J., Assmanshausen, Warwick.—Hermitage, 1877; in stock, 90 gallons, red, light, and dry.
338 Kircher, J., Assmanshausen, Warwick.—Mataro, 1878; in stock, 3000 gallons, red, light, and dry.
339 Kircher, J., Assmanshausen, Warwick.—Mataro, 1877; in stock, 200 gallons, red, light, dry.
340 Kircher, J., Assmanshausen, Warwick.—Hermitage, 1870; in stock, 50 gallons, red, light, and dry.
341 Kircher, J., Assmanshausen, Warwick.—Hermitage, 1875; in stock, 30 gallons, red, light, and dry.
342 Lade, J. J., Surrenden Vineyard, Samford, Brisbane.—Isabella, 1879; in stock, 7800 gallons.
343 Lade, J. J., Surrenden Vineyard, Samford, Brisbane.—Hermitage, 1879, white and dry, full-bodied.
344 Raff, G., Moray field, Caboolture, near Brisbane.—Hum, 11 years old.
345 Romer, C., Canning Downs, Warwick.—Black Spanish, 1879; in stock, 1400 gallons, red, full bodied.
346 Romer, C., Canning Downs, Warwick.—Tokay Riesling, 1876; in stock, 800 gallons, white, light, and dry.
347 Romer, C., Canning Downs, Warwick.—Tokay Riesling, 1879; in stock, 1200 gallons, white, light, and dry.
348 Sloane, W., & Co., Tekowai Plantation, Mackay.—Rum.
349 Yearwood, R.B., Mackay.—Rum (two gallons) manufactured by exhibitor.

Class 76.—Flowers and Ornamental Plants.
350 Bailey, P. M.—Illustrations of the botany of Queensland, 6 vols.
351 Queensland Commission.—Two macro zamiias, from the Leichhardt district.

Class 79.—Seeds and Saplings of Forest Trees.
352 Fitzallan, E., Bowen.—Case, containing samples of rare indigenous seeds of the colony.
353 Hartmann, C. H., Toowoomba.—Box, constructed of seeds and seed cones.
353a Oxenford. W. R., Coomera.—Flax seed, grown on alluvial scrub land, without irrigation; average yield, 6 cwt. per acre.
354 Tulloch, W., Glencairn Farm, Warwick-Lucerne seed, grown on heavy black soil.
355 Turner, F., Brisbane.—70 varieties of Queensland indigenous grass seeds, collected by exhibitor.
356 Way, E., Director Queen's Park, Toowoomba.—Collection of seeds of indigenous grasses (55 varieties).

Class 80.—Plants for Conservatories.
357 Fitzallan, E., Bowen.—Collection of orchids.

X. Mining Industries—Machinery and Products.
Class 82.—Mining and Metallurgy.

358 Alger, J., Sydney.—Three specimens of malachite, from Peak Downs.
359 Bennett, Captain.—Red oxide copper, Mount Perry.
360 Bennett, Captain.—Copper regulus, Mount Perry.
361 Bennett, Captain.—Chalcopyrites, Mount Perry.
362 Bennett, Captain.—Collection of copper ores, from Mount Perry.
363 Beadmore, F. J. W., Cooktown.—Tin ores, from Granite Crock, Palmer River.
364 Bowen Municipal Council—Block of coal, from the Daintree seam, Bowen River, Leichhardt district, with plan of seam attached.
365 Clarke, D. S., Cairns.—Samples of tin ore, from the Palmer district, Cape York Peninsula.
366 Coudery, W. H., Gympie.—Collection of gold specimens, from Gympie.
367 Critchley, R., Gympie.—Antimony ore.
368 Dawson, J. B., Boyne River.—30 lb. auriferous tailings, from the Boyne River, Gladstone.
369 Department of Mines, Queensland.—Ores of antimony, galena, chrome, manganese, cinnabar, bismuth, &c.
370 Doctor's Reef, Proprietors Gympie.—Specimens of mundie-stone.
371 Draper, Rev. W., South Brisbane.—Two pebbles, Derbyshire.
372 Eldred, Captain W. H., Sydney.—Cinnabar, or sulphuret of quicksilver, in granite, sandstone, and calc spar, from his mines, Kilkivan.
373 Eldred, Captain W. H., Sydney.—Cinnabar, in sandstone and calcite, from his Kilkivan mines.
374 Eldred, Captain W. H., Sydney.—Cinnabar, with carbonates of copper in quartz and otherwise, from his Kilkivan mines.
375 Eldred, Captain W. H., Sydney.—Cinnabar, in quartz, from his Kilkivan mines.
376 Fischer, G., Breakfast Creek.—Fire-clay.
377 Friend, H., jun., Gladstone.—Sample of tailings, from the Gladstone district.
378 Glanmire North Gold Mining Co., Gympie.—Ten tons of rich auriferous quartz.
379 Gregory, A. C., C.M.G., Brisbane.—Collection of specimens of coal, from various districts of Queensland.
380 Gympie Committee.—16 samples pyrites, from Gympie.
381 Gympie Committee.—Rock cores, extracted by the diamond drill at Gympie.
382 Hodgkinson, W. O., Warden, George Town, Etheridge River.—Geological collection.
383 Hodgkinson, W. O., Warden, George Town.—Geological suite, from Etheridge River, Queensland, showing formation of gold-bearing reef.
384 Hodgkinson, W. O., Warden, George Town.—75 lb. average stone, Papa claim, Etheridge River; yielding 2 oz. 16 dwt. gold per ton.
385 Hodgkinson, W. O., Warden, George Town.—85 lb. average mundic stone, Spero Meliora claim; yielding 4 oz. gold to ton.
386 Hodgkinson, W. O., Warden, George Town.—79 lb. average raw stone; yielding 2 oz. 11 dwt. gold to ton; City of Glasgow prospect claim.
387 Hodgkinson, W. O., Warden. George Town.—79 lb. tailings, Fapa reer; 94 in. do., Spero Meliora; 95 lb. do., City of Glasgow, &c.
388 Hodgkinson, W. O., Warden, George Town.—114 lb. average stone, Better Luck claim; former crushings 2½ up to 7 oz. gold per ton.
389 Hodgkinson, W. O., Warden. George Town.—135 lb. average mundic stone, from Lord Byron reef claim.
390 Hodgkinson, W. O., Warden, George Town.—108 lb. average stone, Cumberland reef claim.
391 Hodgkinson, W. O., Warden, George Town, Etheridge River-78 lb. blanketings, from Cumberland reef, as above.
392 Hays, W., Townsville.—Copper ores, from the Star River, fifty miles from Townsville.
393 Hill, W. R. O., Warden, Ravenswood.—Collection of galena and silver lead ore.
394 Hunter, Captain R. M., Rockhampton.—Specimens of varieties of marbles, from his quarry, Northumberland Group.
395 Maytown Residents (per P. F. Selheim, Warden).—Column, representing bulk and volume of gold extracted from Palmer River goldfield.
396 Miller, H. C., Etheridge.—Massive specimens, from prospect claim, Lord Byron reef.
397 Miller, H. C., Port Darwin.—Agates, from Cave Creek, Gilbert River.
398 Miller, H. C., Port Darwin, Queensland.—Collection of gold-bearing ores of copper, lead, iron, &c., from various reefs of Etheridge district.
399 Miller, H. C., Port Darwin, Queensland.—Rock specimens of granite, &c., from various reefs in the Etheridge district.
400 M'Donald, J., St. Helena.—Collection of manufactured tinware.
401 Moffatt, D. & J., Brisbane.—Waterstown coal.
402 Morgan Brothers, Charters Towers.—Richgold specimens, containing 70 oz. 10 dwt. gold, Caroline prospect claim.
403 Mount Orange Copper Co., Mackay.—Copper ore.
404 Nicholls Leasethold, Proprietors, Gympie.—Gold, in quartz.
405 Palmer, E., Cloncurry River.—Minerals and aboriginal curios.
406 Peak Downs Copper Mining Co.—Refined and precipitate copper.
407 Pearce & Co., Gin Gin.—Silver ore.
408 Pearin, J., Brisbane.—Rich gold specimens from Nos. 7 and 8 Monkland Reef, Gympie.
409 Petrie, J., Brisbane.—Specimens of hard and freestone.
410 Petrie, J., Brisbane.—Fire-clay
411 Petrie, J., Brisbane.—Silica powder, for polishing.
412 Queensland Commission.—Trophy of Queensland tin, in ingots and other forms, Stanthorpe.
413 Queensland Commission.—Trophy of Queensland copper, in cakes and other forms.
414 Queensland Commissioners.—Column, representing gold raised in Queensland from 1868 to 1879, inclusive, amounting to 3,244,777 oz.
415 Queensland Government.—Auriferous specimens, containing ores of copper, iron, lead, and zinc, from tropical Queensland.
416 Queensland Government.—Gold in various forms or occurrence, in quartz, in mundic, limonite, thread gold; gold in calcspar, &c.
417 Queensland Government.—Gold and zinc, Black Jack reef, Ravenswood.
418 Queensland Government.—Polished sections of gold and quartz.
419 Queensland Government.—Polished sections of limonite, quartz, and gold.
421 Queensland Government—Granite (red, grey, and green), polished and crude.
422 Queensland Government.—Polished sections of ores containing gold, sulphide of copper, &c.
423 Queensland Government.—Alluvial and reef casing gold, from places in tropical Queensland.
424 Queensland Government.—Massive block of antimony, from the Neardie mine, Burnett district.
425 Queensland Government.—Massive block of galena, 122 oz. silver to the ton, and slightly auriferous, from the Yarrol mine, Dawes' Range.
426 Queensland Government.—Polished block of cinnabar and calcite.
427 Queensland Government.—Carboniferous sandstone, from Ipswich coal measures.
428 Queensland Government.—Red oxide and copper ores; also, native copper, from the Cloncurry River.
429 Queensland Government.—Copper sulphide with zinc blende (two massive specimens), from the Kennedy district.
430 Queensland Government.—Polished section, chalco-pyrites.
431 Queensland Government.—Malachite and chalco-pyrites, Mount Perry.
432 Queensland Government.—Black oxide and green carbonate of copper, Mount Perry.
433 Queensland Government.—Antimony ore, from "Hungry Hill."
434 Queensland Government.—Dendritic oxide of manganese, Star River.
435 Queensland Government.—Silicate of iron, from Eskdale, Burnett district.
436 Queensland Government.—Manganese ore, from Queensland and New Caledonia.
437 Queensland Government.—Cobalt ore, from New Caledonia.
438 Queensland Government.—Nickel ore (silicate), from New Caledonia.
439 Queensland Government.—Alluvial bismuth, from Queensland, showing free gold.
440 Queensland Government.—Zinc blende, from New South Wales and Queensland, the former showing free gold.
441 Queensland Government—Wolfram, from Victoria and Queensland, the latter auriferous.
442 Queensland Government.—Iron ores, from island of Elba, Tuscany, Cornwall, Tasmania, New South Wales, New Caledonia, and Queensland.
443 Queensland Government.—Marmatite, from Italy.
444 Queensland Government.—Carbonate of lead, very fine crystals, pure and white, from Peel-wood,
New South Wales.

445 Queensland Government.—Reef gold in every form of occurrence, in thread and in leaves, and in combination with tourmaline, agate, &c.

446 Queensland Government—Pink topaz, from Liberia; emeralds, from Brazil and Ireland; amber, from Prussia.


448 Queensland Government.—Idocrase, from Piedmont, Italy; epidite, from ditto; garnets and diopside, Southern Alps.

449 Queensland Government—Noble opal in matrix rock, in massive blocks, from Barcoo River, Bulloo River, and Cooper's Creek.

450 Queensland Government.—Noble hyalite or "dewdrop" opal, matrix of the noble hyalite; red chrysolite, from Nanango.

451 Queensland Government.—Aqua-marine top.tz, from Madagascar; ditto, gigantic variety; aqua-marines, from Queensland, &c.

452 Queensland Government.—Amethysts, from Germany, Victoria, New South Wales, and Queensland.

453 Queensland Government—Yellow topaz, from Brazil; beryl, from Stanthorpe; rubies, from New Caledonia; sapphires, from New South Wales.

454 Queensland Government—Diorite greenstone (or lowleude), Twenty-mile Creek, Gilbert gold district.

455 Queensland Government.—Antimony ore, from New Caledonia, New Zealand, Victoria, New South Wales, and Queensland.

456 Queensland Government.—Cinnabar, or sulphurite of mercury, in granite, calc spar, and sandstone, from New South Wales and Queensland.

457 Queensland Government.—Galena, from Western Australia, Italy, South Australia, N.S. Wales, Queensland; the latter showing free gold.

458 Queensland Government.—Collection of ores of silver, from Nevada, California, Italy Europe, Queensland, &c.

459 Queensland Government—Molybdenum ore, from Ipswich, Queensland.

460 Queensland Government.—Chrome ore, from New Caledonia.

461 Queensland Government.—Agates, jaspers, cornelians, onyx, chalcedony, sardonyx, from Victoria River (of Stokes), in N.-W. Australia, &c.

462 Queensland Government.—Alabaster (a satin spar), Italy; green tourmaline, in white dolomite, from Mount St. Gothard.

463 Queensland Government.—Stone axe (extinct), aborigines of Darling Downs.

464 Queensland Government.—Oxides, silicates, sulphides, carbonates, and chloride of copper and native metal, from various parts.

465 Queensland Government.—Fossil, from carboniferous sandstone, quarried near Brisbane.

466 Queensland Government—Bone fossil (encrusted with lime crystals), from the bone caves, Mount Gambier, South Australia.

467 Queensland Government—Lode tin in various forms, from Bohemia, Cornwall, Tasmania, New South Wales, Victoria, and Queensland.

468 Queensland Government—Spinifer, Gympie; actinocrinite, Dawson River; and corals, Broken River.

469 Queensland Government.—Fossils (supposed to be the roots of a reed), Logan River.

470 Queensland Government.—Oriental agates of the ribbon, drop fortification, banded, other varieties, from Burnett and Gilbert Rivers.

471 Queensland Government.—Matrix of the Burnett River agate.

472 Queensland Government.—Quartz pebbles, from Stanthorpe; and rock crystal, from New Caledonia.

473 Queensland Government.—Yellow sapphire. Burmah; onyx, black and white; Queensland sardonyx; red and white ditto, ditto.

474 Queensland Government—Gold in calc spar and diorite, Gympie.

475 Queensland Government.—Golden pyrites, from Gympie, Charters Towers, Morinish, &c.

476 Queensland Government.—Statuary marble, Carrara, Italy.

477 Queensland Government.—Polished statuary marble, Ravenswood.

478 Queensland Government.—Polished black fossil marble, from the Broken River, tropical Queensland.

479 Queensland Government.—Statuary marble, Carrara, Italy.  

480 Queensland Government.—Turkey stone from Dungog, New South Wales; Turkey stone, for hones, &c., from the Paterson River.

481 Queensland Government—China clay (kaolin), New South Wales.

482 Queensland Government.—Antimony regulus, Victoria.
483 Queensland Department of Mines.—Refined lead and antimony.
484 Roberts, W. B., Pikedale.—Tailings, from Pikedale gold reef, Darling Downs
485 Rockhampton Committee.—Marble, limestone, oolite, freestone, copper ore, ingot and precipitate of copper.
486 Rockhampton Committee.—Six specimens marble, from Percy and other islands on the Queensland coast.
487 Selheim, P. F., Maytown.—Stream and load tin, from the Etheridge district.
488 Selheim, P. F., Warden, Maytown.—Miscellaneous specimens of ores and rocks.
489 Selheim, P. F., Maytown.—Gold in quartz, from Palmer River.
490 Selheim, P. F., Maytown.—Collection of rich quartz specimens, showing gold of high assay, from Palmer River reefs, Cape York Peninsula.
491 Simpson, A., Clifton, near Warwick.—Specimens of coal.
493 Staiger, K. T., F.L.S.—Chrome colours, prepared from Ipswich ore by exhibitor.
495 Sutton, J. W., Brisbane.—Collection of Queensland and foreign mineral ores, including gold, silver, lead, copper, tin, antimony, &c.
496 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Gypsum from the Warrego, Western Queensland. Plaster-of-Paris can be made from this.
497 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Steatite, Brisbane.
498 Trustees Queensland Museum.—China clay (kaolin), Stanthorpe.
499 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Native salt, Herbert River, tropical Queensland.
500 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Native soda, from Warrego River, Western Queensland (containing 56 per cent, carbonate of soda).
501 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Garnet sand, Cape York Peninsula (impalpable silicious powder, a substitute for emery).
502 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Plumbago, Stanthorpe.
503 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Four specimens polished marbles.
504 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Specimens of rose, white, black, yellow, and other marbles, from Calliope River, Gladstone.
505 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Specimens of black and white statuary marbles, from Warwick.
506 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Two diamonds, from Stanthorpe; two red chrysolites, from Nanango.
507 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Basaltic matrix of Gilbert River agates.
508 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Three specimens of topaz, from Stanthorpe.
509 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Calcspar, from Kilkivan.
510 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Common salt, from Mulligan River, Cape York Peninsula (97 per cent, pure chloride of sodium).
511 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Two diamonds, Stanthorpe; two blood-red garnets, one polished opal, one crystal of topaz.
512 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Diorites and serpentines, of Queensland.
513 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Native copper, from Cloncurry and Keelbottom mines, in tropical Queensland.
514 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Stone axe (aboriginal), from Kangaroo Point, Brisbane; incipient and unfinished ditto, from Port Denison.
515 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Five palæozoic coal fossils
516 Trustees Queensland Museum.—One lepidodendron, Clarke River.
517 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Section of fossil tree.
518 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Ammonites, from Walsh River, Cape York Peninsula.
519 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Hyalite, from Darling Downs; crystal of calcite.
520 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Chrome iron ore, haematite, tin specimens, copper pyrites, malachite, azurite, ruby copper, bismuth.
521 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Matrix rock of bismuth, Stanthorpe.
522 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Opal, from the Bulloo River; semi-opal, from Spring-sure.
523 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Amethyst, from Logan River; garnets in chlorite state, Cloncurry River.
524 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Fossil wood (polished), tropical Queensland.
525 Trustees Queensland Museum.—Collection of copper ores, some gold-bearing; malachite, with red tile ore.
South Australia.

Lying between 12° and 38° south latitude and 129° and 141° east longitude, the Colony of South Australia extends from Torres Straits to the Southern Ocean; and is bounded on the east by Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria; on the west by Western Australia; thus forming the centre-piece of the continent. Roughly defined, the territory is 2000 miles long by 500 miles wide, and has an area of over 903,000 square miles; but, with the exception of a small settlement on the northern coast, colonisation has hitherto been confined to the southern districts.

The southern coast-line, over 2000 miles long, is indented by two deep gulfs—St. Vincent's and Spencer's gulfs—giving access to large agricultural districts in the interior; and there are a number of small harbours, affording good anchorage for shipping. In the settled districts the principal mountain ranges are the Flinders, running northwards from the head of St. Vincent's Gulf, and the Mount Lofty range, skirting the eastern coast of the same gulf. The Murray is the only river worthy of the name running into the Southern Ocean. It is navigable for nearly 2000 miles, but unfortunately a shifting sandy bar stretches across its mouth. The country generally is watered by streams, which in the winter months attain the proportions of small rivers, but during the summer are reduced to mere creeks. Towards the north of the Murray are the large fresh-water lakes, Alexandrina and Albert.

The geological features of the colony are imperfectly known, and hitherto no secondary rocks have been discovered. The principal mountains are of palæozoic origin; and fossils found on northern Yorke's Peninsula lead to the opinion that the whole system of primary stratified rocks in the colony is silurian. The palæozoic rocks are immediately succeeded by an immense area of tertiary limestone, abundantly fossiliferous, stretching eastward to Victoria, and westward to Western Australia. The carboniferous series have not been found, nor have rocks of oolitic origin. Igneous rocks occur in many parts, and volcanic rocks are well developed in the south-east corner of the colony.

The character of the South Australian flora is intermediate between the south-east, southwest, and tropical floras of Australia, and the flora is less numerous in genera and species of plants than that of the adjoining provinces. The rapid succession of forms, and the contrast between the flora of the northern and southern parts of the colony, are remarkable. As in other parts of the continent, the eucalyptus and acacia orders prevail.

The fauna is peculiarly rich in marsupials. The most peculiar of the Australian animals are the duck-bill...
platypus and the spiny ant-eater. The fish on the coasts are imperfectly known; but nearly 700 species of birds have been found, the most remarkable being the various parrots, bower-building birds and mound-raising megapodes, and the emu.

With the exception of the northern coast, which is tropical, the climate of the whole colony is of an unusually equal character, resembling that of the southern parts of Europe. The clearness and dryness of the atmosphere are extraordinary, and happily weaken the effect of the periods of extreme heat which occur from time to time during the summer months (December to March), so that the thermometer is no true measure of the degree of the heat. The mean temperature in Adelaide is 63° Fahrenheit, the maximum registered being 116° and the minimum 32°; but in the hilly districts close to the capital, and in the south-east, the temperature is several degrees lower. The mean annual rainfall in Adelaide is about 21 inches, the greatest during a single year being 31, and the least 13. In the hilly districts it is about 30 inches, and in the south-east it is also greater than in Adelaide.

As far as is known, the aborigines were never numerous; and since the advent of the white man their numbers have diminished so rapidly as to threaten extinction within a short period. About a thousand still remain within the settled districts of South Australia.

Consequent upon Captain Sturt's explorations, the settlement of South Australia was mooted in London in 1831; but the act of authorisation was not passed till three years later. Several shiploads of settlers arrived in 1836, and on the 28th of December of that year the foundation of the colony was proclaimed by Governor Hindmarsh.

Responsible government, by a Governor and six Ministers forming the Cabinet, was established in 1856. The Upper Chamber, or Legislative Council, which cannot be dissolved by the Governor, is elected by the whole province as one district, and the electorate is based on a small property qualification. One-third of the members retire every fourth year. The House of Assembly, which is liable to dissolution by the Governor, is elected for only three years, the province being divided into electoral districts for the purpose. The electorate is based on manhood suffrage, but the services of the members are gratuitous. Each House is vested with equal powers, with the exception that the Legislative Council cannot initiate financial measures.

Local self-government is carried on in 21 towns under the form of municipal corporations, and in the country by 112 district councils, elected by ratepayers living within the limits of a proclaimed district.

The population exceeds 253,000, most of whom are employed, directly or indirectly, in the cultivation of the soil, or in the production of mineral and pastoral wealth. The native-born element already forms 60 per cent. The proportion per 1000 of the population in 1879 was—of marriages, 8¾; of births, 38¾; and of deaths, 14. The capital city is Adelaide, with a population of nearly 40,000, exclusive of the suburbs, which swell the number to about 65,000. The largest provincial towns are Port Adelaide, Glenelg, Wallaroo, The Burra, Mount Gambier, Kapunda, and Gawler.

Assisted passages are given to agricultural, mining, and other labourers, artisans, domestic servants, and other desirable colonists, on the nomination of friends already in the colony. Land-order warrants to the value of £20 are granted to persons who pay their own passages, by the Agent-General for South Australia, 8 Victoria Chambers, Westminster, London, from whom full information on the conditions of immigration can be procured.

At a rough estimate, about a quarter of a million square miles of country are at present put to more or less profitable use. Agriculture has not extended more than about 100 miles from the southern coast, and pastoral occupation cannot be said to have reached further than 500 miles, though lately squatters have taken up large areas of land in the centre of the continent. Excluding the Northern Territory, the total area of land sold by the Crown is under 9,000,000 acres, about one-fourth of which is cultivated.

Long leases, at small rentals, are offered to capitalists willing to occupy waste lands for pasture; but the main principles embodied by the land laws are—purchase after survey; deferred payments; limitation of area held upon credit to 1000 acres of ordinary lands, or 640 acres of lands reclaimed by drainage; conditions of improvement and cultivation; and, as far as possible, compulsory residence.

In 1879 there were 177,000 square miles of land leased from the Crown for pastoral purposes, 130,000 horses in the colony, 266,000 horned cattle, over 6,000,000 sheep, 90,500 pigs, and 11,200 goats. The favourite kind of sheep in the interior is the Merino; but on the coast long-wools are, in some cases, preferred. Camels have been introduced, and are proving a useful acquisition. The value of the export of wool during 1878 amounted to over £1,750,000 sterling for 56,500,000 lb.

That the general character of the land, so far as it has been tested, is favourable to agricultural settlement, may be judged from the fact that nearly half of the adult male population of the community is engaged in farming pursuits, chiefly cereal. Notwithstanding the aridity of the climate, the soil is productive, and, consequent on that dryness, the quality of the products is often excellent. Not only do English fruits, vegetables, and cereals of all kinds, grow to perfection, but many semi-tropical products do well.
Of the total area under cultivation (2,271,058 acres) nearly two-thirds is cropped with wheat, of which about 1,500,000 acres were reaped at the last harvest, yielding an aggregate of over 14,000,000 bushels. The actual production of wheat to the acre is small, averaging about 9½ bushels; but the cost of cultivation is also small. Of the quality of the wheat it is almost needless to write. It fetches the highest price in the London market, and has obtained the highest awards at every International Exhibition where it has been shown.

The extent of lands planted with vines in 1878 was over 4000 acres, and the produce of the vintage of March, 1879, was nearly half a million gallons, or about 200 gallons per acre of vines grown for wine. The greater part of this wine is consumed in the colony; but over £16,000 worth was exported in 1879. Most of the South Australian wines are of a full-bodied or sweet character; but on the hills lighter wines are readily made. The olive oil industry is also beginning to assume considerable proportions. Several thousand gallons of oil were made during the past season, and the area under olives is increasing. The oil commands a read; sale in the colony at a higher price than the imported article.

During the season 1879-80, 202,000 bushels of barley, 61,000 of oats, 58,000 of peas, 296,000 tons of hay, and 27,000 tons of potatoes, were gathered. Hops are grown with great success in the south-eastern district. Flax, tobacco, the castor oil plant, the sunflower, mustard, rape, lupin, maize, lentils, chicory, osier, broom, millet, opium, and many plant used in the distilling of perfumes, are grown in the colony in small quantities. The mulberry and silkworm thrive well; but no substantial results have as yet attended the attempt to establish sericulture.

Nearly all kinds of European fruits are produced in the colony—those of the Continent almost everywhere, and the more peculiarly English fruits in the hilly districts. Apricots, peaches, plums, and grapes are especially abundant, and are exported in considerable quantities. Raisin-making vines are largely grown, and about 80 tons of raisins, equal to the best imported, are manufactured every year. The Zante grape is also grown, and the currant-making industry promises to become of importance. During the summer season large quantities of jam are made, much of which is exported, more especially of the apricot, peach, and plum varieties.

Over £16,000,000 worth of copper have been exported since its discovery. The most famous mines are the Burra Burra, Wallaroo, and Moonta, the last two of which are still being worked. Owing to the prevailing low prices, the value of the copper export during 1879 fell to £358,000.

Several small discoveries of gold have been made from time to time; but, except in the Northern Territory, gold-mining has hitherto made little progress. The deposits of iron in the province are of great richness and extent, but they have been little worked. Lead ore is found in several places, and generally contains a proportion of silver; but the cost of smelting has hitherto prevented the extraction of the metal. Very fine roofing and paving slate quarries are being worked at Willunga and Mintaro; and gypsum found near Yorketown gives rise to a trade in plaster-of-Paris. Amongst other mineral productions found are—asbestos, baryta, bitumen, cobalt, calcspar, dolomite, fire-clay, fluorspar, Fuller's earth, kaolin clay, lignite, marble, magnesia, magnesium limestone, mica, ochre, salt, soapstone, native sulphur, and diamonds. In the south-east district a remarkable substance called coorongite is found on the surface; and a company has recently been formed to bore for oil in the locality.

With the exception of a few miles of suburban lines, all the railways, amounting to over 620 miles, have been constructed and are maintained by Government. The standard gauge for the main trunk lines is 5 ft. 3 in., but in some outlying districts the 3 ft. 6 in. gauge has been adopted. Besides a number of district roads in the charge of local municipalities, there are over 3300 miles of main roads in the colony. The most notable bridge is that at Edward's Crossing over the Murray, which is 1900 feet long. There are several other fine bridges and a number of smaller structures across the rivers and creeks in country districts.

Water has been laid on to several centres of population, including the metropolis, where a scheme of deep drainage is now being carried out. On 13 prominent points on the southern coast lighthouses have been erected, and as there is a complete system of marine survey, wrecks are not frequent.

South Australia has special reason to be proud of her postal and telegraph systems. Direct postal communication with Europe is maintained by two lines of packets, each of which despatch steamers twice a month. There is a daily overland mail to Victoria and New South Wales, besides ship mails about twice a week. A uniform rate of 2d. per ½ oz. is charged upon inland and intercolonial letters, and newspapers are forwarded free of charge to any part of the world. Over 4400 miles of telegraph lines and 6000 of wire are open to the public, and every township of any importance is connected with the capital. To South Australia belongs the honour of having constructed the trans-continental line—over 2000 miles long—which joins the Indian and Southern oceans.

The legal tribunals consist of a Supreme Court and a Court of Insolvency in Adelaide, local courts of civil jurisdiction in all the principal towns and townships, and police courts in a few chief towns to deal with petty offences, and to commit to the Supreme Court. There is an efficient police force, comprising about 300 men.

The education given at the 220 primary State-schools now open is secular, but not to the exclusion of
Bible-reading; and attendance is compulsory for children between the ages of 7 and 13. In addition to these State-schools there are a number of provisional schools in the country districts only partially under State control, and about 300 private schools, including several of the grammar-school type. Secondary education is not undertaken by the State, but higher education is provided for by the University at Adelaide. Amongst the most useful public institutions of an educational character are the Adelaide Botanic Garden and the South Australian Institute, which latter contains, under one roof, a public and circulating library, a museum, and reading-room, in Adelaide; with branches in the country districts.

The colony was founded upon principles entirely opposed to any connection between Church and State, and yet two-thirds of the population have provided themselves with accommodation for public worship. The number of churches and other buildings thus used is over 900, and the total number of sittings 150,000. About 85 per cent, of the population are Protestants, and 15 per cent. Roman Catholics. The Church of England stands numerically at the head of the denominations, but the Wesleyan Methodists have the largest number of churches. An efficient system of Sunday-schools is spread throughout the colony, and they are attended by about 40,000 children.

Ample provision is made in public, semi-private, and private institutions for the relief of the helpless sections of the community. There are hospitals for the adult sick and for children; asylums for lunatics, orphans, and neglected children, the poor and infirm, inebriates, and the deaf and dumb; a club for bushmen, and mission stations for the natives.

Well-armed forts have been erected to cover the approach to Port Adelaide, and a military road is being made along the east coast of St. Vincent's Gulf. The defence force consists of a militia of 1000 men, and a body of rifle volunteers of 500 men.

In 1879 the value of exports amounted to £4,750,000 sterling, or £19 15s. per head of the population. The imports in the same year reached £5,000,000, or about £19 18s. per head. Breadstuffs have for many years occupied a foremost place amongst the staple products; and the value of the export under this heading last year, in spite of a bad harvest, was considerably over £1,500,000 sterling, comprising over 70,000 tons of flour and 442,000 quarters of wheat. Wool is also an important staple, of which 56,500,000 lb., valued at £1,750,000 sterling, were exported. Copper has long been one of the most important sources of wealth; but, owing to the low price, the export in 1879 fell to £350,000 worth. In addition to these chief staples, a variety of minor products are annually exported, the principal items being tallow, sheepskins' bark, wine, horses and sheep, eggs, jams, leather, preserved meats, gum, hay and chaff, hides, biscuits, reaping-machines, soap, potatoes, almonds, slate, and salt. Nearly two-thirds of the trade is absorbed by the United Kingdom.

There were 1100 vessels, representing 468,000 tons, entered inwards at ports in the province in 1879, as against 1010 vessels, with 465,000 tons, cleared outwards. There is direct steam communication with London weekly, Melbourne bi-weekly, Sydney, Hobart Town, besides three lines of clipper ships trading regularly to London, and a large number of craft in the intercolonial trade.

The existing tariff was passed ostensibly for the purpose of raising revenue, and not with a view to protection. Most articles of drapery, furniture, carriages, drugs, earthenware, jewellery, leather goods, stationery, fancy goods, and fish and meat in pickle or brine, are charged 10 per cent, ad valorem; while engines not exceeding 60-horse power and agricultural implements pay 5 per cent. A number of articles are placed on the free list.

Within the last few years local industries have largely increased in number and efficiency. Most of them have their raw material at hand in the produce of the country, and are engaged in supplying local demands rather than in exporting. The chief manufactories are—steam mills, 113; wine-making establishments, 100; agricultural implement works, 43; tanneries and fellmongeries, 40; boot factories, brickyards, and breweries, each 25; saw-mills, aerated water and cordial factories, and coachbuilders' shops, each 20; clothing factories, 13; besides limekilns, soap and candle factories, bone-dust mills, glue and size works, ship and boat building yards, potteries and tile and pipe works, gas-works, dye-works, rope-walks, brush factories, biscuit bakeries, jam and confectionery factories, dried fruit and olive oil factories, and ice-works. Among other miscellaneous local productions and manufactories are—barilla, billiard-tables, baking-powder, blacking, cayenne pepper, cement, cigars, fibre, plaster-of-Paris, washing-machines, sauces and pickles, salt, gas-stoves, iron safes, bedsteads, galvanised iron tinware, and nickel-plating.

The amount of the public debt outstanding at the end of 1879 was over £9,750,000 sterling, of which £8,000,000 (about) has been raised at 4 per cent. The price of South Australian 4 per cents, at Sept. 1, 1880, was £97. The total rate of indebtedness per head of the population is near £21. Against that indebtedness (nearly £10,000,000) may be set £5,000,000 due to the Government by credit selectors, and public works to the value of, say, £8,000,000.

The general revenue for the financial year ending June 30th, 1880, amounted to £1,831,161, as against an expenditure of £1,853,112. The total taxation in 1879 was about £2 per head of the population. £1 19s. of which
was raised by Customs' duties.

Eight banking institutions carry on business within the province—viz., the Bank of South Australia, National Bank of Australasia, Union Bank of Australia, Bank of Australasia' English, Scottish, and Australian Chartered Bank; Bank of Adelaide, Bank of New South Wales, the Commercial Bank of South Australia. The total average liabilities of the eight banks at the end of June, 1880, amounted to £4,555,045; and the assets to £7,370,531.

**The Northern Territory.**

The Northern Territory is the name given to that portion of the colony lying between the 129th and 138th degrees of east longitude, and north of the 26th parallel south latitude. It contains an area of 531,000 square miles. The nucleus of settlement is at Port Darwin. The climate is tropical, and with two marked seasons—the wet season from the end of October to the end of March, and the dry season. North Australia is remarkable for the number and size of its rivers, many of which are navigable.

The character of the soil in so large an area is necessarily variable; but its general fertility is unquestionable, and nearly all tropical plants, including maize, cotton, and the sugar-cane, have been grown successfully in the Botanic Garden at Palmerston. About 200,000 square miles of country have been taken up for pastoral purposes, and liberal regulations have been framed to encourage pastoral settlement.

Gold-mining has hitherto been the only industry carried on to any extent. Some splendid nuggets—recently one of 42 lb. weight—have been obtained from the alluvial diggings, and the quartz-crushing returns have in many cases shown from 4 oz. to 6 oz. to one ton.

The population of the settlement is estimated at about 400 whites, 30 Malays, and 2010 Chinese.

**South Australian Exhibits.**

**I. Works of Art.**

**Class 1.—Oil Paintings.**

1 Crabb, Miss B. A., Adelaide.—"Native Encampment."
3 Gwynne, Miss E. C., Payneham.—(1) "Scene on Huon River, Tasmania;" (2) "Lake Bourget, Aix-les-Bains, France."
4 Hambridge, Miss H., Artist, Kensington.—(1) "Evening Lounge in Morocco," (2) "South Australian Heather."
5 M'Cormac, A., Artist, Adelaide.—(1) "The Bushman," (2) "S.A. Pioneer."
6 Mayfield & Sons, Upholsterers, Adelaide.—"The Prince of Wales," by J. Balfour.
8 Scott, D. W., Alberton.—"Terrier Dogs."
9 Shaw, R. H., Artist, Adelaide.—"Native Corroboree."
11 Solomon, S., Artist, Adelaide.—(1) "Royal Family," (2) "Governor of South Australia."
12 Wright, Mrs. E. W., Adelaide.—"The Sour Apple," by A. Rippingille, R.A.

**Class 2.—Various Paintings and Drawings.**

13 Bonney, A. E., Draughtsman, Adelaide.—Etching—"Seaside Reflections."
14 Crabb, Miss B. A., Adelaide.—(1) "Shells and Seaweeds," (2) "Group of Flowers."
15 Hambridge, Miss, Artist, Kensington.—(1) "Cherubim," a ter Raphael; (2) "Fanny Kemble," (3) "Pride of the Harem."
15a Johnson, J. C. F., Adelaide.—Cartoons, &c.
16 Twopeny, Mrs. R. E. N., Amateur, Hackney.—(1) "Sydney Harbour," (2) "Sydney Exhibition."
Class 3.—Sculpture and Die-sinking.

17 Bagalini, A., Sculptor, Kapunda—Marble statue—"The May Queen."
18 Royal Agricultural and Horticultural Society, Adelaide.—Specimen of silver and bronze medals awarded by the Society.
19 Schmidt, D., Die-sinker, Adelaide.—Specimen of engraving and die-sinking.
20 South Australian Institute, The Board of Governors of.—Prize medal, London Exhibition, 1851, awarded to S.A. wheat-growers.

Class 4.—Architectural Drawings and Models.

21 Lockwood, J. W., Adelaide.—Architectural drawing, front elevation.
22 M'Minn, W., Adelaide—(1) Perspective drawing of exterior of Adelaide University, (2) perspective drawing of interior of staircase, &c.

II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.

Class 6.—Education of Children, Primary Instruction, Instruction of Adults.


Class 9.—Printing, Books.

24 Chamber of Manufactures, Adelaide.—Papers read before the Chamber.
25 Commissioners for South Australia, The—Various publications.
26 Schomburgk, R., Director of Botanic Gardens, Adelaide.—Report and catalogue of plants in the Botanic Gardens.
27 Twopeny, R. E. N., Hackney.—Sketch of South Australia.

Class 10.—Stationery, Bookbinding, Painting and Drawing Materials.

28 Braddock & Sons, Manufacturing Chemists, Brompton.—Black printing inks (four varieties).
29 Cargeeg, G. H., News Agent, Adelaide.—Chromograph copying apparatus, for multiplying circulars, plans, &c.
30 Commissioners for South Australia, The.—Specimens of bookbinding.
31 Spiller, E., Government Printer, Adelaide.—Specimens of bookbinding, stationery, and letterpress.
32 Williams, J., Account Book Manufacturer, Adelaide.—Account-books in various bindings, specimens of embossing, lithography, &c.

Class 11.—General Application of the Arts of Drawing and Modelling.

33 Commissioners for South Australia, The.—Wax models of fruits grown in the colony.
34 Roach, T. W., Wood Carver, Adelaide.—(1) Pediment, for chiffonniere; (2) bracket, for clock; (3) shield, (4) carved bird.

Class 12.—Photographic Proofs and Apparatus.

35 Commissioners for South Australia, The.—Photographs of scenery, buildings, &c.
37 Hambridge, Miss H., Artist, Kensington.—Coloured photographs.
38 Niesche, C. F., Photographer, Adelaide.—Rembrandt photographs.
39 Sweet, s. W., Photographer, Adelaide.—Landscape photographic views.
40 Wright, A. E., Clerk, Adelaide.—Photograph of the Bank of South Australia.

**Class 13.—Musical Instruments.**

41 Robertson, J. N., Chowilla, Overland Corner.—Three colonial-made violins.

**Class 16.—Maps, and Geographical and Cosmo-graphical Apparatus.**

42 Commissioners for South Australia, The.—Statistical plans and diagrams, register, and sketch.
43 Goyder, G. W., Surveyor-General, Adelaide.—Slaps and plans.
43a Kelly, R. S., Adelaide.—Diagram, showing the rate of interest corresponding to the selling price of 4 per cent. £100 bonds.
44 Smith, C. W., City Engineer, Adelaide.—Portion plan of city of Adelaide, 80 feet to 1 inch, reduced by photo-lithography.

**III. Furniture and Accessories.**

**Class 17.—Cheap and Fancy Furniture.**

45 Brice, R., Sawyer, Adelaide—Octagon loo-table, inlaid with 8000 pieces of colonial woods.
46 Buttery Brothers, Upholsterers, Adelaide.—Davenport, made of Huon pine.
47 Francis, W. S., Glencelg.—Ornamental firescreen, composed of about 100 species of cones, chiefly South Australian.
48 Fraser, H., Adelaide.—Three marble mantelpieces.
49 Gay, P., Adelaide.—(1) Table, inlaid with 30,000 pieces South Australian woods; (2) chest of drawers, with 17,000 pieces ditto; (3) wardrobe.
50 Glassford, Miss A. C., Semaphore.—Fancy frames, brackets, &c.
50a Graham, F. W., Yankalilla.—Tables inlaid with South Australian woods.
51 Herring, E. N., Adelaide.—(1) Mantelpiece of Italian marble, carving designed and executed by colonial-bred workmen; (2) marble mantelpiece, do.
52 Landsberg-, Mrs., Kapunda.—Wool-work picture, representing Mary, Queen of Scots, abdicating the Crown.
54 Watson, G. G., Adelaide.—Table, inlaid with colonial stones, after Masonic design.
55 West-Erskine, W. A. E., Adelaide.—(1) Room-cooler, (2) coal scuttle and scoop combined, (3) bedroom ventilator.

**Class 20.—Pottery.**

56 South Australian Brick Co., Brompton.—Fire-bricks, plain and fancy white; pressed and slop red bricks.

**Class 21.—Carpets, Tapestry, and other Stuffs for Furniture.**

57 Commissioners for South Australia, The.—Drawingroom hearthrugs and mats, made of skins of colonial animals.
58 Landsberg, Mrs., Kapunda.—Crochet quilt.
59 Neelsen, J. P., Upholsterer, Adelaide.—Curled horse-hair.

**Class 23.—Cutlery.**

60 M'Lean Brothers, Rigg & Co., Wholesale Ironmongers, Adelaide.—Knives, corkscrews, and other cutlery of South Australian manufacture.
Class 24.—Goldsmiths' and Silversmiths' Work.
61 Steiner, H., Goldsmith and Silversmith, Adelaide.—Ornamental ware, in sterling silver.

Class 26.—Clocks and Watches.
62 Perryman, Mrs. E. M., Adelaide.—Marine clock, striking ships' bells.

Class 27.—Apparatus and Processes for Heating and Lighting.
63 Brown, O. C.E., Adelaide.—Model of patent ventilator and chimney-top, for preventing down-draught and creating upward current of air.
64 Chambers, A. O., Manufacturer, Adelaide.—Two "Perfect Cure" washing-machines.
65 Fischer, A., Plumber, Adelaide.—"Star" washing-machine.
66 Gerner, P., Cooper, Adelaide.—Two of Hutton's washing-machines.
67 Gray, W. F., Plumber and Galvanised-iron Worker, Adelaide.—Model of ventilator used in the South Australian public schools.
68 Simpson, A., & Son, Manufacturers, Adelaide.—(1) Bedsteads, (2) patent stoves, (3) portable copper, (4) wine strainer, (5) patent oven, &c.

Class 28.—Perfumery.
70 Burford, W. H., & Sons, Soap and Candle Makers, Adelaide.—(1) Toilet soaps, (2) silversmiths' and emery soaps.

Class 29.—Leather-work, Fancy Articles, and Basket-work.
71 Bennet, R.H., Mail Driver, Morgan.—Emu eggs, carved and painted.
72 Commissioners for South Australia, The.—Basket-work, consisting of chairs, music-holder, and fruit-stands.
73 Cox, Miss E., Hampstead.—Bead-work on velvet (four pieces).
74 Crabb, Miss B. A., North Adelaide.—Poonah painting—front of pole fire-screen.
75 Fiveash, Miss M. E., North Adelaide.—Flower painting on white velvet table-top.
75a Malpas, W. H., Adelaide.—Specimens of turnery.
76 Nelson, Mrs. & Miss, Port Adelaide.—Ornaments worked in seeds.
77 Tannert, O. E., Basket Manufacturer, Adelaide.—Basketware.
78 Tilney, Miss M. A., Music Teacher, Adelaide.—Collection of colonial seaweed, in leather-work frames.
79 Wadham, W., Auctioneer, Adelaide.—Shell, work basket.

IV. Textile Fabrics, Clothing, and Accessories.

Class 31.—Thread and Fabrics of Flax, Hemp, &c.
80 Chamber of Manufactures, Adelaide.—Flax, and linen made therefrom.

Class 34.—Silk and Silk Fabrics.
81 Chamber of Manufactures, Adelaide.—Reeled and raw silk, and cocoons.
82 Thorup, E., Gawler.—Silk, twisted.
83 Wurm, F., Adelaide.—Reeled and raw silk, and cocoons.

Class 38.—Clothing for both Sexes.

Class 39.—Jewellery and Precious Stones.
Class 40.—Portable Weapons, and Hunting and Shooting Equipments.

87 South Australian Institute, The Board of Governors of, Adelaide.—Native weapons and implements.

Class 41.—Travelling Apparatus and Camp Equipage.

88 Polhill, B., Portmanteau Manufacturer, Adelaide.—Portmanteaus and other leather goods.

V. Raw and Manufactured Products.

Class 43.—Products of the Cultivation of Forests and of the Trades appertaining thereto.

89 Brown, J. E., Conservator of Forests, Adelaide.—16 samples of South Australian timber, with accompanying sketches and pamphlets.

90 Cornish, J., & Co., Bark Grinders, Gorge.—Ground mimosa bark, mimosa powder, and bundle of stick bark.

91 Davenport, S., Beaumont.—Myall and sandalwood.

91a Hardy, Arthur, M.P., Mount Lofty.—Cork from Quercus suber, grown at Mount Lofty, near Adelaide.

92 Peacock, W., & Sons, Merchants, Adelaide.—Chopped bark as sent to Europe, as delivered by stripper, rough and fine ground.

93 Pflaum & Co., Blumberg.—Black wattle bark (Acacia pyenanthe), ground for tanning purposes.

94 Schomburgk, R., Director of Botanic Gardens, Adelaide.—16 samples of South Australian timber, comprising specimens of forest trees.

95 Wilke, H., & Co., Port Adelaide.—(1) Port Mac-donnell ground wattle bark, (2) Adelaide wattle bark, (3) wattle gum, (4) Yacka gum.

Class 44.—Products of Hunting, Shooting, Fishing, and Spontaneous Products. Machines and Instruments connected therewith.

96 Bean Brothers, Wool Brokers, Adelaide.—Stuffed birds, from south-east district of the colony.

96a Bright, C. E., M.P., Gawler.—(1) Alligator's egg and shells, from Northern Territory; (2) fossils, from Hanging Rocks, Mount Gambier.

97 South Australian Institute, The Board of Governors of Adelaide.—Collection of native animals, stuffed; also birds.

Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food.

98 Angas, J. H., Stockholder, Collingrove.—(1) Lincoln lambskin, dressed; (2) samples of wool, and photographs of sheep.

99 Chamber of Manufactures, Adelaide.—Silk cocoons, raw flax, and sea-island cotton.

100 Goyder, G., jun., manufacturer, Adelaide.—Almond, colza, linseed, and sunflower oils.

101 Hardy, T., Vigneron, Bankside.—Almond oil.

102 Holtze, M., Government Gardener, Palmerston.—Oils, ground-nut seed and plant, Upland cotton, Ramee fibre and tobacco.

103 Murray, J., Stockholder, Mount Crawford.—Samples of wool.

104 Nitschke, W., Distiller, Hackney.—Samples eucalyptus oil, oil of Melaleuca uncinata, and fusil oil.

105 Rogers, A. H., Farmer, Ashburne.—Beeswax.

106 Sanders, J., & Co., Stockholders, Mount Crawford.—Samples of wool.

107 Todd, C., C.M.G., Postmaster-General.—Samples wool, grown off ration sheep at telegraph station in
centre of Australia.

**Class 46.—Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products.**


110 Centauri, A., Veterinary Surgeon, Adelaide.—"Time" metal polish.

111 Conigrave, B. H. & N., Manufacturers, Macclesfield.—Aërated waters, assorted.

112 Evans, W., Valet, Government House, Adelaide.—Boot varnish.

113 Hall, G., & Sons, Aërated Water Manufacturers, Norwood.—Aërated waters—viz., soda, seltzer, tonic, lemonade, ginger ale, sarsaparilla.


115 Tidmarsh, J., Soap and Candle Maker, Adelaide.—(1) Stearine, (2) stearine candles, (3) soap.

116 Tocchi, A, Salt Works, Yorketown.—Salt-unrefined, fine, butchers', table, and lump.

**Class 48.—Leather and Skins.**

117 Commissioners for South Australia, The.—Rugs and skins of indigenous animals.


**VI. Machinery—Apparatus and Processes used in the Mechanical Industries.**

**Class 49.—Agricultural Implements and Processes used in the Cultivation of Fields and Forests.**

119 Commissioners for South Australia, The.—Bone-dust and guano.


121 Martin, J., & Co., Gawler.—Damp weather reaping-machine, with patent bearings and axles; ordinary reaping-machine; chaff-cutters, &c.

122 Mellor Brothers, Machinists, Adelaide.—(1) Double plough, fitted with patent wheels and axles; (2) pony reaping-machine.


**Class 60.—Apparatus and Processes used in Agricultural Works, and in Works for the Preparation of Food.**

124 Adams, E. J., Cooper and Vat Builder, Adelaide.—(1) Box churn, (2) oval chum, (3) oval miniature 500-gallon cask, (4) miniature vat, &c., &c.

125 Gerner, F. K., Cooper, Adelaide.—Cheese vats.

126 Moody, T., Cooper, Adelaide.—(1) Churn, (2) curd milk.

127 Warren & Hogarth, Stockholders, Mount Crawford.—Model of wool scourer.

128 Williams & Dixon, Machinists, Adelaide.—Grape-mill.

**Class 52.—Machines and Apparatus in general.**

129 Bird, J., Brassfounder, Adelaide.—Collection of brassfounders' ware.

130 Hooker, J. f Machinist, Adelaide.—(1) Boiler plates, (2) iron castings.

131 Smith, C. A., Machinist, Adelaide.—Specimens of machinery work.

**Class 54.—Apparatus and Processes used in Spinning and Rope-making.**
132 Tamlin & Coombe, Rope Manufacturers, Adelaide.—Manila and New Zealand hemp rope.

**Class 60.—Carriages and Wheelwrights' Work.**

133 Barlow, T., & Sons, Coachbuilders, Adelaide.—Landau carriage.
134 Cottrell, T. L., Coachbuilder, Adelaide.—Excelsior jump-seat buggy; Parisian phaeton; spring park barouche.
136 Starnes, W., Coachbuilder, Kent Town.—Spider buggy, with lock under.

**Class 62.—Railway Apparatus.**

137 Hossack, D., Machinist, Adelaide.—Model of Mansell's patent railway-carriage wheel.

**Class 64.—Apparatus and Processes of Civil Engineering, Public Works, and Architecture.**

138 Allen, J., Willunga.—Roofing-slates.
139 Commissioners for South Australia, The.—Building-stone.
140 Crozier, J., Adelaide.—Gypsum.
141 Frew, J., Mount Gambier.—Freestone (white and grey), and red dolomite.
142 Gawler & Willaston Lime Co., Gawler.—Lime.
143 Priest, T., Mintaro.—Flagstones.
144 Tocchi, A, Yorketown.—Plaster-of-Paris and silt works; gypsum, and plaster-of-Paris (8s. 6d. per bag of 1½ cwt.).
145 Turner, J., Farmer, Mount Torrens.—Limestone.

**Class 65.—Navigation and Life-saving.**

147 West-Erskine, W. A. E., Adelaide.—Model of chain breakwater.

**Class 66.—Materials and Apparatus for Military Purposes.**

148 Downes, Col., R.A., for Military Department of South Australia.—Models of projectiles, cartridges, and Moncrieff battery.

**VII. Alimentary Products.**

**Class 67.—Cereals, Farinaceous Products, and Products derived from them.**

149 Angas, J. H., Farmer, Collingrove.—(1) Purple-straw wheat, (2) white Lammas wheat, (3) Tuscan wheat.
150 Brook, W., Farmer, Woodchester.—(1) Purple-straw wheat, (2) white wheat.
151 Commissioners for South Australia, The.—Wheat; Cape, Scotch, and English barley; Cape oats, rye, and field peas.
153 Duffield, W., & Co., Millers, Gawler.—Flour, roller-made and ordinary.
154 Finck, C., Miller, Greenock.—Flour.
155 Frame, J., Farmer, Mount Barker.—Oats.
156 Giles & Smith, Merchants, Adelaide.—Flour.
157 Harrison, W., & Co., Millers, Port Adelaide.—Flour.
158 Holtze, M., Palmerston.—Hill rice, ninety-day maize, Egyptian corn, millet, arrowroot.
159 Kneese & Stoneman, Millers, Crystal Brook.—Flour from purple-straw wheat, grown by J. Thyer.
160 Magarey & Co., Millers, Adelaide.—Flour.
161 Paterson, R., Farmer, Smithfield.—Purple-straw wheat.
162 Perryman, J., Farmer, Koolunga.—“Scotch Wonder” wheat.
164 Thomas, W., & Co., Millers, Port Adelaide.—Flour.
165 Thyer, J., Farmer, Bclalic.—(1) Callabys purple-straw wheat, (2) Frame's white Tuscan wheat.
166 Venning, W. J., Farmer, Crystal Brook.—(1) Old red-straw wheat, (2) white Lammas wheat, (3) purple-straw wheat.
167 Webb, A. W., Miller, Lyndoch Valley.—Flour (two samples).

Class 68.—Bread and Pastry.
168 Commissioners for South Australia, The.—Biscuits (various kinds).

Class 69.—Fatty Substances used as Food. Milk and Eggs.
169 Anderson & Co., Adelaide.—Olive oil.
170 Barnard, G. L., Oil Manufacturer, Walker-ville.—Olive oil.
171 Chiles, S., Oil Manufacturer, Unley.—Olive oil.
172 Davenport, S., Olive Grower, Beaumont.—Olive oil.
173 Hardy, T., Olive Grower, Bankside.—Olive oil.
174 Howell, J., H.M. Gaol, Adelaide.—Olive oil.

Class 70.—Meat and Fish.
175 Bourbaud, E., North Adelaide.—Collection of preserved meats.

Class 71.—Vegetables and Fruit.
176 Commissioners for South Australia, The.—Field peas.
177 Ethell, J., Adelaide.—Aniseed grown wild on banks of River Torrens.
178 Hackett, E. & W., Seedsmen, Adelaide.—Peas, beans, &c.
179 Hardy, T., Vigneron, Bankside.—Raisins and Zantecurrants; dried figs, prunes, apricots, apples, almonds, and peas; preserved olives; marmalade.
180 Hay, Hon. A., Linden.—Raisins from 1879 vintage.
181 Robson, T. B., Fruit Dryer, Payneham.—(1) Muscatel raisins, in layers; (2) pudding raisins.
182 Schomburgk, R., Director Botanic Gardens, Adelaide.—Collection of fungi.

Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery.
185 Bourbaud, E., Adelaide.—(1) Lemon jam, (2) orange jam.
186 Burton & Co., Waverley Vinegar Works, Adelaide.—Vinegar—viz., brown malt, white wine, crystal, assorted, and table.
187 Hall, G., & Sons, Manufacturers, Norwood.—Collection of cordials.
188 Hammer, J., Grocer, Adelaide.—Mushroom ketchup, tomato sauce.
189 Hardy, T., Vigneron, Bankside.—Vinegar, crude tartar, candied-peel.
190 Holtze, M., Government Gardener, Palmerston.—Sugar-cane.
191 Irwin & Miller, Confectioners, Adelaide.—Confectionery, assorted.
192 M'Ewin, G., & Sons, Manufacturers, Glen Ewin.—Assorted jams.
193 Nitschke, W., Manufacturer, Hackney.—Boonekamp and stomach bitters, Kümmel.
194 Seppelt, B., Manufacturer, Scapeltsfield.—Collection of cordials.
195 Stark, C. A., Manufacturer, Wirrabara.—Tomato sauce.
196 Terry, W. D., Manufacturer, Belair.—Collection of assorted jams.
197 Whitehead, J., Gardener, Mount Gambier.—Tomato sauce.

Class 73.—Fermented Drinks.
**SUB-CLASS I.—Ales and Porters.**

198 Conigrave, B. N. & H., Brewers, Macclesfield.—Stock ale, bottled ale.
199 Goodier, W., & Co., Brewers, Glanville.—Bottled ale, bottled porter.
200 Knapman, W. H., Bottler, Port Adelaide.—Bottled porter.
201 Laura Brewery Co., Laura.—Bottled ale.

**SUB-CLASS II.—Spirits.**

203 Nitschke, W., Distiller, Hackney.—Old Tom gin, spirits of wine, brandy, rum, rum punch.
204 Seppelt, B., Distiller, Seppeltsfield.—Spirits of wine, pale brandy, whisky, ginger brandy, cherry brandy.

**SUB-CLASS III.—Wines.**

**Division I.—NATURAL. Sub-Division A.—LIGHT.**

(1.)—LIGHT-COLOURED.

206 Baker, R., Vigneron, Adelaide.—Morillion, 1878; Morillion, &c., 1877.
207 Gilbert, J., Vigneron, Pewsey Vale.—Pewsey Vale Riesling, 1869 to 1875; Pewsey Vale Riesling, 1872; Pewsey Vale (Riesling and Verdeilho), 1869.
208 Hardy, T., Vigneron, Bankside.—Riesling, 1872.
209 Jacob, W., Vigneron, Moorooroo.—Verdeilho, 1880.
211 Seppelt, B., Vigneron, Seppeltsfield.—Blanquettede Limoux, A., 1876; Blanquettede Limoux, B., 1877.
212 Smith & Son, Vignerons, Yalumba.—Ruschette, 1877.
213 S.A. United Vineyards Association, Adelaide.—Riesling, 1872; Pedro Ximenes, 1874! Hock, 1872 (Riesling and Tokay).
214 White, E., Vigneron, Fullarton.—Doradilla, 1871; Pedro Ximenes, 1871; Palo Mino Blanco, 1878; Doradilla, 1872; Doradilla, 1876.
215 Wigg, R. H., & Sons, Wine Merchants, Adelaide.—Doradilla, 1870; Verdeilho, 1869; S.A. Hock, 1869; Sauterne, 1869; Sweetwater, 1865.
216 Wood, A., Vigneron, Yankalilla.—Verdeilho, 1875.

(2.)—RED.

217 Auld, W. P., Vigneron, Auldana.—Auldana ruby. No. 14, 1876; Auldana ruby. No. 1, 1877; Auldana ruby cup, 1878; Auldana ruby, C., 1876.
218 Elder, Sir T., Vigneron, Birksgate.—Birksgate Hermitage, 1873 (medium); Birksgate Hermitage, 1877.
219 Gilbert, J., Vigneron, Pewsey Vale.—Pewsey Vale Carinbent, 1869 to 1878; Carinbent, 1870; Carinbent, 1869; Cabernet, 1872 and 1873.
220 Hardy, T., Vigneron, Bankside.—No. 1 Claret, 1874.
221 Jacob, w., Vigneron, Moorooroo.—Carinbent and Shiraz, 1877; Carinbent and Shiraz, 1875.
222 Penfold & Co., Vignerons, Magill.—Mataro, 1876 and 1877.
223 Smith, S., & Son, Vignerons, Yalumba.—Claret, 1877 (Scyras and Tokay).
224 S.A. United Vineyards Association, Adelaide.—Carinbent, 1871; Burgundy, 1872; Claret, 1872.
225 White, Eliza, Vigneron, Adelaide.—Ferastes colora, 1873.
226 Wigg, R. H., & Sons, Wine Merchants, Adelaide.—Carinbent, 1874; Burgundy, 1874; S.A. Claret, 1875; Shiraz, 1865.

**Sub-Division B—FULL-BODIED.**

(1.)—LIGHT-COLOURED.

227 Crompton, J., Vigneron, Stonyfell.—Sercial, 1875 and 1876; Tokay, 1877.
228 Davenport, S., Vigneron, Beaumont.—Sercial, 1874.
229 Hardy, T., Vigneron, Bankside.—Sauvignon Blanc, 1877.
230 Hay, Hon. A., M.L.C., Linden.—Tokay, 1876.
231 Holbrook, J. D., Vigneron, Underdale.—Madeira (Verdeilho), 1878.
232 Kaines, J. H., Vigneron, Adelaide.—Tokay, 1874; Verdeilho, 1871.
233 S.A. United Vineyards Association, Adelaide.—Madeira, 1874 (Portugal and Muscatel).

(2.)—RED.
234 Davenport, S., Vigneron, Beaumont.—Shiraz, 1876; Shiraz, 1868; Grenache, 1874.
235 Gillard, J., Vigneron, Norwood.—Mataro, 1863 and 1867; Shiraz, 1869.
236 Hardy, T., Vigneron, Bankside.—Higher-combe red, 1872; Shiraz, 1873.
237 Holbrook, J. D., Vigneron, Underdale.—Burgundy, 1875 (Shiraz).
238 Kaines, J. H., Vigneron, Adelaide.—Shiraz, 1869; Shiraz, 1874.
239 Penfold & Co., Vignerons, Magill.—Madeira, 1876, 1877, 1878 (Mataro and Grenache).
240 S.A. United Vineyards Association, Adelaide.—Tintilla, 1872 (shiraz); Constantia, 1872 (red Muscat).
241 Wood, A., Vigneron, Yankalilla.—Scyras, 1877.

Division II.—Fortified Wines.

Sub-Division A.—SWEET OR LIQUEUR WINES.
242 Baker, R., Vigneron, Adelaide.—Madeira, 1873; Shiraz, &c., 1878; Shiraz, &c., 1877; Liqueur, 1877 (Frontignac).
243 Gilbert, J., Vigneron, Pewsey Vale.—Frontignac, 1870.
244 Gillard, J., Vigneron, Norwood.—Constantia, 1868-9 (Mataro and Frontignac); Madeira, 1868.
245 Hardy, T., Vigneron, Bankside.—Muscat, 1876; Donzelhino, 1873.
246 Penfold & Co., Vignerons, Magill.—Red Madeira, 1879; Frontignac, 1879; Verdeilho, 1879; Hermitage, 1879; Constantia, 1877; Muscadine, &c.
247 Salter, W., & Sons, Vignerons, Angaston.—Sweet white, No. 2, 1876 (Sherry, &c.).
248 Smith, S., & Son, Vignerons, Yalumba.—Sweet Frontignac, 1869.
249 Wigg, R. H., & Sons, Wine Merchants, Adelaide.—Muscat, 1873.
250 Wood, A., Vigneron, Yankalilla.—Scyras, 1878.

Sub-Division B.—FULL-BODIED.

(A.)—LIGHT-COLOURED.
251 Elder, Sir T., Vigneron, Birksgate.—Birksgate Madeira, 1875 (Sercial).
252 Gillard, J., Vigneron, Norwood.—Sherry, 1873.
253 Holbrook, J. D., Vigneron, Underdale.—Sherry, 1870; "Old Light," 1872; Light wine, 1876.
254 Penfold & Co., Vignerons, Magill.—Muscadine, 1875-6; Madeira, 1875-6; Tokay, 1875-6.
255 Salter, W., & Sons, Vignerons, Angaston.—S.A. Sherry, 1875; sweet white, No. 1, 1874.
256 Seppelt, B., Vigneron, Seppeltfield.—Sherry, A., 1876; Sherry, B., 1876; Frontignac, A., 1876; Frontignac, B., 1877.
257 Smith, S., & Son, Vignerons, Yalumba.—Sherry, 1875; Constantia, 1877; Verdeilho, 1877; Muscatel, 1876; Frontignac, 1876.
258 S-A. United Vineyards Association, Adelaide.—Sherry, 1874 (Pedro Ximenes and Tempiprana); Muscatel, 1876.
259 Wigg, R. H., & Son, Merchants, Adelaide.—S.A. Sherry, 1874.

(B.)—RED.
260 Elder, Sir T., Vigneron, Birksgate.—Birksgate Port, 1872 (Shiraz, Grenache, Mataro, and black Portugal).
261 Hay, Hon. A., M.L.C., Linden.—Linden red, 1876 (Grenache and Mataro).
262 Holbrook, J. D., Vigneron, Underdale.—Port, 1872 (Mataro and Shi az); red wine, 1873 (Shiraz); "Old Red," 1870 (Shiraz).
263 Penfold & Co., Vignerons, Magill.—Constantia, 1877 (Shiraz, Mataro, and Grenache).
264 Salter, W., & Son, Vignerons, Angaston.—S.A. Port, 1875; Shiraz, No. 1, 1870; Shiraz, No. 2, 1874;
Sweet red, 1876; Constantia, 1875.

265 Seppelt, B., Vigneron, Seppeltsfield.—Port A., 1875; Port B., 1877.

266 Smith, S., & Sons, Vigneron, Yalumba—Port, 1871 (Scyras and Mataro).

267 S. A. United Vineyards Association, Adelaide.—Port, 1874 (black Portugal and Shiraz).

268 White, Eliza. Vigneron, Fullarton.-Shiraz, A., 1871; Shiraz, B., 1871; Burgundy Port, 1870: Pomard, 1870.

269 Wigg, R. H., & Sons, Wine Merchants, Adelaide.—Shiraz, 1874; S.A. Port, 1874; Old Constantia, 1874.

Sub-division C.—LIGHT WINES.

270 Jacob, W., Vigneron, Moorooroo.—Frontignac, 1877-8 (sweetish).

271 Smith, S., & Son, Vigneron, Yalumba—Still Champagne, 1878 (Sherry).

272 S.A. United Vineyards Association, Adelaide.—Sherry, 1874 (Pedro Ximenes and Temprana).

273 Wigg, R. H., & Sons. Wine Merchants, Adelaide.—Madeira, 1874; Tokay, 1875 (fruity); Frontignac, 1875 (fruity).

Division III.—Sparkling Wines.


IX. Horticulture.

Class 77—Vegetables; and Class 78—Fruit and Fruit Trees.

275 Commissioners for South Australia, The.—Seasonable fruits, renewed once a fortnight.

276 Hackett, E. & W., Seedsmen, Adelaide.—Seeds of fruits, vegetables, &c., grown in South Australia

X. Mining Industries—Machinery and Products.

Class 81.—Apparatus and Processes of the Art of Mining and Metallurgy.

277 Clark, F., & Sons, Engineers, Adelaide.—Samples of tools and tubes for Artesian-well boring.

278 Martin, J., & Co., Machinists, Gawler.—Warren and May's patent ore separator (model).

279 Sanders, J., Burra Burra.—Jigging machine and ore separator (model).

Class 82.—Mining and Metallurgy.

280 Angas, J. H., Sheep Farmer, Collingrove.—Soils from Collingrove, Hill River, and Mt. Remarkable districts.

281 Atkinson, T., Willunga.—Soils, from Willunga district.

282 Atyeo, F., Mt. Gambier.—Stalagmites, stalactites, fossils and lava, from south-east district of colony.

283 Brook, W., Farmer, Woodchester.—Marl.

284 Cobbledick, F. B., Farmer, Yorke's Peninsula—Soils from the Hundreds of Maitland and Kalkeroon.

285 Cobbledick, J., Farmer, Summerton.—Soils, from Mt. Lofty Ranges.

286 Commissioners for South Australia, The.—Representative collection of South Australian minerals and mineral ores.

287 Crabb, R. S., Adelaide.—Malachite, from Burra Burra Mine.


289 Edwards, J., Farmer, Jamestown.—Soils, from Jamestown district.

290 English & Australian Copper Co. Port Adelaide.—(1) Smelted copper, in ingots, tiles bars, &c.; (2) copper ores.
Western Australia.

(Prepared under the authority of the Western Australia Commission.)

Western Australia, though of greater extent than any of her sister colonics, has less to show of the effects of industry applied to natural productions; not, indeed, from any deficiency in the gifts which Nature has scattered with liberal hand, and not unequally, over the surface of this island-continent, but from the want of sufficiency of labour and money capital to utilise them.

Occupying the entire western portion of Australia, beyond the 129th meridian east from Greenwich—in length, from north to south, 1490; and in breadth, from east to west, 865 miles, with an area of 1,060,000 square miles, or 678,400,000 acres—the western colony has only a scattered population of some 28,000, or one to every 40 square miles. But that this is not the result of any natural inferiority will appear to those who take the trouble to inspect carefully the specimens of the products of her land and water in the Exhibition, and compare them, more especially, with the area of land in occupation by her sparse population, which is as follows:—

As it is not from natural deficiency or want of industry that Western Australia is behind in the race for prosperity, the cause must be sought for in her, until lately, isolated position, the want of those stimulants which have elsewhere induced large immigration, such as the discovery of goldfields, and the influx of capital from the funds of emigration companies in England.

The following table gives the number of the population in each of the twelve districts into which the colony is divided, according to the census of March, 1871:—

At the end of 1877 the estimated population of the colony was 27,876.
The administration of Western Australia is vested in a Governor, who exercises the executive functions. There is, besides, a Legislative Council, consisting of seven appointed and fourteen elected members, the latter returned by the votes of all male inhabitants of full age assessed in a rental of at least £10. The qualification for elected members is the possession of landed property valued at £1000.

Rather more than one-third of the public income is derived from customs duties, and the rest mainly from licenses and leases of Crown lands, and land sales.

The colony has an imperial grant in aid, amounting to £15,324 per annum.

The revenue and expenditure of the colony during the seven years from 1872 to 1878 were as follows:—

Western Australia had a public debt of £361,000 at the end of June, 1879, the total including a loan of 4½ per cent, raised in 1879 for the construction of a railway.

The valuable forests claim the first notice, on account of their extent and the variety and quality of their useful products. The most important portion of these is situated to the south and west, and is estimated by the Surveyor-General to cover an area of 30,000 square miles; and of this the areas occupied by six of the principal eucalypti are—

But on this subject it may be sufficient to quote the opinions of Baron Yon Mueller, as given in his report on the forest resources of Western Australia. Of the spontaneous resources he writes thus:—44 The forest regions of extra-tropic West Australia occupy an area equal to the whole territory of Great Britain; and it is singularly fortunate for the colony that over this vast extent of wooded country a species of eucalyptus (the jarrah) prevails, which for the durability of its timber is unsurpassed by any kind of tree in any portion of the globe. Under such circumstances the timber resources must be regarded as among the foremost in importance throughout the wide tracts of Western Australia, even if the many other kinds of utilitarian trees occurring in the more southern portion of that colonial territory, and the more varied sorts of timber trees to be found within the intra-tropic regions of West Australia, were left out of consideration. It is furthermore of particular advantage to the colony that its highly valuable jarrah timber is obtainable through, at least, five degrees of geographic latitude, and this within so short and moderate a distance of shipping places as to render it easily accessible to foreign traffic." Again—"The wood has attained a world-wide celebrity; when especially selected from hilly localities, cut while the sap is least active, and subsequently carefully dried, it proves impervious to the borings of the chelura, teredo, and termites. It is, therefore, in extensive demand for jetties, piles, railway-sleepers, fence-posts, and all kinds of underground structures, and it is equally important as one of the most durable for the planking and frames of ships." And again—"This much can be foreseen, that E. marginata is destined to supply one of the most lasting of hardwood timbers for a long time to come, at the least costly rate, to very many parts of the globe." But it is not only the jarrah which the Baron celebrates among the timber trees of Western Australia; for example, the karri (Eucalyptus diversicolor), sometimes styled E. colossea on account of its huge dimensions, stems having been "measured 300 feet long up to the first limb, and one particularly gigantic tree 60 feet around at the base." This wood, he says, is "elastic and durable, and particularly sought for large planks." Again, E. oleosa and others he notes for the value of the oil which can be extracted from their foliage—"It has proved the best known solvent for amber and other fossil resins, and of india-rubber, and unique in many technologic applications." Nor in considering the utile docs he forget the dulce, but records of one species—"Hardly anything more gorgeous can be imagined than the forest of E. ficifolia about the month of February, when brilliant trusses of flowers diffuse a rich red over the dark-green foliage of the whole landscape."

To the eucalypts must be added the acacias, as well for beauty as utility: A. acuminata, for its richly-scented and coloured wood, for the cabinetmaker and turner; A. saligna, the bark of which contains 30 per cent, of tannic acid; and A. microbotrya, for its enormous yield of superior gum. Of more than 150 acacias standing on record from the hitherto explored portions of Western Australia, he states "that the seeds of every sort would be acceptable for horticultural export trade, Australian acacias being always in request for European glasshouses." To these must be added the fragrant sandalwood (Santalum cygnorum), the banksias, yielding beautiful wood for ornamental work, and the cypress-pines of the north, valuable for their splendid wood and resin, and which we cannot doubt will soon be utilised for masts, yards, spars, and decks for ship-building, as they have been for rafters, joists, and flooring for houses. Of the value and beauty of West Australian woods for useful and ornamental purposes many examples will be found in this Exhibition.

With respect to the acclimatisation of exotic vegetation the Baron permits but small limitation. "In this respect," he says "West Australia is most happily situated; its wide territory, stretching through twenty-two degrees of latitude, admitting, in reality, of the culture of almost every kind of utilitarian tree in existence anywhere." And, indeed, even now the trees, shrubs, fruits, flowers, and edible vegetables of Europe, and very many of those of Asia, Africa, and America, are under profitable cultivation, and flourish in the gardens of the colony. "It would," he concludes, "need a volume to enumerate whatever foreign countries could contribute to the wealth of West Australia, which, so far as cultural capacities are concerned, excludes from its zones, in
reality, only the Arctic and Alpine vegetable organisms, and which can afford apt space and shelter in select spots for every palm in existence." Of the exotic trees now naturalised in the colony, the more important are the orange, fig, mulberry, banana, and the vine; the cultivation of these, which some have placed among minor industries, is capable of development to a vast extent throughout the colony, as the specimens exhibited of the more important—the vine and mulberry—will sufficiently attest.

The wines of West Australia have already taken prizes and obtained honourable mention, and require only to be produced in larger quantities to ensure them a high place in the commerce of the world.

The silk produced from the mulberry plantations will compete with any produced elsewhere. The dryness of the climate in summer is highly favourable to the preservation of the grape, fig, and other fruits, as well as of cotton, tobacco, and coffee, for the cultivation of which the soil and climate of many parts of the colony are particularly well suited; as in the north, for sugar, rice, &c.

Of more present importance even than the forest trees are the shrubs and grasses which grow on the extensive plains and lower ranges of hills of West Australia, over an area, the limits of which are at present unknown, but which is every year being largely opened up for occupation. Of these particular districts, two alone—those of the north-west coast, and the upper valleys of the Murchison river—will afford sufficient space for all the stock that can be put upon them for many years to come. The area of land already leased for pasture is far in excess of the requirements of the stock upon it—viz., 24,000,000 acres to 980,000 head of all stock, or about 25 acres per head.

For want of capital in labour and in money, the agricultural lands in the colony have been partially neglected for the pursuits of pastoral industry; but the experience of the past year, which has given a supply of corn far beyond the wants of the colony, proves their capability for supplying an increased demand. The quality of the produce has already competed favourably with that of the other Australian colonies, and although the agricultural lands are generally of comparatively small area, it is a great advantage that they are scattered over its entire surface.

Wheat may be cultivated as far north as the river Murchison, and Indian corn throughout the colony. As hitherto breadstuffs have been largely imported, it is evident that the agricultural capabilities of Western Australia may be largely developed with advantage.

There were only 45,933 acres of land under cultivation at the end of 1877, out of a total of 626,111,323 acres.

The live stock consisted, at the same date, of 33,502 horses, 54,050 cattle, and 899,494 sheep.

The pastoral districts of south-west coast of the colony are particularly adapted to dairy-farming, and are capable of supplying its products—butter and cheese—not for the possible wants of the colony only, but largely for exportation.

It should be noted that so well suited are the climate and its vegetable productions to the life of domestic animals, that horses and cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, and poultry, if permitted to run wild, increase so rapidly that a special Act of the legislature has been passed to regulate their destruction.

Sandalwood has for some years past contributed largely to the productive industry and profit of the colony; but unless new plantations are found it cannot very long continue to do so, as the distance which even now it has to be carried to the ports of shipment raises its price so much as to leave no great margin of profit.

The following table will show what are the present results of the utilisation of the vegetable products of West Australia:

The total value of the exports of 1878 was £427,268; and during last year (1879) they amounted to the sum of £492,707.

The exports of the colony to Great Britain consist almost entirely of wool and lead ore. The wool exports were of the value of £146,202 in 1878. Of lead ore the exports to Great Britain amounted to £14,890 in 1878.

The value of the commercial intercourse of Western Australia with Great Britain is shown in the following table:

The total value of the imports and exports, including bullion and specie, of Western Australia, in the six years from 1873 to 1878 is shown in the following statement:

The mineral wealth of West Australia is very great naturally, and may be assumed to be distributed over its entire area, as with two exceptions (to be hereafter noted) the same geological formations are found throughout it. Hitherto only lead and copper have been raised for exportation, and then only from one district, because that alone is sufficiently near to a port to make it profitable to work the mines. The rocks in which tin is found in the other colonies are, however, widely distributed in this, and quartz reefs known to contain gold invite in many places the expenditure of capital and labour upon them. Gold, as yet, has been found by surface-washing, in one place only (Peterwangy, on the Upper Irwin), and then not in sufficient quantity to pay for working; but even that has not been sufficiently tested. Other minerals will not be found wanting, of which two may be noted—plumbago, and a brown haematite iron-ore of the richest quality, which abounds in many places in the
In the Mines district about Northampton, and on the lower course of the Murchison river, sufficient ores of lead and copper have been raised to show that they exist in abundance, and under such advantageous conditions as offer every inducement to work them for a fair market. Hitherto the cost of carriage to the place of shipment has reduced the profit to a minimum; but the opening of the Mines railway between Geraldton and Northampton has considerably lessened that burden. The unexpected delay in providing this means of transport, and the expenses consequently incurred, have, however, seriously affected the mining interest; and these operating in combination with want of sufficient capital, in some cases, and with the depression in the price of the mineral in the general market, have proved a temporary discouragement to this industry. The specimens of ores exhibited will satisfactorily attest the quality of those minerals in Western Australia.

The colony also possesses abundance of rock and stone for architectural purposes, whether granitoid, arenaceous, or cretaceous. Some of the latter may be classed with the best freestones; while some of the sandstones are micaceous, and consequently bissile, and make excellent paving-stones. There is also good slate; clays for brick-making and pottery are common, as are pipe-clay and fire-clay, and ochres for pigments of various colours.

Lime is abundant, and of various qualities. Salt is found in lakes and lagoons in almost every part of the colony, some of which requires little preparation for domestic use. Gypsum is also found in many places.

The contents of the cabinet of rocks, fossils, and minerals exhibited, when compared with accompanying illustrative map, will not only explain generally the geology of the colony, but also show the distribution of mineral-bearing rocks over its surface.

Western Australia may be conveniently separated into five principal geological divisions, viz.:—First, the central table-land; secondly, the surrounding mountain ranges which form its supports and buttresses; thirdly, the coast districts; fourthly, the oolitic formations of the south-east coast; fifthly, the districts of fiords, inlets, and river valleys of the north-east.

The first is formed on a base of granitoid rocks, having superficial deposits of sandstone and limestone upon it over its eastern area; and when these have suffered much denudation, lakes, some of which are of considerable extent, are found on the west. It may be safely assumed that wherever the clays which now form the basins of these lakes have been deposited from the disintegration of the sandstones and limestone rocks, the water is salt; but when from the granitoid, or erupted rock, it is fresh. The same rule will be found to obtain generally throughout the colony in reference to natural springs and artificial wells.

The granitoid masses of the second division, which surround the central table-land, are frequently broken by elevated peaks of erupted rocks, quartz or metamorphic and schistose having usually at their bases ranges of sandstone and limestone, and are in many places capped with magnetic and hæmatitic iron ores. These erupted rocks are apparent in the granite floor throughout the colony. In the south-west, basalt, both columnar and amorphous, has been erupted.

The third district—that of the coast—presents, like the interior table-land, superficial deposits of aqueous rocks, which in the north-west form terraces, and in the west inferior ranges of hills; and the disintegration of these has resulted in extensive sand plains about their bases. On the south-west the granitoid masses are more largely developed, and approach the shore, in many places forming bold, rocky headlands; but where these do not present themselves the coast-line is formed by a range of low hills of concretionary recent limestone. The central portion of the south coast has, as also some portion of the west, like the interior table-land and under the same conditions, numerous lakes; and here the loftiest elevations in the colony present themselves in ragged ranges and detached peaks of massy quartz and schistose rocks, culminating in the Stirling range, 3640 feet above the sea.

The fourth district—that of the oolites—has not been sufficiently examined for accurate knowledge, but there is no doubt that the rocks are related to the greater and older formations of that class, and that they are several hundred feet in thickness. They afford stone for all uses, whether ornamental or structural, and present a bold escarpment of some 200 feet in height to the sea. This is, in regard to Western Australia, an exceptional formation.

The knowledge of the fifth district—that of the north-east coast of the colony—is at present confined to the valleys of the Glenelg and Fitzroy rivers. Here also the superficial sandstones and limestones are known to be present; but the disintegration of the trap and basalt rocks, which prevail in the valleys, appears to have left deposits unequalled for richness in any other part of the colony. Here also, as on the south-west coast, the running waters are perennial.

The natural productions of the waters of West Australia, if properly utilised, would be scarcely less valuable than those of the land. The abundance of fish in the sea round her coasts, and in the estuaries and mouths of her rivers, is so great as to appear inexhaustible. Although less numerous than formerly, both the right and the sperm whale are still to be found, as are seals. The dugong is plentiful from Shark's Bay round the
northern coast, as are several species of turtle, beche-de-mer, and many other valuable fish. Crayfish are common both in salt and fresh water; prawns are plentiful, as also are oysters in many places. These would afford sufficient supply for a numerous population, as well as for export, and profitable employment for many. Already the preserving of one class of fish has been tried successfully, as will appear from the specimens exhibited.

The fisheries for pearl-shells and pearls are at present the most productive, and, as the supply remains constant, seem likely to continue so. This is the more advantageous, as latterly these fisheries have been carried on almost entirely by native divers. The pearl-oyster is found from Shark's Bay northward, but those of the south are greatly inferior to those of the north. Shells to the value of £39,400 were exported during the year 1879, and the total export to the end of that year since 1867 amounted to £368,819 in value.

Guano deposited by sea-fowl, now such an important item of colonial produce, was first discovered in, and exported from, Shark's Bay as early as the year 1840. The exportation from the Lacepede Islands, off the north coast, began in 1876; but guano is now obtained from other localities also. Chemical analysis shows that this manure belongs to the class of phosphate guano, and in addition to phosphate of lime, contains organic matters yielding nitrogen; but it is free from oxide of iron, alumina, and carbonate of lime, and therefore takes its place among the best phosphatic guano of commerce. The quantity exported in 1878 was valued at £66,095, and in 1879 at £54,184.

There were 78 miles of railway open for traffic at the end of 1878.
In 1876 there were 58 post-offices; and 846,075 letters were despatched and received.
The length of the telegraph lines was 1159 English miles; the length of wire being 1159 miles also.
According to the blue book for 1875, the receipts of that year for telegrams were £2251 18s. 6d.
There were 330 ships entered inwards and outwards at Western Australian ports in 1876, averaging 154,126 tons.

The expenditure on account of volunteers during the year ending 31st December, 1875, was £559 3s. 2d.
In 1875 there were 62 free schools supported by Government, with a total of 2539 scholars of both sexes. The assisted schools received a grant of £1331 19s. 9d. from public funds in 1875. They numbered 21, having an average attendance of 1328 scholars.

With so small a population as Western Australia has at present, there can be no very considerable manufactures; yet colonial wine and beer are fast superseding those imported; and for the beer, barley (the produce of the colony) is now malted. Besides those of the domesticated animals, the skins of the kangaroo, wallaby, boodie, dalghite, and dugong are tanned for use with native bark. Salt is carefully prepared by native prisoners at the Convict Establish- ment on Rottnest Island; but much salt is used throughout the colony in its natural state without preparation. Dried fruits, olive oil, whale, dugong, and fish oil are also prepared, of excellent quality, but mostly for the colonial market. Yet all these and other similar industrial resources—for example, the oils of the eucalypti, as shown by Baron Yon Mueller—are capable of development to any required extent.

The large collection of native weapons must not be taken as evidence of any serious antagonism on the part of the aborigines of the colony to the settlers. In the more settled districts they are too few to be dangerous, and are, in fact, dying out; and in the outlying pastoral districts they find their advantage in making themselves useful to the settlers as shepherds, stock-keepers, teamsters, &c. The weapons of the natives are now somewhat difficult to obtain, and their implements and utensils are being rapidly superseded by those of European manufacture. On this account the collection has been made as full as possible. The textile fabrics exhibited will show that there are indigenous plants which produce fibre suitable for many purposes, and which, accordingly, might be utilised to much advantage.

Timber.

Tuart timber is extremely hard, twisted and curled in the grain. It is very valuable where great strength is required for shipbuilding, combing of hatches, engine-bearers, framing for railway carriages, carriage-wheels, &c. It shrinks very little in seasoning, and will not split during the process. It has been known to be exposed over thirty years without being affected, will resist the Teredo navalis, and it is the strongest timber known. Large-size planks and scantling, from 20 to 40 feet long, and 2 feet wide, can be cut from this timber.

Sandalwood is largely exported to Singapore and China, and some to India, the last year's exports being about 4700 tons, valued at £47,000.

Raspberry-jam wood is highly scented, and adapted for manufacturing purposes. It is beautiful hard-grained timber, and will polish equal to Spanish mahogany, being very rich in colour, and very useful for all descriptions of furniture and fancy cabinetware. Continental and British manufacturers ought to secure samples
of this timber from the Court.

Jarrah and karri timber are largely exported from the colony. Planks, scantling, piles, and every description, can be had all lengths and sizes. The Harbour Trust of Victoria are now using jarrah in preference to their local timber. The principal railways, marine works, wharves, jetties, and telegraph lines in South Australia are constructed of jarrah and karri. Large quantities have also been exported to India, New Zealand, and the Cape.

It has been proved, from practical experience, that these timbers are impervious to the white ant and Teredo navalis (or sea-worm); and they have been used in South Australia and this colony from twenty-five to forty years in marine and land works without showing any signs of decay.

Specimens from the above are now being exhibited in the Court and outside the building. This timber is equal to English oak and Indian teak, and it is also classed at English Lloyd's for shipbuilding purposes for twelve years.

**TABLE SHOWING COMPARATIVE TESTS OF INDIAN TEAK AND ENGLISH OAK COMPARED WITH WESTERN AUSTRALIAN TUART, JARRAH, AND KARRI TIMBER.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Wood</th>
<th>Weight per Cube Foot</th>
<th>Specific Gravity</th>
<th>Transverse Strength per Sq. In.</th>
<th>Average Tensile Experiments</th>
<th>Vertical or Crushing Strains on Cubes of 2 Inches</th>
<th>No. of Year Assigned by English Lloyd's for Shipbuilding Purposes</th>
<th>Dimensions of Each Piece</th>
<th>Weight the Piece Broke with</th>
<th>Direct Cohesion on 1 Sq. Inch</th>
<th>Lbs. per Lbs. per In</th>
<th>Tons Lbs. Value per S. Inches</th>
<th>Sq. Inch. Sq. Inch. per Sq. In.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indian teak</td>
<td>49.47</td>
<td>807</td>
<td>2203</td>
<td>3,301</td>
<td>1843</td>
<td>14 years</td>
<td>2 x 2 x 30</td>
<td>13,207</td>
<td>3.301</td>
<td>2838</td>
<td>14 years</td>
<td>English oak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English oak</td>
<td>31.72</td>
<td>886</td>
<td>2117</td>
<td>2 x 2 x 30</td>
<td>30,237</td>
<td>9 years</td>
<td>13,207</td>
<td>14 years</td>
<td>2838</td>
<td>3411</td>
<td>9 years</td>
<td>English oak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuart</td>
<td>73.06</td>
<td>1169</td>
<td>2701</td>
<td>2 x 2 x 30</td>
<td>40,487</td>
<td>12 years</td>
<td>2 x 2 x 30</td>
<td>30,237</td>
<td>3411</td>
<td>4195</td>
<td>12 years</td>
<td>English oak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jarrah</td>
<td>63.12</td>
<td>1010</td>
<td>1800</td>
<td>2 x 2 x 30</td>
<td>11,760</td>
<td>12 years</td>
<td>2 x 2 x 30</td>
<td>30,237</td>
<td>3411</td>
<td>4195</td>
<td>12 years</td>
<td>English oak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karri</td>
<td>61.31</td>
<td>981</td>
<td>2264</td>
<td>2 x 2 x 30</td>
<td>28,280</td>
<td>12 years</td>
<td>2 x 2 x 30</td>
<td>30,237</td>
<td>3411</td>
<td>4195</td>
<td>12 years</td>
<td>English oak</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**WESTERN AUSTRALIAN EXHIBITS.**

[All Exhibits classed under Fine Arts Group are transferred to Fine Arts Section of Catalogue, and will be found there under heading "Western Australia."]

II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.

Class 6.—Education of Children, Primary Instruction, Instruction of Adults.

1 Rowe. G. B.. Stirling-st., Perth.—Map of that portion of the colony between the Murchison River and the south coast. Exhibitor 15 years old.

Class 9.—Printing, Books.

2 Government of Western Australia, The.—Forest Resources of Western Australia, by Baron F. von Müeller, K.C.M.G., M.D., Ph.D.. F.R.S.

Class 16.—Maps, and Geographical and Cosmo-graphical Apparatus.

3 Survey Department, Perth.—Coloured photolitho plan of portion of Western Australia, from 30° 35' to 34° 45' S. lat., and 115° to 117 30' E. long.

4 Survey Department, Perth.—Map of the colony on a scale of 25 miles to the inch, drawn for photo-lithography.

5 Survey Department. Perth.—Drawn and coloured plan showing Kimberley district, and the route
followed by Mr. A. Forrest in 1879.

III. Furniture and Accessories.

Class 17.—Cheap and Fancy Furniture.

6 Convict Department, Western Australia.—Ladies' work-table. Satin manufactured from the silk of silkworms reared in the colony.
7 Convict Department. Western Australia.—Cabinet (containing geological specimens) made from indigenous woods of the colony.

Class 29.—Leather-work, Fancy Articles, and Basket-work.

8 Helmick, Mrs., Perth.—Three frames, decorated with seed-pods.
9 Wilkinson, Captain G. P., Perth.—Carved cover, inlaid with fourteen varieties of colonial wood; suitable for album or blotting paper.
10 Wilkinson, Captain G. P.—Cover, carved in ivory; suitable for card-case.
11 Wilkinson, Captain G. P.—Cover, carved in ivory; suitable for church service.
12 Wilkinson, Captain G. P.—Powder puff-box, turned in ivory.
13 Wilkinson, Captain G. F.—Frame, turned in ivory.
14 Wilkinson, Captain G. P.—Carved ivory miniature frame.

IV. Textile Fabrics, Clothing, and Accessories.

Class 34.—Silk and Silk Fabrics.

15 Government of Western Australia, The.—Glass case, containing collection of raw silk, floss, yarn, and satin; produce of Western Australia.

Class 36.—Lace, Net, Embroidery, and Trimmings.

17 Wrenfordsley, Miss, Perth.—Lace (French), made by exhibitor.

Class 39.—Jewellery and Precious Stones.

18 Brockman, Mrs., Vasse, Western Australia.—Pair of earrings pendant, set with shells gathered in the colony.

Class 40.—Portable Weapons, and Hunting and Shooting Equipments.

19 Police Department. Western Australia.—Trophy exhibiting weapons used in native warfare and for hunting. Articles for domestic use, &c.

V. Raw and Manufactured Products.

Class 43.—Products of the Cultivation of Forests, and of the Trades appertaining thereto.

20 Barker & Gull, Guildford, Western Australia.—One log sandalwood, exhibited as a curiosity, the branches having re-united.
21 Bird, P., Saw Mills, Canning.—Pieces of black butt and she-oak, and logs of jarrah, seasoned.
22 Bunbury Timber Co., Bunbury.—Railway sleepers, jarrah log exposed to the sea 35 years. (Exhibited
outside, near the Fernery.)
23 Clinch, J., Berkshire Valley, Western Australia.—Two dozen bell yokes, made from sandalwood.
24 Convict Department, Western Australia.—Collection of specimens of the principal timbers of the
colony.
25 Convict Department, Western Australia.—Large show-table; quantity of turned articles, made from
native woods.
26 Davies, M. C., Bunbury.—Trophy jarrah and karrie timber, for ship and boat building, harbour and jetty
works, railway sleepers, &c. (Outside.)
27 Davies, M. C., Bunbury.—Seven specimens karri timber, exposed 34 years in salt water between wind
and water.
28 Davies, M. C., Bunbury.—Piece old rail and post, standing 22 years.
29 Davies, M. C., Bunbury.—Specimens bankshee white cedar, paper bark.
30 Davies, M. C., Bunbury.—Specimens natural twisted walking-sticks.
31 Government of Western Australia, The.—One box zamia wool, used for upholstering purposes.
32 Jarrahdale Timber Co., Jarrahdale.—Trophy jarrah timber, piles, sawn timber for
cabinet-makers, bridge work, and railway sleepers. (Outside.)
33 Knight, W. G., Albany.—One log sandalwood, grown in the southern district.
34 Lambe, J., Bunbury.—Red-gum, used for tanning (½-cwt.).
35 Martion, W. E., Fremantle.—Sample of manna.
36 M'Kail, J., & Co., Albany.—Round jarrah pile, cut 42 years; used as jetty pile in Princess Royal
Harbour, King George's Sound.
37 Monger, J. T., York.—Three pieces of morrell-wood, suitable for wheelwrights' work, waggon-building,
&c.
38 Monger, J. H., Perth.—Sandalwood (Santalum cygnorum), as prepared for shipment. There is a
considerable export trade in this wood.
39 Muir, D. R., & Sons, Albany.—One felloe of cart-wheel, in use for upwards of 30 years; and two spokes
for wheels, of yate wood.
40 Powell, E. B., Albany.—Specimen of she-oak, used for furniture making.
41 Public Works Department, Perth.—Canopy, erected to show jarrah and other timber in the rough.
42 Public Works Department.—Jarrah pile, after 43 years' exposure in the sea, at Swan River.
43 Public Works Department.—Log of jam-wood (Acacia acuminata). This wood takes a high polish, and
is suitable for cabinet-work.
44 Ranford, B. B., Fremantle.—Black wattle bark from Canning district; very superior for tanning
purposes.
45 Ranford, B. B.—Manna bark, from the Avon district.
46 Ranford, B. B.—Red-gum, used for tanning.
47 Sherratt, T., Albany.—Log of karri (Eucalyptus diversicolor), sawn into three pieces; from a tree cut
down 40 years, and buried in ground since 1846.
48 Western Australian Timber Co., Lock-ville.—Plank jarrah, plank tuart (Eucalyptus), plank jarrah.
49 Whitfield, G., Toodyay.—Black-boy resin (3 boxes).

Class 44.—Products of Hunting:, Shooting, Fishing, and
Spontaneous Products. Machines and Instruments connected
therewith.

50 Conrad, G., Furrier, Perth.—Rug made of opossum skins, prepared, tanned, and mounted by exhibitor.
51 Conrad, G.—Ladies' swan's-down full set—muff, cuffs, and collarette.
52 Conrad, G.—Ladies' pelican full set—muff, cuffs, and collarette.
53 Conrad, G.—Native dog skin, prepared, tanned, and mounted by exhibitor.
54 Couderot, A. H., Rottnest.—Collection of shells, coralline, &c., in glass case.
55 Harper, C., Guildford.—A collection of pearl shells in case, from the earliest stage to the matured state
of the pearl oyster.
56 Knight, W. G., Albany.—Whale bone, from whale fisheries (1 package).
57 Knight, W. G., Albany.—Whale oil, from whale fisheries (1 package).
58 Leidicke, Captain, brig "Ariel," Fremantle.—Mother-of-pearl shells, with curious growth of coral
attached, found in Exmouth Gulf.
60 Picton, Miss B., Bunbury.—Seaweeds pressed in a set of books, from the beach, Bunbury district.
61 Ranford, B. B., Fremantle.—Collection of skins.
62 Thomas, W., Shark's Bay.—Dugong head and bones.

Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food.
63 Beurteaux, L. A., Perth.—Cocoons, in glass case, the produce of silkworms reared in Perth district.
64 Beurteaux, L. A.—Bale cocoons, the produce of silkworms reared in Perth district.
65 Clinch, J., Berkshire Valley.—Three fleeces Angora wool of third cross-breed, one year's growth, unwashed.
66 Clinch, J.—Three wether fleeces Angora wool.
67 De Burgh, Mrs. C., Caversham, Guildford.—Cocoons, a sample reared in the district of Upper Swan.
68 Government of Western Australia, The.—Cocoons, in glass case, the produce of silkworms reared in Perth district.
69 Whitfield, G., Toodyay.—Plants producing fibre (2 bundles).

Class 46.—Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products.
70 Crowther & Mitchell, Northampton.—Salt (1 box), exhibited in its natural state, as gathered at Port Gregory lagoon. The quantity is unlimited.
71 Native Penal Establishment, Rottnest.—Salt (3 bags), evaporated at 220° Fahr., from the water of the salt lakes, Rottnest.

Class 48.—Leather and Skins.
72 Lambe, J., Bunbury.—Skins prepared and tanned by the exhibitor with red-gum bark, no sumach or imported tanning material used.

VI. Machinery—Apparatus and Processes used in the Mechanical Industries.

Class 60.—Carriages and Wheelwrights' Work.
73 Summers, J., Perth.—Collection of materials used by wheelwrights and in the construction of carriages.

Class 62.—Railway Apparatus.
74 Public Works Department, Perth.—Plan and drawing of the railway bridge over Swan River, constructed of jarrah timber.

VII. Alimentary Products.

Class 67.—Cereals, Farinaceous Products, and Products derived from them.
75 Barker & Gull, Guildford.—Bag wheat, grown in the district of York, Western Australia.
76 Clinch, J., Berkshire Valley.—Bag barley, grown in district of Berkshire Valley; a cross between cross and skinless, and almost beardless.
77 Connor, D., Newcastle.—Sack flour, fine silk-dressed, from grain grown in district of Newcastle.
78 Dempster, C. E., Toodyay.—Sack flour, fine silk-dressed, from grain grown in district of Toodyay.
79 Edwards, T., Beverley.—Bag wheat, grown in the district of Beverley, W.A.
80 McGrath, T., Stockhill, Beverley.—Bag wheat, grown in district of Beverley (40 lb. of seed yielded 26 bushels per acre, on dark loamy soil).
81 Monger, J. T., York.—Bag wheat, grown in the district of York, weighing 66 lb. to the bushel.
82 Monger, J. T., York.—Sack flour, fine silk-dressed, from grain grown in district of York.
83 Moore, S., Dongarra.—Bag wheat, grown in district of Dongarra.
84 Moore, S., Dongarra.—Bag barley, grown in district of Dongarra.
85 Parker, S. S., York.—Sack flour, fine silk-dressed, from grain grown in district of York.
86 Pearse, F., Dongarra.—Bag wheat, grown in district of Dongarra.
87 Pearse, F., Dongarra.—Bag barley, grown in district of Dongarra.

**Class 70.—Meat and Fish.**

88 Mandurah Fish Preserving Co., The, Mandurah.—Collection of preserved fish, the manufacture of the Company.
89 Thomas, W., Shark's Bay.—Cask salted dugong meat, Shark's Bay fishery.

**Class 71.—Vegetables and Fruit.**

90 De Burgh, Mrs. C., Guildford.—Almonds (2 boxes), grown in Swan district.
91 Ferguson, C. W., Houghton, Middle Swan.—Muscatel raisins (1 box), grown in Middle Swan district.

**Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery.**

92 Allnutt, J., Bunbury.—Collection of preserved fruits, No. 1.
93 Allnutt, J.—Collection of preserved fruits, No. 2.

**Class 73.—Fermented Drinks, Wine, and Beer.**

94 De Burgh, Mrs. Clara, Caversham, Guildford.—Red Fontainbleau (12 bottles), 1878.
95 De Burgh, Mrs. Clara.—Red Fontainbleau (12 bottles), 1874.
96 De Burgh, Mrs. Clara.—Red Fontainbleau (12 bottles), 1878.
97 Easton, W., Lower Canning-road, Fremantle.—White Muscat (12 bottles), 1879.
98 Easton, W.—Sauterne (12 bottles), 1879.
99 Easton, W.—Light White (12 bottles), 1879.
100 Faucett, Captain, Pinjarrah.—Don Pedro (12 bottles), 1872 and 1880.
101 Ferguson, C. W., Houghton, Swan.—Verdeilho (12 bottles), 1879.
102 Ferguson & Mumme. Perth—Ale (1 hogshead) made from English malt, glucose, and Tasmanian hops.
103 Ferguson & Mumme.—Ale (1 dozen bottles) made from English malt, glucose, and Tasmanian hops.
104 Ferguson & Mumme.—Porter (1 dozen bottles) made from English malt, glucose, and Tasmanian hops.
105 Gallop, R., York.—Red Burgundy (12 bottles), 1879.
106 Gugeri, P. A., Perth.—Dry Muscat (12 bottles), 1879.
107 Gugeri, P. A.—Red Fontainbleau (12 bottles), 1879.
109 Harwood, D. W., & Co.—Ale (1 dozen bottles) made from colonial malt, Tasmanian hops, and Mauritius sugar.
110 Weylen, A. D., M.D., Perth.—Red Fontain-bleau (12 bottles), 1879.
111 Weylen, A. D., M.D., Perth.—Red Hermitage (12 bottles), 1879.

**IX. Horticulture.**

**Class 76.—Flowers and Ornamental Plants.**

112 Cooper, Mrs., Albany.—Quantity specimens of pressed wild flowers.
113 Picton, Miss B, Bunbury.—Albums containing specimens of pressed wild flowers.
Class 78.—Fruit and Fruit Trees.

114 Whitfield, G. Toodyay.—Nuts (1 box), gathered from native peach.

X. Mining Industries—Machinery and Products.

Class 82.—Mining and Metallurgy.

115 Crowther & Mitchell, Northampton.—Galena ore (20 pieces).
116 Crowther & Mitchell.—Galena ore (17 pieces), taken from Badra mine, eight fathoms below surface.
117 Crowther & Mitchell.—Galena ore (16 pieces), from East Badra mine, nine fathoms below surface.
118 Crowther & Mitchell.—Galena ore, from Sister's mine, South Geraldine, close to surface.
119 Crowther & Mitchell.—Galena (1 piece), from Wheal Ellen, twelve feet below surface, 84 per cent. lead.
120 Crowther & Mitchell.—Galena (1 bag dressed ore), from Wheal Ellen, 79½ per cent. lead.
121 Crowther & Mitchell.—Galena (1 bag dressed ore), from Badra mine, 81½ per cent. lead.
122 Crowther & Mitchell.—Galena (1 bag dressed ore), South Geraldine, nine fathoms deep, 82 per cent. lead.
123 Crowther & Mitchell.—Galena (1 bag dressed ore), Badra mine, six fathoms deep, 75 per cent. lead.
124 Crowther & Mitchell.—Carbonate ore (1 bag), from East Badra, close to surface, 73 per cent. lead.
125 Crowther & Mitchell.—Carbonate ore (1 bag), from Sister's mine, South Geraldine, 74 per cent. lead.
126 Crowther & Mitchell.—Copper specimens (1 box), from South Geraldine mine, nine fathoms below surface.
127 Crowther & Mitchell.—Copper ore specimens (1 box), from Badra mine, nine fathoms below surface.
128 Crowther & Mitchell.—Lead ore, galena, oxydised (1 box), from surface of Wheal Ellen mine.
129 Crowther & Mitchell.—Small cubes, almost perfect (1 box), taken from Badra mine, nine fathoms below surface.
130 Crowther & Mitchell.—Carbonates, more or less crystallised (1 box), taken from South Geraldine.
131 Crowther & Mitchell.—Specimens of carbonates (1 box), taken from East Badra mine.
132 Crowther & Mitchell.—Plumbago (1 box), taken from an immense deposit one mile from railway terminus, Northampton.
133 Crowther & Mitchell.—Blende or zinc ore, "Black Jack" (1 box), taken from Wheal Ellen mine.
134 Crowther & Mitchell.—Iron pyrites, bisulphuret of iron taken from Wheal Ellen.
135 Davis, J. S., Tibradden.—Fossil rock from the neighbourhood of Tibradden, Champion Bay.
136 Davis, J. S., Champion Bay.—Fire-clay (1 box), from Tibradden, Champion Bay.
137 Davis, J. S.—Pipe-clay (1 box), from Tibradden, Champion Bay.
138 Davis, J. S.—Nodule of native iron.
139 Government of Western Australia, The.—Fossil rock, from quarry near Fremantle.
140 Government of Western Australia, The.—Geological collection of the principal minerals, ores, &c., of Western Australia.
141 Government of Western Australia, The.—Two pieces polished steatite, one piece stone of description used in erection of Fremantle Lighthouse.
142 Mason, C. T., Resident-engineer, Perth.—Sand suitable for glass-making (1 box), from cutting on Perth and Guildford railway.
143 M'Lean Brothers & Rigg, Melbourne.—Lead, manufactured from ores in Northampton district.
144 Montague Brothers, Northampton.—Copper ore specimens (1 box), from Wheal Alpha mine, about five fathoms below surface.

Tasmania.

(Compiled under the Authority of the Commissioners for Tasmania.)

General Description.
SITUATION AND AREA.

TASMANIA lies about 120 miles south of the continent of Australia, from which it is separated by Bass’ Strait. From north to south the extent is about 170 miles, and from east to west about 160 miles. The total area, including islands belonging to the colony, is nearly 17,000,000 acres, of which over 4,000,000 are in private hands, while about 2,000,000 are rented from the Crown.

CLIMATE.

The climate is unsurpassed for its salubrity. The observations of 35 years at Hobart Town give the average annual rainfall as 24.09 inches; the mean temperature of the winter months, 46.44; and the mean summer temperature, 63.17. A remarkable feature of the climate is the low rate of mortality among children.

Government.

Legislative power is vested in a Governor and two Houses of Parliament; the Legislative Council consists of 16 members, and the House of Assembly of 32 members, both elective. The qualification for electors of the Council is the possession of freehold estate of £30 per annum clear, or leasehold of £200 per annum, under term of not less than five years; and for electors of the Assembly, freehold estate value £50, or leasehold £7 per annum. Ministers of religion graduates of British universities, officers of the army and navy not on service, and members of the learned professions, have votes for both Houses. The municipal system extends over the greater part of the settled districts.

Vegetable and Animal Products.

TIMBER.

The timber resources of the island are extensive. Blue gum (Eucalyptus globulus), stringy bark (E. obliqua), white or swamp gum (E. viminalis), peppermint (E. amygdalina), beech (Fagus Cunninghami), Huon pine (Dacrydium Franklifini), celery-topped pine (Phyllocadus rhomboidalis), blackwood (Acacia melanoxylon), and silver wattle (Acacia dealbata), are extensively used or exported; and there are many woods of a highly ornamental character. The hardwoods are in good demand in the adjacent colonies for shipbuilding, railway construction, &c. The annual value of timber exported amounts to over £70,000. Wattle bark, for tanning purposes, is exported to England and the neighbouring colonies; the quantity sent away in 1879 was 5813 tons, valued at £40,000.

AGRICULTURE, &c.

The soil and climate are specially favourable for the production of cereals and fruit. The total area of land cleared or in cultivation is 366,911 acres; the chief products being wheat, oats, barley, potatoes, peas, and English grasses. The number of acres in wheat, according to the latest returns, was over 45,000, with 37,000 acres in oats. The export of grain in 1879 was valued at £22,396. Hops are largely and profitably cultivated; the value of the exports in 1879 was over £26,000. All the fruits of temperate climates grow luxuriantly, and are extensively utilised both for local consumption and for exportation. The gross produce of the principal crops during the year ended 31st March, 1880, was, in round numbers:—Wheat, 1,050,000 bushels; barley, 181,000 bushels; oats, 1,065,000 bushels; peas, 131,000 bushels; potatoes, 31,000 tons; hay, 54,000 tons; hops, 740,000 lb.; apples, 140,000 bushels; pears, 20,000 bushels.

PASTORAL, &c.

The number of sheep in the colony is nearly two millions; cattle, about 130,000; horses, 25,000; and pigs, 38,000. The quantity of wool exported in 1879-80 was 8,333,726 lb., of the value of £448,912. The stud sheep of Tasmania realise high prices at the annual Australian sales, and the breed of draught horses is unsurpassed. The amount realised by the sale in the other colonies of Tasmanian stud sheep in 1879 was £31,324.

Mineral Products.

The mining industry has been largely developed in recent years. In 1879 the quantity of gold produced was 60,155 oz., valued at £230,895; while for the half-year ending 30th June, 1880, the quantity was 34,000 oz., valued at £140,000. The chief centres of gold-mining are:—Beaconsfield, on the west bank of the River Tamar;
Nine-Mile Springs, east side of the River Tamar; Back Creek, Denison, and Golconda, on the north-east coast; Lisle, 27 miles to the north-east of Launceston; Mathinna and Mangana, in the Fingal district; and the neighbourhood of the River Pieman, on the west coast. Gold has also been found at Port Cygnet and Oyster Cove, on the south of the island; at various points in the counties of Devon and Wellington; at Waterhouse, on the north-east coast; near Great Mussel Roe and Scamander rivers, on the east coast; and in other places. An unlimited supply of timber of the best description for mining purposes exists on all the goldfields, and the supply of water is generally abundant.

Tin-mining is extensively prosecuted in the north-western and north-eastern districts, and on the west coast. The value of the tin and tin ore exported in 1879 was, in round numbers, £300,000; and the returns for the first half of the year 1880 show a value of £162,000, the yield of ore from Mount Bischoff alone being about 250 tons per month. Other rich undeveloped deposits are known to exist in various parts of the island.

Coal is found in all the settled districts of the south and east, the chief localities being the Fingal Valley, the east coast, Jerusalem, the Midland district, Newtown, Seymour, and D'Entrecasteaux Channel, and at the Mersey and Don rivers on the north coast.

Very rich deposits of iron ore are found all over the island, and limestone and marble of every shade of colour are abundant Lodes of copper and lead (both of them rich in silver), bismuth, antimony, and other metals, are known to exist, but have not yet been extensively worked. The midland and southern districts are noted for their excellent building-stone; the freestone of the new law courts in Melbourne is from quarries near Spring Bay. Good roofing slate is obtained at and near Piper's river, in the north of the island.

Manufactures and Industries.

There are in active operation breweries, tanneries, soap and candle works, jam-making establishments, saw-mills, fellmongeries, flour-mills, coachbuilding factories, agricultural implement works, iron foundries, tin smelting works, and manufactories of cloth, tweed, and blankets. The climate is especially adapted to malting and brewing. Jam-making is a flourishing industry in the south, the quantity exported in 1879 being nearly four million pounds.

Education.

The public elementary schools—171 in number, with an average of 8520 scholars on the rolls—are under the control of a board. The income of teachers is derived from fixed salaries regulated by their classification and supplemented by school fees and allowances. Provision is made for the encouragement of higher education by a system of exhibitions tenable at the best private schools, and by annual examinations for the degree of Associate of Arts, under the direction of the Council of Education. Two scholarships of £200 a-year each, tenable for four years at a British University, are awarded annually by the council to Associates of Arts who pass a prescribed examination.

Education in the public schools is unsectarian, and compulsory at ages ranging from 7 to 14 years. Free certificates are granted to children whose parents are too poor to pay school fees; and there are, in Hobart Town, free or ragged schools wholly or partially maintained at the expense of the State.

Natural History.

The indigenous vegetation is nearly identical with that of the southern half of the continent of Australia; but there are valuable coniferous trees, a deciduous beech, and many plants and shrubs which are not found elsewhere. Of the indigenous animals peculiar to the island the principal are the tiger (Thylacinus) and the devil (Sarcophilus), which are now chiefly confined to the mountainous parts. Of the indigenous fish, the trumpeter of the southern coast is without a rival in the Australian colonies for richness of flavour combined with size.

All the common animals of Europe, and many of the birds, have been introduced. The English salmon, salmon trout, brown trout, perch, and tench have been acclimatised, and most of them are plentiful in the principal rivers.

General Statistics.

The estimated population is 112,000, the number of males being 60,000, and females, 53,022. Vital statistics:—Births registered in 1879, 3564; deaths, 1688; marriages, 801. The lowest upset price of agricultural land belonging to the Crown, which is more or less timbered, is £1 per acre; and the lowest upset price of pastoral lands, 5s. per acre. Agricultural land, to the extent of 320 acres, may be selected for purchase at £1 an acre, the time for payment extending over 14 years. The board of immigration issue bounty tickets in the colony
for the introduction of emigrants from the United Kingdom on the following terms:—Family ticket for a man, his wife, and children under 12 years of age, £15; ticket for single female, £5; and for single man, £10. The London agents are also empowered to issue warrants for land in the colony; and the immigration board are empowered to grant land certificates to any immigrants from Europe and India who have come out at their own cost, entitling them to select 30 acres of land for themselves, 20 for their wives, and 10 for each child.

The value of the imports during 1879 was £1,267,475, and of exports £1,301,097.

There are 167 miles of railway opened. The main roads are maintained by Government, the branch roads being under the control of road trustees, locally elected. There are 731 miles of telegraph lines, not including 133 miles belonging to the Tasmanian Main Line Railway Company. The post-offices or receiving houses number about 200, the most important of which are also money-order offices. An electric cable connects Tasmania with Australia and New Zealand, and also, rid Port Darwin, with India and England. There is also rapid and regular steam communication between Tasmania and the neighbouring colonies.

TASMANIAN EXHIBITS.

[All Exhibits classed under Fine Arts Group are transferred to Fine Arts Section of Catalogue, and will be found there under heading "Tasmania."]

II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.

Class 9.—Printing and Binding.

1 Aikenhead & Button, Launceston.—Book binding.
2 Aikenhead & Button, Launceston.—Stereotype.
5 Meredith, Mrs. C., Launceston.—All her works.

Class 13.—Musical Instruments.

6 Owen, J.—Two barrels for self-acting organ.

Class 14.—Medicine, Hygiene, and Public Relief.

7 Leitch, D., Launceston.—Dentist's pump.

Class 16.—Maps, and Geographical and Cosmo-graphical Apparatus.

8 Fenton, J., Launceston.—Illustrated History of Tasmania.

III. Furniture and Accessories.

Class 17.—Cheap and Fancy Furniture.

9 Andrews, Mrs. M. A., Hobart.—Two table-tops, six serviette rings; two boxes, and paper-knife, of spatterie-work.
10 Brent. Miss Rose, Hobart.—Chess-table, in Indian ink.
11 Dowdell, Miss Amy, Hobart.—Table, with Australian birds.
12 Hely, Miss, Hobart.—Cone frames.
13 Hooper, G., Hobart.—Cone frame.
14 Hope, Miss M., Hobart.—Table-top of Huon pine, with Tasmanian flowers, in water-colours.
15 Hope, Miss L., Hobart.—Chess-table of Huon pine, painted in Indian ink and water-colours.
16 Hull, Miss Marie A., Hobart.—Table-top of Huon pine, with wreath of Tasmanian flowers, in water-colours.
17 Salisbury, J-E., Launceston.—Umbrella-stand.
18 Way, T. B., Hobart.—Two Tasmanian fern tables, four fern boxes, two fern paper-knives.

Class 18.—Upholsterers' and Decorators' Work.
19 King, T. F., Circular Head.—Miniature cabinet.

Class 20.—Pottery.
20 Cornwell’s Pottery Works, Launceston.—Articles of pottery.

Class 29.—Leather-work, Fancy Articles, and Basket-work.
21 Andrews, Mrs. M. A., Hobart.—Leather-work vase.
22 Bridges, J., Hobart.—Basket-work.
23 Dawson, Miss, Clarence Plains.—Flowers and frames, in leather-work.
24 Newton, E. E., & Sons, Cressy.—Black grain kip leggings, black grain wallaby skins, waxed kangaroo skins.
25 Room, Mrs., Mayfield.—Paper flowers.
26 Walch Brothers & Birchall, Launceston.—Ferns and flowers.
27 Wignall, B., Hobart.—Basket-work.

IV. Textile Fabrics, Clothing, and Accessories.

Class 33.—Woollen Yarn and Fabrics.
29 Andrews, Mrs. M. A., Hobart.—Banner-screen, on gilt frame, of cloth appliqué; crochet counterpane.
30 Bulman & Johnston, Launceston.—Pair blankets, pair double extra quality blankets, blue and scarlet serge, flannel, and tweed.
31 Evans, Mrs., Long Bay.—Counterpane of Berlin wool work.
32 Garrard, Mrs., Macquarie Plains.—Worsted-work—"Arms of Tasmania."

Class 35.—Shawls.
33 Bulman & Johnston, Launceston.—Ten shawls.
34 Walker & Co., Glenorchy.—Felt hats.

Class 36.—Lace, Net, Embroidery, and Trimmings.
35 Beedham, Miss, Hobart.—Lace-worked collar.
36 Cato Miss, Newtown.—Lace-work.
37 Cleveland, Miss C., Launceston.—Lace-work.
38 Huxtable, Miss, Hobart.—Honiton lace handkerchief.
39 Lovett, Miss, Hobart.—Tatting.
40 Maddock, Miss R. E., Hobart.—Lace-work collar.
41 Maddock, Miss R. E., Hobart.—Pillow lace, with bobbins.
42 Shemmelhaack, Miss.—Worked vest.
43 Tanner, Miss M., Hobart.—Lace-work collar.
44 Thornton, Mrs. W., Hobart.—Pair frames of chenille-work, blue-gum and wattle flowers.
45 Windsor, Miss Kate, Sandy Bay.—Embroidery.

Class 39.—Jewellery and Precious Stones.
46 Bradshaw, J., Launceston.—Flinders Island diamonds.
Class 41.—Travelling Apparatus and Camp Equipage.
48 Webster, A., Launceston.—Travelling-box, travelling-trunk, and Gothic trunk.

V. Raw and Manufactured Products.

Class 43.—Products of the Cultivation of Forests and of the Trades appertaining thereto.
49 Barrett, J., Launceston.—Willows.
50 Bridges, J., Hobart.—Willows, for basket-making.
51 Commissioners of Tasmania.—Specimens of Tasmanian timbers.
53 Elliott, G. B.—Blackwood plank.
54 Firth, J., Launceston.—Wattle-bark.
55 Grubb Brothers, Hobart.—Wattle-bark, in three stages of preparation.
56 Hooper, G., Hobart.—Huon pine, for veneers.
57 Jones, J., Launceston.—Willows.
58 Laing, J., Launceston.—Veneers.
59 Macquarie, L., Hobart.—Whaleboat of Huon pine, fitted for use, with bomb-gun, lances, lines, tubs, &c.
60 M'Gregor, Hon. A., Hobart.—Casks made from blackwood, by Johnston and Burgoyne.
61 Mills, P., Launceston.—Ornamental woods.
62 Mitchell, Miss, Lisdillon.—Gum from Oyster Bay pine-trees.
63 Risby, J. E., Hobart.—Trophy of Tasmanian hardwood timbers. (See trophy outside, near Fernery.)
64 Rout, W. J., Launceston.—Brushware.
65 Royal Society of Tasmania.—Veneers of Tasmanian woods, 27 species; and specimens of timbers.
66 Scott, D. P., Pieman River.—Specimens of woods.
67 Smith, J., Westwood.—Four pieces of pine, from the River Forth.
68 Stephens, T., Hobart.—Ten specimens of woods of Tasmania.
69 Tatlow, A., Circular Head.—Blackwood oil staves.
70 Waugh,—, Launceston.—Fret-work frames.
71 Wignall, B., Hobart.—Willows, for basket-making.

Class 44.—Products of Hunting, Shooting, Fishing, and Spontaneous Products. Machines and Instruments connected therewith.
72 Birchall, A., Launceston.—Furs of silver-grey opossum, muff of black swan-down, seal-skins.
73 Blyth, H. W., Campbelltown.—Case of birdsegs.
74 Collins, D., Evandale.—Stuffed birds.
75 Dean, E., Marchington.—An owl.
76 Gardner,—, Deloraine.—Black opossum rugs, grey opossum rugs.
77 Gleadow, R. S.—Native tiger, eagle, and opossum.
78 Gunn, J., M.H.A., Hobart.—Deer's head.
79 Hull, H. T., Swansea.—72 species of Tasmanian birds' eggs.
81 Morant, Mrs., Brighton.—Opossum rug, from opossum tails.
82 Reed, F. H., Launceston.—Case of birds' eggs.
83 Rout, W. J., Launceston.—Hair.
84 Royal Society of Tasmania, Hobart.—Tasmanian devils, male and female.
85 Templar, W., Perth.—Muffs, victorine and cuffs of Angora wool.
86 Thomas, T. W., Launceston.—Mountain ducks.
87 Walden, J., Launceston.—Seal-skins, seal oil, yola oil, yola tallow, marine shells.
Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food.

88 Archer, J., Panshanger.—Wool.
89 Archer, R. J., Panshanger.—Wool.
90 Cox, J., Clarendon.—Wool.
91 Croome, G.—Wool.
92 Gibson, J., Bellevue.—Wool.
93 Gibson, W., & Son., Perth.—Wool.
94 Grueber, S., jun., Avoca.—Wool.
95 Headlam, C., Eggleston.—Wool.
96 Jones, R., Campbelltown.—Wool.
97 Keach, G. W., Chiswick, Ross.—Wool.
98 M Kinnon, D., Dalness.—Wool.
99 Parramore, G., Ross.—Wool.
100 Parramore, T., Ross.—Wool.
101 Taylor, D., Macquarie.—Wool.
102 Thirkell, G. F., Darlington Park.—Wool.
103 Toosey, J. D., jun., Cressy.—Wool.
104 Walden, J., Launceston.—Wool.

Class 46.—Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products.

105 Murray, W., Glenorchy.—Candles and soap.
106 Pregnell, J., Hobart.—Candles, white and coloured.
107 Royal Society of Tasmania, Hobart—Oil, distilled in 1866 from blue-gum leaves (Eucalyptus globulus).
108 Simpson, G., Hobart.—Soap and candles.

Class 48.—Leather and Skins.

109 Brown, W., Longford.—Leather and skins.
110 Button, W. B., Leven.—Leather and skins.
111 Newton & Son, Cressy.—Leather and skins.

VI. Machinery—Apparatus and Processes used in the Mechanical Industries.

Class 49.—Agricultural Implements and Processes used in the Cultivation of Fields and Forests.

112 Crawford, H., Evandale.—Sets of zigzag harrows, heavy, medium, and light.

Class 50.—Apparatus and Processes used in Agricultural Works, and in Works for the Preparation of Food.

113 Roberts, H., Long Bay.—Fish manure.

Class 52.—Machines and Apparatus in general.

114 Thomas, D., Perth.—Horse shoeing instrument, sheep-marking instrument, and garden-clipper.

VII. Alimentary Products.
# Class 67.—Cereals, Farinaceous Products, and Products derived from them.

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<th>Number</th>
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<td>115</td>
<td>Abbott, W. H.</td>
<td>Launceston</td>
<td>Malt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>116</td>
<td>Allwright, T.</td>
<td>New Norfolk</td>
<td>Hops of 1880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>117</td>
<td>Bowman, F. J.</td>
<td>Cheshunt</td>
<td>Italian grass seeds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>118</td>
<td>Collins, D.</td>
<td>Evandale</td>
<td>English barley, peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>119</td>
<td>Cox, J.</td>
<td>Clarendon</td>
<td>Tartarian oats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>120</td>
<td>Dalgety, Moore &amp; Co.</td>
<td>Launceston</td>
<td>Wheat (two descriptions), Cape barley, oats (two descriptions)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>121</td>
<td>Degraves, C. &amp; J.</td>
<td>Hobart</td>
<td>Hops of 1880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>122</td>
<td>Dossetor, W. J.</td>
<td>Old Wharf, Hobart</td>
<td>Wheat and flour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>123</td>
<td>Downie &amp; Son, New Norfolk</td>
<td></td>
<td>Hops of 1880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>124</td>
<td>Fletcher, M.</td>
<td>Isis</td>
<td>Wheat, grass seeds (Italian and English)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>125</td>
<td>French, J.</td>
<td>Glenore</td>
<td>Oats, English rye-grass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>126</td>
<td>Gibson, W. G.</td>
<td>Hobart</td>
<td>Wheat and flour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>127</td>
<td>Hall, J.</td>
<td>Deloraine</td>
<td>Wheat (two descriptions)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>128</td>
<td>Henty &amp; Co., Melbourne</td>
<td></td>
<td>Hops of various kinds, grown in Tasmania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>129</td>
<td>Hingston, H. J.</td>
<td>Glenore</td>
<td>Wheat, grass seeds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>130</td>
<td>Hingston, W. J.</td>
<td>Butleigh</td>
<td>Wheat, and white peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>131</td>
<td>Home, R.</td>
<td>Exton</td>
<td>Oats, sparrowbill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>132</td>
<td>Jeffery, R.</td>
<td>New Norfolk</td>
<td>Hops of 1880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>133</td>
<td>Mackenzie, A.</td>
<td>Valleyfield</td>
<td>Wheat, Braemer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>134</td>
<td>M’Kinnon, D.</td>
<td>Dalness</td>
<td>Wheat, Braemer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>135</td>
<td>Moore &amp; Co., Melbourne</td>
<td></td>
<td>Hops of 1880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>136</td>
<td>Moore, J. A.</td>
<td>New Norfolk</td>
<td>Hops of 1880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>137</td>
<td>Nicholson, H.</td>
<td>New Norfolk</td>
<td>Hops of 1880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>138</td>
<td>Nicholson, R.</td>
<td>New Norfolk</td>
<td>Hops of 1880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>139</td>
<td>Nicholson, T.</td>
<td>New Norfolk</td>
<td>Hops of 1880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>140</td>
<td>Pitt, T. &amp; G.</td>
<td>Hunting Ground</td>
<td>Wheat, Armstrong's prolific</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>141</td>
<td>Pitt, T. &amp; G.</td>
<td>Hunting Ground</td>
<td>Chevalier barley</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>142</td>
<td>Read, R. C.</td>
<td>Rcdlands, near New Norfolk</td>
<td>Hops of 1880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>143</td>
<td>Reed, F. H.</td>
<td>Evandale</td>
<td>Wheat, peas (three varieties)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>144</td>
<td>Ritchie, D.</td>
<td>Launceston</td>
<td>Oats, oatmeal, pearl-barley, split peas, groats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>145</td>
<td>Sharland, W. C.</td>
<td>New Norfolk</td>
<td>Hops of 1880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>146</td>
<td>Shoobridge Brothers,</td>
<td>Valleyfield, New Norfolk and Bushy Park, Upper Derwent</td>
<td>Hops of 1880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>147</td>
<td>Smith, J. L.</td>
<td>Cambock</td>
<td>Oats, grey peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>148</td>
<td>Walden, J.</td>
<td>Launceston</td>
<td>Horse-beans, peas of three descriptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>149</td>
<td>Wilmore, J.</td>
<td>Longford</td>
<td>Chevalier barley, grass seeds</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# Class 69.—Fatty Substances used as Food. Milk and Eggs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>150</td>
<td>Dawson, W. C.</td>
<td>Launceston</td>
<td>Cheese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>151</td>
<td>Joyce, J.</td>
<td>Launceston</td>
<td>Lard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>152</td>
<td>Kingston, Q.</td>
<td>Launceston</td>
<td>Lard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>153</td>
<td>Lade, W.</td>
<td>St. Mary's</td>
<td>Cheese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>154</td>
<td>Peart, G.</td>
<td>Launceston</td>
<td>Lard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>155</td>
<td>Powell, R.</td>
<td>Launceston</td>
<td>Lard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>156</td>
<td>Stewart, R.</td>
<td>Pardoe</td>
<td>Cheese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>157</td>
<td>Sullivan, D.</td>
<td>Launceston</td>
<td>Butter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>158</td>
<td>Tynan, J.</td>
<td>Deloraine</td>
<td>Butter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>159</td>
<td>Woodberry, J.</td>
<td>Exton</td>
<td>Cheese</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# Class 70.—Meat and Fish.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>160</td>
<td>Hicks, M.</td>
<td>Longford</td>
<td>Hams and bacon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>161</td>
<td>Joyce, J.</td>
<td>Launceston</td>
<td>Hams and bacon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>162</td>
<td>Kingston, Q.</td>
<td>Launceston</td>
<td>Hams and bacon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
163 Peart, G., Launceston.—Hams and bacon.
164 Powell, R., Launceston.—Hams and bacon.
165 Salmon Commissioners, Tasmania.—Salmon.

Class 71.—Vegetables and Fruit.
166 Boyes, J., Circular Head.—Potatoes.
167 Horne, R., Exton.—Potatoes.
168 Tasmanian Commissioners.—Wax models of apples and pears.

Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery.
169 Bonnilly, Miss, Dunorlan.—Assorted jellies, in glass.
170 Haywood, C. D., Hobart.—Biscuits and confectionery.
171 Hickman, R., Providence Valley.—Jams and jellies, in jars and tins.
172 Stewart, Mrs., Launceston.—Preserved currants.

Class 73.—Fermented Drinks.
173 Abbott, H. W., Fawns's Brewery, Launceston.—Ale, in bottle and bulk.
174 Appleyard, Dr., Longford.—Gooseberry wine.
175 Blyth, J. R., Launceston.—Ale.
176 Crowther, Dr. E. L., Hobart.—Acid syrups.
178 Dilger, C., Swansea.—Grape wine (one year old).
179 Glenright & Boag, Launceston.—Ale.
180 Horne, R., Exton.—Gooseberry wine of 1859.
181 Kelly & Gordon, Hobart.—Aerated waters and table vinegar.
182 Mitchell, J. C., Hobart.—Bottled ale.
183 Stewart, D., Launceston.—Grape wine.
184 Weaver & Co., Hobart.—Aërated waters and cordials.

X. Mining Industries—Machinery and Products.

Class 82.—Mining and Metallurgy.
185 Bishton, W.—Freestone.
186 Butler, P., Hobart.—Freestone, from Brighton.
187 Butler, R. W., Hobart.—Freestone, from Taylor's Bay.
188 Coote, A., M.H.A., Hobart.—Coal, from Mount Nicholas and Fingal.
189 Commissioners for Tasmania, Hobart.—Building-stone trophy and marbles; freestone, from Bothwell.
190 Commissioners for Tasmania, Launceston.—Cabinet of minerals.
191 Commissioners for Tasmania, Launceston.—Tin, from Mount Bischoff, in a trophy.
192 Crawford, H., Evandale.—Horse shoes.
194 Edgell, H., Launceston.—Slate.
195 Gillon, J., & Sons, Hobart.—Freestone, from Kangaroo Point (see trophy outside, near Fernery); grindstones; limestone, from Bridgwater.
196 Glover, C. A., Huon.—Honestone.
197 Gregory, J., Hobart.—Freestone, from Hester-combe.
198 Gould, R., Longford.—Granite and freestone, grindstone, pipeclay, sharpening-stones.
199 Hainsworth & Shirt, Latrobe.—Fossils, metallic and non-metallic specimens.
200 Hawson, E., Hobart.—Tin ore, from Mount Heemskerk.
201 Hyatt & Son, Hobart.—Brass cupboard and other locks.
New Zealand.

General Description.

The Colony of New Zealand consists of two islands, called the North and South Islands, and a small island at the southern extremity called Stewart Island. There are also several small islets, such as the Chatham and Auckland Isles, that are dependants of the colony. The entire group lies between 34° and 48° S. lat. and 166° and 179° E. long. The two principal islands, with Stewart Island, extend in length 1100 miles; but their breadth is extremely variable, ranging from 46 to 250 miles, the average being about 140, but no part is anywhere more distant than 75 miles from the coast.

The total area of New Zealand is about 100,000 square miles, or 61,000,000 acres—the North Island being 44,000 square miles, or 28,000,000 acres; the South Island being 55,000 square miles, or 36,000,000 acres; Stewart Island being 1000 square miles, or 610,000 acres. It will thus be seen that the total area of New Zealand is somewhat less than Great Britain and Ireland. The North and South Islands are separated by a strait only thirteen miles across at the narrowest part, presenting a feature of the greatest importance to the colony from its facilitating inter-communication between the different coasts without the necessity of sailing right round the colony.

New Zealand, is very mountainous, with extensive plains, lying principally on the eastern side of the mountain range in the South Island, while in the North Island they lie on the western side, the interior, or more mountainous parts, being covered with dense forest; while those of the South Island are for the greater part open, well grassed, and used for pastoral purposes. In the North Island the mountains occupy one-tenth of the surface, and do not exceed from 1500 to 6000 feet in height, with the exception of a few volcanic mountains that are very lofty, one of which, Tongariro (6500 feet), is still occasionally active. Ruapehu (9100 feet) and Mount Egmont (8300 feet) are extinct volcanoes that reach above the limit of perpetual snow, and the latter is surrounded by one of the most extensive and fertile districts in New Zealand. The range in the South Island, known as the Southern Alps, is crossed at intervals by low passes; the greatest height of the main range is from 10,000 to 14,000 feet in Mount Cook, and it has extensive snow-fields and glaciers.

A considerable part of both islands is clothed with valuable timber. The proportion of forest land to the whole country, as ascertained in 1873, was as under:

The indigenous forest of New Zealand is evergreen, and contains a large variety of valuable woods, which resemble the growths of Tasmania and the continent of Australia, most of them being harder, heavier, and more
of that House. Roll the names of all persons who are qualified to vote. Any person qualified to vote for the election of a member of the House of Representatives; also, every person who has resided for six months a freehold of the clear value of £25, or who has resided for one year in the colony, and in an electoral district during the six months immediately preceding the registration of his vote, is entitled to vote. Any man of twenty-one years and upwards, who is a born or naturalised British subject, and who has held for six months a freehold of the clear value of £25, or who has resided for one year in the colony, and in an electoral district during the six months immediately preceding the registration of his vote, is entitled to be registered as an elector and to vote for the election of a member of the House of Representatives; also, every male Maori of the same age whose name is enrolled on a ratepayers' roll, or who has a freehold estate of the clear value of £25. The duty is imposed upon the registrar of each electoral district of placing on the electoral roll the names of all persons who are qualified to vote. Any person qualified to vote for the election of a member of the House of Representatives is also, generally speaking, qualified to be himself elected a member of that House.

The Colonial Legislature, which meets once a year, has power generally to make laws for the peace, order, and good government of New Zealand. Parliaments are triennial.

The Climate, which is singularly healthy, resembles that of Great Britain, but is more equable, the extremes of daily temperature only varying throughout the year by an average of 20°, whilst London is 7° colder than the North and 4° colder than the South Island of New Zealand. The mean annual temperature of the North Island is 57°, and of the South Island 52°, that of London and New York being 51°. The mean annual temperature of the different seasons for the whole colony is—in spring 55°, in summer 63°, in autumn 57°, and in winter 48°. The climate on the west coast of both islands is more equable than on the east, and the contrast between the respective rainfalls is most striking. Thus, in the North Island, Napier on the east has only half the amount of rain that falls in Taranaki on the west. But the South Island, with its longitudinal range of lofty mountains, exhibits this feature in a still more marked manner, for the rainfall on the west is nearly five times the amount on the east. The excess of precipitation on the coast is clearly illustrated by the distribution of the glaciers on the opposite sides of the range. Those on the west slope have an excessive supply of snow, and descend to a line where the mean annual temperature is 50° Faht., while on the east slope they descend only to the mean annual temperature of 37°. The winter snow-line on the Southern Alps, on the east side, is 3000 feet, and that on the west side is 3700.

The country is divided into counties and road boards, to which, and to the municipalities, local administration is confided. The seat of government is at Wellington, which has a central position.

The population of New Zealand increases very rapidly. A census is taken every three years. The estimated population on 31st December, 1879, exclusive of the aborigines, was 463,729, showing a centesimal increase of 93.2 on the population of 1869. In other words, the population has nearly doubled itself within the last ten years. This rapidity of increase has of course been much assisted by immigration; but the high birth-rates, coupled with the low death-rates usually prevailing in the colony, have also contributed largely to this satisfactory result. The—birth-rate of last year (1879) was 40.34 per 1000, considerably lower than for the three years preceding, while the death-rate for the same year was exceptionally high, being 12.48 per 1000.

The North Island contains about 40,000, divided into many tribes, and scattered over 45,156 square miles. The South Island natives number but about 2000, and they are spread over an immense tract of country, living in groups of a few families on the reserves made for them when the lands were purchased; for the whole of the South Island has been bought from the native owners by the Government. Whatever may be the cause, it is a fact that the natives of the South Island are less restless and excitable than their brethren in the North. As a rule, the Maories are middle-sized and well-formed, the average height of the men being 5 ft. 6 in.; the bodies and arms being longer than those of the average Englishman, but the leg-bones being shorter, and the calves largely developed. In bodily powers the Englishman has the advantage. As a carrier of heavy burdens the native is the superior, but in exercises of strength and endurance the average Englishman surpasses the average Maori.

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Fruit, too, is abundant all over New Zealand. Even in the latitude of Wellington, oranges, lemons, citrons, and loquats are found, whilst peaches, pears, grapes, apricots, figs, melons, and, indeed, all the ordinary fruits of temperate climates, abound. Boots and vegetables of all kinds grow abundantly.

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Wool is undoubtedly the most important production of New Zealand, its value as an export being more than double that of gold. The mildness of the winter season, which does not require that any special provision for the keep of stock during that period should be made, and the general suitability of the country for grazing purposes, with the growth of a superior class of wool, caused the attention of the early settlers to be much given to pastoral pursuits; grass lands were looked up as sheep or cattle runs. The success attending the pursuit enabled the runholders to a large extent to purchase the freehold of their runs, or the best portions of them; and by improvements in fencing and sowing with English grasses, which thrive remarkably well in the colony, the bearing capabilities of the land were increased many fold. The extent to which pastoral pursuits have been followed may be estimated by the quantity of stock in the colony in 1878 (when the census was last taken). The numbers of the undermentioned kinds were as follows:—

These numbers do not include the animals in the possession of aboriginal natives, no estimate of which can be given; while, however, possessing a considerable number of horses, they own but small numbers of sheep and cattle. The export of wool has grown, since the first settlement of the colony in 1839, to an export in 1877 of 64,481,324 lb., estimated in value at £3,658,938. In ten years the increase in the quantity has been at the rate of 124 per cent. During the last two years the export value of wool has diminished, this being attributable partly to the increased manufacture of woollen goods in the colony, and partly to the lowered price of wool in the European markets.

Second to wool only in value as an export is gold, which was discovered in 1842, less than three years from the foundation of the colony; but it was not practically worked until 1852, when the mines at Coromandel first attracted attention to the district of Cape Colville peninsula, which at the present time forms the chief seat of true mining operations in New Zealand. The yield from those mines has up to the present time been over four and a-half millions sterling, but is small when compared with the quantity of alluvial gold obtained more recently in the South Island. The principal quartz-mines in the North are in Coromandel and in the Thames districts, about thirty miles apart. In those localities the reefs have been "proved" to a depth of over 600 feet below sea-level; but the best mines have as yet been principally confined to the decomposed and comparatively superficial rock. Veins have been discovered, and gold obtained, at all levels on the ranges, from the sea-level to an altitude of 2000 feet. The quantity of gold that has been obtained from some of those quartz-reefs is very great; and for considerable distances the quartz has yielded very uniformly at the rate of 600 oz. to the ton. Such reefs arc, however, very exceptional in New Zealand, as elsewhere. Auriferous reefs are also extensively worked in the schistose rocks of Otago, and they occur at all altitudes, from sea-level to a height of 7400 feet, the most elevated gold-mine in the Australasian colonies being that opened during the year 1878 on the summit of Advance Peak, near the Wakanapu Lake. Several promising reefs have also been found in the Westland goldfields, amongst which may be mentioned a reef of auriferous stibnite at Langdon's Creek, near Greymouth, which yields from a few ounces to 99 oz. of gold per ton; but up to the present time these reefs have not received the attention they deserve, except at Reefton and a few other localities. The importance of Reefton as a well-established mining district may be judged of from the fact that nine mining companies there, during the nine years ending 31st March, 1878, divided, as profit, the sum of £63,508 among the shareholders. So far as this more permanent form of gold-mining is concerned, there is every reason to feel confident that it is still in its infancy in this colony, and that it only awaits the judicious application of capital for its development to a vast extent. Alluvial gold is chiefly found in the South Island, in the districts of Otago, Westland, and Nelson, in which mining operations are carried on over an area of almost 20,000 square miles. The alluvial diggings at Collingwood were discovered in 1858, those of Otago in 1861, and in 1864 the goldfields near Hokitika proved a great attraction to the mining population of New Zealand. The richest alluvial diggings in Westland usually occur in places very inaccessible for water supply, the streams having cut their channels much below the surface of the country, so that an organised system of irrigation is necessary to obtain the required amount of water for the gold-washing. The value of the gold exported from New Zealand for the year 1879 was £1,134,641, making the total value of New Zealand gold exported from the year 1857 to 1879, inclusive, £35,073,478.

Copper, which in the earlier days of the colony formed a very important item of export, has, of late years, almost entirely disappeared from the Customs' returns. Its value as an article of export has been more than replaced by the more precious metal, silver, that which is exported from the colony being chiefly extracted from the gold obtained at the Thames, which is alloyed with about 30 per cent, of the less valuable metal. Within the last two years, however, several mines have been opened where the ore is argentiferous galena, that yields 20 to 50 oz. of silver to the ton. In some cases the galena is mixed with iron pyrites that yields a fair percentage of gold. A mine has recently been opened in Nelson, at Richmond Hill, where the ore is a form of tetrahedrite, a mixed ore, containing silver, antimony, zinc, bismuth, and copper, the silver being at the rate of from 20 oz. to 1792 oz. per ton. The total quantity of silver entered for exportation from New Zealand from the year 1869, when it was first exported, up to 31st December, 1879, amounted to 338,581 ounces, valued at £90,457.
Other valuable mineral ores are found in various parts of the colony, such as chrome, lead, zinc, antimony, and manganese. No iron mines are at present worked, though almost every known variety of iron ore has been discovered in the colony; the workings being limited to the black sands, which occur plentifully on the coasts. There are also few soils or stream gravels that will not yield a considerable quantity when washed; the chief deposits are, however, on the sea shore of the west coast of both islands, the best known being that at Taranaki.

The extensive coalfields existing in New Zealand are likely to prove a most valuable possession to the colony. Coal mines are being worked in the provinces of Auckland, Nelson, Canterbury, and Otago, including Southland; those in the provinces of Auckland, Nelson, and Otago producing, at present, the largest quantities. At Mount Rochfort or Buller mines the seams are on a high plateau, are 10 to 40 feet thick, and from 900 to 3000 feet above sea-level. Accurate surveys of this coalfield show it to contain 140,000,000 tons of bituminous coal of the best quality and easily accessible. A railway 17 miles in length is now completed along the level country at the base of the ranges in which the coal occurs. At the Brunner coal mine on the Grey River, Nelson, the working face of the seam is 18 feet, and it has been proved to extend one-third of a mile on the strike without disturbance, and to be available for working in an area of 30 acres; the estimated amount of coal being 4,000,000 tons in this mine alone, most of which can be worked above the water-level. Coal Pit Heath is a second mine lying more to the dip of the same seam. A third mine is being opened on the south side of the river, which, with a 370-feet shaft, will command 300,000 tons. The coal from the Brunner mine, Nelson, which has now been worked for 12 years, yields vitreous coke, with brilliant metallic lustre. A railway has been constructed by Government to connect the mine with the port, and harbour improvements are in progress, whereby a larger class of vessels than at present will be enabled to enter the river. The small quantity of this coal hitherto obtainable in New Zealand and Australian markets has been eagerly bought up for gas-workers and iron foundries, whose managers generally pay for it from 10 to 20 per cent, more than for any other coal. Engineers of local steamers esteem it 20 per cent, better than the best New South Wales coal for steam purposes. Coke made from it is valued at £3 per ton. Coalfields in other parts of the Nelson District have also yielded excellent coal. At Pakawau, and in the same formation at Collingwood, thin seams of hard, bright, bituminous coal have been worked. The area of this coalfield is about 30 square miles; the facilities of access and shipping, and the abundance of iron ore and limestone, will probably make this an important mining district. In the province of Auckland, at the Kawa Kawa mine, Bay of Islands, the coal is taken from a seam 13 feet thick, containing much sulphur. This coal is now very extensively used by steamers. The total consumption of coal in the colony for the year 1878 amounted to 332,445 tons, of which 158,297 tons were derived from New Zealand mines, the balance being imported from New South Wales.

In 1866 attention was directed to the resources of the colony in respect to petroleum, and some very fine oils were found. There are three principal localities, and these produce each a distinct kind of oil—the Sugar Loaves, in the Taranaki province; Poverty Bay, on the east coast of the province of Auckland; and Mauntahi, Waiapu, East Cape. The oil from the first has a very high specific gravity, .960 to .964 at 60° Fahn., water at 1. It has thus too much carbon in its composition for its commercial success as an illuminating oil, but is capable of producing a valuable lubricating oil. It resembles oil occurring in Santa Barbara County, California. The second kind from Waiapu, Poverty Bay, is a true paraffin oil. Resembling the Canadian oil. By three successive distillations, and treatment with acids and alkalies, about 65 per cent, of a good illuminating oil is obtainable, with specific gravity of-843. The third produces a pale brown oil, nearly or quite transparent; specific gravity, .829 at 60° Fahn.; which burns well in a kerosene lamp for some time, and is therefore of a very superior class. It contains only traces of paraffin, and produces 84 per cent, of an illuminating oil fit for use in kerosene lamps by means of a single distillation. Specimens of petroleum oil shales have been found at D'Urville's Island in Cook Strait; Mongonui and Waiapu, in Auckland; Kaikorai, Blueskin, in Otago; and, quite recently, at Orepuki, in Southland, an extensive and apparently valuable formation of shale has been discovered.

Allusion has been made to the area of country occupied by mountain ranges in New Zealand, and the general position they occupy with reference to the geography of the country, and it may be further stated that, with the exception of the higher Alps, every part of the country is more or less adapted for settlement of some kind. A clearer idea of the value of the country, and the purposes to which it is applicable, is, however, obtained by the comparison of the rock formations, the decomposition of which produces the soils. In the whole of the colony there are about 12,000,000 acres of land fitted for agriculture, wherein the form of surface is suitable, and about 50,000,000 which are better adapted for pasture; but from these estimates allowance must be made for about 20,000,000 acres of surface at present covered by forest. The progress made in agriculture has been very rapid, and the number of persons engaged in this pursuit is, as compared with other countries, very large, about one in every five of the adult male population being in this way possessed of a permanent stake in the country. The number of holdings of one acre and upwards of cultivated land (exclusive of gardens attached to residences and native holdings) enumerated in March, 1878, was 20,519, an increase of 1769 on the year previous; and in February, 1879, the number of holdings had increased to 21,048. The exports of agricultural
and farm produce increased from £262,930 in 1875, to £763,635 in 1879.

The average yield of wheat for the year 1878-9 was 22.94 bushels per acre for the whole colony, the average for the last five years being 27.62 bushels per acre.

The average yield of other produce for the same year, 1878-9, for the whole colony, was:—

The greater portion of the best and most available land has been for some time taken up, and can now only be obtained from the original settlers at enhanced prices. The Government, however, offers every facility for the acquisition of Crown lands by bonâ-fide farmers or settlers, either by direct purchase or by a system of deferred payments, spread over a period of years. The price of Crown land ranges from ten shillings to two pounds per acre.

The total area of Crown land sold, or otherwise disposed of, from the first return in 1856 to 30th June, 1879, amounted to 14,014,632 acres, of which total 11,672,651 acres were sold for cash, realising the sum of £11,210,412. The number of acres of Crown lands held for depasturing purposes on the last-named date was 12,253,876, in the hands of 918 holders, the rents and assessment of which amounted to £111,000.

About three-fifths of the whole import and export trade of the colony is in direct connection with the home country, the remainder representing the commerce carried on with Australia, America, Mauritius, and South Sea Islands. The imports for the year 1878 amounted to £8,755,667, and the exports to £6,015,700—the former being equal to £20 13s. 6d. and the latter to £14 4s. 1d. per head of population.

Manufactures in New Zealand have hitherto received very little notice or encouragement. Beyond the industries naturally arising in connection with the wool trade and agriculture, such as fellmongery, tanning and currying establishments, boiling-down, meat-preserving, and agricultural machinery works; or industries needed to supply the immediate requirements of trade—such as saw-mills, ship and boat building yards, foundries, carriage works, &c.—very little had been done in the way of manufactures until lately. Still the progress in the industries referred to, and others not specially named, has been considerable, the census returns indicating an increase of nearly a third during the period between 1874 and 1878—the total number of industries in the former year being set down as 637, and in the latter as 942. Several woollen factories, paper-mills, pottery works, and other industries have been success, fully started during the last few years, and the subject of local industries generally is now receiving a share of that consideration which its importance merits, the present superabundance of labour in the colony tending not a little to promote enquiry in this direction. The recent industrial Exhibition at Sydney has done something to encourage the movement, and doubtless a further stimulus will be afforded by the Melbourne International Exhibition. Possessed of extensive coalfields and other natural advantages, there seems no reason why New Zealand should not become in time distinguished as a manufacturing, as well as a gold-exporting, pastoral, and agricultural colony.

NEW ZEALAND EXHIBITS.

[Exhibits classed under Fine Arts Group will be found in the Fine Arts Section of the Catalogue.]

II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.

Class 6.—Education of Children, Primary Instruction, Instruction of Adults.

1 Board of Education. Napier, New Zealand.—School apparatus and school appliances.
4 Hector, J., M.D., C.M.G., F.R.S.—Scientific and other publications relating to New Zealand.
5 Hill. H.. Napier, New Zealand.—Reading tablets (16 sheets).

Class 8.—Organisation, Methods, and Appliances for Superior Instruction.
6 Daniel, W., Dipton, Southland.—Specimens of fossils, stones.
7 Driller, s., New Plymouth.—Horse's foot (showing the formation).
8 Haast, Prof. J. von, Ph.D., F.R.S.—Collections, illustrating the ethnology of New Zealand.
9 Haast. Prof J. von. Ph.D., F.R.S.—Collection, illustrating the ethnology of pre-historic races beyond the Australian colonies.
10 Haast, Prof. J. von, Ph.D., F.R.S.—Three complete skeletons of Dinornithidæ, articulated from material obtained in tertiary deposits at Glenmark.
11 Haast. Prof J. von, Ph.D., F.R.S.—Maps, sections, and drawings, illustrating the ethnology of New Zealand.
13 Hamilton, A., & Hill. H., Napier.—Specimens of fossils, illustrating the geology of Hawke's Bay.
14 Hamilton, A., Napier.—Curious and rare specimens of ancient printing and writing, enamel (rare print).
15 Hamilton, A., Petane, Napier, New Zealand.—Ethnological collection (11 articles).
16 Harding, J., Napier.—Stone axes, Maori carvings, limestone fossils.
17 Hector, J., M.D., C.M.G., F.R.S.—Collection of 2500 specimens, illustrating the geology of New Zealand.
18 Hector, J., M.D., C.M.G., F.R.S.—Collection, illustrating the mineralogy of New Zealand.
20 Hector, J., M.D., C.M.G., F.R.S.—Collection of sketches of New Zealand scenery.
21 Monckton. C. H., Wellington.—Maori war flag captured at Opotiki.
22 Parker, Prof. T. J., Otago Museum, Dunedin.—A series of vertebrate skulls (13 in number).
23 Thomas, J. A., Nelson.—Fossil shell and timber, found at Moutere.

Class 9.—Printing, Books.
24 Colenso, W., F.L.S., Napier.—First books and public papers printed in New Zealand.
25 Cumming, R., Dunedin.—Six copies of masonic newspaper, printed in two colours.
26 Edward & Green, Wellington.—Specimens of machine-printing.
27 Enys, J. D., F.G.S., Canterbury.—Illustrated catalogue of New Zealand butterflies.
28 Gordon, W., Wanganui.—Publications in Maori language.
29 Harding. R. C, Napier.—Specimens of letterpress printing.
30 Wilkinson, W., Thames.—Specimens of printing.

Class 10.—Stationery, Bookbinding, Painting and Drawing Materials.
32 Burrett, R., Wellington.—Specimens of bookbinders' work.
33 Colenso, W., F.L.S., Napier.—Paper made from Phormium tenax before 1838.
34 Didsbury. G., Government Printer, Wellington.—Bookbinding, set of account-books, eleven volumes of Transactions.
35 Fergusson & Mitchell, Dunedin.—Account-books, &c.
36 Hammond, J., Nelson.—Four bottles of ink manufactured by the exhibitor.
37 Invercargill Paper Bag Factory, Invercargill.—Paper bags made from paper manufactured by the Mataura Paper Mill Co.
38 Mataura Paper Mill Co., Otago.—Brown and grey wrapping-paper, manufactured chiefly from native grass.
39 Otago Paper Co., Dunedin.—Two samples of brown wrapping-paper, manufactured by the exhibitors.

Class 11.—General Application of the Arts of Drawing and Modelling.
40 Burrett, R., Wellington.—Specimens of engraved work.
41 Colenso, W., F.L.S., Napier.—Ancient Asiatic bell (cast of); plate of do., framed and glazed.
42 Duncan, A., Queen Charlotte Sound.—Bronze medal struck in commemoration of Captain Cook leaving England, 1772.
43 Graham, R., Wai Wera, Auckland.—Carved Maori bowl.
44 Halcombe, Mrs. E., Fielding, Wellington.—Lithographs of the Manchester Block, Fielding, by the
exhibitor.
45 Hume, J., Dunedin.—Walking-stick, carved from New Zealand wood—mika mika.
46 Johnston, W. G., Hokitika.—Two scenes and two artistic designs, arranged with ferns, mosses, and
lichens.
47 Lyon & Blair, Wellington.—Specimens of engraving.
48 Mackay, H., Waithola, Dunedin.—Penknife carving of ox-horn, fan handle, and cocoanut casket.
49 M'Duff, J., Wellington.—Heraldry painting.
50 Proprietors of the "Lytelton Times," Christchurch.—Specimens of engraving.
51 Proprietors of the "Lytelton Times," Christchurch.—Specimens of lithography.
52 Stodart, Mrs. J., Auckland.—Copies of flowers grown in exhibitor's garden, modelled in rice-paper.
53 Surveyor-General of New Zealand, Wellington.—Specimens of lithographs, by the Survey Department.
54 Trevithick, F., Wanganui.—Dog and bird carved on burnt kauri.
55 Wilson, W., Wanganui.—Dog's head, carved on burnt oak.

Class 13.—Musical Instruments.
56 Falconer, W. S., Blenheim.—Violin and case, of New Zealand wood.
57 Simpson, A., Southland.—Set of bagpipes, made of native material.

Class 14.—Medicine, Hygiene, and Public Relief.
58 Burt, A. & T., Dunedin.—Washstands, ready fitted for attaching supply and waste pipes.
59 Packer, J. A., Nelson.—Artificial leg, with movable joints at knee, ankle, and toes.

Class 15.—Mathematical and Philosophical Instruments.
60 Burt, A. & T., Dunedin.—Set of copper spirit measures.
61 Stowe, L., Wellington.—Original models of Stowe's calculating-machine, patented.

Class 16.—Maps, and Geographical and Cosmo-graphical Apparatus.
62 Ayers, A., Christchurch.—Two views of Christchurch, with statistical information about Canterbury.
63 Deverell, W., Invereargill.—Specimens of survey drafting, bound in book form.
64 Hector, J., M.D., C.M.G., F.R.S.—Geological maps of New Zealand, together with plans and sections.
65 Mueller, G., Chief Surveyor, Hokitika.—Map of Westland, showing position of valuable minerals
discovered between 1864 and 1880.
66 Miller, M. R., Napier.—Annual Stock and Station Report, containing statistics showing progress of
Hawke's Bay Province.
67 O'Neill, C., C.E., Wellington.—Plan of the city of Wellington, prepared from official documents.
68 Spreat, W. W. J., Wellington.—Litho map of Otago, by the exhibitor.
69 Sydenham Borough Council, Canterbury.—Chart of statistics and views of buildings in the borough.

III. Furniture and Accessories.

Class 17.—Cheap and Fancy Furniture.
70 August, H., Invereargill.—Spring bottoms for full-sized bedstead.
71 Bain, A. B., Wellington.—Hanging escritoire, for use in hall, parlour, bedroom, office or in travelling.
72 Bernasconi, G., Wellington.—Superior inlaid table, of New Zealand woods.
73 Fleming, G., Nelson.—Tables and boxes (inlaid), of New Zealand woods.
74 Guthrie & Larnach's New Zealand Timber & Woodenware Factories Co., Dunedin.—Ornamental door,
in New Zealand woods.
75 Guthrie & Larnach's Co.—Cabinet of New Zealand woods, numbering 8508 pieces.
76 Halley & Ewing, Wellington.—Door of New Zealand red pine.
77 Large & Townley, Napier.—Work-table inlaid, of New Zealand woods.
Class 18.—Upholsterers' and Decorators' Work.

89 Guthrie & Larnach's New Zealand Timber & Woodenware Factories Co., Dunedin.—Gilt console table, with marble top.
90 Maxwell, Mrs., Fernhill, Wellington.—Curtains, New Zealand ferns done in China-ink.
91 Myers, T., Wellington.—Sample picture-frame.
92 Paterson, Burk & Co., Dunedin.—Samples of Venetian blinds.
93 Salmon, Mrs. Kate, Kakaramea, Patea.—Cone picture-frames, seaweed and ferns.
94 Taylor, J., Maclaggan-st., Dunedin.—Venetian blind, with stand and pulleys complete.
95 Thompson, Mrs., Napier.—Framed picture, of seaweed.
96 White, Mrs. S., Roseville, Wanganui.—Picture-frame in New Zealand cones.

Class 20.—Pottery.

97 Austin, Kirk & Co., Christchurch.—Stoneware drain-pipes pottery, and ornamental specimens of fire-clay goods.
98 Boyd, G., Auckland.—Samples of gas tiles.
99 Capstick, R. W., Dunedin.—Jugs, vases, spill-cups, teapots, candlesticks, and ink-bottles.
100 Condliffe, T., Malvern Hills, Canterbury.—Terra-cotta—scroll-work, cornice-work, trusses, brackets, balustrades, garden vases, and ornaments.
101 Ford & Ogden, South Malvern, Canterbury.—Drain-pipes; fire-bricks, from fire-clay and from ganister; ornamental bricks.
102 Norbury, G., Wellington.—Drain-pipes, glazed.
103 Plant, W., Thames.—One jug mould, with handle, complete in one mould.
105 WaitO, J. E., Thames.—China dish (raised figures), 200 years old.
106 Wright & Vincent, Hamilton, Auckland.—Samples of pottery-ware.

Class 21.—Carpets, Tapestry, and other Stuffs for Furniture.

107 Cook, W., Wellington.—Four mats, made of New Zealand flax and wool.
108 Hislop, A. R., Wellington.—Tapestry, executed by Mary, Queen of Scots.
109 Oldham, A., Onehunga, Auckland.—New Zealand flax floor-matting.

Class 24.—Goldsmiths' and Silversmiths' Work.

110 Peterson, B., & Co., Christchurch.—Silver claret jug and cups, manufactured by exhibitors, from New Zealand silver.
111 Sandstein, M., Christchurch.—Silver epergne, of local manufacture.
112 Blytt, A., Timaru.—Centre-piece, two cake-baskets, twelve teaspoons (sterling silver).

Class 25.—Bronzes and various Art Castings and Repousse Work.

113 Burt. A. & T., Dunedin.—One ladies' reel-stand, electro-plated and mounted with silk reels.
Class 27.—Apparatus and Processes for Heating and Lighting.

114 Atkinson, T., Christchurch.—Working-man's cooking range, capable of being entirely closed or used as an open range.
115 Barningham & Co., Ironfounders, Dunedin.—Patent cooking and heating range, "Zealandia."
116 Burt, A. & T., Dunedin.—Gasaliers, billiard, bracket, pillar, and other lights.
117 Doullin, W., Blenheim.—Three patent candle-sticks.
118 Fisher, H., Thames—Colonial oven and grate.

Class 29.—Leather-work, Fancy Articles, and Basket-work.

119 Brigden, Mrs. A., Wellington.—Hand-screen, tablecover, tea-cloth, bracket.
120 Ellery, Miss E. F., Dunedin.—Cotton crochet tablecover.
121 Harbutt, T. J., Brush Manufacturer, Auckland.—Brushware made of bristles, hair, fibre, whisk, &c.
122 Henry, Miss Bridget J., Kensington, Dunedin.—Picture, in Berlin wool and silk—"Christ in Gethsemane."
123 Jennings, D. H., Nelson.—Nest of three baskets made of native material; card of Pawa shell ornaments.
124 Lockwood, Mrs., Timaru.—Antimacassar.
125 MacFarlane, Mrs. D., Jackson's Bay.—Sea-weed and shells.
126 Malcolm, Alice Jane, Dunedin.—Picture, in Berlin wool and silk; subject—"Dogs."
127 Malcolm, Olivia Alberta, Dunedin.—Picture, in Berlin wool and silk; subject—"The Hueruenots."
128 Malcolm, Olivia Alberta, Dunedin.—Raised Berlin wool and silk picture—"Flowers."
129 Maxwell, Mrs., Wellington.—Menu cards, ornamented with New Zealand flowers.
130 Munro, G., Dunedin.—Clock case, made from Kakanui stone.
131 Murdoch, Miss L., Upper Hutt, Wellington.—Natural fern stencil-work, combined with water-colours.
132 Porter, J., Thames.—Puzzle, in decanter.
133 Powell, Mrs. H., Oamam.—Picture, in wool and silk—"Huguenot."
134 Salmon, Mrs. Kate, Kakaramea, Patca.—Cone bracket.
135 Sim, Mrs. Janet, Dunedin.—Socks, stockings, baby's petticoat.
136 Stott, Mrs., Auckland.—Models of flowers in wool-work.
137 Strong, Miss Annie, Port Chalmers.—Collection of crochet-work.
138 Thompson, W., Dunedin.—Draughtboard, made from painter's trying-block—imitation of inlaid wood.

IV. Textile Fabrics, Clothing, and Accessories.

Class 31.—Thread and Fabrics of Flax, Hemp, &c.

139 M'Tavish, Miss, Thames.—Specimens of needlework from New Zealand flax.
140 Nattrass, L., Nelson.—Bag, made of New Zealand flax.
141 Potts, E., Governor's Bay, Christchurch.—Tablecovers, fringe, &c.

Class 33.—Woollen Yarn and Fabrics.

142 Braithwaite, A., Hutt, Wellington.—Yam, homespun (made by a station hand).
143 Mosgiel Woollen Factory Co. Limited, Dunedin.—Tweeds, travelling-rugs, blankets.

Class 34.—Silk and Silk Fabrics.

144 Dignan, R., Auckland.—Silk.
145 Gibbons, S., Wanganui.—Silk.
146 Graham, R. E., Auckland.—Silk, the produce of 1000 silkworms reared in Auckland.

Class 36.—Lace, Net, Embroidery, and Trimmings.

147 Beeby, Mrs., Queenstown, Otago.—Knitted counterpane.
148 Binns, Mrs. George, Dunedin.—Imitation old point lace.
Class 37.—Hosiery and Underclothing, and Accessories of Clothing.

152 Black, Mrs. M. A., Wellington.—Hosiery, football suits, and fancy goods.
153 Greenshields, W., Brace Maker, Auckland.—Orné silk braces, belts, and kneelets.
154 Henry, Miss Mary, Nelson.—Woollen scarf, spun and knitted by hand from wool grown in Nelson district.
155 Mosgiel Woollen Factory Co. Limited, Dunedin.—Hosiery.
156 Rother, L., Dunedin.—Specimens of Dunedin manufactured socks, stockings, pants, shirts, football suits—all of New Zealand wool.
157 Sim, Mrs. Janet, Dunedin.—Hosiery, &c.

Class 38.—Clothing for both Sexes.

158 Almao, V., Dunedin.—Hats, manufactured by the exhibitor.
159 Becker, J. G., Napier.—Two Maori mats.
160 Balharry, D., Napier.—Kiwi mat.
161 Bertinshaw, G., Furrier and Felt Hatter, Dunedin.—Felt hats, made from rabbits' fur.
162 Harris, W., Christchurch.—Boots and shoes.
163 Lightband, Allan & Co., Christchurch.—Boots and shoes, locally manufactured on the "Factory System."
164 Marriott, Mrs. Thomas, Wellington.—Bonnet, made from lace-bark from a New Zealand tree.
165 Munden, J., Dunedin.—Boots and shoes.
166 Nicholls, W., & Son, Christchurch.—Boots and shoes.
167 O'Connell, Mrs. Joanna, Auckland.—Limerick lace; baby's robe, worked by hand by the exhibitor.

Class 39.—Jewellery and Precious Stones.

168 Cogan, J., Naseby, Otago.—Chain and pin, made chiefly of gold found at Maniatoto.
169 Williams & Son, Picton.—Pearl (black), found by a Maori in a mussel.

Class 41.—Travelling Apparatus and Camp Equipage.

170 Harris. J., Dunedin.—Portmanteaus.

V. Raw and Manufactured Products.

Class 43.—Products of the Cultivation of Forests, and of the Trades appertaining thereto.

171 Auckland Harbour Board, Auckland.—Specimens of Australian and New Zealand timber, showing the action of "Teredo navalis."
172 Bagnall Brothers & Co., Thames.—Sample board of Kahikatea.
173 Beckenham, J., Nelson.—Section of a stump of flowering fuchsia-tree.
174 Blair, W. N., Dunedin, Engineer-in-Chief for the South Island.—Polished and named samples of New Zealand woods.
175 Campbell, Dr. L., Auckland.—Two slabs of kauri pine.
176 Colonial Museum of New Zealand, Wellington.—Collection of timbers, showing results of experiments for determining strength.
177 Cumming, A., Hokitika.—Slab of mottled silver pine.
178 Denne, J. G., Nelson.—Block of totara wood, suitable for veneering.
179 Fletcher, J. E., Collingwood, Nelson.—Plank of yellow pine timber, and section of same with bark.
180 George, J. C., Taranaki.—Specimens of New Zealand woods, polished and rough.

181 Grayling, W. I., Taranaki.—Tanning, dyeing, and medical extracts.

182 Guthrie, R., Dunedin.—31 samples, polished and named, of New Zealand timbers.

183 Haast, Prof. J. von, Ph.D., F.R.S.—Timbers of Canterbury and Westland.

184 Halcombe, A. F., Fielding. Wellington.—Native ornamental woods. Table top, showing totara knot and honeysuckle (Rewa-Rewa).

185 Hokiaanga Saw-Mill Co., Hokiaanga (per Greenfield & Stewart), Wellington.—Four pieces of kauri.

186 Hokitika Local Committee, Hokitika.—Specimens of timber from Westland.

187 Holdship, G., Auckland.—Specimens of large kauri timber.

188 Hornby, J., Picton.—Two planks of rimu, polished.

189 Hornby, J., Picton.—21 specimens of New Zealand woods.

190 Isaacs, E., Auckland.—Kauri timber, showing the natural formation of kauri gum.

191 M’Connon, W., Hokitika.—Totara timber knot.

192 New Zealand Commissioners, Wellington.—Fine specimen of kauri timber.

193 Norrie, W., Cabinetmaker, Auckland.—Ornamental timbers, from New Zealand forests.

194 Otago Museum, Dunedin.—Native timber of Otago. Portion of totara log worked with stone adzes.

195 Robertson & Co., Queenstown, Otago.—Samples of birch totara.

196 Stone, R., Thames.—Veneers of colonial woods.

197 Sullivan, M., Basket Maker, Dunedin.—Six large and six small baskets, made from New-Zealand supplejack.

198 Tapper, R. & A., Invercargill.—Specimens of timber from Southland.

199 Wilding & Ball, Napier.—New Zealand timber and bark, for tanning.

Class 44.—Products of Hunting, Shooting, Fishing, and Spontaneous Products. Machines and Implements connected therewith.

200 Baker Brothers, Wellington.—Collection of articles manufactured from kauri gum.

201 Bertinshaw, G., Furrier, Dunedin.—Samples of rabbit and hare skins, and furs.

202 Bush, Capt. H., Thames.—350 specimens of kauri gum, comprising all known qualities found in New Zealand.

203 Carpenter, W., Thames.—Specimens of kauri gum.

204 Daniel, W., Dipton, Southland.—Rabbit skins.

205 Elder, W., Dunedin.—Sample of sea-elephant oil.

206 Hamilton, A., Petane, Napier.—Illustrations of New Zealand zoology—Boar's skull.

207 Hull Brothers, Auckland.—Kauri gum, in its various forms and conditions.

208 Hull, jun., & Co., Auckland.—Kauri gum (ordinary market samples).

209 Invercargill Local Committee, Invercargill.—Stuffed specimens of fish.

210 Liardet, H. E., Wellington.—Furrier's work (muffs, tippets, and other articles), made from New Zealand skins and feathers.

211 Mitcheson, E., Dargaville, Auckland.—Samples of kauri gum.

212 Parker, Prof. T. J., Otago Museum, Dunedin.—Stuffed king penguins; also, skeleton and egg.

213 Parker, Prof., Otago Museum, Dunedin.—Sea crayfish (Palinurus Edwardsii), preserved so as to retain its natural colour and flexibility.

214 Paton, H. I., Bay of Islands.—Kauri gum ornaments.

215 Reischek, A.. Naturalist, Auckland.—Two groups of New Zealand birds.

216 Ross, A. Y., Gisborne.—Petroleum (crude state).

217 Thames Produce Co. Limited., Thames.—Three cases kauri gum.

Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food.

218 Bevan, T., jun., Foxton.—Rope and lines made from New Zealand flax.

219 Cameron, H., Hokitika.—Bale of flax.

220 Canterbury Agricultural & Pastoral Association, Christchurch.—Dressed fibre, from European flax grown in New Zealand; plough lines.

221 chimney, C., Rangiora, Canterbury.—New Zealand flax (dressed), twine.

222 Colonial Museum of New Zealand.—Phorinum tenax—samples showing preparation of fibre and
application to useful purposes.

223 Fulton, C., Blenheim.—Sample of flax.
224 King, W. R., New Plymouth.—Flax kits, made by Maoris.
225 Robertson, A., Dye Works, Nelson.—Phormium tenax, or New Zealand flax.
226 Ross, A. Y., Gisborne.—Tobacco leaf.
227 Saeffer, B., Wellington.—Hand-made cigarettes, made by the exhibitor.
228 Seed, J., Southbrook, Canterbury.—Flax, tow, rope, and twine.

Class 46.—Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products.

229 Bennett, P., Thames.—Raw and calcined hematite, and specimen board showing tint effects.
230 Bennett, F., Thames.—Specimens of raw and manufactured hematite.
231 Gomez, J., Bulls. Rangitikei.—Soda-water, lemonade, and sarsaparilla.
232 Hitchens, H. A. H., Auckland.—Vegetable compound for purifying the blood.
233 Hokitika Local Committee, Hokitika.—Dozen mineral waters, from Waihoaouri, Westland.
234 Innes, W., Port Chalmers.—Five pint bottles cod liver oil, warranted pure.
235 Kitchen & Sons, Wellington.—Candles and soaps.
236 M'Leod Brothers, Crown Soap and Candle Works, Dunedin.—Stearine candles, soaps.
237 Neil, J., Herbalist, Dunedin.—Selection of botanic medicines.

Class 48.—Leather and Skins.

238 Collier, T., Nelson.—Sample of parchment made by hand.
239 Crossley, H., & Co., Wellington.—Salted pelts, prepared for shipment.
240 Walton, H., Glen Craigie, Wellington.—Basils (white, brown, and black).

VI. Machinery—Apparatus and Processes used in the Mechanical Industries.

Class 49.—Agricultural Implements and Processes used in the Cultivation of Fields and Forests.

241 Duncan, P. & D., South British Iron Works, Christchurch.—Double and single-furrow ploughs.
242 Maydwell, D., Christchurch.—Bone-dust (fine, medium, and coarse).
243 Moorhouse, T. C., Christchurch.—Superphosphate of lime and artificial bone manures.
244 Reid & Gray, Dunedin.—Double-furrow plough, with swivel coulters; set of iron zigzag harrows, assortment of machine-made castings.
245 Walker, J., C.E., Thames.—Designs for farm buildings.

Class 50.—Apparatus and Processes used in Agricultural Works, and in Works for the Preparation of Food.

246 Arnold, E., Kuripenui, Wellington.—Revolving beehive, to obtain honey without destroying the bees.
247 Bagnall Brothers & Co., Thames.—Bar-framed beehive.
248 Burt, A. & T., Dunedin.—Brewers' refrigerator, mashing-machines, bottling-syphon, and corking-machine.
249 Ellis, T., Wanganui.—Butter-churn.

Class 52.—Machines and Apparatus in general.

250 Burt, A. & T., Dunedin.—Water-engine and various pumps, pipes, &c.
251 Bush, Capt. H., Thames.—Model of new form of double-purchase blocks.
252 Crow, A., Dunedin.—Working model of beam-engine, by exhibitor.
253 Dungan, P. J., Timaru.—Box-mangle, for which a patent has been applied for.
254 Thomson, T., Bluff Harbour.—Washing-machine.
Class 58.—Apparatus and Processes used in Paper-making, Dyeing, and Printing.

255 Ffrost, J. W., Wellington.—Rubber stamps.
256 Puschel, Jauncey & Co., Christchurch.—Paper pulp, papier-maché, and short stuff, from New Zealand flax.
257 Stansell, J. B., Christchurch.—Half-stuff and papier-maché, manufactured from New Zealand flax.

Class 60.—Carriages, and Wheelwrights' Work.

258 Moor, W., & Sons, Christchurch.—Circular-fronted brougham.

Class 61.—Harness and Saddlery.

260 Brown, C., & Son, Invercargill.—Riding saddle, with improved knee-pad.
261 Dunbar, A., Christchurch.—Saddles (ladies', gents', and steeplechase).

Class 62.—Railway Apparatus.

262 Alves, J., Dunedin.—Working model of A Ives' patent aerial tramway, with specimen full-size clip and hanger.
263 Reid & Duncan, Civil Engineers, Dunedin.—General plan and details of wire-rope railway.

Class 63.—Telegraphic Apparatus and Processes.

264 Hayes, J. E., Lambton Quay, Wellington.—Electric office indicator, invented by exhibitor for use in Banks, Insurance, Government, or Merchants' offices. The indication is given by simply turning the side of the plate (which should be fixed to the table) uppermost, which bears the word required to be indicated.

Class 64.—Apparatus and Processes of Civil Engineering, Public Works, and Architecture.

265 Alves, J., Dunedin.—Silt elevator and carrier.
266 Boyd, G., Newton, Auckland.—Bricks.
267 Brown, S., Wellington.—Model of Cape Farewell Lighthouse.
268 Burnside, H., Dunedin.—Model of the residence of Hon. R. Campbell, Otekaika.
269 Burt, A. & T., Dunedin.—Brass castings and brass-work, consisting of fittings, valves, hydrants, branch-pipes, couplings, &c.
270 Canterbury Marble Co. Limited, Christchurch.—Nine pieces of marble.
271 Daniel, W., Orcti, Southland.—Specimens of stone from quarry at Dipton.
272 Ellis, J. C., Merivale, Southland.—Two exhibits of easily-worked, durable building-stone.
273 Haast, Prof. J. von, Ph.D., F.R.S.—Building-stones from Canterbury.
275 M'Caffrev, E., Sculptor, Queenstown.—Free-stone, dressed and partly dressed.
276 M'George, L. D., Clyde. Otago.—Plan of suspension-bridge over River Clutha.
277 M'Lennan, W., Dunedin.—Working model of self-discharging silt-barge.
278 Munro, G., Dunedin.—Specimens of New Zealand marble.
279 Munro, G., Dunedin.—Hydraulic cement in its native state.
280 New Zealand Commissioners, Wellington.—Carved panels of an ancient Maori house.
281 Oamnrn Stone Co., Oamaru.—Stone column, with capital; obelbk block.
283 O'Neill, C., Wellington.—Artificial Caithness flagging, patented by the exhibitor.
284 Stansell, J. B., Christchurch.—Specimen of marble.
285 Thomson, T., Bluff Harbour.—Method of lifting weights.

Class 65.—Navigation and Life-saving.
286 Blackett, J., Marine Engineer, Wellington.—Lighthouse chart of New Zealand.
287 Foster, W., Christchurch.—Life-saving vest, which can also be used as an air-cushion.
288 George, T., Dunedin.—Plans and soundings of Otago Harbour.
289 Hargreaves, T., Nelson.—Model wave-power machine.
290 Holliday, Captain J., Wellington.—Plan of Wellington Harbour.
291 Luxford, G. H., Wellington.—Model of a Maori canoe.
292 Lyttelton Harbour Board, Christchurch.—Plan of Lyttelton and Inner Harbour, showing the harbour improvements.
293 Lyttelton Harbour Board, Christchurch.—Model of Lyttelton Harbour.
294 M’Lennan, W., Dunedin.—Working model of boat with propeller, convertible into life-boat, pleasure-boat, &c.
295 Thomson, T., Bluff Harbour.—Models of ships' compasses, ships' anchors, wind-power, water-power.
296 Union Steam Shipping Co., Dunedin.—Models of steamers "Rotomahana" and "Wakatipu," and others.
297 Warburton, P. S., Palmerston North.—Canvas boat, to fold up (for one person).
298 Waymouth, J., Auckland.—Models of five celebrated yachts, and five modified from same.

VII. Alimentary Products.

Class 67.—Cereals, Farinaceous Products, and Products derived from them.

299 Banks, E. H., Christchurch.—Grain, seeds, pearl barley, peas, beans, oats, &c.
301 Capper, J., Wellington.—Potato flour.
302 Chambers, J., Te Mata, Havelock, Napier.—Rye-grass seed.
303 Clayden, S., Wakefield. Nelson.—Barley, grown on newly broken-up land after oats.
304 Cleave, R., Invercargill.—perennial rye grass seed.
305 Coe, J., Lake Ellesmere, Canterbury.—Varieties of wheat. Chevalier barley, oats, peas, and one sheaf champion wheat.
306 Cuddon, W., Christchurch.—Pale malt, porter malt, amber malt (own manufacture).
307 Cunningham, P., & Co., Christchurch.—Several varieties of wheat, oats, barley, beans, peas, and grass seed.
308 Dudley, C. T., Irwell, Canterbury.—Wheat, grown on exhibitor's farm.
309 Duncan & Son, Christchurch.—Farm and garden seeds.
310 Dwyer, M., Frankton, near Queenstown.—Sample of red wheat.
311 Fleming, Gray & Co., Invercargill.—Oatmeal pearl barley, wheat, flour.
312 Harley, T., Nelson.—Hops and malt.
313 Harley & Sons, Raglan Brewery. Nelson-Barley and malt made from a similar sample.
314 Hoadley & Lyon, Napier.—Meadow fescue.
315 Hoadley & Lyon, Napier.—Rye-grass seed.
316 Holdaway, L. D. T., Richmond, Nelson.—White Tuscan spring wheat.
317 Hudson, R., & Co., Dunedin.—Flour.
318 Hudson, R., & Co., Dunedin.—Hudson's infants' food.
319 Irvine, W., & Co., Palmerston, Otago.—Oatmeal.
320 Kelty, W., Tapanui, Southland.—Cereals.
321 King, G., & Co., Christchurch.—Wheat, barley, oats, beans, peas, &c.
322 Manning, S., & Co., Christchurch.—Colonial malt and barley.
323 Marshall & Copeland, Dunedin.—Sample of malt, sample of barley.
324 M’Gill, Peter, Tokomairiro, Otago.—Oatmeal and flour.
325 M’Intyre, D., West Clive, Hawke's Bay.—Malt.
326 Metherell Brothers, Havelock, Napier.—Flour.
327 Mitchell, J., Invercargill.—Barley.
328 Moir, W., & Co., Southbrook Mills, Canterbury.—Oatmeal (fine, medium, and coarse).
329 Moore, A., & Co., Christchurch.—Wheat, oats, barley.
330 Palmer, C. A., Wainea West, Nelson—Sample of hops,
331 Pannell, G., Christchurch.—Wheaten flour.
332 Paul, J. & E., Spring Creek, Marlborough.—Barley.
333 Preston, J., Palmerston, Otago.—Perennial rye-grass seed.
334 Reid & Sons, Invercargill.—Sample of rye-grass seed.
335 Royse, Stead & Co., Christchurch.—Wheat, oats, barley, oatmeal, colonial malt.
336 Sumpter, G., Oamaru.—Sample of oats.
337 Surman, T., & Co., Invercargill.—Malt and barley.
338 Tanner, T., Riverslea, Havelock, Hawke's Bay.—Rye-grass seed.
339 Tilly, T. C., Agent for the Melanesian Mission, Auckland.—Sample of arrowroot prepared by the mission at Norfolk Island.
340 Vile, J., Masterton, Wellington.—Varieties of wheat and oats; flour, rye-grass seed.
341 Ward & Co., Christchurch.—Colonial malt.
342 Western District Agricultural & Pastoral Association, Riverton, Southland.—Cereals.
343 Wilkin, R., & Co., Christchurch.—Cocksfootgrass seed (Dactylis glomerata), rye-grass seed, perennial (Lolium perenne).
344 Wilson, Harraway & Co., Dunsdin.—Samples of flour from Oamaru wheat.
345 Woods, W. D., Christchurch.—Flour, sharps, bran, semolina.

Class 68.—Bread and Pastry.
347 Douglas, R. T., Thames.—Biscuits in variety.
348 Mennie & Day, Thames.—Biscuits.
349 Newbury, P. J., Biscuit Baker, Dunedin.—Sample of cracknell biscuits.
350 Renton, J. C., Dunedin.—Eleven varieties of biscuits.

Class 69.—Fatty Substances used as Food. Milk and Eggs.
351 Blackwood, W., & Co., Invercargill.—Cheese.
352 Goodwin, J., Pigeon Bay, Canterbury.—Cheese made on the Cheddar system, expressly for export purposes.
353 Graham, J. A., Sumner, Canterbury.—Cheese.
354 Graham, J., Dunedin.—Cheese, manufactured by exhibitor.
355 Kirkland, W., East Taieri, Otago.—Cheese.
356 M'Connell Brothers, Christchurch.—Cheese.
357 Pioneer Cheese Co., Peninsula, Dunedin.—Cheddar cheeses, made January, 1880.
358 Sutherland, R., Christchurch.—Cheese.
359 Watson, W., Brookside, Canterbury.—Cheese.

Class 70.—Meat and Fish.
360 Blake, C., & Sons, Picton.—Preserved fish.
361 Eagle, J., Christchurch.—Hams and bacon.
362 Gear, J., Wellington.—Tinned soups, preserved meats.
363 M'Connell Brothers, Christchurch.—Hams and bacon.
364 M'Donald & Miller, Green Island, Dunedin.—Hams and bacon.
365 Mein, W. H., Christchurch.—Preserved meats.
366 Slieedy, E., Dunedin.—Hams and bacon.
367 Watkins, M'Nully & Co., Dunedin.—Hams and bacon.

Class 71.—Vegetables and Fruit.
368 Hudson, R., Thames.—Preserved peaches.
369 Steadman, J. B., Thames.—Canned peaches.

Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery.
370 Carew & Co., Dunedin.—Sauces, manufactured by exhibitors, and named Worcestershire Sauce, and Tomato Sauce.
371 Clifton, P., Gladstone, Invercargill.—Mushroom ketchup.
372 Feraud, J. D., Clyde, Otago.—Samples of syrups, liqueurs, and bitters.
373 Garratt, W. T., Wellington.—Sample of sauce, "Wellington Relish."
374 Gee, A., Christchurch.—An assortment of jellies.
375 Gomez, J., Bulls, Rangitikei.—Lemon, raspberry, peppermint, and clove syrups.
376 Gregg & Co., Dunedin.—Coffees, peppers, spices, chicory.
377 Harding, J., Waipukurau, Napier.—Jar of honey.
379 Kessell, T. N., Dunedin.—Worcestershire sauce, ginger wine, peppermint cordial (manufactured by exhibitor).
380 Koeford, H. L., Thames.—Tomato sauce.
381 Lane & Co., Dunedin.—Cordials, liqueurs.
382 Moffett, W. J., Invercargill.—Soda-water, cordials.
383 O'Meara, M., Queenstown.—Cordials.
384 Strang, D., Invercargill.—Prepared coffees, peppers, and spices.
385 Thomson & Co., Dunedin.—Cordials, liqueurs.
386 Trent Brothers, Christchurch.—Chicory in each stage of manufacture; ground black, white, and cayenne pepper; spices.
387 Walter, J., C.E., Thames.—Tomato sauce.

Class 73.—Fermented Drinks.

388 Blunck, D., Hokitika.—Elderberry wine.
389 Cocran, E. W., Caversham, Dunedin.—Mild ale, bottled ale and stout
390 Crowe, W., & Co., Christchurch.—Bottled ale and stout, New Zealand brewed.
391 Crown Brewery Co., Christchurch.—Ale (bulk and in bottle), bottled stout
392 Duigan & Lloyd, Wanganui and Palmerston North.—Ale made entirely from New Zealand malt, and hops.
393 Ehrenfreid Brothers, Thames.—Ale and porter.
394 Feraud, J. D., Clyde, Otago.—Samples of wines.
395 Franks, Francis, Temuka.—Strong ale.
396 Hargan & Co., Dunedin.—Bottled ale and stout, brewed by Speight and Co.
397 Harley &c Sons, Raglan Brewery, Nelson.—Ale, in bulk.
398 Hogg, A., Thames.—Ale.
399 Innes, F., & Co., Christchurch.—Light ale and strong ale, in bulk.
400 Joel, M., Red Lion Brewery, Dunedin.—Ale and stout, in bulk; ditto in bottle.
401 Keast & McCarthy, Dunedin.—Light and medium ales, in bulk; bottled ale and stout
402 Kofoed & Clive, Milton, Otago.—Ale, in bulk.
403 Mandl & Stennard, Hokitika.—Ale, in bulk.
404 Manning, S., & Co., Christchurch.—Ale, in bulk (mild, strong, and bitter); bottled ale; stout, in bulk and in bottle.
405 Marshall & Copeland, Dunedin.—Bulk ale, bottled ale and stout.
406 Martin, J. T., Invercargill.—Ale, in bulk; well adapted for export to India.
407 O'Meara, M., Queenstown.—Wines made from currants and gooseberries, live years old, not fortified.
408 Pascoe & Co., Wellington.—One hhd. mild ale, one hhd. pale bitter ale, one hhd. strong ale,
409 Roberts, E. T., & Co., Wellington.—Tonic beer and ginger ale (non-alcoholic).
410 Schwartz & Co., Christchurch.—Wines, from Wanganui (Burgundy, Mangawhero, Mancanille).
411 Smith, J., Nelson.—Fruit wines, exclusive of grape.
412 Soler, J., Wanganui.—Port wine.
413 Soler, J., Wanganui.—Wines (sparkling Moselle, Mangawhero, Constantia).
414 Speight, J., & Co., Dunedin.—Ale (mild, pale, and strong).
415 Strachan, W., Dunedin.—Ale, in bulk (strong, mild, and pale).
416 Surman, T., & Co., Invercargill.—Beer.
417 Thomson & Co., Oamaru.—Bottled Otago ale (old).
418 Thomson & Co., Dunedin.—Wines.
419 Tod, A., Wanganui.—One dozen wine, from grapes grown by natives.
420 Vincent & Co., Christchurch.—Ale and stout.
421 Walker & M'Taggart, Bottlers, Dunedin.—Bottled Dunedin ale (Speight's).
IX. Horticulture.

Class 76.—Flowers and Ornamental Plants.

424 Armstrong, C. C., Dunedin.—Collection of New Zealand ferns in natural colours (dried).
425 Armstrong, Mrs. C. C., Dunedin.—Book, containing collection of Victorian wild flowers and New Zealand ferns.
426 Craig, E., Auckland.—Three books and two cases of New Zealand ferns.
427 Dall, J., Nelson.—A complete collection of New Zealand ferns, as found in the Nelson district, with hanging baskets.
428 Dall, J., Nelson.—Two Wardian cases.
429 Green, A. J., Westport.—Collection of New Zealand ferns (140 varieties).
430 Hardy, C. A. C., South Rakaia, Canterbury.—Dried specimens of New Zealand ferns.
431 Helms, R., Grey mouth.—Two collections of New Zealand ferns.
432 Helms, R., Greymouth.—Collection of about 80 specimens New Zealand ferns, in two folios.
433 Helms, R., Greymouth.—Collection of New Zealand ferns and lichens, in two folios.
434 Jeffs, C. K., Dunedin.—Collection of dried New Zealand ferns and fern allies.
435 Logan, H. P., Wellington.—Collection of dried New Zealand ferns.
436 Regan, J., Thames.—Collection of colonial ferns (twelve in number).
437 Spence, Mrs. Charlotte, Dunedin.—Specimens of New Zealand ferns, bleached, with skeleton leaves.
438 Stewart, P., Wellington.—Collection of dried New Zealand ferns.
439 Thomson, J., North-east Valley, Dunedin.—Book of New Zealand ferns, from the neighbourhood of Dunedin.
440 Tizard, Mrs. Edward, Thames.—Four frames, containing collections of New Zealand ferns.

Class 79.—Seeds and Saplings of Forest Trees.

441 Potts, T. H., Governor's Bay, Christchurch.—Cones of forest trees grown in New Zealand.
442 Potts, T. H., Governor's Bay, Christchurch.—Statistical information of forestry.

X. Mining Industries—Machinery and Products.

Class 81.—Apparatus and Processes of the Art of Mining and Metallurgy.

443 Brunner Coal Co., Grey River.—Fire-clay retort for gas-making, and other fire-clay goods.
444 Climo, W., Thames.—Specimens, illustrating a chlorine process for obtaining gold from tailings.
445 Hector, J., M.D., C.M.G., F.R.S.—Plans and sections of coal and other mines of New Zealand.
446 Hokitika Local Committee, Hokitika.—Model of mining claim—"Morning Star" (Ross).

Class 82.—Mining and Metallurgy.

447 Austin Kirk Co. Limited, Christchurch.—Fire-clay, raw and prepared.
448 Bank of New Zealand.—Specimens from the New Zealand goldfields; models of ingots of gold and silver, as exported.
449 Bay of Islands Coal Co., Auckland.—Block of coal, from Kawa Kawa Colliery, Bay of Islands.
450 Birley, P., Engineer's Smith, Auckland.—Wrought-iron work—Fuchsia on a stick, leaves and flowers.
451 Black, G. T., Akaroa, Canterbury.—Red ochre, from Okute Valley, Little River.
452 Boult, P., Queenstown.—Copper ore, from Moke Creek, Wakatipu.
453 Boyd, G., Auckland.—Specimens of fire-clay and puzzolana.
454 Brunner Coal Co., Greymouth.—Specimens of coal.
455 Coal Pit Heath Coal Mining Co. Limited, Greymouth.—Coal.
456 Comer, R., Thames.—Block of gold-bearing quartz (300 cwt.).
457 Douglas, G. B., Macetown, Otago.—Quartz-reef specimens, from Macetown.
458 D'Urville Island Copper Mining Co. Limited.—Specimens of copper ore, from D'Urville Island.
459 Edgar, J., Queenstown.—Specimen of fossilised fern roots and leaves, from Lake Wakatipu.
460 Edwards, E. R., Thames—Specimens of gold-bearing quartz, from Thames.
462 Ford & Ogden, South Malvern, Canterbury.—Samples of clays, ironstone, manganese, marble, glass-sand.
463 Gardiner, W., Moke Creek, Queenstown.—Specimens of copper ore, from Moke Creek.
464 Gardiner, W., Moke Creek, Wakatipu.—Specimens of copper ore.
465 Graham, R., Wai Wera, Auckland.—Tako, found at Kotorua Hot Lakes. Paint formerly used by Maoris.
466 Greig & Hunter, Builders, Christchurch.—Specimens of granite and greystone, from the Pat Hills.
467 Hacket, T. R., Nelson.—Copper ore; chrome ore, with accompanying rock; and preparations of chrome.
469 Hokitika Local Committee, Hokitika.—Sample of coal, from Paringa, Westland.
470 Hon. Minister of Public Works, Wellington.—Rough castings of railway wheels, manufactured from Taranaki iron-sand.
471 Hooper and Dodson, Nelson.—Sample of coke.
472 Ingram & White, Oxford West, Canterbury.—Block of native chalk, taken from the surface at View Hill, Oxford.
473 Invercargill Local Committee, Invercargill.—Specimens of stone.
474 Irvine, F. W., Maungatapu, Nelson.—Chrome iron ore.
475 Jackson, H. D., Nelson.—Specimens of silver ores and copper.
476 Johnston Brothers, Aniseed Valley, Nelson.—Specimens of galena and silver ore; also of zinc blende, from Collingwood.
477 Johnston Brothers, Aniseed Valley, Nelson.—Mineral ores, hematite paint, products of ores.
478 Kaitangata Coal Co., Kaitangata, Otago.—Samples of coal, ordinary seam.
479 Lessee’s Orepuki Coal Reserve, Orepuki, Southland.—Specimens of shale.
480 Low, W., Maori Point, Shotover.—Specimen of specular ironstone, from Shotover.
481 Macfarlane, D., Jackson’s Bay.—Copper ore, coal, and limestone.
483 Munro, G., Dunedin.—Sample of pottery-clay and vases, blocks of Kakonui stone.
484-5 New Zealand Commissioners, Wellington.—Auriferous quartz.
485 New Zealand Commissioners, Wellington.—Trophy, representing the total quantity of gold exported from New Zealand.
488 Nelson Local Committee, Nelson.—Blocks of marble and coal, steatite.
489 Pawa Rika Lithographic Stone Co., Westland.—Slab of lithographic limestone.
490 Peache. A. E., Mount Somers. Canterbury.—Block of freestone, from Mount Somers.
491 Plant, W., Thames.—Crude gypsum from White Island, Tauranga; plaster-of-Paris made from same.
492 Port Chalmers Quarrying Co., near Dunedin.—Obelisk of Port Chalmers bluestone.
493 Roding River Copper Mining & Prospecting Co., Nelson.—Copper and chrome ores and hypersthene.
494 Smith, E. M., New Plymouth.—Taranaki iron-sand, in various stages of manufacture; septaria.
495 Smith, E. M., New Plymouth.—Collection of minerals, &c.
496 Stansell, J. B., Christchurch.—Specimens of iron ore, and small ingot, from Para Para, Nelson.
497 Stansell, J. B., Christchurch.—Sample of glass-making sand.
498 Stansell, J. B., Christchurch.—Pottery-clay.
499 Tatton, J. W., Nelson.—Chrome iron ore.
500 Thompson. T. J., Bluff.—Specimen of eurite.
501 Vivian-J. M., New Plymouth.—Specimens of iron-sand, soil used as flux, and brick prepared for smelting.
502 Waipori Antimony Mining Co. Waipori near Dunedin.—Samples of antimony, from the Company's mine.
503 Warren, W. J.P., Queenstown.—Copper ore, found between Lake Wakatipu and the West Coast.
Fiji.

Fiji comprises all those islands lying between the latitudes of 16° and 21° S., and the longitudes of 176° E. and 178° W., containing what Tasman named "Prince William's Islands" and "Heeniskirk's Shoals." The number of islands in the group is 225; and they extend over 40,000 square miles of the South Pacific Ocean. Of those islands, 80 are said to come under the name of inhabited islands, and the people are, to a considerable extent, christianised. The chief part is about 1175 miles north of Auckland (New Zealand), 1700 miles north-east of Sydney (New South Wales), and 725 east of New Caledonia. The Friendly Islands, or Tongan group, are nearly 500 miles north-east from Fiji, and the Navigators' Islands are about 000 miles to the south-east. Rotumah, a small but valuable cocoanut island, is only 200 miles from Levuka.

These islands were first discovered by Abel Jansen Tasman in 1643. After this they continued unvisited until Cook named the island he touched at "Turtle Island." Captain Bligh, of the ill-fated "Bounty," passed through the group in 1789, when cast adrift in the launch; and again in 1792, when in command of the "Providance." In 1796 the "Duff," following the same course as Tasman, was nearly lost on the reef off Tanviuni; and about the year 1800 Fiji began to be regularly visited by traders for sandalwood to burn before Chinese idols, or "bêche-de-mer" to gratify Chinese epicures. The first movement for the cession of Fiji to Great Britain occurred in 1858, but the cession was not concluded and ratified till 10th October, 1874. Fiji is now a Crown colony. Sir Arthur Gordon was the first Governor, and High Commissioner of Polynesia, but has just been removed to New Zealand.

Some of the islands exhibit coralline, and others volcanic formation. Much of the scenery is very attractive. Vanua Levu (the great land) is more than 100 miles long, having an average breadth of 25 miles. This island—and especially the western side—is notable as being the only part of Fiji in which sandalwood can be obtained to any extent. Na Viti Levu (the great Fiji) is 90 miles from east to west, and 50 from north to south. The landscape and geological character of the principal islands vary: consisting of level ground, edged by sandstone cliffs 500 feet high; mountains 4000 and 5000 feet high, black and sterile; narrow vales, beyond which rise hills whose wooded tops are in fine contrast with the bold, bare front at the base. Those parts which have been formed by volcanic agency possess indications of craters; but no lava in a stream having been found, the construction of the group, assuming it to have been first volcanic and then coralline, must have been very remote. Volcanic action, however, still prevails in the shape of earthquakes. In Ngau there is enough volcanic heat to produce warm and boiling springs. The high peaks and needles on the large islands are mostly basaltic. The soil is in some places gravelly and barren; occasionally a stratum of reddish clay and sandstone is found, but a dark red or yellowish loam is most common. This is often deep and very rich, containing, as it does, much decayed vegetable matter. Portions of the large flats, covered with rank grass, treacherously hiding the soft, adhesive mud beneath, would baffle the skill of the British husbandman, although much prized by the natives, who find in them just the soil and moisture needed for the cultivation of their highly-esteemed vegetable food, the "taro." Fiji and its neighbourhood so abound with shore reefs, sea or barrier reefs, beds, patches, or knolls of reef, with sunken rock and sandbanks, as to make it an ocean labyrinth of unusual intricacy, and difficult of navigation.

The population has been estimated at from 100,000 to 300,000; half of the latter number is considered by the best authorities to be nearer the truth. The European population up to 1873 was estimated at about 3000. Almost any quantity of the richest land can be purchased from the Government on reasonable terms, the upset price for first-class land being £1 per acre, second-class 15s. per acre, and third-class 10s. per acre. The titles to the land are Crown grants, indefeasible and fee-simple; and as all titles are registered, there is no necessity to employ a solicitor. The survey fees for country land are £4 4s. per mile for flat land, and £5 5s. for hilly and other land, The grant fees are—under 300 acres, £3 3s.; under 500 acres, £4 4s.; under 1000 acres, £5 5s. and over 1000 acres, £8 8s.

The revenue of the colony for the year 1878 amounted to £61,021 2s. 8d., and the expenditure to £65,266 10s. 9d. The total value of the imports and exports for 1878 was £329,573 3s. 1d.

The following list of products is given in the Fijian Directory for 1879:—The chief articles for which the islands will become famous are—sugar, coffee, cotton, copra, cocoa, tea, tobacco, cinchona, arrowroot, cocoanuts, rice, bêche-de-mer, pearl shell, candlenuts, Indian corn, tapioca, clove, cinnamon, ginger, nutmegs,
allspice, pepper, camphor, vanilla, coir, &c., besides materials for paper-making. All kinds of tropical fruits thrive remarkably well; and there are also in Fiji many useful and valuable timbers, notably visi, asi, damami, dakua, sala-sala, a kind of kauri, dati, vai-vai, &c. Two first prizes were obtained for samples of Fiji-grown cotton at Philadelphia, and three gold medals at the Paris Exhibition. The fall in prices since 1872 has limited the cultivation. However, as it bears two crops a year, and as all expenses, including cost of production, freight, commission, and insurance, do not exceed one shilling a pound, a planter ought, if the weather is line enough to enable him to gather two full crops, to make a very considerable profit from 200 lb. per acre. There are as yet only five small sugar mills at work in Fiji, and only one vacuum pan; the sugar, however, made with this fetches a larger price in Melbourne than Mauritius sugars. There are no fixed seasons at present for crushing, but mills work the whole year round, and obtain a high density; and with a powerful mill a ton of sugar can be obtained from ten to twelve tons of cane. Canes rattoon here for many years, and the first rattoon crop is better than the maiden one; the latter being fit to cut at fifteen months, the former at eleven months old. Magnificent sugar land, already cleared and a portion of it planted, can be bought from settlers at about £5 an acre; uncleared land, at from £2 10s. to £3 an acre. An acre ought to bear, if properly cultivated, about forty tons of cane per annum, and 10s. per ton is the average price which the mills will pay for same; the expenses ought not to exceed £5 an acre, and £15 an acre profit should j therefore be made. A mill capable of making about five tons of sugar in a day of ten hours would cost upwards of £12,000 to get into working order; and by working overtime, and crushing j all the year round, the net profits of such a mill would, at present prices, be not less than £12,000, or 100 per cent. Many settlers are embarking in coffee-growing. The first crop from trees barely two years old is being just gathered, and a large quantity has been sold for export to Sydney for £112 per ton. The cost of bringing one hundred acres of uncleared land into bearing will be about £1500, extended over a period of three years, during which time there will be no returns; but after that time has passed, eight hundredweight to the acre ought to be gathered for twenty-five or thirty years. If Fiji coffee only fetched three-fourths of the price of the Ceylon coffee, the gross proceeds from one hundred acres would be between £3500 and £4000, and after deducting every possible charge there would remain between £2500 and £3000 a-year clear profit. Many hundreds of acres are now being planted, and all look remarkably well. The appearance of the coffee bushes thereon has convinced visitors from Ceylon that the country is eminently suitable for their growth. As leaf disease is causing the Ceylon planters to look out for a new country, many of them have already taken up their abode amongst us, and numbers of others will follow. The rainfall and temperature in many districts of Fiji are exactly suitable for coffee-growing. Large quantities of very fine tobacco are being grown; but ignorance of the manner in which to cure it, militates against its taking a high place in the market. Until experienced men are introduced from America or the West Indies, and a fair trial given to it, it would be unwise to form an opinion on the subject of its produce in money value. Cocoa, tea, and cinchona are merely in an experimental state as yet. Arrowroot and tapioca grow exceedingly well; the former is a weed in some parts of Fiji, and fetches 4d. per lb. in Sydney. The Bahama variety introduced here has brought 10d. per lb. at London auction sales. Copra—i.e., the dried kernel of the cocoanut—is the chief article of export at present. Although the trees take from five to seven years before they are in full bearing, it is one of the most sure, as also the most profitable, industries. Copra is now fetching in Fiji £14 a ton, and one settler made last year, with only six foreign labourers, 36 tons. An acre planted up about 25 feet apart ought to yield one ton of copra per annum; and when the trees are sufficiently grown to be out of the reach of cattle, they bear better where cattle graze underneath. The fibre of the husk is also valuable, and with the most improved machinery will add handsomely to the value of a cocoanut plantation. Ginger, nutmeg, and every other tropical product will, it is believed, thrive remarkably well in Fiji. The area of products at present grown in Fiji consists as nearly as possible of the following, but it will soon be largely increased:—

The origin of the inhabitants of Fiji is involved in considerable obscurity. There are no traditions or historical records to serve as a guide in the matter; and there is no hint or record of any early immigration. The popular belief among the natives is that they never occupied any other country than that in which they now dwell. But recently certain physical indications seem to connect them with Asia.

The warlike character of the Fijians of recent years did not exist in Captain Cook's time, but is supposed to have been imbied from Tongan intercourse. Aggression made them warlike. Polygamy exists, and infanticide, which proceeds from it. There are professional child-slayers of children born and unborn. The sick, infirm, and aged parents used to be buried alive; and the rites of cannibalism were unsurpassed. Even King Cakobau, Christian as he is, has partaken of human flesh. And yet the Fijians possess many good traits of character.

Pigs have abounded since the islands were discovered. Various English animals have been introduced, which thrive well, except sheep. Fish is abundant, and whales are numerous. Birds are not plentiful. Insects abound, of which the butterflies are very beautiful. Reptiles are numerous, the lizard taking the lead.

Mr. Williams, American consul, bought a mountain for its rich veins of copper ore. After his death some specimens were found among his effects which proved to be malachite, closely resembling the Australian, and,
next to that of the Ural, considered the best. Nothing has been done to work those mines. Ore of antimony also occurs in large veins, in the side of a hill ten miles from Namosi, and at a place called Umbi. Salt is an important production.

A leading article of traffic is the "bêche-de-mer." This is simply a mollusc, very much like a large black snail or slug, with horns or puckles all over it. They get smaller in drying, looking like bits of half-baked clay, varying from ten inches to a foot in length. The Chinese are passionately fond of them, making them into a thick rich soup. Amongst the miscellaneous productions of Fiji are a great variety of beautiful shells.

The manufactured productions of the Fijians are numerous, and by no means contemptible. They have several useful and ornamental manufactures in pottery, and mould many tasteful and serviceable articles, some of which they glaze and vary in colour. They take their models from flowers, leaves, and birds; and the women are the chief manufacturers.

The masi, or native gannent, is made from the bark of the malo, which, after being softened by immersion in water in the manner of flax, is beaten out, and several strips joined together. After being stretched to the desired size, these are carefully dyed, or, more correctly speaking, painted. The "masi" formerly constituted the principal clothing and covering of the islanders, and is in the form of a band around the waist, reaching nearly to the knee.

Mat-making is a source of wealth and occupation, mats being used for many purposes, such as covering walls and floors, and as sails, and they are largely exported to other islands. There are also "nursing" and sleeping mats; and those used as floor coverings are frequently from 25 to 30 feet square, and painted in grotesque patterns. Hand-screens, fans, and ornaments for the neck, arms, and ears, are also manufactured. A great trade is done with the Tahitians and Sandwich Islanders in scarlet feathers, which, in those islands, are a requisite portion of the female toilet, and in Fiji are abundantly furnished by the native parrots. Baskets and nets form also items of industrial produce.

**FIJIAN EXHIBITS.**

*[The late period at which the Exhibits from Fiji were received in Melbourne, and the necessarily hurried manner in which the various articles had to be arranged in the Court so that it might be opened to the public as early as possible, have prevented the compiler of the Fijian catalogue from attending to the classification of the different products. In order to preserve uniformity between the private and the official catalogues in the order and numbering of the Exhibits, there has been no alteration made in the arrangement.]*

1. Paul Joske, Wai Dra, Middle Rewa.—Six stalks sugar-cane, aged 13 months.
2. Verata Plantation, Rewa River.—Six stalks Honolulu cane, aged nine months.
3. Paul Joske, Wai Dra.—Four stalks Honolulu cane, aged ten months.
4. Ellis & Jones, Casi Plantation, Rewa River.—Ten stalks Honolulu cane, aged seven months.
5. John Dodd, Lau Lau, Upper Rewa.—Bundle Honolulu cane, aged ten months.
6. William Thomas, Wai Mana.—One tub growing cane, aged ten months.
8. T. F. Burness, Vanu Levu.—Pyramid of leaf tobacco.
10. Hon. J. B. Thurston.—One bale cocoanut fibre.
11. Ryder Brothers, Mango Island.—One case cotton, in pod and seed.
12. H. L. Holmes, Bua, Vanua Levu.—One bag arrowroot.
13. H. L. Holmes, Bua, Vanua Levu.—One bag arrowroot.
14. H. L. Holmes, Bua, Vanua Levu.—One bag arrowroot.
15. H. L. Holmes, Bua, Vanua Levu.—One bag coffee.

**Commissioners for Fiji.**

17. Coloured drawing—Mr. Randall’s House, Rewa River.
20. Coloured drawing—Suva, the new Capital.
21. Coloured drawing—Wai Mana, between Suva and Rewa.
23. Coloured drawing—Road-making between Suva and Rewa.
Fijian Government.

25 Tapa, raw material of native cloth, in different stages.
28 Native baskets, made of cane.
27 Large native basket.
28 Bundle native rope, "dali vau."
28a Turner & Edgerley, Nai Vail Vali Estate-Native axes (very rare).

Fijian Government.

29 Native collection of bêche-de-mer.
30 Oil-horn (a native bean).
31 Large mat, of native make, festooned over ceiling of Court, all in one piece.
32 Grass mats, "rotomaha."
33 Grass mats, "rotomaha."
34 Trophy of tapa (native cloth).
35 Cultivated yams.
36 Uncultivated yams.
37 Taklau mat, made of grass.
38 Native canoe.
39 Bowl, for cava.
40 Bowl, for cava.
41 Native washing-basin.
42 Native dishes.
43 Native dishes.
44 Dyed tapa (native cloth).
45 Cava, green and dried (material from which spirit is made).
46 Baskets used for cooked yams.
47 Native fan, made from balava-tree.
48 F. H. Dufty, Levuka.—Large case, containing photographic views of scenery and inhabitants.
49 William Hennings, Loma Loma.—One case pearl-shells.
50 Fijian Government.—Collection of coral.
51 Commissioners for Fiji.—Sulu, full dress of native lady.
52 Ryder Brothers.—Cocoanut fibre.
53 Fijian Government.—Bundle sassafras bark.
54 P. Stooks, Levuka.—Cava bowls.
55 Ryder Brothers. Mango Island.—Samples of bricks.
56 Fijian Government.—Fishing-net.
57 Hon. R. B. Leefe, Nananu Island, Viti Levu.—Sample of angora hair (stock originally imported from the Victorian Acclimatisation Society).
58 Fijian Government.—Native fishing-net and basket.
59 Ryder Brothers, Mango Island.—Lemon-grass, from which a beverage is made occasionally, and drunk like tea.
60 Turner & Edgerley, Rewa.—Bricks, from Rewa River.
61 Commissioners for Fiji.—Collection of shells.
62 Ryder Brothers, Mango Island.—Collection of stalactites, pebbles, and samples of soil.
63 Mrs. R. L. Holmes.—One jar preserved ginger.
64 Ryder Brothers.—Sample of copra (inside of cocoanut), as exported.

Fijian Government.

65 Native nuts, for tanning.
66 Native rope, "mangi mangi."
67 Native rope, "dali-ni-viti."
68 Fishing-net and basket.
69 Trophy of tapa (native cloth made from bark).
70 Model of native temple, made of fibre.
71 J. W. Meaden.—Case of South Sea Island shells.
72 Fijian Government.—Roll of cocoanut sinnett.
73 M. H. Fraser, Tai Levu.—Preserved bananas.
74 Ryder Brothers, Mango Island.—Two boxes sunbeam bananas.
75 M. H. Fraser.—One box tapioca.
76 M-H. Fraser.—Four bottles dilo-nut oil.
77 Ryder Brothers.—Two bottles turmeric.
78 Ryder Brothers.—Two bottles ground coffee.
79 Ryder Brothers.—One bottle dried ginger.
80 Ryder Brothers, Mango Island.—Three bottles candle-nut oil.
81 Ryder Brothers, Mango Island.—One bottle dilo-nut oil.
82 Ryder Brothers, Mango Island.—Two bottles cocoanut oil.
83 Jacob Storck, Rewa.—One bottle ground coffee.
84 J. A. Boyd, Waidau, Ovalau.—One bottle edible seaweed.
85 Ryder Brothers.—One bottle guano.
86 Ryder Brothers.—One bottle dried cava.
87 L. S. Smith, Pioneer Mill, Rewa.—One bottle sugar.
88 Commissioners for Fyi.—One bottle sugar (DR in diamond).
89 L. S. Smith, Rewa.—One bottle sugar.
90 Ryder Brothers.—One bottle cava.
91 Jacob Storck, Rewa.—One bottle arrowroot.
92 Ryder Brothers.—One bottle cinnamon.
93 Captain Barrack, Sava Sava Bay.—One bottle turmeric.
94 Ryder Brothers.—One bottle dilo-nuts.
95 T. F. Burness, Raki Raki.—One bottle tapioca.
96 Ryder Brothers.—One bottle coral lime.
97 T. F. Burness, Raki Raki.—One bottle peanuts.
98 D. Waterston.—One bottle sugar (DW in diamond).
99 J. H. Peterson, Taviuni.—Two tins ground coffee.
100 Ryder Brothers.—Eight bundles dried bananas.
101 E. M'Pherson.—Six packets arrowroot, and two bags.
102 Shand & Crowe, Rewa.—Green ginger.
103 Ryder Brothers.—Three large double cocoa-nuts (a natural curiosity).
104 Ryder Brothers.—Cultivated yams.
105 Henry Cave, Levuka.—Ivory nuts.
106 G. M'Evoy, Cicia, Lomo Lomo.—One bottle copra.
107 Henry Cave, Levuka.—One bottle candle-nuts.
108 G. M'Evoy.—One bottle cotton-seed.
109 Ryder Brothers.—One tin copra.
110 Ryder Brothers.—One bottle coffee.
111 Ryder Brothers.—One bottle tapioca.
112 Ryder Brothers.—One bottle coffee.
113 J. H. Peterson, Taviuni.—One bottle coffee.
114 Ryder Brothers, Mango.—One bottle coffee.
115 T. E. Fisher, Taviuni.—One bottle arrowroot.
116 J. H. Peterson.—One bottle coffee.

Commissioners for Fiji.

117 One bottle sugar (TB/ 2536).
118 One bottle broken rice (M H over XX, P under).
119 One bottle broken rice.
120 T. E. Fisher, Taviuni.—Two bottles arrowroot.
121 Ryder Brothers.—One bottle mace.
122 Ryder Brothers.—One bottle nutmegs.
123 M. H. Fraser.—Four bottles cocoanut oil.
124 Captain Barrack.—Three bottles bird's-eye chillies.
125 Ryder Brothers.—One bottle coffee.
126 Ryder Brothers.—Five bottles limejuice.
127 Fijian Government.—Three native water-basins.
128 Ryder Brothers.—Sample of green ginger.

**Fijian Government.**

129 Native head-dress.
130 Turtle-shaped water-bottles, made of clay.
131 Native water-bottles.
132 Vessels for boiling water.
133 L. S. Smith, Pioneer Mills.—Green ginger.

**Fijian Government.**

134 Raw arrowroot.
135 Native fungus.
136 Ryder Brothers, Mango.—Maize.
137 T. F. Burness.—Copra.

**Fijian Government.**

138 Native dyes and war-paints.
139 Candle-nuts, in the shell.
140 Native gum, "mak a dree."
141 Two native pillows, "moce."
142 R. L. Holmes, Bua.—Sample of maize.
143 R. L. Holmes, Bua.—Sample of dried ginger.
144 R. L. Holmes, Bua.—Sample of copra.
145 D. Waterston, Kade Bua.—One bottle Kande coffee (DW in diamond).
146 D. Waterston, Kade Bua.—One bottle Kande coffee (DW in diamond).
147 D. Waterston, Kado Bua.—One bottle Kande coffee (DW in diamond).
148 Fijian Government.—Sample of coffee.
149 Commissioners for Fiji.—Native fan.
150 J. M'Ewan & Co.—Eight boxes cigare, Fijian leaf (1693), manufactured in Melbourne.
151 J. M'Ewan & Co.—Eight boxes cigars, Fijian leaf (1692), manufactured in Melbourne.
152 T. F. Burness, Raki Raki.—Leaf tobacco.
153 Ryder Brothers, Mango.—One bottle candle-nuts.

**SAMPLES OF NATIVE TIMBER, COLLECTED BY JACOB STORCK, ESQ., RRWA, AND EXHIBITED BY W. F. PARR, ESQ., LEVUKA:-**

154 Makita.
155 Terminalia.
156 Davota.
157 Yasi-dina.
158 Damana.
159 Tomana.
160 Vutu-ni-vei-kasl.
161 Tavola.
162 Bua.
163 Vesî.
164 Dilo.
165 Balabala.
166 Lauçi, or candle-nut.
167 Balô.
168 Yasi kavika.
169 Premna.
170 Kau vula.
171 Tiri, or common mangrove.
172 Bau.
173 Black yasi.
174 Dakua.
175 Bua.
176 Kau karo.
177 Bau.
178-9 Damana.
180 Dakua.
181 Mako.
182 Dabi.
183 Mavu.
184 Yao.
185 Yarsi vulu.
186 Nuganuga, or Christmas-tree of Fiji.
187 Dogo.
188 Sacau.
189 Vure.
190 Dilo.
191 Dakua.
192 Uto, or bread-fruit tree.
193 Malamata.
194 Koka.
195 Moli kuru kuru.
196 Dakua.
197 Cassia bark.
198 Dilo.
199 Dogo.
200 Nui, or cocoanut.
201 Kau solo.
202 Vivi.
203 Vasi.
204 Bau.
205 Damana.
206 Moefi.
207 Dakua.
208 Mula mula.
209 Kau vula.
210-11 Vasi.
212 Damana.
213 Mountain pine.
214 Dakua planks.
215-16 Racana.

**SAMPLES OF NATIVE TIMBER, EXHIBITED BY RYDER BROTHERS, MANGO ISLAND:**

217 Tavola.
218 Bread-fruit.
219 Bau.
220 Doi.
221 Vasi.
222 Dilo.
223 Savui.
224 Damana.
225 Baca.
226 Nau vau.
227 Asi.
228 Bua bua.
229 Moli.
230 Sandalwood.
231 Nanui, or cocoanut.
232 Vetau.
233 Ryder Brothers, Mango Island—Pyramid of sea-island cotton.
234 M'Evoy & Kelsall, Island of Cicia.—Pyramid of sea-island cotton.
235 Hon. J. E. Mason, Taviuni.—Pyramid of sea-island cotton.
236 J. H. Peterson, Taviuni.—Pyramid of sea-island cotton.
237 Henry Hulton, Taviuni.—Pyramid of sea-island cotton.
238 F. Spence, Levuka.—Collection of ferns.
239 Ryder Brothers—Vau bark (used for tying).
240 Ryder Brothers.—Collection of cotton, showing various stages of manufacture.
241 M'Evoy & Kelsall, Cicia.—Sample of cotton, in seed.

Rewa Plantation Co.

242 Sample of rum.
243 Sample of rum.
244 Sample of rum.
245 Sample of rum.
246 Sample of sugar.
247 Sample of sugar.
248 Sample of sugar.
249 Sample of sugar.
250 Sample of sugar.
251 Sample of sugar.

253 Captain Hill, Rambi.—Two bales coir.
254 Captain Hill, Rambi.—One case copra.
255 Captain Hill, Rambi.—One case coir.
256 Captain Hill, Rambi.—One case candle-nute.
257 Gibbs & Swayne, Vatuboro, Lower Drekiti.—One package copra.
258 Gibbs & Swayne, Vatuboro, Lower Drekiti.—One bag maize-cobs.
259 Gibbs & Swayne, Vatuboro, Lower Drekiti.—One bag maize (shelled).
260 Muir Brothers, Navo Nadi.—One package maize.
261 Muir Brothers, Navo Nadi—One package beans.
262 Muir Brothers, Navo NadL—One package arrowroot (native).
263 Muir Brothers, Navo Nadi.—One trophy maize-cobs.
264 A. Busch & Co., Levuka.—One bale kidney cotton.
265—Levick, Esq., Loma Loma.—One case copra.
266 J. E. Mason, Taviuni.—One bag coffee.
267 J. E. Mason, Taviuni.—Four bottles coffee (hulled).
268 J. E. Mason, Taviuni.—Copra.
269 J. E. Mason, Taviuni.—Cotton-seed.
270 Blatchford & Scott, Nadi.—Hams from crossbred angora goat.
271 Blatchford & Scott, Nadi.—Maize and white beans.
272 Commissioner for Fiji.—One bale kidney cotton.
273 Commissioner for Fiji.—One bag copra.
274 Mrs. John Harman—One picture.
275 G. Morgan & Co.—Dilo-nut oil.
276 Miss Hennings.—Piece of embroidered tapa.
277 G. W. Thomas.—Drawings.
278 Commissioner for Fiji.—Collections of coral

THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.
THESE Settlements (so called from their situation in the Straits of Malacca), comprising Singapore, Penang, Province Wellesley, and Malacca, have an area of about 1440 square miles, with a population of about 350,000. The Government consists of a Governor, assisted by an Executive Council and a Legislative Council. The present Governor is Sir Frederick A. Weld, K.C.M.G.

SINGAPORE, the seat of government, is an island about 25 miles long by 14 wide, situated at the southern extremity of the Malayan peninsula, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, about ¾-mile in width. The town, situated in latitude 1° 16' N., and longitude 103° 5 E., has about 120,000 inhabitants.

PENANG, or Prince of Wales' Island, is about 15 miles long and 9 broad, situated off the west coast of the Malayan peninsula, in latitude 5° 18' N., longitude 100° 4' E., and contains a population of about 75,000.

PROVINCE WELLESLEY, on the mainland, opposite Penang, is a strip of coast about 45 miles long, and averaging 8 in width, and has a population of about 75,000.

MALACCA is situated on the western coast of the peninsula, between Singapore and Penang, and is about 42 miles in length, and from 8 to 24½ in breadth. The population is about 80,000, of whom 58,000 are Malays. The Chinese colonists, some 13,500 in number, have done much for the material prosperity of the colony, and include some of the most intelligent and wealthy of the merchants.

Singapore possesses very great facilities for docking and coaling vessels of all classes. There are four large wharves, with storing sheds, workshops, wet and dry docks, and immense supplies of coal.

The exports comprise gutta-percha, gambier.

Gambier is a compressed extract from the leaves of a shrub (Uncaria gambir), used principally for dyeing purposes; but also in a refined form it is chewed by the natives of the East with sirih lead and betel-nut.

The imports for the most part consist of Manchester goods.

Under the protection of the British Government, and advised by British officers responsible to the Governor of the Straits Settlements, are three Native Malay States, covering the country which lies between Penang and Malacca. They are Pêrak, Selangor, and Sungei Ujong, with a total coast-line of about 244 miles and an average depth inland of about 50 miles. It is estimated that the populations of these States are:—of whom 30 per cent, are Chinese.

British Residents were first appointed to these States in 1874, and their resources have since that date been greatly developed.

The principal export of the Native States is tin; but experiments in the cultivation of coffee, tea, and cinchona, have so far succeeded, that a great agricultural future is anticipated for these countries. The highest ranges reach to 8000 and 9000 feet above the sea-level, and the whole country is intersected by navigable rivers.

The Straits Settlements form the natural emporia for the products of the Malay Peninsula, as also the mart which supplies the necessities of the numerous important countries surrounding it, such as Java, Sumatra, Siam, Borneo, Cochin China, and many others of less importance.

Straits Settlements Exhibits.

II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.

Class 12.—Photographic Proofs and Apparatus.


Class 13.—Musical Instruments.


Class 15.—Mathematical and Philosophical Instruments.
III. Furniture and Accessories.

Class 28.—Perfumery.

4 Fisher, J., Singapore.—Essential oils—citronella, patchouli, nutmeg, mace, pepper; expressed oil of mace.
5 Hardouin, C., Penang.—Essence of patchouli.

Class 29.—Leather-work, Fancy Articles, and Basket-work.

6 Swettenham, F. A., Singapore.—Cigarette-case of vegetable fibre, made at Rhio.
7 Westerhout, J. E., Malacca.—Basket-work, broomstick baskets.

IV. Textile Fabrics, Clothing, and Accessories.

Class 38.—Clothing for both Sexes.

8 Inche Mahomed Syed, Singapore.—National costumes, Malay shawl.
10 Rodyk, W., Malacca.—Native shoes.
11 Swettenham, F. A., Singapore.—Sarongs, Achinese trousers; silk coverlet, 150 years old; silk and gold-thread shawl, 30 years old.
12 Tan Teck Guan, Malacca.—Native shoes.
13 Whampoa & Co., Singapore.—Bambu hats, plain and lacquered.

Class 39.—Jewellery and Precious Stones.

14 Inche Mahomed Syed, Singapore.—Silver belt, gold clasps; necklaces, earrings, brooches, ornamental knife, gold tobacco-box.
15 Lim Teck Hee, Malacca.—Chased copper belt-fasteners (pinding).
16 Selangor, H.H. the Sultan of, Selangor.—Gold kriss-scabbard, embroidery and gold ornaments for the person, gold siri and tobacco-boxes.

Class 40.—Portable Weapons, and Hunting and Shooting Equipments.

18 Rodyk, W., Malacca.—Native arms.
19 Swettenham, F. A., Singapore.—A collection of arms used by Malays, and by natives of Borneo, Java, Sumatra, and the Eastern Archipelago.
19a Trevenen, N. P., Malacca.—Blow-tubes and arrows.

V. Raw and Manufactured Products.

Class 43.—Products of the Cultivation of Forests and of the Trades appertaining thereto.

20 Captain China, Selangor.—Specimens of woods (35 kinds).
21 Government, The, Straits Settlements, Singapore.—Specimens of forest trees, canes, rattans, sticks.
22 Government, The, Perak.—Malay mats.
23 Guthrie & Co., Singapore.—Rattans—thick indragiri, lootie-jambi, Siak, indragiri, pulai, bandjermassin,
passir, sega bolongan.
24 Johor, H.H. the Maharaja of; G.C.M.G., K.C.S.I., Johor.—22 specimens of forest trees, mats.
25 Magalhaens, J., Penang.—Woods (24 specimens).
26 Ong Keng Hoon, Malacca.—Raja's mat, made by Malays; sleeping mats.
27 Paterson, Simons & Co., Singapore.—Specimens of rattans.
28 Penang Sugar Estate Co. Limited, Penang.—95 specimens of woods.
29 Resident, H.B.M.'s, Selangor.—36 specimens of woods.
30 Westerhout, J. E., Malacca.—Basket-work, wooden sandals, romboks.

Class 44.—Products of Hunting, Shooting, Fishing, and Spontaneous Products. Machines and Instruments connected therewith.

31 Foo Tye Sin, Penang.—Fish maws, guttapercha, india-rubber.
32 Gilfilian, Wood & Co., Singapore.—Vegetable tallow; teel seed, black Siam; tallow seed, large and small Siak, and large Pontianak.
33 Government, The, Selangor.—Damar, batu, Mata kuching, daging and matee: gutta, as it exudes from tree; kayu garoo (species of lucerne).
34 Guthrie & Co., Singapore.—Gums—copal, Damar, Benjamin No. 1. Palembang; Damar batu, Siam stick-lac, dragon's blood; gutta-percha (13 samples); lambas gutta-puteh, Trenggânu puteh, gutta-balum. Gutta-susie, india-rubber; teel seed, black and Saigon; vegetable tallow seed, large and small Pontianak, largo and small Siak; ground-nuts.
35 Inche Mahomed Syed, Singapore.—Bird, snares.
36 Koh Seang Tat, Penang.—Fish maws, edible birds' nests, copra.
37 Onderneming, Deli, Sumatra.—India-rubber.
38 Paterson, Simons & Co., Singapore.—Gums—copal (light and dark). Benjamin, Damar; gutta-percha (red and white), from Borneo, Sumatra, and Malay; isinglass.
39 Rolland, J. B., Kesang, near Malacca.—Ornithological collection.
40 Tan Hoon Guan, Malacca.—Damar mata kuching.
40a Tan Tek Guan, Malacca.—Cocoanuts.
41 Westerhout, J. E., Malacca.—Damar batu.

Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food.

42 Deli & Langkot Cigar 8s Cigarette Co. Limited.—Cigars—Little Devils, La Précienese, General Pel, General von Heyden, Trabucos.
42a Guthrie & Co., Singapore.—Gambier—Block, Java cube No. 1, Rhio cube No. 1, Rhio edible and edible fancy, Singapore, Malacca, and Siak.
43 Koh Seang Tat, Penang.—Refined cocoanut oil.
44 Onderneming, Deli, Sumatra.—Gambier, tobacco.
45 Ong Keng Hoon, Malacca.—Gambier.
46 Read, W. H., Rhio.—Gambier.
47 Tan Tek Guan, Malacca.—Dye-roots, indigo; oils—gurjon, cocoanut.
48 Westerhout, J. E., Malacca.—Pineapple fibre.

VI. Machinery—Apparatus and Processes used in the Mechanical Industries.

Class 49.—Agricultural Implements and Processes used in the Cultivation of Fields and Forests.

49 Trevenen, N. P., Malacca.—Models of Malay ploughs and harrows, reaping-knife.
50 Westerhout, J. E., Malacca.—Wood-chopper (paraang).
Class 50.—Apparatus and Processes used in Agricultural Works, and in Works for the Preparation of Food.

  51 Resident, H.B.M.’s, Selangor.—Rice-husking machine (kisaran padi).

Class 64.—Apparatus and Processes of Civil Engineering, Public Works, and Architecture.

  52 Captain China, Selangor.—Bricks, flooring and roofing tiles.
  53 Government. The. Straits Settlements, Singapore.—Models of Malay houses.

Class 65.—Navigation and Life-saving.

  54 Government. The. Straits Settlements, Singapore.—Models of a trading junk, two sampan panjang or Malay pulling boats, two gonos or three-masted vessels of the Celebes, a tongkang or cargo boat, a pirates’ prahu a Bugis vessel, a Chinese canoe, a beedar or cutter, a penjajah or Malay boat of two masts.

VII. Alimentary Products.

Class 67.—Cereals, Farinaceous Products, and Products derived from them.

  56 Captain China, Selangor.—Tapioca—flake, pearl, and flour.
  57 Gilfillan. Wood & Co., Singapore.—Tapioca—flake, pearl (Urge, medium, and small), and flour; pearl sago (large, medium, and small), sago flour.
  58 Guthrie & Co., Singapore.—Tapioca—pearl (large, medium, and small), flake (large, medium, and small), and flour (Malacca); sago—pearl (medium and small grain) and flour (Labuan); white rice—Siam, Rangoon, and Saigon kinds.
  59 Knaggs, W., Singapore.—Tapioca—pearl (bullets, medium, and small), flake (medium and small), and flour.
  60 Koh Seang Tat, Penang.—Rice, paddy.
  61 Mornay, H. de, Penang—Tapioca and tapioca flour, from the Malakoff Estate.
  62 Penang Plantation Co., Penang.—Tapioca (four kinds).
  63 Roberts, E. L., Penang.—Tapioca.
  64 Si Bun Tiong, Sungei Ujong.—Tapioca—pearl, flake (large and small), and flour.
  65 Tan Hoon Guan, Malacca.—Tapioca—flat, pearl, flour, and husk.
  66 Westerhout, J. E., Malacca.—Tapioca.
  67 Yap Ah Loy, Selangor.—Pearl tapioca.

Class 71.—Vegetables and Fruit.

  68 Bastiani, J., Singapore.—Pineapples preserved without sugar.
  68a Favre & Co., Singapore.—Pineapples preserved without sugar.
  69 Koh Seang Tat, Penang.—Copra.
  70 Westerhout, J. E., Malacca—Scented yams, sweet potatoes, obi tropong.

Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants. Sugar and Confectionery.

  71 Bastiani, J., Singapore.—Pineapples, in syrup; mangosteens, in juice; pineapple syrup.
  72 Brown & Co., Penang.—Sugar, spices.
  72a Favre & Co., Singapore.—Pineapples, in syrup? pumato syrup, pineapple syrup, preserves, crystallised
fruits.
73 Foo Tye Sin, Penang.—Black and white pepper.
74 Gilfillan, Wood & Co., Singapore.—Pepper, black (Singapore) and white; Zanzibar cloves.
75 Government, The, Sungei Ujong.—Coffee, in parchment; black pepper.
76 Guthrie & Co., Singapore.—Coffee—Bonthyne, Bally, Timor; white pepper—Singapore and Rhio; black pepper—Singapore; Amboina cloves, nutmegs.
77 Hardouin, C., Penang.—Two samples of tea, from Bukit Tambu.
78 Koh Seang Tat, Penang.—Coffee, cloves, nutmegs, mace, Trang white and black pepper.
79 Penang Sugar Estates Co. Limited, Penang.—Sugar.
80 Read, W. H., Rhio.—Black and white pepper.
81 Vermont, J. M. B., Penang.—Sugar.
82 Westerhout, J. E., Malacca.—Seaweed jelly.

Class 73.—Fermented Drinks.
83 Lamb, J., Penang.—White rum.
84 Penang Sugar Estates Co. Limited, Penang.—Old and white rum.
85 Vermont, J. M. B., Penang.—White and coloured rum, rum shrub.

X. Mining Industries—Machinery and Products.

Class 82.—Mining and Metallurgy.
86 Borneo Co., The, Limited, Sarawak.—Minerals and ores from the mines at Sarawak, Perak, Salak, and the cinnabar mines at Tegora.
87 Captain China, Selangor.—Fine tin and sand, coarse tin and quartz, coarse tin, tin ore in sand, tin ore, tin ingots, sample of clay.
88 Daly, D. D., Selangor.—Tinware—cheese and vegetable dishes, biscuit-boxes, beer-mugs, goblets, teapots, jugs, tray, and cup.
89 Foo Tye Sin, Penang.—Tin ores of Topai, Assam humbang, and Kamunting.
90 Government, The, Perak.—Specimens of strata and tin sand, from Kamunting, Tupai, and Assam Kumbang; Sungei trap, from the River Kinta; specimens of tin; tin ores, from Relan Tugah (1000 ft above sea-level); tin ores, from Thaiping Hills (2000 ft. above sea-level); tin splashes, 160 and 80 catties; tin ingots; tinware—gogleta and trays, mugs with champagne cups.
91 Lim Teck Hee, Malacca.—Tin ores.
92 Resident, H.B.M.’s, Selangor.—8 mayams alluvial gold, from the gold mines at Pahang, Malay Peninsula.
93 Tan Teck Guam, Malacca.—Clay peculiar to the island of Pulo Opey, used for colouring walls.
94 Westerhout, J. E., Malacca.—Tin ore.
95 Whampoa & Co., Singapore.—Tinware.

Ceylon.

The island of Ceylon, lying between 5° 53’—9° 51’ N. lat., and 79° 41’ 40”—80° 54’ 50” E. long., is bounded by the Indian Ocean, the Bay of Bengal, and the Gulf of Mannar. Its greatest length from north to south, that is, from Point Palmyra to Dondera Head, is 267 miles; the extreme breadth, from Colombo on the west to Sangemankande on the east coast, is 140 miles; and its circumference, 760 miles. Divided into seven provinces, Ceylon has its area and population distributed as follows:—

Of the total population enumerated there are:—Europeans, 6600, mainly British; European descendants, 15,500; Ceylon natives, 1,837,000; Tamils, 595,000; Moormen, 179,000; and other coloured races, including Malays, Afghans, Arabs, Persians, &c., 13,000.

The religious creeds are represented, approximately, as follows:—Buddhists, 1,670,000; Gentooos (worshippers of Siva, Vishnu, and other gods of the Hindu pantheon), 512,000; Mahomedans, 189,000; and Christians, comprising 204,000 Roman Catholics and 60,000 Protestants, 264,000.
The chief languages spoken in the island are Cingalese and Tamil. The former is founded on the Sanskrit, with a considerable infusion of Pali, and is peculiar, except in its Sanskrit roots, to Ceylon. Tamil, the leading branch of the Dravidian family, is common to about 16,000,000 people in Ceylon and Southern India. A Portuguese patois still retains its hold among the European descendants, while knowledge of English is rapidly advancing.

The island was first settled in 1505 by the Portuguese, who established colonies in the west and south, from which, however, they were ousted in 1658 by the Dutch. In 1795-6 the British Government took possession of the foreign settlements, annexing them to the Madras Presidency; but two years subsequently Ceylon was formed into a separate Crown colony. In 1815 war was declared against the native Government of the interior; the Kandyan king was taken prisoner, and the whole island fell under British rule. The Kandyans now, equally with the rest of the Ceylon population, are loyal, contented, and pacific; so that the small military force which the colony supports is ample for repressing all possible internal disturbances. At the same time, the police system is considered by no means perfect, the material to work on being far from good. Reforms in the regular police have, however, been carried out, the total number, under an inspector-general, with provincial superintendents, being at present 1500, and costing R630,000 per annum for the department altogether. About fifty of the constables, as well as all the superintending officers, are Europeans. The regular police are taught rifle-drill, and in furnishing guards for prisons, escorts for treasure, &c., they, to a great extent, perform duties that previously fell to the military—mainly to the late Ceylon Rifle Corps.

The present form of government was established by letters-patent of April, 1831, and supplementary orders of March, 1833. According to the terms of this constitution, the administration is in the hands of the Governor, aided by an Executive and a Legislative Council; the power of making laws being vested in the latter, concurrently with the legislative power of the Crown, which exercises that right by orders in Council. Five of the principal officers of the Government—viz., the officer commanding the troops, the Colonial Secretary, the Queen's Advocate, the Treasurer, and the Auditor-General—presided over by the Governor, constitute the Executive Council. The Governor, being personally responsible to the Home Government, can consult the Executive Councillors, but is not bound to follow their advice. The Legislative Council is composed of fifteen members, including those of the Executive, four other principal Government officers, and six unofficial members selected by the Governor with reference to the equitable representation of the various classes and interests.

All appointments to, or promotions in, the Civil Service, with salaries over R2000 per annum, rest in the Secretary of State; but, practically, all appointments, except to the higher offices, are in the hands of the Governor. For writingships in the Civil Service four gentlemen are named for each vacancy by the Secretary of State or the Governor, and the candidate who receives the greatest number of marks is appointed. With salaries more moderate in Ceylon than in India, there is a Civil Service numbering several hundreds for 2¾ millions of inhabitants, instead of about a dozen civilians with native assistants for a similar population in India.

Through the agency of a Government department of public instruction and a grant-in-aid system, availed of chiefly by the various missionary societies, 75,000 children, or 1 in 32 of the population, are receiving instruction in English and the vernaculars. Private schools, not connected with missionaries or religious bodies, are few and ill-supported. A knowledge of vernacular reading and writing, generally very imperfect, is communicated in some of the Buddhist temples and native schools. Education in missionary schools is strictly Christian, while in those of the Government it is customary, when no objection is offered, to read the Bible during the first hour. Attendance then is not compulsory, but pupils seldom or never absent themselves. Science is now practically taught in the principal educational establishments in Colombo, and, it is hoped, technical training in agriculture and useful trades will be added. The cost of the Government educational department (educating some 18,000 pupils) is R300,000 per annum (besides grants-in-aid, nearly R200,000), of which R28,000 is returned in fees, sale of books, &c. The total outlay on education, public and private, is about R700,000 (£70,000), against R7,000,000 (£700,000) supposed to be spent by the population on intoxicating drinks.

The climate of Ceylon, which, for the tropics, is generally healthy, varies in different parts, being hot and arid on the plains of the north and east, warm and humid on the south-west coast, and cool and wet in the mountain regions. Middle altitudes of mountain ranges and the immediate vicinity of rivers are deemed unhealthy, but fever seldom occurs above 3000 feet altitude, and is rare within the influence of sea breezes. In Ceylon towns the rate of mortality ranges from 1.65 per cent, for Jaffna to 4.06 for Kurunegala, that for Colombo being 1.76 per cent. The military death-rate in Ceylon is down to 25 in 1000; and this might be still further reduced by sanitary measures. The perfection of climate is supposed to be found at and around Bandarawela, on the plateau of the Uva principality, at an elevation of 3900 feet, with an average annual rainfall of 86.21 inches in 120 days. The hot months at Colombo are February, March, and April, when all who can do so remove to the hilly regions—Nuwara Eliya especially. The heat in Ceylon, however, seldom reaches
90° in the shade; 93° in April being the maximum in Colombo, where the mean of the year slightly exceeds 80°, sea breezes tempering the heat for a large portion of the year.

Though exposed to the south-west monsoons, blowing from April to September, and the north-east, from November to February, Ceylon is seldom visited by violent storms; and is, moreover, most fortunate in being outside the region of the cyclones peculiar at certain seasons to the Bay of Bengal, as well as being unaffected by the hurricanes of the Mauritian seas, and the volcanic disturbances of the Eastern Archipelago.

Ceylon, while presenting many points of resemblance in its flora and fauna to the neighbouring peninsula of India, differs in some respects, and assimilates rather to the Malayan Archipelago. Cinnamon, for which the island has always been famous, and rice, are believed to be indigenous, while the more profitable products, coffee and coconuts, are introductions. Most South American plants readily adapt themselves to the climate, as is proved by the recent success of cinchona and cocoa. Tea also grows luxuriantly. Ceylon is noted for ferns, balsams, and orchids. Calamander, the most beautiful of the cabinet woods, is becoming very scarce, but ebony, satinwood, and others, with serviceable timber, are plentiful in the forests Palms and bamboos are especially beautiful and luxuriant; few objects in nature being more magnificent than a talipot palm in flower, and few more elegant than the slender areca palm, or the tall, bending green bamboo, of the mountain forests of Dimbu. The cocoanut palm, luxuriates along the western and south-western coasts, just as the palmyra, with its five hundred different uses to the natives, abounds in the Jaffna Peninsula. Though free from tigers and lions, the island abounds with animals, the elephants of Ceylon being especially famous. Reptiles, also, and birds are very numerous, but songsters are deficient. River fish, chiefly carp, are few in number and of inferior quality; but, probably, no sea-coast in the world is richer in fishes and shells. Myriads of insects, including butterflies, moths, beetles, bees, wasps, mosquitoes, white, black, and red ants, scorpions, centipedes, multitudes of curious spiders, &c., are found in Ceylon, and the periodical swarms of butterflies are peculiarly interesting. In the beauty and number of its precious stones Ceylon stands unrivalled, its pearl-fishery of immense value exists on the north-western coast.

The public revenue of Ceylon, which has doubled in 15 years, trebled in 25 years, and nearly quintupled in 40 years, averages 15,000,000 rupees per annum, although the cinnamon monopoly, fish tax, &c., have been abandoned, and the customs duties equalised and moderated. The civil, judicial, ecclesiastical, and medical expenditure, with that on public instruction, police, prison establishments and sendees, amounts to 6,600,000; that on pensions amounts to 450,000; on military, 1,200,000; on roads and buildings, 3,500,000; and on railway services (against large incomes), 1,700,000. The foregoing, together with minor items, such as conveyance of mails, immigration, &c., just about equals the revenue.

The value of imports is estimated at 60,000,000 rupees, and of the exports, 55,000,000. This gives 115,000,000 as the total value of Ceylon commerce—nominally, 11,500,000 sterling, or, excluding specie, 10,000,000.

The staple imports are mainly rice, cotton goods, coal, cattle, and salt fish. The staple exports comprise—coffee, tea, cocoa, cinnamon, cinchona bark, coir, cocoanut oil, plumbago, ebony, and other kinds of timber.

The principal towns of Ceylon are—Colombo, with 106,000 inhabitants; Galle, 52,000; Kandy, 19,000; Jaffna, 38,000; and Trincomalee, which has a population of about 10,000. The last-named, though no longer the chief seat of civil government in the eastern province, continues to be of surpassing importance as the chief naval port in the east.

A line of railway, 74½ miles long, between Colombo and Kandy, was opened in August, 1867, to aid in the establishment of which a public debt, to the amount of £900,000, was raised in 1861-7, its entire cost being £1,740,000.

An extension of the line to Nawalapitiya from Peradeniya (17 miles) was opened in December, 1874; and another from Kandy to Matale (17½ miles) was announced to be opened in October, 1880. Besides the foregoing, a seaside line has been constructed from Colombo to Kalutara (27½ miles); and in August, 1880, the first sod was turned of an extension from Nawalapitiya for 42 miles to Upper Dimbula, whence it is to be carried 25 miles further to Haputale. Altogether, about 180 miles of railway, all on the 5½-feet gauge, have been opened or are under construction, and other lines are contemplated.

**CEYLON EXHIBITS.**

**I. Works of Art.**
Class 2.—Various Paintings and Drawings.
   1 Government Agent, Kandy.—Specimens of Kandyan drawings.

Class 3.—Sculpture and Die-sinking.
   2 Fernando, W. A.—Elephant cut out of plumbago.
   3 Delmege, Reid & Co.—Elephant cut out of plumbago.

II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.

Class 9.—Printing, Books.

Government of Ceylon.
   6 The Blue Book of 1878.
   7 Administration Reports.
   8 Sessional Papers.
   9 Ceylon Civil List.
   10 Catalogue of Plants in the Royal Botanic Gardens.
   11 Public Works Department Rules.
   12 Postal Guide for 1879.
   13 Government Printer's Almanack, 1880.
   14 Four newspapers printed and published in Jaffna.
   15 Government Agent, Kandy.—Two Singhalese Ola Books, each R25.00.
   16a Alwis, Rev. C. de.—Singhalese Handbook, in Roman characters; History of the Island of Lanka.

Class 10.—Stationery, Bookbinding, Painting and Drawing Materials.

Government Agent, Handy.
   17 Twenty-five styles.
   18 Two wooden book-covers.

Class 11.—General Application of the Arts of Drawing and Modelling.
   19 Gomes, J. B., Mudaliyar.—Eighteen carved figures, representing different natives of Ceylon.

Class 12.—Photographic Proofs and Apparatus.

Lawton, J., & Co.
   21 Album, containing photographic views of Pollonuara, &c.
   22 Four frames, with photographic pictures.
23 Hay, C. A.—Photographic views of Windsor Forest Tea Estate.

24 Ferguson, A. M.—Photographs, illustrative of the cultivation and manufacture of the leading products of Ceylon.

25 Fernando, W. A.—Photographs, illustrative of the preparation and packing of plumbago at his stores.

25a Douffet, L. E.—Two frames of photographs, illustrative of coffee planting.

Class 15.—Mathematical and Philosophical Instruments.

26 De Silva, S. P.—Collection of Ceylon coins.

26a Government Agent, Kandy.—Collection of Ceylon coins, old and recent.

Class 16.—Maps, and Geographical and Cosmo-graphical Apparatus.

27 Dixon, A. C.—Geological map of Ceylon.

28 Ferguson, A. M. & J.—Map of Ceylon, map of railway from Colombo to Kandy; map of hill country of Ceylon, showing plantations.

III. Furniture and Accessories.

Class 17.—Cheap and Fancy Furniture.

Government of Ceylon.

29 Two large lacquered chairs (child's).

30 Small lacquered chair (child's).

31 Large lacquered tea-poy, with four branches.

Sumps, A. C.

32 Rattan lounging chair.

33 Rattan tea-poy.

34 Perera, A., Arachchi.—Revolving tea-poy, made of different varieties of wood.

Government Agent, Kandy.

35 Two corner stands.

36 Table of flowered satinwood and elephant's bones.

37 Two small tables—wood and elephant's bones.

38 Andris, Don, of Galle.—Two carved ebony lounging chairs.

39 Rajapakse, Don S., of Galle.—Pair of wall brackets.

De Silva, D. F.

40 Carved ebony stand.

41 Pair of ebony couches, elaborately carved.

Class 18.—Upholsterers' and Decorators' Work.

Government Agent, Kandy.

42 Two Kandyan pillow-cases.

43 Kandyan counterpane (Samukkalawa).

Class 20.—Pottery.
Ceylon Government.

44 Two pairs goglets (clay).
45 Two tumblers (clay).

Dias, H.

46 Pair goglets (clay).
47 Tobacco jar (clay).
48 Dessanayeke, A. P. A., Mudaliyar, of Panadure.—Box of Ceylon earthenware.

Class 21.—Carpets, Tapestry, and other Stuffs for Furniture.

Fernando, G., Mudaliyar.

49 Six tunheriya rush mats, coarse.
50 Rush mat.
51 Jayatillike, S., Mudaliyar.—Six Kandyan fibre mats (coloured).
52 Palipane, P. B., Ratemahatmeya.—Kandyan fibre mat (coloured).
53 Halpe, Ratemahatmeya.—Two Kandyan rush mats (coloured).
54 Tennekoon, C. E., Ratemahatmeya.—Ten Kandyan rush mats (coloured).
55 Government Agent, Kandy.—Ten Kandyan mats.

Sumps. A. C.

56 Piece of coir matting, 2½ feet x 6 feet.
57 Coir door-rug, 1½ feet x 1 foot; weight, 2¼ lbs.

Class 23.—Cutlery.

58 Dissanaike, Mudaliyar.—Singhalese country knife.
59 Fernando, G., Mudaliyar.—Model Singhalese waist-knife.
60 Halpe, Ratemahatmeya.—Three silver-mounted Kandyan knives.

Ceylon Government.

61 Two knives (models).
62 Handknife (model).

Class 24.—(xoldsmiths' and Silversmiths' Work.

Ceylon Government.

63 Large silver carved box.
64 Silver carved cigar-case.
65 Silver carved arecanut cutter.
66 Palipane, P. B., Ratemahatmeya—Five silver carved boxes.
67 Halpe, Ratemahatmeya.—Silver carved box.

Government Agent, Kandy.

68 Three silver chunam boxes.
69 Three large silver boxes.
70 Small silver box.
71 Carved silver box (very old).
72 De Silva, D. F.—Four silver napkin-rings.
Class 25.—Bronzes and various Art Castings and Repousse Work.

Ceylon Government.

73 Brass lamp and chain.
74 Brass spittoon.
75 Brass betel-stand.
76 Brass chembu (small pot).
77 Copper chembu.
78 Government Agent, Kandy.—Copper shrine.

Class 28.—Perfumery.

79 Hormusjee, K.—Twelve bottles of king cocoa-nut hair oil.

Class 29.—Leather-work, Fancy Articles, and Basket-work.

Hormusjee, K.

80 Set of Kalutara baskets (large).
81 Set of Kalutara baskets (small).
82 Two cigar-cases (Kalutara).
83 Two tampachees (Kalutara).
84 Two purses (Kalutara).
85 Two caps (Kalutara).
86 Two bete! bags (Kalutara).
87 Two caps (Kalutara).

Government Agent, Kandy.

88 Betel stand.
89 Betel box.
90 Two images of Buddha, in ivory.
91 Two Ivory chains.
92 Three ivory images.
93 Ivory box.
94 Ear and tooth pick.
95 Carved eggshell.
96 Image of Buddha, with glass cover.
97 Ivory image.
98 Ivory earpick.
99 Ivory boxes, for medicines.
100 Silver ear and tooth pick.
101 Copper chunam-box.

Dewapuratne Jayasinghe, Don A.

102 Jewel-box.
103 Carved cocoanut-shell.

Weerajayasundara Goonewardene, Don N. de S.

104 Pair ivory carved elephants.
105 Carved calamander workbox.
106 Carved ebony case, for cigars or gloves.
Palipane, P. B., Ratemahatmeya.
107 Wooden lacquered betel-stand.

Werasiri, D. J.
108 White dressing-comb.
109 Six large white dressing-combs.
110 Twelve small dressing-combs.
111 Large crooked dressing-comb.
112 Small crooked dressing-comb.
113 Two dressing-combs, with big teeth.
114 Five tail-combs.
115 Two handle combs.
116 Six round combs.
117 Three black combs.
118 Six small plain combs.
119 Very small dressing-comb.
120 Hound cigar-case, with white spots.
121 Six shoe-horns.
122 Five large paper-cutters.
123 Twelve small paper-cutters.
124 Thick paper cutter.
125 Four flat cigar-cases.
126 Three round cigar-cases.
127 Six ladies' card-cases.
128 Three gentlemen's card-cases.
129 Seventeen book-markers.
130 Spectacle-case.
131 Eighteen napkin-rings, numbered in silver.
132 Twenty-four plain napkin-rings.
133 Tortoise-shell box.
134 Tortoise-shell fan.
135 Three whist-markers.
136 White pin.
137 Tortoise-shell fiddle.
138 Tortoise made from tortoise-shell.
139 Tortoise-shell penholder.
140 Four small ivory elephants.
141 Five Kalatura baskets.

Rankalasge, Adonis Martos.
142 Porcupine-quill workbox.
143 Porcupine-quill cashbox.
144 Cocoanut-wood workbox.

Wijenarayane, Don A.
145 Porcupine-quill box.
146 Two tortoise-shell boxes, with silver mounting.
147 Twenty-eight small paper-cutters.
148 Five large dressing-combs.
149 Three large dressing-combs.
150 Yellow carved comb.
151 Two ebony watch-stands.
152 Pair ebony elephants.
153 Pair ebony elephants.
23 Twenty-three book-markers.
12 Twelve shoe horns.
16 Two tortoise-shell toothpicks.

**Bentara Yahatugoda Badalge Tepanis Hami.**
147 Pair ivory elephants.
148 Pair ivory elephants.

**Aturaliya Welandugodage Subehami.**
149 Ebony writing-desk, carved.
150 Porcupine-quill desk, caned.
151 Calamander desk, carved.
152 Ebony writing-desk.
153 Ebony inkstand, carved.

**Kattalabadde Vedanege Carolis de Costa.**
164 Four pairs watch-cases, with inkstands.
165 Ebony inkstand, carved.

**Bentara Yahatugoda Badalge Baban-hami.**
166 Two ladies' ebony boxes, richly carved and inlaid with ivory.

**Wijesundara Abeynarayane, Don C.**
167 Seven sets straw baskets of 12.
168 Set straw baskets of 6.
169 Four porcupine-quill boxes.

**Werajyawardene Goonawardena, Don D. de S.**
170 Pair ivory elephants.

**Attanagalle Koralla.**
171 Ivory rose-water sprinkler.

**De Silva, D. F., Jeweller.**
172 Gold-mounted tortoise-shell box, contained in a porcupine-quill box.
173 Four silver-mounted tortoise-shell boxes.
174 Silver-mounted tortoise-shell box.
175 Gold-mounted dear-ease.
176 Pair ivory elephants.
177 Two pairs ivory elephants.
178 Nine pairs ivory elephants.
179 Three pairs ivory elephants.
180 Two pairs ivory elephants.
181 Two pairs ivory elephants.
182 Three pairs ivory elephants.
183 Five pairs ivory elephants.
184 Six pairs ivory elephants.
185 Two pairs ivory elephants.
186 Forty large paper-cutters.
187 Thirty small paper-cutters.
188 Thirty-six book-markers.
189 Fifty book-markers.
190 Sixty-four shoe-horns.
191 Four dozen elephant's teeth knife-handles.
192 Four dozen elephant's teeth knife-handles.
193 Four dozen elephant's teeth knife-handles.
194 Twelve small dressing-combs.
195 Two large dressing-combs.
196 Eight large dressing-combs.
197 Ten round combs.
198 Fifteen handle paper-cutters.
199 Twelve large cigarette-cases.
200 Twelve small cigarette-cases.
201 Twelve cigar-cases.
202 Three light-coloured dressing-combs.
203 Three light-coloured handle combs.
204 Three light-coloured tail-combs.
205 Six large paper-cutters.
206 Eighteen small paper-cutters.
207 Forty-eight napkin-rings.
208 Twelve handle combs.
209 Twelve tail-combs.
210 Twelve round combs.
211 Pair elephant's teeth pagodas.
212 Pair elephant's teeth pagodas.
213 Three pieces elephant's teeth.
214 Sixteen pieces elephant's teeth.
215 Piece elephant's teeth.
216 Two pieces elephant's teeth.
217 Eleven pieces elephant's teeth.
218 Fifteen pieces elephant's teeth.
219 Twenty-three pieces elephant's teeth.

Anganitta Cornelia Tillekeratne, Lama-etna.
220 Satinwood jewel-box, mounted with silver.

IV. Textile Fabrics, Clothing, and Accessories.

Class 30.—Cotton Thread and Fabrics.

Kalugalle, Ratemahatmeya.
221 Sample of spun cotton.
222 Sample of cotton cloth.

Class 36.—Lace, Net, Embroidery, and Trimmings.

Ederewire Patabendege Thenishami.
223 Five yards lace.
224 Eight-and-half yards lace.
225 Four yards lace.
226 Eight yards lace.
227 Six yards lace.
228 Six yards lace.
229 Eleven yards lace.
230 Seven yards lace.
231 Five yards lace.
232 Five-and-half yards lace.
233 Eight-and-half yards lace.
234 Eight-and-half yards lace.
235 Five-and-half yards lace.
236 Three pieces five-and-half yards lace.

Wijenarayane, Don A.
237 Five yards lace.
238 Eighteen yards lace.
239 Twenty-nine-and-half yards lace.
240 Twenty-nine yards lace.
241 Twenty-nine yards lace.
242 Twelve yards lace.

Dowbiggin, Rev. R. T.
243 Parcel lace and embroidery.

Class 37.—Hosiery and Underclothing and Accessories of Clothing.

Government Agent, Kandy.
244 Kandyan chief’s fan (anatu).
245 Smaller Kandyan fan (Waddana talatu).
246 Kandyan fan.
247 Ten Kandyan walking-sticks.
248 Fourteen Kandyan whips.

Dissanaike, D. A. T., Mudaliyar.
249 Two fans, with ivory handles.

Wijenarayane, Don Adrian.
250 Fourteen palmira walking-sticks.
251 Ebony carved walking-sticks.
252 Two ebony carved walking-sticks.
253 Two ebony carved walking-sticks.
254 Two ebony carved walking-sticks.
255 Ebony carved walking-stick.
256 Two ebony carved walking-sticks.

Andris, Don B. G.
256a Twelve king cocoanut walking-sticks.
257 Twelve palmira walking-sticks.

De Silva D. P.
258 Gold-mounted belt.
259 Silver-mounted belt.

Class 38.—Clothing for both Sexes.
Ceylon Government.

260 Seven pieces of Chettadai, of assorted colours.

Government Agent, Kandy.

261 Kandyan cloth (Tadappu).
262 Two hats (Tadappu).

Class 39.—Jewellery and Precious Stones.

Government Agent, Kandy.

263 Large silver cross.
264 Small silver cross.
265 Small silver cross.
266 Pair bangles, silver (Kandyan).
267 Pair bangles, brass (Kandyan).
268 Pair earrings (Todu).
269 Two necklaces, silver, coral, and brass.
270 Pair ear ornaments (Kuru).
271 Pair ear ornaments (Pullemal).
272 Silver ring.
273 Ancient Kandyan silver chain, made of old Kandyan coins.
274 Silver ring.

Werasiri, D. J.—Tortoise-shell ornaments.

275 Yellow flower necklace.
276 Pair yellow flower earrings.
277 Yellow flower brooch.
278 Pair yellow flower bangles.
279 Yellow flower bead necklace.
280 Six pairs yellow flower bead earrings.
281 Two pairs yellow flower bangles.
282 Three pairs yellow flower earrings.
283 Three yellow flower brooches.
284 Yellow flower watchguard.
285 Yellow flower chain.
286 Yellow flower chain.
287 Six black flower necklaces.
288 Three black flower star necklaces.
289 Six black flower bead necklaces.
290 Six pairs bangles.
291 Pair bracelets.
292 Six pairs earrings.
293 Six black brooches.
294 Eight lockets.
295 Two sets white studs.
296 Set black studs.
297 Fourteen sets black studs.
298 Two black crown crosses.
299 Three pairs star bangles.
300 Two pairs flower hairpins.
301 Pair star hairpins.
302 Two star brooches.
303 Two black bird brooches.
304 Two white bird brooches.
305 Black brooch, with snake.
306 Pair white cable-pattern earrings.
307 Three ivory crosses.
308 Carved pin, with picture.
309 Plain pin, with picture.
310 Pair black bangles, mounted in silver.
311 Pair bracelets, with black links.
312 Pair short star earrings.
313 Seven pairs black long earrings.
314 Black necklace, with a locket.
315 Small black cable-pattern chain.
316 Two long chains, goes twice round the neck.
317 Black flower cross.
318 Black leaf brooch.
319 Pair black long star earrings.
320 Pair black ball earrings.
321 Six pairs black earrings, with six pendant balls.
322 Black flower necklace.
323 Oval links black chain.
324 Pair short-ball earrings.
325 Carved white brooch.

Werasiri, D. J.—Gold and silver ornaments.

326 Single ruby ring.
327 Ring, with five pearls.
328 Ring, with two pearls and one ruby.
329 Silver gown-holder.

"Wijenarayane, Don Adrian.—Tortoise-shell ornaments.

330 Tiger-claws necklace.
331 Pair tiger-claws earrings.
332 Tiger-claws brooch.
333 Tiger-claws pin.
334 Tiger-claws chain.
335 Thirty sets of black studs.
336 Two pairs black bangles.
337 Three black watchguards, with chains.
338 Yellow locket-chain.
339 Yellow locket-chain.
340 Eight sets yellow studs.
341 Yellow locket watchguard.
342 Four black oval-shape watchguards.
343 Three black oval-shape watchguards.
344 Four yellow hairpins.
345 Yellow brooch.
346 Twelve pairs solitaires.
347 Six pairs tortoise-shell earrings, with pendant balls.
348 Flower tortoise-shell necklace.
349 Thirty-nine small ivory elephants, for charms.
350 Four small ivory elephants, for charms.
351 Two tortoise-shell plain hearts.
352 Three black locket charms.

Wijenarayane, Don Adrian.—Gold and silver ornaments.

353 Blue sapphire ring.
354 Blue sapphire ring. 355 Blue sapphire ring.
356 Pair earlobs, set with rubies.
357 Silver bead necklace of two rows.
358 Silver bead necklace of three rows.
359 Bentara Yahatugoda Badalge Tepanishami.—Twenty-four ivory elephants, for Albert chains.

Wijesundara Abeynarayane, Don C.
360 Nine silver puzzle-rings of seven.
361 Silver puzzle-ring of eleven.
362 Pair silver earrings.

Dewarpura Wemalaratna Jayesinghe, Don G.
363 Gold hairpin, set with Ceylon diamonds (zircon).
364 Pair earrings, set with emeralds.
365 Ratnawibusane, Don S.—Cocoanut gold brooch.

Ratnawibusane, Don S.
366 Pair of gold earrings, set with rubies.
367 Gold brooch, set with rubies and pearls.

Ratnawibusane, Don C.
368 Gold locket, set with water-sapphire and turquoise.
369 Gold chain.
370 Gold ring, set with rubies and emeralds.
371 Gold ring, set with rubies and emeralds.
372 Gold ring, set with a Ceylon ruby.
373 Gold puzzling-ring of eleven together.
374 Puzzling-ring of four.
375 Six puzzling-rings of seven.
376 Puzzling-ring of eleven.
377 Pair gold earrings, set with coral.

De Silva, D. F.—Gold and tortoise-shell jewellery.
378 Two sets—two brooches and two pairs pearl-grape earrings.
379 Two sets—two brooches and two pairs pearl-grape earrings.
380 Set moonstone necklace, bracelets, and earrings.
381 Large pearl cross.
382 Three small pearl crosses.
383 Pearl pin.
384 Pearl pin.
385 Seventy ivory charm elephants.
386 Six light-coloured necklaces.
387 Thirty-two sets large solitaires.
388 Forty-one sets small solitaires.
389 Twelve sets light-coloured studs and solitaires.
390 Six sets light-coloured brooches.
391 Set cheetah’s-claws necklace, brooch, and pair of earrings.
392 Large cat's-eye ring.
393 Large cat's-eye ring.
394 Two large cat's-eye rings.
395 Two large cat's-eye rings.
396 Three pearl hoops.
397 Half-pearl hoop.
398 Square half-pearl ring.
399 Pearl and emerald rase ring.
400 Pearl and sapphire hoop.
401 Large gent,’s sapphire ring.
402 Two sapphire hoops.
403 Two sapphire hoops.
404 Half-sapphire hoop.
405 Half-sapphire hoop, two rows.
406 Half-sapphire hoop.
407 Two ruby hoops.
408 Ruby hoop.
409 Ruby hoop.
410 Ruby hoop.
411 Six silver lockets.
412 Six large crosses.
413 Six small silver crosses.
414 Six silver-mounted cheetah’s-claw pins.
415 Six gold-mounted cheetah’s-claw pins.
416 Two horse-shoe pearl pins.
417 Gold samy bracelet
418 Gold samy locket
419 Gold samy locket.
420 Gold samy brooch.
421 Pair samy earrings.
422 Two beetle brooches.
423 Tillekeratne, H. D., Mudaliyar.—Gold article, called "Hallabontioue." used for cardamoms and spices by Singhalese ladies.

Tillekeratne Dissanaike, A. P., Mudaliyar.

424 Gold article or purse, called "Bagaldasia."
425 Gold article or scent-ball, called "Ambiribole."

Class 40.—Portable Weapons, and Hunting and Shooting Equipments.

Palipane, P. B., Ratemahatmeya.

426 Dessawa's waist-knife, mounted with gold, above 200 years old.
427 Ratemohotta’s waist-knife and stylus, mounted with silver (ancient).
429 Five spear-heads, with handle.
430 Three axes for killing bears.
431 Six Kandyan knives.
432 Small spear.
433 Spear-head, without handle.
434 Fernando, G., Mudaliyar.—Model crease (poniard).

Class 42.—Toys.

Fernando, G., Mudaliyar.

435 Set Jaffna wooden lacquered toys, 24 pieces.
436 Set Galle wooden lacquered toys, 9 pieces.

V. Raw and Manufactured Products.
Class 43.—Products of the Cultivation of Forests and of the Trades appertaining thereto.

437 Ceylon Government.—Cabinet box, containing specimens of Ceylon woods.
438 Peiries, H. B.—Cabinet box, containing specimens of Ceylon woods.
439 Dissanaika, H. L., Mudaliyar.—Twenty-seven specimens of Ceylon woods.
440 Fernando, G., Mudaliyar.—Twenty-one specimens of Ceylon woods.
441 Martos. R. A.—Two boxes, containing specimens of Ceylon woods.
442 Wijenarayane, D. A.—Box, containing specimens of Ceylon woods.
443 Subehami, A. W.—Box, containing 50 specimens of Ceylon woods.
444 Andris. Don B. G.—Box, containing 50 specimens of Ceylon woods.

Dissanaika, H. L., Mudaliyar.
445 Mat (common).
446 Dish mat (etul patia).
447 Basket (common).
448 Bag (common).
449 Spoon-holder (common).
450 Talipot umbrella.
451 Talipot fan.
452 Talipot book.
453 Quantity of cashew (cadju) bark.
454 Quantity of tunhiriya bark.
455 Quantity of kahata bark.
456 Quantity of linia bark.
457 Quantity of kallawilla bark.
458 Quantity of dambinara bark.
459 Quantity of nuga bark.
460 Quantity of ehatu bark.

Ceylon Government.
461 Seven specimens of basket-work.
462 Talipot basket, for clothes (kaddupeddi).

Drieberg, J. F.
463 Five bundles of cinnamon sticks.
464 Bag cinnamon leaves.
465 Two parcels cinnamon bark.

Government Agent, Kandy.
466 Quantity of kekuna seed.
467 Quantity of gingelly seed.

Ceylon Government.
468 Quantity of madul seeds.
469 Quantity of nah seeds (ironwood-tree).

Leechman, G. & W.—Complete collection of the products of the cocoanut palm, viz.:—
470 Ordinary cocoanut plant.
471 Ordinary king cocoanut plant.
472 Ordinary cocoanut plant, with three sprouts.
473 Ordinary cocoanut plant, with two sprouts.
474 Six ordinary cocoanuts.
475 Six ordinary dry cocoanuts.
476 Six real medicinal king cocoanuts (very scarce).
477 Six ordinary king cocoanuts.
478 Six Maldivie cocoanuts.
479 Six sweet cocoanuts.
480 Six ordinary cocoanuts, husked.
481 Six ordinary king cocoanuts, husked.
482 Six Maldivie cocoanuts, husked.
483 Six sweet cocoanuts, husked.
484 Three dwarf cocoanuts, husked.
485 Six ordinary dry cocoanuts, husked.
486 Six real medicinal cocoanuts, husked.
487 Bottle cocoanut oil (extra fine).
488 Bottle cocoanut oil (white).
489 Bottle cocoanut oil (ordinary).
490 Bottle cocoanut arrack.
491 Bottle cocoanut vinegar.
492 Bottle cocoanut treacle.
493 Bottle cocoanut jaggery.
494 Bottle king cocoanut hair oil.
495 Bottle king cocoanut oil, 35 years old, used for rheumatism.
496 Three cocoanut boards.
497 Six cocoanut plaited leaves.
498 Cocoanut-fibre broom, with common handle, for cleaning roof.
499 Cocoanut-fibre broom, with cocoanut handle.
500 Two cocoanut ikel brooms, without handles.
501-2 Two cocoanut ikel brooms, with cocoanut handles.
503 Two cocoanut-leaf brooms, with cocoanut handles.
504 Cocoanut ikel fishing-net.
505 Four cocoanut flower stalk torches.
506 Four cocoanut-leaf torches.
507 Cocoanut husker.
508 Two cocoanut flower stalks.
509 Cocoanut strainer, made out of the film of cocoanut stalk.
510 Twelve cocoanut walking-sticks.
511 Thro cocoanut tree climbers.
512 Cocoanut coir cigar-lighter.
513 Thro dry cocoanuts, with husk, shell And kernel ripped and dried.
514-15 Twelve dried cocoanuts, kernel whole.
516 Fifty dried cocoanuts, kernel or copperah.
517 Coil cocoanut coir rope, 200 ft. × 3 in.
518 Coil cocoanut coir rope, 100 ft. × 6 in.
519 Coil cocoanut coir rope, 75 ft. × 9 in.
520 Coil cocoanut coir rope, 75 ft. × 1 ft.
521 Box cocoanut-oil soap, 6 bars.
522 Box cocoanut-oil soap, cake or poonac.
523 Two cocoanut-leaf mats.
524 Cocoanut shell, ornamental.
525 Seven cocoanut shells, used for carrying water in fishing canoes.
526 Four cocoanut-shell scoops, with cocoanut handles.
527 Eight cocoanut-shell spoons.
528 Three cocoanut-shell funnels.
529 Two bundles cocoanut bristle fibre.
530 Two bundles cocoanut fibro, No. 1.
531 Two bundles cocoanut mattress fibre.
532 Cocoanut coir bag, for feeding horses.
533 Four cocoanut coir brushes, for stencil-plates.
534 Two cocoanut brushes, for whitewashing.
535 Twelve pieces cocoanut husk, partly combed.
536 Six pieces cocoanut husk, for tar brushes.
537 Cocoanut coir rug, 2 ft. 6 in. × 1 ft. 6 in., coloured border.
538 Cocoanut coir rug, plain.
539 Cocoanut coir bag, for copperah, 3 ft. × 2 ft. 6 in.
540 Cocoanut coir bag, for coals, 2 ft. 6 in. × 2 ft.
541 Two cocoanut-leaf bags.
542 Cocoanut coir matting, twilled plain, 20 ft. × 3 ft.
543 Cocoanut coir matting, twilled coloured, 20 ft. × 2 ft. 6 in.
544 Cocoanut coir matting, 20 ft. × 2 ft.
545 Bundle coir yarn, very fine.
546 Bundle coir yarn, No. 1.
547 Bundle coir yarn, No. 2.
548 Bundle coir yarn, No. 3.
549 Bundle coir yarn, No. 4.
550 Two cocoanut ikel tarts.
551 Cocoanut hubble-bubble, or hookah.
552 Cocoanut scraper.
553 Three cocoanut leaves.
554 Cocoanut-wood gutter, 13 ft. × 8 in.
555 Two cocoanut rafters.
556 Ferguson, A. M. & J.—Section of a coffee tree.
556a Ceylon Government.—The palmyra, its products and their uses.

Class 44.—Products of Hunting, Shooting, Fishing, and Spontaneous Products. Machines and Instruments connected therewith.

Ceylon Government.

557 Box of marine shells.
558 Box of pearl-oyster shells.
559 De Domenico, Antonia.—Black coral-tree, fished off the coast of Ceylon.

Government Agent, Kandy.

560 Net for fishing.
561 Net to catch hares.
562 Elephant tusk.
563 Delmege, Reid & Co.—Bundle deer-horns.
564 William, J. P.—Seven carpenter birds’ nests.

Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food.

Dessanaika, D. A. T., Mudaliyar.

565 Cocoanut oil.
566 Gingelly oil.
567 Margosa oil.
568 Castor oil.
569 Kekuna oil.
570 Mee oil.
571 Cashew (cadju) oil.
Ceylon Government.
572 Gingelly oil.
573 Margosa oil.
574 Cocoanut oil.
575 Eruppai oil.

Delmege, Reid & Co.
576 Cocoanut oil.
577 Citronella oil.
578 Cinnamon-bark oil.

Drieberg, J. F.
579 Phial cinnamon-bark oil.
580 Phial cinnamon-leaf oil.
581 Ceylon Government.—Six bundles of tobacco.

Ingleton, J. K., Rajawelle Estate.
582 Dumbara cigars—"Rajah."
588 Dtimbara cigars—"Ranee."
584 Dumbara cigars—"Loko Nono."
585 Dumbara cigars—"Nona."
586 Dumbara cigars—"Poonchee Nona."
587 Dumbara cheroots—"Loko Nono."
588 Dumbara cheroots—"Medda."
589 Dumbara cheroots—"Poonchee."
590 Dumbara Vevey cheroots—"Deega."
591 Dumbara Vevey cheroots—"Kotta."
592 Government Agent, Kandy.—Quantity of Dumbara cigars.
593 Delmege, Reid Co.—Bundle tobacco.
594 William, J. P.—Six leaves of tobacco.

Ceylon Government.
595 Eight kinds of smoking tobacco.
596 Two kinds of chewing tobacco.
597 Tobacco, as prepared for exportation.

Dessanaike, Mudaliyar.
598 Dammer, from trees.
599 Dammer (ground).
600 Beeswax (mee, &c.).
601 Beeswax (Bambara eti.).
602 Beeswax (Kanayeya eti.).
603 Beeswax (Dandowala eti.).
604 Cashew (cadju) gum.
605 Nianda fibre.
606 Dool fibre.
607 Pineapple fibre.
608 Cocoanut fibre.
609 Kitul fibre.

Delmege, Reid & Co.
610 Four ballots coir fibre.
611 Four ballots coir yam.

**Ceylon Government.**

612 Resin.
613 Hal resin.

**Delmege, Reid & Co.**

614 Two bundles kitul fibre.
615 Bottle arecanuts.
616 Parcel orchella weed.

**Government Agent, Kandy.**

617 Quantity of saffron.
618 Quantity of arecanuts.
619 Quantity of gamboge.
620 Quantity of cotton.
621 Mackwood & Co.—Fibre from the neyandoc plant.

**William, J. P.**

622 Two largo cocoanuts, each weighing 10½ lb.
623 Fifteen halnuts.
624 Three halnuts, in stalk.
625 Half-pound hal gum.
626 Phial hal-gum oil.
627 Piece hal bark.
628 Piece hal plank.
629 Piece white cashew gum.
630 Piece white cashew gum.
631 4 lb. madunut seed.
632 Madunut plant.
633 Piece boorende wood.

**Sumps, A. C.**

634 Rattan tiffin basket.
635 Pair of rattan flower-holders, japanned.
636 Pair of rattan flower-holders, unpainted.
637 Pair of rattan flower-holders, single white.
638 Pair of rattan flower-holders, japanned.
639 Pair of rattan hanging flower-baskets.
640 Rattan work-basket.
641 Rattan paper-basket.
642 Samples of bamboo, rattan, rattan fibre, and kus-kus tats.

**Ceylon Government, from the Royal Botanic Gardens.**

643 Grains.
644 Oils.
645 Resins.
646 Starches.
647 Fibres.
648 Ropes.
649 Mats.
650 Medicines.
651 Condiments.
652 Products of the areca palm.
653 Products of the talipot palm.
654 Bamboos.
655 Domestic articles made from bamboos.
656 Rattans, &c.

Class 46.—Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products.
657 Lee, Hedges & Co.—Cinchona succirubra bark—quill.
658 Owen, T. C., Oonoonaagalla Estate.—Cinchona bark.
659 Mackwood & Co.—Cinchona succirubra bark.
659a Cameron, E. H.—Cinchona bark.

VI. Machinery—Apparatus and Processes used in the Mechanical Industries.

Class 49.—Agricultural Implements and Processes used in the Cultivation of Fields and Forests.
660 Dessanaike, D. A. T., Mudaliyar.—Models of agricultural implements—mamoti, plough, goad, &c.
661 Fernando, G., Mudaliyar.—Models of agricultural implements—adze, mamoti, catty or billhook, axe, reaping-knife.
662 Ceylon Government.—Specimens of Ceylon agricultural implements—mamoti, plough, yoke, ulavaran, axe, grass-cutter, sickle, and spade.
663 Drieberg, J. F.—Specimens of implements used in the preparation of cinnamon—catty (bill-hook), peeling-knife, scraping-knife.

Harmanis Dias.
664 Model hackery.
665 Model double bullock cart.

Ceylon Government.
666 Model double bullock-cart.
667 Model hackery.
668 Model hand-cart.

Government Agent, Kandy.
669 Three bill-hooks.
670 Grass-cutter.
671 Two adzes.
672 Two mamoties.
673 Smoothing-board.
674 Specimens of agricultural implements.

Class 50.—Apparatus and Processes used in Agricultural Works, and in Works for the Preparation of Food.
675 Fernando, G., Mudaliyar.—Arecanut-cutter.

Ceylon Government.
676 Grindstone and roller (model).
677 Mortar and pestle (model).
678 Cocoanut-scraper (model).
679 Arecaanut-cutter ('model).
680 Vegetable and fish cutter (model).
681 Cocoanut water-ladle.
682 Palipane, P. B., Ratemahatmeya.—Silver and brass mounted arecanut-cutter.
683 Halpe, Ratemahatmeya.—Brass arecanut-cutter.

Government Agent, Kandy.
684 Two cocoanut-scrapers.
685 Mortar and pestle.
686 Eight arecanut-cutters.
687 Betel-pounder and pestle.
688 Harmanis Dias.—Model chekoo (oil mill).

Class 54.—Apparatus and Processes used in Spinning and Rope-making.

Delmege, Reid & Co.
689 Coil coir rope, ½ in.
690 Coil coir rope, 1 in.
691 Coil coir rope, 2 in.
692 Coil coir rope, 3 in.
693 Coil coir rope, 4 in.
694 Coil coir rope, 5 in.
695 Coil coir rope, 6 in.
696 Government Agent, Kandy.—Kandyan rope (waramadu).

Class 55.—Apparatus and Processes used in Weaving.

Government Agent, Kandy.
697 Spindle (Kandyan).
698 Weaver's comb (Kandyan).

Class 61.—Harness and Saddlery.
699 Government Agent, Kandy.—Set of reins for bullocks.

Class 64.—Apparatus and Processes of Civil Engineering, Public Works, and Architecture.
700 Fernando, G., Mudaliyar.—Chisel.
701 Mackwood & Co.—Specimen of block-build-ing cabook (laterite).
701a Kyle, J., Engineer, Colombo Breakwater.—Specimen block of concrete used in the construction of the Colombo Breakwater.

Class 65.—Navigation and Life-saving.

Ceylon Government.
702 Model of Pada boat.
703 Model of double canoe.
704 Model of single canoe, with outrigger.
705 Model of kattamaran.
706 Model of outrigger boat, with lines for Ashing.
707 Model, with wall del nets for fishing.
708 Model of a boat used for fishing with nets in the sea.

VII. Alimentary Products.

Class 67.—Cereals, Farinaceous Products, and Products derived from them.

709 Wattagama, Ratemahatmeya.—Ten specimens of paddy.


710 Seventeen specimens of paddy.
711 Eight specimens of rice.
712 Eight specimens of dry grain.
713 Two specimens of pulse.
714 Hallugalle, Ratemahatmeya.—Eleven kinds of native grains.
715 Braine. C. F., Becherton Estate.—Sample of arrowroot.

Ceylon Government.

716 Thirteen kinds of native grains, from Jaffna.
717 Three kinds of fine grains, from Ratnapura.
718 Three kinds of paddy, from Ratnapura.

Government Agent. Kandy.

719 Thirty-two kinds of paddy.
720 Eleven kinds dry grain.
721 Three kinds of rice.

Class 69.—Fatty Substances used as Food. Milk and Eggs.

722 Government Agent, Kandy.—Four bottles cow ghee.

Class 71.—Vegetables and Fruit.

723 Ceylon Government.—Sample of arrowroot tubers from Ratnapura.

Government Agent, Kandy.

724 Quantity of jack seeds.
725 Quantity of beans.

Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery. Tea.

726 Lee Hedges & Co.—Ceylon tea—pekoe, pekoe souchong, flowery pekoe, broken pekoe, souchong, unassorted.
727 Owen, T. C., Oonoonagalla Estate.—One sample tea.
728 Hay. C. A., Windsor Forest Estate.—Ceylon tea—orange pekoe, pekoe dust, broken pekoe, pekoe, pekoe souchong, souchong.
729 Armstrong, C. S., Rook wood Estate.—Ceylon tea—pekoe, pekoe souchong, souchong, congou, broken pekoe, broken tea.
730 Keir, Dundas & Co.—Samples of Loolecon-dera Estate tea.
731 Haldane & Anton.—Samples of Calsay Estate tea.
Stork. A. J.
732 Sample of Blackstone Estate tea.
733 Sample of Oodawariana Estate tea.
734 Nelson, J.—Sample of tea prepared from the plants in the Royal Botanic Gardens.
735 Ceylon Co.—Ceylon tea—pekoe souchong; flowery, silvery, orange, souchong, and broken pekoe; hyson, young hyson, pekoe tips, &c.
736 Shand, P. R.—Ceylon tea—pekoe, pekoe souchong.
737 Leeuchman, G. & W.—Ceylon tea, from Agrawatte Estate—orange pekoe, pekoe souchong, souchong, congou.
738 Mackwood & Co.—Tea, from Galbodde Estate—pekoe tea, souchong, pekoe souchong, broken pekoe, pekoe dust, orange pekoe.
738a Shand, C.—Thirty samples tea.
738b Smith, J. Arbuthnot (Limited).—Sample Ceylon-grown tea.
738c Henty, J., & Co.—Samples of pekoe, pekoe souchong, and souchong.

Lee, Hedges & Co.
739 Plantation parchment coffee—peaberry, flat beans, Liberian.
740 Prepared plantation coffee—peaberry, flat beans.
741 Sample native coffee.
742 Owen, T. C., Oonoongalla Estate.—Sample coffee.
743 Colombo Commercial Co.—Samples of plantation coffee.
744 Baker, J. F.—Samples of plantation coffee, from Yakkabendakelle Estate.
745 Whittall & Co.—Samples of plantation coffee.
746 Courthope, Bosanquet & Co.—Plantation coffee—parchment, No. 0 elephant beans, No. 1 bulk size, peaberry.
747 Mackwood & Co.—Coffee—dried cherry, parchment, flat beans (large size), peaberry.
747a Delmege, Reid & Co.—Plantation coffee, the produce of Langdale, Kintyre, and Tilli coultry Estates.

Bawa, A.
748 Ceylon patent cafe-au-lait, or coffee and milk condensed.
749 Prepared coffee, milk, and sugar, compressed into cakes.
750 Lea, Hedges & Co.—Plantation cinnamon.
751 Rajapakse, S., Mudaliyar.—Five samples of cinnamon.
752 De Silva, H.—Three samples of cinnamon.
753 Owen, T. C., Oonoongalla Estate.—Sample cardamoms.

Drieberg, J. F., Ekelle Estate.
754 Seven parcels cinnamon.
755 Parcel cinnamon ehipe.
756 Delmege, Reid & Co. Bundle cinnamon.
757 Jayetilleke, S., Mudaliyar.—5 lb. vanilla.

Government Agent, Kandy.
758 Quantity of cinnamon.
759 Quantity of mustard.
760 Quantity of pepper.

Dasanayaka, H. L., Mudaliyar.
761 Quantity of pepper.
762 Quantity of mustard.
763 Quantity of bird pepper.
764 Phial of kitul syrup.
Phial of bee honey.

**Class 82.---Mining and Metallurgy.**

766 Lee, Hedges & Co.—Two samples plumbago—lump, dust.
767 Fernando, W. A., Mudaliyar.—Four samples plumbago of the first quality.

**Delmege, Reid & Co.**

768 Box plumbago.
769 Three bottles plumbago.
770 Ferguson, W.—Two specimens of breccia, or Pamunugama stone.
771 Palipane, P. B., Ratemahatmeya.—Plumbago, from the Kurunegala district.

**Ceylon Government.**

772 Plumbago, from Ratnapura.
773 Sample of a species of plumbago, generally found in the beds of rivers.
774 Government Agent, Kandy.—Quantity of plumbago.
775 Dixon, A. C.—Case of specimens, illustrative of the geology and mineralogy of Ceylon.

**Supplementary Exhibits.**

**Class 3.—Sculpture and Die-sinking.**

776 Armitage Brothers.—Carved plumbago elephant.

**Class 15.—Mathematical and Philosophical Instruments.**

777 Gomes, J. B., Mudaliyar.—Ceylon coins—one gold, one silver, fourteen copper, one gold-stone.

**Class 24.—Goldsmiths' and Silversmiths' Work.**

778 Gomes, J. B., Mudaliyar.—Carved silver box.

**Class 39.—Jewellery and Precious Stones.**

**Gomes, J. B., Mudaliyar.**

779 Rubies, one cut, six uncut.
780 Sapphires, one cut, two uncut.
781 Topazes, one cut, five uncut.
782 Cat's eyes, a pair of cat's-eye earrings, and five uncut stones.
783 Star-stones, four cut, one uncut.
784 Amethyst, three cut, one uncut.
785 Aqua mar in as, one cut, seven uncut.
786 Tormalines, two cut, four uncut.
787 Moonstones, three cut, nine uncut.
788 Cinnamon-stones, four cut, eleven uncut.
789 White sapphires, four cut, four uncut.

**Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food.**

790 Armitage Brothers.—Hogshead cocoanut oil.

**Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants. Sugar and**
Confectionery.
791 Armitage Brothers.—Four barrets Ceylon plantation coffee.
792 Voller, H. G.-2 lb. vanilla.

Class 76.—Flowers and Ornamental Plants.
793 Ferguson. W.—Specimens of tree ferns (Hemitelia Walkeriæ, Hooker), with rough ends of fronds removed.

Class 82.—Mining and Metallurgy.
794 Armitage Brothers.—Plumbago lumps, chips, and dust.

Ferguson, W.
795 White sand, Cinnamon Gardens, Colombo, natural state.
796 White sand, washed and freed from vegetable matter.
797 Black sand, mouth of Kelani River, natural state.
798 Black sand, washed and freed from vegetable matter.

Mauritius.

The Island of Mauritius is situated in the Indian Ocean, off the east coast of Africa. It derived its name from the Dutch, who conferred it in honour of Prince Maurice of Holland. It was first settled by the French in 1720, and being skilfully managed by M. de la Bourdonnais, the governor, it soon became a prosperous settlement. In 1810 it was captured by the English forces, and retained until 1814, when it was definitely ceded to Great Britain.

The capital of the island is Port Louis, at the bottom of a triangular bay, the entrance to which is in 20° 10 S. lat., and 57° 29' E. long. The anchorage is not extensive, but quite safe, and there are some docks formed, including a dry dock capable of admitting the largest ships. The town and harbour are both strongly fortified.

The island lies between 19° 58' and 20° 33' S. lat., and 57° 17' and 57° 40' E. long. It contains about 708 square miles, and according to the latest census the population, including the small dependencies of Seychelles, Rodrigues, &c., and exclusive of the military, amounted to 318,584, being an average of 450 to the square mile. More than two-thirds of the number (or 210,636) were Indian coolies, of whom very large numbers have been introduced since the emancipation of the negro slaves.

The surface of the land is of varied formation, a considerable portion being volcanic; and the coast is fringed with extensive coral reefs. The mountains are not very high, but are marked with the usual volcanic irregularities. The most important mountain is the Peter Botte, in the rear of Port Louis, which is a cone, sustaining on its apex a gigantic rock nicely poised.

Mauritius is tolerably fertile, and it produces annually a large quantity of sugar, which is exported to England, France, and Australia. The soil suitable for the growth of the sugar-cane is, however, limited in extent, as great portions of the surface are encumbered with large boulders. Sugar is cultivated, notwithstanding, to the exclusion of nearly everything else, although excellent coffee, indigo, and cotton are grown. The blackwood or ebony of Mauritius is abundant, and of superior quality. Very little corn or grain is raised, and most articles of provisions are imported, the supply required for the use of the island being almost entirely derived from the Cape of Good Hope, Reunion, Madagascar, India, and Australia.

The revenue of Mauritius is rather in excess of the expenditure, the figures for 1871 being—revenue, £616,953; and the expenditure, £600,962. Vessels having an aggregate burden of 401,935 tons entered and cleared the ports of the colony during the same year. The imports were chiefly provisions, particularly grain and flour, with cotton stuffs, iron, hardware, cutlery, machinery, copper, linens, wine, coal, and guano, which last has been largely imported of late years, with great advantage to the crops of sugar. The value of the imports for the year was £2,044,216, and the exports—mainly sugar, with some rum, molasses, copper, and ebony—were valued at £3,120,529. Sugar pays an export duty of 3d. per 100 lb.

The first two lines of railway in Mauritius were commenced in 1860 and completed in 1863. Ordinary roads have also been made, bridges built, and facilities for communication greatly increased. Hospitals have likewise been founded in late years, and savings banks established.
The climate of the island is remarkably fine. There are four seasons, but the temperature in November, December, and January is very high; but throughout the year the thermometer ranges from 70° to 90°. In the more elevated districts the range is usually 7° or 8° lower than at Port Louis.

Few communities present so curious an admixture as that of Mauritius. The descendants of the original French inhabitants represent a considerable portion of the influential classes; Government officials and merchants, or planters of English birth or extraction, make up the remainder. In Port Louis may be seen representatives of almost every Eastern nation; many Chinese are found there, and in nearly every hamlet a Chinese storekeeper has established himself. The Creoles, or native coloured population, descendants on the mother's side from the African or Malayash slaves, form a very considerable portion of the population. Emigration of coolies from British India for the sugar plantations also adds to the population.

MAURITIUS EXHIBITS.

I. Works of Art.

Class 1.—Oil Paintings.

1 Desjardins, N.—View of Souliiac Bay, view of Tombeau Bay, view of Mahébourg Bay.
2 Seerais, L. de.—"Inverness Fishmongers”; "Wading the River"; view of Grand River, S.E. Mauritius; view of Salazic, Reunion Island.

Class 2.—Various Paintings and Drawings.

3 Descube, A.—Six water-colour paintings, representing Mauritius plants.
4 Segrais, L. de.—Pastel view of Black River, Mauritius.
5 Segrais, L. de.—Water-colour landscape. Pencil landscape, Mauritius palm-tree.

Class 5.—Engravings and lithographs.

6 Mauritius Steam Printing Co.—Collection typo-lithographic proofs.

II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.

Class 9.—Printing, Books.

7 Daruty, J. E.—"Recherches sur le Rite Ecossais," 1 vol.
8 Duverge, F., Librarian to the Municipal Corporation, Port Louis.—"Les Mauriciennes," poems, 2 vols.
11 Royal Society of Arts & Sciences of Mauritius.—Transactions, 2 vols.

Class 10.—Stationery, Bookbinding, Painting and Drawing Materials.

12 Atisse, P.—Bookbinding—Transactions of the Royal Society of Arts and Sciences of Mauritius, 2 vols.

Class 12.—Photographic Proofs and Apparatus.

13 Moco, S.—Collection of photographs—view of Mauritius.

Class 16.—Maps, and Geographical and Cosmo-graphical
Apparatus.

14 Crook, W.—Plan of "Curepipe" village, Mauritius; and plan, with soundings, of Port Victoria, Mahé, Seychelles.
15 Crook, W.—Maps of Grand Port, Flacq, Plaines Wilhems, Moka, Port Louis, and Rivière du Rem-parté Mauritius.

V. Raw and Manufactured Products.

Class 43.—Products of the Cultivation of Forests and of the Trades appertaining thereto.

16 Bewsher, C. E.—Four nuts of the coco-de-mer (Lodoicea seychellarum labill), from Praslin Island.
17 Cantley, N., Acting Director Botanical Gardens, Mauritius.—Collection of indigenous woods.
18 Dupont, E.—Three brooms, made of the flowering spikes or the fataque grass (Panicum maximum jacq).
19 Dupont, E.—Four chairs, of colonial wood and vacoa leaves; box and four bags, in vacoa leaves; two rice-cleaners, "Vannes," in bamboo.
20 Fressang'es, Dr.—Fruits of coco-de-mer palm—shell of the fruit, the entire fruit, and cigar-case made from the leaves.
21 Galdemar, A.—Three flower-baskets, peduncles of the raphia palm.
22 Joly, J.—Fruit spikes of the raphia palm.

Class 44.—Products of Hunting, Shooting, Fishing, and Spontaneous Products. Machines and Instruments connected therewith.

23 Caze, S.—Two hen's eggs—curious case of malformation.
24 Chery Moutou.—Collection of corals.
25 M'Millan, Miss.—Fancy works, made with seaweeds.
26 Robillard, V. de.—Four cases collection of natural history.

Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food.

27 Cantley, N., Acting Director Botanical Gardens.—Collection of fibres.
28 Chazal, E. de, Rouge Terre.—Bale aloe fibre.
29 Couba, Mrs.—Thirteen bottles snuff tobacco, seven cases assorted cigars.
30 Desjardins, N.—Beeswax.
31 Le Magasin general des Huiles.—Cocoa-nut oil (two samples).
32 Levieux, X.—Samples raphia fibres.
33 Vally, C.—Box assorted cigars.

VI. Machinery—Apparatus and Processes used in the Mechanical Industries.

Class 49.—Agricultural Implements and Processes used in the Cultivation of Fields and Forests.

34 Mauritius Sanitary Improvement Co.—Manure for sugar-cane and beetroot

Class 54.—Apparatus and Processes used in Spinning and
Rope-making.
35 D'Unienville, P., Plaisance.—Samples rope manufactured with aloe fibre.

Class 64.—Apparatus and Processes of Civil Engineering, Public Works, and Architecture.
36 Chery Moutou.—Sample of lime, and specimens of the madreporo from which lime is obtained.
37 Lebourg, C.—Plan of stone tramway, patented in Mauritius.

VII. Alimentary Products.

Class 67.—Cereals, Farinaceous Products, and Products derived from them.
38 Baya, E.—Manioc fecula, the only starch used in the colony (sample prepared with indigo blue, and sample unmixed).
39 Bonieux, N.—Tapioca (two samples).
40 Pipon, Mrs. C., Chaumi&re.—Arrowroot fecula, prepared without indigo blue.

Class 68.—Bread and Pastry.
41 Riviere, E.—Biscuits.

Class 70.—Meat and Fish.
42 Tonnet, N.—Spiced beef (humps).

Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery.
43 Arnaud, A., & Co.—Sugar (first, second, third, and fourth boilings).
44 Arnaud & Co., Rich-Fund.—Sample molasses.
45 Aubin, G., Constance.—Sugar (white crystals and yellow counter).
46 Barlow, F. & Co. Plaisance.—Sugar (yellow-brown crystals, yellow brewers' crystals, and grey counter).
47 Baudon, A., Versailles.—Sample vanilla.
48 Bourguignon, Mrs., Mon Songe.—White crystals and yellow counter.
49 Bouton, H.—Sample vanilla (seven bundles).
51 Chazal. E. de, & Co., Mon Rocher.—Sugar (first boiling).
52 Chauvin. Mrs. H., Mon Trésor.—Sugar (white, grey) and syrup.
53 Chere Lienard C.—Sample vanilla.
54 Collin, A.—Coffee.
55 Constantin, J. D., & Co., Bénarès.—Sugar, for jams and preserves.
56 Constantin, J. D., & Co.—Large white crystals, small crystals, second boiling syrup, best brewers'.
57 Courtois Brothers, Vallée du Pouce.—Two samples coffee.
58 D'Arifat Brothers, Constance.—Sugar (first, second, third, and fourth boilings).
59 D'Arifat Brothers, La Gaité.—Sugar (first, second, third, and fourth boilings).
60 D'Emraerez,—,Grand-Donjon Estate.—Cloves.
61 Desjardins, N.—Honey.
62 Desvaux Brothers, Côte d' Or.—Sugar (first and second boilings).
63 Flore, M.—Pickles and preserves.
64 Jeffroy, A., & Co., Argy.—Sugar (first, second, and third boilings).
65 Jeffroy, Mrs. C., & Co., Bellevue.—Sugar (light and yellow counters).
66 Gilmer & Co., Deux Bras.—Sugar (white crystal, white grainy crystal, yellow counter).
67 Giroday, B. de la, Bon Accueil.—Sugar (first boiling).
68 Gourrège & Co., Beau Séjour.—Sugar (greyish white, semi-crystals, grey counter).
69 Hardy, H., Minissy.—Sugar (first and second boilings).
70 Hewetson, W., St. Julien.—Sugar (grey counter).
71 Jamin, Mrs., Savannah.—Sugar (first boiling).
72 Joly, J., Solitude.—Sample vanilla.
73 Koenig, Mrs. H., Medine.—Sugar (white crystals, grey and yellow counters).
74 Le Bouchier, C., Notre Dame du Bocage.—Sample vanilla (eleven bundles).
75 Louvet Nayl & Co., Albion.—Sugar (grey crystallised and grey nondescript syrup).
76 Mauritius Sugar Estates Co., Astrea.—Sugar, (white crystals, Nos. land 2).
77 Mauritius Sugar Estates Co., Étoile.—Sugar (white crystals).
78 Mauritius Sugar Estates Co., La. Rosalie.—Sugar (white crystals and yellow counter).
79 Mauritius Sugar Estates Co., Riche Bois.—Sugar (white semi-crystals).
80 Menage & Desjardins, L’Amitie Sugar Estate.—Yethow sugar (first boiling, first syrup).
81 Montocchio Sons, Sans Souci.—Sugar (greyish white, semi-crystals, and grey counter).
82 Nozaic, A., & Co., Mon Repos.—Sugar (yellow crystals and yellow counter).
83 Peguillan, J.—Sample vanilla (16 bundles).
84 Pellegrin Heirs & Co., Constance.—Sugar (first and second boilings).
85 Pitot, H. & L., St. Aubin.—Sugar (white crystals and yellow counter).
86 Pitot, H. & L.—Sugar (white, large white, brewing, and large crystals).
87 Robinson, G., Réunion.—Sugar (white crystals).
88 Richer, F., Chamarel.—Sugar (first boiling).
89 Rouge, H., Yemen.—Sample vanilla.
90 Roebecoulte, de A., & R., Beau Vallon.—Sugar (brewers’, yellow brewers’ crystals, grey nondescript grainy).
91 Samouilhan & Co., Union Park.—Fugue (first boiling).
92 Samouilhan & Co., Union Vale.—Stigar (first and second boilings).
93 Senneville & Co., Mon Loisir.—Sugar (white crystals and yellow counter).
94 Vallet & Co., Joli Bois.—Sugar (first, second, and third boilings).

Class 73.—Fermented Drinks.
95 Baker, S., & Co. (T. W. West, Manager), Balaclava.—Samples rum, reduced ro 22°, for consumption.
96 Martin, H. Bellevue.—Samples rum, reduced to 22°, for consumption.

The Cape of Good Hope.

The Cape Colony, which comprises a considerable portion of South Africa, was founded by the Dutch in 1652. The first settlement was established between the River Liesbeek and Table Mountain, but it had embraced the country eastward to the Great Fish River, and along the Roijveld Range to the Sneeuwberg and Barabooberg northerly, when the British took it in 1796. At the peace of Amiens, in 1803, it was restored to Holland, but was reoccupied by Great Britain in 1806, and since then has been one of the colonies of the British empire.

After various changes in the form of government, that constitution which is now in force was conferred by an Act of the Imperial Parliament in 1865, and subsequently changed and amended by the Colonial Legislature in 1872. The Executive is now vested in the Governor and a Council composed of office-holders appointed by the Crown. Legislative power rests with a Parliament, consisting of a Legislative Council of twenty-one members, elected for a term of years, and presided over by the Chief Justice ex-officio, and a House of Assembly of 68 members, elected for five years. Members of the Council must have £2000 worth of real or £4000 worth of personal estate. Members of both Houses are elected by the same voters, who must be qualified by holding property, or receiving salary or wages of from £25 to £50 per annum. There were in 1878 45,825 registered voters.

The revenue of the Cape Colony is obtained, in a great measure, from import duties, which produce nearly £1,000,000 per annum. There are enormous quantities of Crown lands for sale or rental, but very little revenue is derived from that source. For the ten years from 1869 to 1878, inclusive, the revenue and expenditure were as follows:—
In the estimates for 1869 the revenue was set down at £2,309,000, and the expenditure at £2,226,164.

The public debt was initiated in 1859, at the end of which year it was £80,000. It has since been continually increasing, and on 31st July, 1879, it amounted to £10,500,000, the annual interest on which was £483,365. The principal is payable at various dates, the latest being in the year 1900. It will be seen that the interest on the debt absorbs a large portion of the revenue.

Since the colony was annexed by Great Britain in 1806 the boundary has been enlarged by the absorption of British Kaiffraria in 1866, Basutoland in 1868, Griqualand East in 1875, Griqualand West in 1876, and the Transvaal in 1877, with some other minor areas.

The total area of the Cape of Good Hope and its dependencies at the end of 1877 was 347,855 English square miles, of which Cape Colony proper contained 199,950 square miles.

The population of the whole at the same date was 1,420,162, that of Cape Colony being 720,984, of whom 236,783 were Europeans, and 484,201 natives. The majority of the European inhabitants are of Dutch, German, and French origin, who out-number the English authorities and settlers. The Coloured population are chiefly Hottentots, Kaffirs, Malays, and Africanders.

In 1877 the total imports of Cape Colony and its dependencies were valued at £5,158,348, and the exports £3,634,073. In 1878 the exports from the colony to Great Britain amounted to £3,699,012, and the imports of British home produce reached £3,821,279. The most important article of export to England was wool, which constituted nearly nine-tenths of the whole of the total exports. The exports of wool from the colony to England for five years were as follows:

Besides wool there were the following articles of colonial produce forwarded to Great Britain in 1878:—Copper ore, £241,373; feathers (chiefly ostrich), £585,800; sheepskins, £213,803.

The British imports into the Cape Colony in 1878 comprised Apparel and haberdashery, £788,347; cotton manufactures, £468,392; iron (wrought and unwrought), £328,270; with minor articles.

At the census taken in 1875 there were in the colony 692,514 cattle and 9,836,065 sheep. The sheep farms occupy great areas of land, comprising from 15,000 acres and upwards, and the grazing farms are, in most instances, the property of those who occupy them. The area under tillage is limited, and the farms are comparatively small.

At the end of June, 1879, the total length of the lines of railway opened for traffic was 580 miles. These were classed under three systems—the Western, from Cape Town to Worcester; the Midland, starting from Port Elizabeth; the North-western, also starting from Port Elizabeth. At the same date there were also 420 miles of extension in various stages of construction.

The telegraph system had 3380 miles of wire in operation, with 92 offices, at the end of 1878. The number of messages forwarded during the preceding year was 183,120.

The Post-office Department, at the end of the year 1877, bad 248 post-offices under its control. The revenue for that year was £57,870, and the expenditure £151,220.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE EXHIBITS.

I. Works of Art.

Class 2.—Various Paintings and Drawings.

1 Bailey & Kerr, Cape Town.—Water-colour paintings of Cape scenery and natives, &c.

Class 5.—Engravings and Lithographs.


II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.
Class 7.—Organisation and Appliances for Secondary Instruction.

3 Bailey & Kerr, Cape Town.—The herrowograph, for teaching drawing.

Class 10.—Stationery, Bookbinding, Painting and Drawing Materials.

4 Bailey & Kerr, Cape Town.—The crayon copier, an improved pencil; inks; artists' cases, in tin, of water-colours and pencils.

Class 12.—Photographic Proofs and Apparatus.

5 Bailey & Kerr, Capetown.—Photographic specimens, cabinet and carte-de-visite size.
6 Bailey & Kerr, Cape Town.—Photographs of Cape scenery and natives.

Class 15.—Mathematical and Philosophical Instruments.

7 Bailey & Kerr, Cape Town.—The optic marvel.

III. Furniture and Accessories.

Class 19.—Crystal, Glass, and Stained Glass.

8 Bailey & Kerr. Cape Town.—Specimens of vitremame, stained and illuminated glass.

Class 27.—Apparatus and Processes for Heating and Lighting.

9 Bailey & Kerr, Cape Town.—Improved safety lamps for fanners and household use.

Class 29.—Leather-work, Fancy Articles, and Basket-work.

10 Bailey & Kerr, Cape Town.—Improved wire brushes for toilet use, various.
11 Bailey & Kerr, Cape Town.—Snuff-boxes.

IV. Textile Fabrics, Clothing, and Accessories.

Class 40.—Portable Weapons and Hunting and Shooting Equipments.

12 Bailey & Kerr, Cape Town.—Zulu and African weapons—assegais, spears, shield, and native ornaments.

Class 42.—Toys.

13 Bailey & Kerr, Cape Town.—Instructive games, the gyroscope, &c.

V. Raw and Manufactured Products.

Class 44.—Products of Hunting, Shooting,
Fishing, and Spontaneous Products. Machines and Instruments connected therewith.

14 Bailey & Kerr, Cape Town.—Furs and skins of African animals; roi, spring, and other bok skins.
15 Bailey & Kerr.—South African ostrich feathers.
16 Douglass, A., Hetherton Tower, Graham Town.—Case ostrich feathers, from birds artificially hatched and reared by exhibitor.

VI. Machinery—Apparatus and Processes used in the Mechanical Industries.

Class 68.—Apparatus and Processes used in Paper-making, Dyeing, and Printing.

17 Bailey & Kerr, Cape Town.—Improved apparatus for letter press printing and printing fabrics, with types and ink.
18 Chirnside, A., & King-Hall, H.—Mounted hunting trophies of elephants, lions, antelopes, and other animals killed in Central Africa.

Class 64.—Apparatus and Processes of Civil Engineering, Public Works, and Architecture.

19 Bailey & Kerr.—Armenian cement; improved portable implement for plumbers, glaziers, painters, and for tool-chests.

VII. Alimentary Products.

Class 73.—Fermented Drinks.

20 Bailey & Kerr.—Clotes' South African wines—Constants, Pontaci, sherry, and various Cape vintages.
21 Bailey & Kerr.—Bosenberge's Cape cognac brandy.
22 Dunn, J.—South African wines.

IX. Horticulture.

Class 75.—Conservatories and Horticultural Apparatus.

23 Bailey & Kerr.—Improved hydropult, for cleansing and watering plants and extinguishing fires. Other horticultural tools. Diagrams of lawn fountains.

Jamaica.

THE island of Jamaica is situated in the Caribbean Sea, to the southward of the eastern extremity of the
island of Cuba; it is within 17° 40' and 18° 30' N. latitude, and 76° 10' and 78° 30' W. longitude. It is the largest of the British West Indies, being 140 miles long by 50 miles in extreme breadth, and consequently contains an area of about 4200 square miles, or 2,668,000 acres.

Jamaica was discovered by Columbus on 3rd May, 1494, and was named by him St. Jago; it was taken possession of and remained in the possession of the Spaniards for 161 years, but on 3rd May, 1655, it capitulated after a slight resistance to a force sent by Oliver Cromwell, under the command of Admirals Penn and Venables. It remained under military government until the restoration of Charles II., and in 1660 a regular civil government was first established by the appointment of a Governor-in-Chief with an elective Council. Peace between Spain and England was signed in 1670, and the possession of Jamaica by England was recognised by the Treaty of Madrid.

The slave trade attained large proportions in the island, and continued until 1807, at which date there were 323,827 slaves in Jamaica, of whom 86,281 had been imported during the last eight years of the trade. On the abolition of slavery in all British possessions in 1833, Jamaica received £6,161,927 of the £20,000,000 granted by the Imperial Government as compensation to the slave-owners, or about £19 per head.

There is considerable variety of climate in the island. At Kingston the medium heat is about 80° and the minimum 70° throughout the year. On the range of lofty mountains which runs through the middle of the island there is a climate resembling that of Europe, and by a ride of three hours from the capital a change of temperature to the extent of 30° can be attained. In the St. Andrew's Mountains the hottest summer days never exceed 80° of heat, and the coldest nights in winter are never below 60°. In May and October the rainy seasons occur; they last for about three weeks, but periods of fine weather intervene. The May seasons are irregular in their occurrence, but those in October very seldom fail. The total annual rainfall varies in different parts of the island, and may be set down at from 50 to 150 inches. Jamaica is occasionally assailed by the most dreadful hurricanes, which destroy in a moment the hopes and labours of the planters, and devastate entire islands, whole fields of sugar-canes being sometimes torn up by the roots, and houses either unroofed or thrown down. The rain falls in torrents, sweeping everything before it. The destruction caused by these dreadful scourges seldom fails to produce a very great scarcity, and not unfrequently famine. It is stated in a report by a committee of the Assembly of Jamaica that, from such causes, 15,000 negroes perished between the latter part of 1780 and the beginning of 1787.

At the census taken in 1861 the population returns showed that there were 441,254 inhabitants, of whom 13,816 were white, 81,065 coloured, and 346,374 black. At the next decennial census, in 1871, the numbers had increased to 506,154, of whom 13,101 were whites, 100,346 coloured, and 392,707 blacks.

In 1876 the public debt of the colony amounted to £665,536.

The vegetable productions of Jamaica are numerous and valuable, but the sugar-cane and the coffee-plant are by far the most important, and indeed constitute the natural riches of the colony. For many years after the British took possession of the island, the chief exports were cocoa, hides, and indigo; those of sugar, even so late as 1772, amounting to only 11,000 hogsheads; but in 1774 they had increased to 78,000 hogsheads of sugar and 26,000 puncheons of rum. Several circumstances—principally the American war and the disastrous hurricanes already alluded to—interfered greatly with the success of the planters. In 1787, however, a new era of improvement began. The devastation of St. Domingo by the negro insurrection in 1792 first diminished, and in a few years almost entirely annihilated, the annual supply of 115,000 hogsheads of sugar which France and the Continent had previously been accustomed to receive from that island. That diminution of supply, by causing a greatly increased demand for, and a consequent rise in the price of, the sugar raised in the other islands, occasioned an extraordinary extension of cultivation. The result was that Jamaica, which, at an average of the six years preceding 1799, had produced only 83,000 hogsheads, exported in 1801 and 1802 upwards of 286,300 hogsheads. The same powerful stimulus was given by the St. Domingo devastation to the growth of coffee; and, owing to the excessive increase in European countries in the demand for coffee, the supply went on increasing until checked by the measures relating to slavery. In 1832 the export from Jamaica to England attained its maximum, and then amounted to 19,405,933 lb. So rapid, however, has been its subsequent decline, that in 1866 the export to England from the island reached only 4,432,222 lb.

JAMAICA EXHIBITS.
V. Raw and Manufactured Products.

Class 43.—Products of the Cultivation of Forests and of the Trades appertaining thereto.

1 Reid, W., Kingston, Jamaica.—Walking-sticks.

Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food.

2 Desnoes, P., & Son, Kingston.—Cigars.

VII. Alimentary Products.

Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery.

3 Davidson, J., Sherwood Forest, Jamaica.—Coffee.
4 Desnoes, P., & Son, Kingston.—Sugar.

Class 73.—Fermented Drinks.

5 Desnoes, P., & Son, Kingston.—Rum.

India

The Empire of India is bounded on the north by the Himalaya Mountains and spurs therefrom, on the east by the Bay of Bengal, on the south by the Indian Ocean, and on the west by the Arabian Sea and a boundary line which separates it from Beloochistan and Afghanistan. The Afghanistan frontier has been in course of rectification for some time past, and the actual boundary cannot be stated yet with any degree of accuracy. The territory lies between 8° and 36° of north latitude, and 66½° and 92½° east longitude. A large portion of this vast territory was first acquired by the British East India Company, and was governed by a board, in London, through a governor-general resident in India. The first governor, Mr. Warren Hastings, was appointed in 1772. Wars with the rulers of the numerous independent Indian states resulted in the gradual annexation of those states, and their being brought under British rule.

The present form of government was established in 1858, since when all the territories heretofore under the government of the East India Company have been vested in Her Majesty, and all its powers are exercised in her name. All revenues, tributes, and other payments are disposed of for the government of India only.

By Act 39 and 40 Victoriæ, cap. 10, proclaimed at Delhi on 1st January, 1877, the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland assumed the additional title of Empress of India.

The executive authority is vested in a governor-general, or viceroy, appointed by the crown, and acting under the orders of the Secretary of State for India. The governor-general has power to make laws for all persons—British, natives, or foreigners—within the Indian territories under British dominion, and for all subjects of the crown within the dominions of Indian princes and states in alliance with Her Majesty.

The salary of the governor-general is £25,000 per annum, besides allowances, £12,000.

The total gross amount of the actual revenue and expenditure of India in each of the ten fiscal years ending 31st March, from 1869 to 1878, is as follows:—

In the budget estimates for 1878-9 the revenue was assessed at £64,562,000, and the ordinary expenditure at £65,917,000, leaving a deficit of £1,355,000. Besides the ordinary expenditure, £3,500,000 was set down as extraordinary expenditure for public works, raising the total deficit to £4,855,000. The provisional budget estimates for 1879-80 fixed the revenue at £64,620,000, and the expenditure at £65,950,000, including £2,000,000 for the expenses of the Afghan war. The excess of ordinary expenditure over revenue in the budget of 1879-80 was estimated at £1,395,000, and the capital expenditure on productive public works at £3,500,000.
Land is the most important source of public revenue to which rulers in India have, in all ages, looked for obtaining their income, and in the year before the mutiny the land furnished more than one-half of the total receipts of the East India Company's treasury. It now forms two-fifths of the total receipts of the empire. The proportion which the assessment bears to the full value of the land varies greatly in the several provinces and districts of India; the native system was to take a fixed proportion of the gross produce, but the British system ordinarily deals with the net produce, or the surplus after deducting expenses of cultivation.

The income from the opium monopoly ranks next in importance to the land revenue. The gross revenue derived from opium averaged during the ten years 1869 to 1878, £8,500,000. Salt follows next with a ten years' average revenue of £6,113,257.

The amount of the public debt of India, including that incurred in Great Britain, was £59,943,814 on 30th April, 1857. This had increased on 31st March, 1878, to £134,631,553; but there were also treasury notes and bills, service funds, and savings-bank balances to the amount of £12,053,217, bringing the total liabilities up to £146,684,770. The total annual interest on debt and obligations amounted to £5,028,318 in the financial year 1877-78.

The currency of India is chiefly silver. The total of the money coined annually is large, and amounted in 1878 to £16,344,553. Of that total there was £16,180,326 in silver; £15,636 in gold; £148,591 in copper.

In 1861 an Act was passed by the Indian Government providing for the issue of a paper currency by means of promissory notes. The issue is regulated in seven descriptions of notes, varying from 10,000 rupees

A rupee is valued at 2s. English.

, or £1000, to 5 rupees, or 10s. The total amount of the notes in circulation on 31st March, 1877, was £11,641,654. There are 10 currency circles, the headquarters of which are at Calcutta, Allahabad, Lahore, Nagpore, Madras, Calicut, Cocanada, Bombay, Kurrachee, and Akolah.

India abounds in an immense variety of timber of valuable quality, and capable of being used for every purpose. Its coal-beds are of enormous extent, and the coal is of good quality. Indigo is a most important crop, as are tea, coffee, jute, rice, wheat, sugar, cinchona, and an endless variety of plants known in the materia medica. It produces vast quantities of salt, saltpetre, various gums and lac. Opium and salt are Government monopolies; and rice, wheat, barley, millet, and maize afford a vast yield. Gold of the best quality is said to exist in Southern India, and the renowned Golconda is not yet exhausted of diamonds, and it is rich in precious stones, such as rubies and amethysts. India also produces a vast quantity of valuable vegetable oils used in cookery, medicine, for burning, and the toilet. The principal vegetable oils are extracted from cocoanut, mustard-seed, the castor seed, til seed (Sesamum Indicum), and other substances, including, of course, linseed, which is, commercially, the most important of all; likewise fibres; besides hemp and flax, there is a host of other plants capable of being worked into cloth, matting, cordage, &c., such as grasses, sedges, liliaceous plants—even plantains, palms, and pineapples.

At the last Paris Exhibition India contributed by far the largest collection of her almost unbounded natural products, timber and wood included, as well as tea, sugar, coffee, and spices, and other tropical productions, that has ever been exhibited.

The total value of the imports and exports of the Indian Empire, including bullion and specie, was as follows in each of the ten fiscal years ending 31st March, 1878:

The imports of bullion and specie into India are mainly from the United Kingdom and from China, while the exports are shipped principally to the United Kingdom, Ceylon, China, and South Africa.

The staple article of export from India to the United Kingdom is raw cotton, but the quantities, and still more the value, of the exports have been greatly on the decrease within the last 10 years. In 1869, the export was 4,284,334 cwt., valued at £18,342,887; while in 1878, it was only 1,433,104 cwt., valued at £3,513,595. The trade revived greatly last year.

Next to cotton, the most important articles of export from India to the United Kingdom, in 1878, were—jute, 4,232,320 cwt., valued at £3,229,519; rice, 5,780,935 cwt., £2,969,043; flax and linseed, 1,027,449 qrs., £2,602,196; tea, 35,420,059 lb., £2,793,247; untanned hides, 344,875 cwt., £1,095,603.

The chief articles of British produce imported into India are cotton goods and iron. These were to the value of £15,078,497 in 1878, of which the iron was valued at £1,767,526. The value of exports to Australia and New Zealand from India is comparatively trifling, considering the large populations in the provinces of Australasia. The principal exports consist of raw and manufactured fibres, drugs, dyes, grain of all sorts, gums, ivory, oils, opium, seeds of sorts, silk (raw and manufactured), sugar, tea, tobacco, wood (manufactured), indigo, and saltpetre.

The first general census of British India was taken during the year 1876, and, according to the revised returns, the total population numbered 191,096,603, living on an area of 899,341 square miles, or an average of 212 persons to the mile. The area and population of each of the divisions of India under direct British administration were as follows:—
A number of native feudatory states are more or less under the control of the Indian Government. They are:

By the last official reports the native states exceed 450 in number. Some frontier provinces, like Nepaul, merely acknowledge British superintendence, while others pay tribute or provide military contingents. New states are gradually drawn within the circle of British supremacy, either for the consolidation or the protection of the existing boundaries. The latest movement of this description is the invasion of Afghanistan, a country about the size of the United Kingdom, with a population of about 4,000,000.

The total area and population of British India, including the feudatory states, were as follows in 1876:-
The British population in India, exclusive of the army, amounted in 1871 to 64,061 persons.

At the last enumeration there were in British India 44 towns, with over 50,000 inhabitants. Calcutta (with suburbs) had 794,645; Bombay, 644,405; Madras, 397,552. The total population of the 44 towns was 5,594,913 persons.

The foundation of a national system of education has been laid in the north-western provinces and Madras, and, generally throughout the whole of India, public instruction has made great progress in recent years. In 1857, by Acts of the Government of India, three universities were incorporated at Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay. For the year ending March, 1878, 1166 candidates for admission passed at Calcutta, 807 at Madras, and 217 at Bombay.

The first steps for inaugurating the railway system in India were taken in 1845, when two private associations were formed for the purpose of constructing lines of railroad. The Government guarantees, for a term of 99 years, interest at the rate of 5 per cent, per annum. The government has power to purchase the lines 25 or 50 years after the date of the contract, at the mean value of the shares for the three previous years, or on payment of a proportionate annuity until the end of the 99 years. Since 1869, all the new extensions have been carried out by the state.

In 1854 there were 21 miles of railway opened for traffic, and in 1879 that length had been increased to 8215 miles. There were also 1854 miles of line then in the course of construction.

The number of passengers carried on the Indian railways, in 1878, amounted to 38,945,743. The gross receipts for the year were £10,404,753, and the net proceeds after deduction of expenses were £5,197,815.

The total outlay upon Indian railways up to 31st March, 1878, was £115,059,454.

In 1878 there were 18,210 miles of telegraph lines opened, carrying 42,689 miles of wire. During the year ending 31st March, 1878, the total number of messages despatched from the 239 telegraph offices was 1,431,453. The total receipts were £306,089, and the net revenue, £26,210.

Consequent upon the construction of railways, the post-office system of British India has been vastly extended of late years. In the fiscal year ending 31st March, 1878, 115,089,336 letters, 10,999,758 newspapers, 909,962 parcels, and 1,827,024 books and patterns, passed through the Indian post-offices, which numbered 9681. The total revenue was £833,366, and she total expenditure, £768,584.

**Madras Exhibits.**

[Any Exhibits classed under Fine Arts Group are transferred to Fine Arts Section of Catalogue, and will be found there under heading "Madras."]

**Class 17.—Cheap and Fancy Furniture.**

1 Deschamps & Co., Madras.—Large cabinet, in rosewood and carved sandalwood.

**Class 21.—Carpets, Tapestry, and other Stuffs for Furniture.**

2 His Highness the Nizam of Hyderabad.—Bamboo mat.
3 Madras Government.—Bamboo mat.
4 Madras Government.—Rattan mat, 1st sort.
5 Madras Government.—Rattan mat, 2nd sort.
6 Palghat, Malabar District.—Coloured grass mats.
7 and 8 Palghat.—Coloured grass mats.
9 Palghat.—Coloured grass mats.
10 R. Hurry Rowe, Tanjore.—Coloured grass mats.
11 Madras Government.—Coloured grass mats.
12 Madras Government.—Coloured grass mats.
13 Madras Government.—Coloured grass mats.
14 Madras Government.—Mat made of the leaves of the screwpine (Pandanus odoratissimus).
15 Madras Government.—Mat made of the leaves of the screwpine (Pandanus odoratissimus).
16 Madras Government.—Mat made of the leaves of the Palmyra palm (Borassus fiabelli-formis).
17 Madras Government.—Mat made of the leaves of the wild date palm (Phœnix farinifers).
18 The Nizam of Hyderabad.—Tadput rugs.
19 The Nizam of Hyderabad.—Gunny bag for sacking, 1st quality.
20 The Nizam of Hyderabad.—Gunny bag for sacking, 2nd quality.
21 The Nizam of Hyderabad.—Warangal cotton carpet.
22 The Nizam of Hyderabad.—Warangal cotton carpet.
23 The Nizam of Hyderabad.—Warangal woollen carpet.
24 The Nizam of Hyderabad.—Kus-kus door-blind, 1st sort.
25 The Nizam of Hyderabad.—Kus-kus door-blind, 2nd sort.

Class 25.—Bronzes and various Art Castings and Repousse Work.

26 Madras Government.—Plain brass chemboo.
27 Madras Government.—Plain brass hemboo.
28 Madras Government.—Chased copper chemboo.
29 Madras Government.—Chased copper chemboo.
30 Madras Government.—Chased brass chemboo.
31 Madras Government.—Chased brass chemboo.
32 Madras Government.—Chased brass chemboo.
33 Madras Government.—Chased brass chemboo.
34 Madras Government.—Chased brass chemboo for religious service.
35 Madras Government.—Chased brass chemboo for religious service.
36 Madras Government.—Cup for religious service.
37 Madras Government.—Cup for religious service.
38 and 39 Madras Government.—Plain lotahs, or drinking cups.
40 Madras Government.—Plain lotah, or drinking cup.
41 Madras Government.—Plain lotah, or drinking cup.
42 Madras Government.—Plain lotah, or drinking cup.
43 Madras Government.—Goglet, or water bottle.
44 Madras Government.—Goglet, or water bottle.
45 Madras Government.—Lamp for religious service, with symbolical figures.
46 Madras Government.—Lamp for religious service, with symbolical figures.
47 Madras Government.—Lamp for religious service, with symbolical figures.
48 Madras Government.—Lamp for religious service, with symbolical figures.
49 Madras Government.—Lamp for religious service.
50 Madras Government.—Tall swan lamp.
51 Madras Government.—Tall lamp.
52 Madras Government.—Tall lamp.
53 Madras Government.—Malabar lamp.
54 Madras Government.—Figure holding lamp.
55 and 56 Madras Government.—Round chased brass trays.
57 Madras Government.—Round chased brass tray.
58 and 59 Madras Government.—Round chased brass trays.
60 and 61 Madras Government.—Round chased brass trays.
62 Madras Government.—Round perforated brass tray.
63 Madras Government.—Round chased brass tray.
64 Madras Government.—Round chased brass tray.
65 Madras Government.—Round chased brass tray.
66 Madras Government.—Copper tray for religious service.
67 Madras Government.—Native brass comb (old).
68 Madras Government.—Brass spice-box (new).
69 Madras Government.—Chunam or lime-holder (old).
70 Madras Government.—Mango-shaped bottle (old).
71 and 72 Madras Government.—Brass drinking vessels.
73 and 74 Madras Government.—Brass drinking vessels.
74a N. Sankunni Wariyar.—Brass chemboo with cover.
74b N. Sankunni Wariyar.—Brass cup and spoon.
74c N. Sankunni Wariyar.—Betel-nut set, consisting of nine articles.
75 and 76 Madras Government.—Brass lamps.
77 Madras Government.—Brass chemboo, inlaid with copper and silver.
78 Madras Government.—Brass chemboo, inlaid with copper.
79 Madras Government.—Brass chemboo doriah.
80 Madras Government.—Panchapatheram, with the ten incarnations of Vishnu.
81 Madras Government.—Chased brass goglet
82 Madras Government.—Brass octagonal tray, inlaid with copper and silver, representing Kistnaswami.
83 Madras Government.—Round brass tray, representing Ganesa.
84 Madras Government.—Round brass tray, chased Ganesa.
85 and 86 Madras Government.—Copper chemboos, inlaid with silver.
87 and 88 Madras Government.—Small chemboos, inlaid with silver.
89 and 90 Madras Government.—Round copper trays, inlaid with silver.

Class 28.—Perfumery.
91 The Nizam of Hyderabad.—Attar.
92 The Nizam of Hyderabad.—Attar.

Class 29.—Fancy Articles in Sandalwood and Ivory, Basket-work, &c.
93-95 G. Chinna Veeranna, Vizagapatam Workshop, Vizagapatam.—Plain ivory baskets.
96-99 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Bison-horn bezique boxes, fretwork.
100-103 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Sandalwood bezique boxes.
104 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Bison-horn blotting-book.
105 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Sandalwood.
111 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Sandalwood inkstand.
112 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Sandalwood inkstand.
113-117 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Horn three-striped glove-boxes.
118 and 119 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Horn two-striped glove-boxes.
120 and 121 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Horn small work-boxes.
122 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Sandalwood whist counter-box.
123-130 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Bison-horn card-cases.
131-134 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Sandalwood card-cases.
135 and 136 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Horn cabinet-size picture-frames.
137-139 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Sandalwood picture-frames.
140-161 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Bison-horn paper weights.
162 and 163 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Ivory bracelets.
164 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Bison-horn cross, fretwork.
165 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Bison-horn cross.
166-177 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Ivory solitaires or sleeve buttons.
178 and 179 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Plain ivory blotting-books.
180-187 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Ivory native ombs.
188 G. Chinna Veeranna.—Horn and ivory writing companion.
189-196 Madras Government.—Boxes made of the leaves of the Palmyra palm (Borassus flabelliformis), made at Pulicat. in Chingleput.
197 Madras Government.—Nest of round boxes.
198 Madras Government.—Nest of round boxes.
199 and 200 Madras Government.—Cigar-cases.
201-203 Madras Government.—Dish mats.
204 Madras Government.—Tiffin basket (West's pattern), made at the Madras Friend-in-need Society's
workshop.
205 Madras Government.—Liquor-case.
206 Madras Government.—Trunk.
207 Madras Government.—Cruet-stand.
208 Madras Government.—Key-basket.

Class 30.—Textile Fabrics, Clothing and Accessories.
209 G. D. Grimes.—Cotton drill, made by prisoners in Central Gaol, Cannanore.
210 G. D. Grimes.—Cotton drill.

Class 36.—Lace, Net, Embroidery, and Trimmings.
211 Madras Government.—Table-cover, red ground with white embroidery.
212 Madras Government.—Table-cover, blue ground with white embroidery.
213 Madras Government.—Pairs cushion-covers, red ground with white embroidery.
214 Madras Government.—Dozens doylies, red ground with white embroidery.
215 Madras Government.—Dozens white lace doylies.
216 Madras Government.—Pieces (forming a lady's dress) of embroidery in black lace and beetles' wings.
217 Madras Government.—Pieces of embroidery in muslin and beetles' wings.
218 and 219 Madras Government.—Muslin puggries, with gold embroidered ends, Arnee, orth Arcot District.

Class 38.—Native Costumes for both sexes.
220 Madras Government.—Native woman's cloth.
221 Madras Government.—Native woman's cloth.
222 and 223 Madras Government.—Native woman's cloth.
224 Madras Government.—Native woman's cloth.
225 Madras Government.—Native woman's cloth.
226 Madras Government.—Native woman's cloth.
227 Madras Government.—Native woman's cloth.
228 and 229 Madras Government.—Palampores, Ponneri, Chingleput District.
230 and 231 Madras Government.—Palampores, Vizagapatam.
232 Madras Government.—Palampore, Masulipatam.
233 and 234 Madras Government.—Palampores, Masulipatam.
235 and 236 Madras Government.—Palampores, Masulipatam.
237 Madras Government.—Piece, consisting of eight Madras handkerchiefs.

Class 39.—Silver Jewellery.
238 and 239 G. D. Grimes, Central Gaol, Cannanore.—Silver salt-cellars and spoons.
240 and 241 G. D. Grimes.—Puzzle bracelets.
242 G. D. Grimes.—Plain bangles.
243 G. D. Grimes.—Spring bangles.

Class 43.—Products of Cultivation, Pith, &c.
244 Madras Government.—Raw pith (Æschynomene aspera).
245 Madras Government.—Pith bottle-cover, lined with zinc.
246-251 Madras Government.—Pith hats, uncovered.
252 Madras Government.—Pith hat, covered.

Class 44.—Products of Fishing, Fish Oils.
253 Madras Government.—Shark oil (Malabar).
254 Madras Government.—Swordfish oil (Malabar).
255 Madras Government.—Sardine oil (Malabar).
256 Madras Government.—Catfish oil (Malabar).
Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food; Fibres.

257 The Nizam of Hyderabad.—Dukhni hemp.
258 Madras Government.—Dukhni hemp.
259 Madras Government.—Musk-mallow fibre (Abelmoschus moschatus).
261 Madras Government.—Bastard cedar fibre (Guazuma tomentosa).
262 Madras Government.—Fibre of Isora corylifolia.
263 Madras Government.—Sun hemp (Crotalaria juncea).
264 Madras Government.—Mudar fibre (Calotropis gigantea).
265 Madras Government.—Plantain fibre (Musa paradisiaca).
266 Madras Government.—Pineapple fibre (Ananas sativus).
267 Madras Government.—Palmyra fibre (Borassus flabelliformis).
268 Madras Government.—Thala Kolathur coir (Malabar).
269 Madras Government.—Laccadive coir (Malabar).
270 Madras Government.—Kollum coir (Malabar).
271 Madras Government.—Quilandy coir (Malabar).
272 Madras Government.—Kapad coir (Malabar).
273 Madras Government.—Marad coir (Malabar).
274 Madras Government.—Calicut coir (Malabar).
275 Madras Government.—Madras coir, bazaar sample.
276 Madras Government.—Great aloe fibre (Fourcroya gigantea).
277 Madras Government.—American aloe fibre (Agave Americana).
278 Madras Government.—Bowstring hemp (Sanseviera Zeylaniea).
279 Madras Government.—Fibre of Sanseviera eylindriea.
280 and 281 Madras Government.—Samples of fibre of a species of Sanseviera.
282 Madras Government.—Ground-nuts (Arachis hypogœa).
283 Madras Government.—Gingelly seeds (Sesamum Indicum).
284 Madras Government.—Castor seeds (Ricinus communis).
285 Madras Government.—Lamp-oil seeds (Ricinus communis).
286 Madras Government.—Ground-nut oil (Arachis hypogœa).
287 Madras Government.—Bassia oil (Bassia longifolia).
288 Madras Government.—Gingelly oil (Sesamum Indicum).
289 Madras Government.—Castor oil, medicinal (Ricinus communis).
290 Madras Government.—Lamp oil (Ricinus communis).
291 Madras Government.—Cocoanut oil, 1st sort (Malabar).
292 Madras Government.—Cocoanut oil, 2nd sort (Malabar).
293 Madras Government.—Cocoanutoil, Madras bazaar sample.
294 Roberts & Co.—Gootall Lunkah tobacco.
295 Roberts & Co.—Seetanagram Lunkah tobacco.
296 Roberts & Co.—Gadala Lunkah tobacco.
297 Roberts & Co.—Burgoor Lunkah tobacco.
298 and 299 Roberts & Co.—Peraram Lunkah tobacco.
300 Roberts & Co.—Vanapilly Lunkah tobacco.
301 Roberts & Co.—Tathpur Lunkah tobacco.
302 Roberts & Co.—Khadaree Lunkah tobacco.
303 Roberts & Co.—Ainamill Lunkah tobacco.
304 Roberts & Co.—Moosinooroo Lunkah tobacco.
305 Madras Government.—1st sort tobacco.
306 Madras Government.—2nd sort tobacco.
307 Madras Government.—3rd sort tobacco.
307a Neelamagnm, Pillay & Co.—Vadiputti Conan tobacco.
307b Neelamagrum, Pillay & Co.—Ariaputh-rian Putticonan tobacco.
307c Neelamagum, Pillay & Co.—Appu Rowthen tobacco.
307d Neelamagum, Pillay & Co.—Natchi Muthu Cownden tobacco.
308 Madras Government.—No. 1 tobacco.
309 Madras Government.—No. 2 tobacco.
310 Neelamagrum, Pillay & Co.—Petathu tobacco.
311 Roberts & Co.—Regalia cigars.
312 Roberts & Co.—Havannah cigars.
313 Roberts & Co.—Dolly Varden cigars.
314 Roberts & Co.—Short Varden cigars.
315 Roberts & Co.—Leisure-hour cigars.
316 Roberts & Co.—Sedan cigars.
317 Roberts & Co.—Babington cigar.
318 Roberts & Co.—Short Babington cigars.
319 Roberts & Co.—Burmah-shape cigars.
320 Roberts & Co.—Empress cigars.
321 Roberts & Co.—Office cigars.
322 Roberts & Co.—Five minutes cigars.
322a Roberts & Co.—Box of sample cigars.
323 C. W. Eaton & Co.—Dolly Varden cigars.
324 C. W. Eaton & Co.—Cortado cigars.
325 C. W. Eaton & Co.—Babington No. 1 cigars.
326 C. W. Eaton & Co.—Burmah-shape cigars.
327 C. W. Eaton & Co.—Case of samples, containing raw tobacco, prepared tobacco for seamen, Eaton's Express and other cigars.
328 Neelamagrum, Pillay & Co.—Dawson's Havannah cigars.
329 Neelamagrum, Pillay & Co.—Havannah cigars.
330 Neelamagrum, Pillay & Co.—Small Havannah cigars.
331 Neelamagrum, Pillay & Co.—Thompson's Lunkah cigars.
332 Neelamagrum, Pillay & Co.—Dawson's Lunkah cigars.
333 Neelamagrum, Pillay & Co.—Short thick cigars.
334 Neelamagrum, Pillay & Co.—Small Lunkah cigars.
335 Neelamagrum, Pillay & Co.—Barrel-shaped cigars.
336 Neelamagrum, Pillay & Co.—Burmah-shaped cigars.
337 C. H. Barter.—Dundreary Havannah No. 1 cigars.
338 C. H. Barter.—Dundreary Havannah No. 2 cigars.
339 C. H. Barter.—Dundreary Dindigul No. 1 cigars.
340 C. H. Barter.—Dundreary Dindigul No. 2 cigars.
341 C. H. Barter.—Dundreary Trichinopoly No. 1 cigars.
342 C. H. Barter.—Dundreary Trichinopoly No. 2 cigars.
343 Madras Government.—Dawson's Havannah No. 1 cigars.
344 Madras Government.—Dawson's Havannah No. 2 cigars.
345 Madras Government.—Dawson's Lunkah-shaped cigars.
346 Madras Government.—Short thick Lunkah-shaped cigars.
347 Madras Government.—Barrel-shaped cigars.
348 Madras Government.—Manila-shaped cigars.
349 Madras Government.—Dawson's No.? cigars.
350 Madras Government.—Havannah-shaped No. 2 cigars.
351 Madras Government.—Havannah-shaped No. 3 cigars.
352 Madras Government.—Dindigul-shaped No. 2 cigars.
353 The Nizam of Hyderabad.—Chiranji (Buchanania latifolia).
354 The Nizam of Hyderabad.—Indigo (Indigofera tinctoria).
355 The Nizam of Hyderabad.—Safflower (Carthamus tinctorius).
357 Messrs. Croysdale & Co.—Fine red-violet indigo.
358 Messrs. Croysdale & Co.—Fine red-vioki indigo.
359 Messrs. Croysdale & Co.—Strong red-violet indigo.
360 Messrs. Croysdale & Co.—Showy violet indigo.
361 Messrs. Croysdale & Co.—Ordinary red and copper violet indigo.
362 Messrs. Croysdale & Co.—Ordinary dull and copper violet indigo.
363 Messrs. Croysdale & Co.—Common red and copper violet indigo.
364 Messrs. Croysdale & Co.—Fine dry-leaf indigo.
365 Messrs. Croysdale & Co.—Ordinary dry leaf indigo.
366 Messrs. Croysdale & Co.—Middling dry leaf indigo.
367 Messrs. Croysdale & Co.—Good Vellore dry-leaf indigo.
368 Madras Government.—Red-wood (Pterocarpus satiualinus).
369 Madras Government.—Sappan wood (Cœsalpiuia sappan).
370 Madras Government.—Myrabolans (Terminalia chebula).
371 Madras Government.—Chayroot (Hedyctis umbellata).
372 Madras Government.—Kamela (Mallotus Philippinensis).
373 Madras Government.—Turmerie (Curcoma longa).

Class 46.—Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products.
374 Madras Government.—Cinchona natural crown bark.
375 Madras Government.—Cinchona mossed crown bark.
376 Madras Government.—Cinchona renewed crown bark.
377 Madras Government.—Cinchona natural yellow bark.
378 Madras Government.—Cinchona natural red bark.
379 Madras Government.—Cinchona mossed red bark.
380 Madras Government.—Cinchona renewed red bark.
381 Madras Government.—Cinchona natural grey bark.
382 Madras Government.—Cinchona natural hybrid bark.
383 Madras Government.—Purging cassia (Cathartocarpus fistula).
384 Madras Government.—Senna (Cassia lan-ceolata).
385 Madras Government.—Kino (Ptcrocarpus marsupium).
386 Madras Government.—Dried jalap root, sliced (Exogonium purga).
387 Madras Government.—Powder of jalap root
388 Madras Government.—Taraxacum (Taraxacum officinale).
389 Madras Government.—Nux vomica seeds (Strychnos nux vomica).
390 Madras Government.—Kaladana (Pharbitis nil), an excellent substitute for jalap.
391 Madras Government.—Croton seeds (Croton tiglium).
392 Madras Government.—Indian hemp (Canabis sativa).

Class 47.—Dyed Threads.
393 The Nizam of Hyderabad.—Blue twist.
394 The Nizam of Hyderabad.—Red twist.

Class 48.—Leather and Tanned and Dyed Skins.
396 N. Sooboo Pillay & Co.—Tanned goatskins, uncoloured.
397 N. Sooboo Pillay & Co.—Coloured sheepskin.
398 N. Sooboo Pillay & Co.—Coloured goat-skin.

Class 67.—Cereals and Pulses.
399 R. Hurry Row, Tanjore.—Vellai sirumani, paddy.
400 R. Hurry Row.—Muthen samba, paddy.
401 R. Hurry Row.—Eraka samba, paddy.
402 R. Hurry Row.—Thottakaal samba, paddy.
403 R. Hurry Row.—Paalaant samba, paddy.
404 R. Hurry Row.—Vellai samba, paddy.
405 R. Hurry Row.—Aananthan samba, paddy.
406 R. Hurry Row.—Payani samba, paddy.
407 R. Hurry Row.—Shembuli pirian, paddy.
408 R. Hurry Row.—Paalamanien, paddy.
409 R. Hurry Row.—Kaivisai, paddy.
410 R. Hurry Row.—Shigappu, paddy.
411 R. Hurry Row.—Geruden, paddy.
412 R. Hurry Row.—Ponga, paddy.
413 R. Hurry Row.—Sembalai, paddy.
414 R. Hurry Row.—Shandy kar.
415 R. Hurry Row.—Paroon kar.
416 R. Hurry Row.—Poon kar.
417 R. Hurry Row.—Chittray kar.
418 R. Hurry Row.—Pody kar.
419 R. Hurry Row.—Yellan kar.
420 R. Hurry Row.—Mylarungum kar.
421 R. Hurry Row.—Kollaccoorvay.
422 R. Hurry Row.—Karooncoorvay.
423 R. Hurry Row.—Aroovathan coorvay.
424 W. F. Dique, Tindivanum, South Arcot District.—Sugathoss, paddy.
425 W. P. Dique.—Sivan samba, paddy.
426 W. F. Dique.—Milagu samba, paddy.
427 W. F. Dique.—Palan samba, paddy.
428 W. F. Dique.—Payadu samba, paddy.
429 W. F. Dique.—Kaadai kaluthan, paddy.
430 W. F. Dique.—Geruden samba, paddy.
431 W. F. Dique.—Chada samba, paddy.
432 W. F. Dique.—Anna moyee, paddy.
433 W. F. Dique.—Vadan samba, paddy.
434 W. F. Dique.—Kaligan samba, paddy.
435 W. F. Dique.—Mana kathai, paddy.
436 W. F. Dique.—Sugathoss, rice or husked paddy.
437 W. F. Dique.—Sivan samba, rice.
438 W. F. Dique.—Milagu samba, rice.
439 W. F. Dique.—Palan samba, rice.
440 W. F. Dique.—Payadu samba, rice.
441 W. F. Dique.—Kaadai kaluthan, rice.
442 W. F. Dique.—Geruden samba, rice.
443 W. F. Dique.—Chada samba, rice.
444 W. F. Dique.—Anna moyee, rice.
445 W. F. Dique.—Vadan samba, rice.
446 W. F. Dique.—Kaligan samba, rice.
447 W. F. Dique.—Mana kathai, rice.
448 W. F. Dique.—Raggi (Eleusine coracana), 1st sort.
449 W. F. Dique.—Raggi (Eleusine coracana), 2nd sort.
450 W. F. Dique.—Cholum, or great millet (Holcus sorghum), white variety, common.
451 W. F. Dique.—Cholum, or great millet (Holcus sorghum), white variety, alangara cholum.
452 W. F. Dique.—Cholum, or great millet (Holcus sorghum), yellow variety.
453 W. F. Dique.—Cumbu, or spiked millet (Holcus spicatus), with husk.
454 W. F. Dique.—Cumbu, or spiked millet (Holcus spicatus), without husk.
455 W. F. Dique.—Tenney, or Italian millet (Panicum Italicum), with husk.
456 W. F. Dique.—Tenney, or Italian millet (Panicum Italicum), without husk.
457 W. F. Dique.—Varagu, or little millet (Panicum miliaecuem), common, with husk.
458 W. F. Dique.—Varagu, or little millet (Panicum miliaecuem), common, without husk.
459 W. P. Dique.—Chadagru varagu.
460 W. P. Dique.—Kaudai-cunny, with husk.
461 W. F. Dique.—Kaudai-cunny, without husk.
462 W. P. Dique.—Sawmay, or millet (Panicum miliare), with husk.
463 W. F. Dique.—Sawmay, or millet (Panicum miliare), without husk.
464 W. F. Dique.—Pulse (Lablab vulgaris).
465 W. F. Dique.—Bengal horse-gram (Cicer arietinum), 1st sort.
466 W. F. Dique.—Bengal horse-gram, 2nd sort.
467 W. F. Dique.—Madras horse-gram (Dolichos uniflorus).
468 W. F. Dique.—Green-gram(Phaseolus mungo).
469 W. F. Dique.—Phaseolus trilobus.
470 W. F. Dique.—Phaseolus radiatus.
471 W. F. Dique.—Lentil (Ervum lens).
472 W. F. Dique.—Pigeon-pea (Cajanus Indicus).
473 Madras Government.—Tapioca (Manihot utilissima).
474 Madras Government.—Arrowroot (Curcuma Angustifolia).

Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery.

475 Madras Government.—Tamarind (Tamarindus Indica).
476 Madras Government.—Ajowan (Carum ajowan).
477 Madras Government.—Coriander (Coriandrum sativum).
478 Madras Government.—Chillies (Capsicum annuum).
479 Madras Government.—Pepper (Piper nigrum).
480 Madras Government.—Cardamoms (Elettaria cardamomum).
481 Madras Government.—Ginger (Zingiber officinale).

482 P. Venkatachellum, Madras.—Mango pickle in oil and vinegar.
483 P. Venkatachellum.—Mixed pickle, in oil and vinegar.
484 P. Venkatachellum.—Sliced pickle, in oil and vinegar.
485 P. Venkatachellum.—Hot pickle, in oil and vinegar.
486 P. Venkatachellum.—Sweet pickle, in oil and vinegar.
487 P. Venkatachellum.—Mixed pickle, in oil and vinegar.
488 P. Venkatachellum.—Lime pickle, in oil and vinegar.
489 P. Venkatachellum.—Tender bamboo pickle, in oil and vinegar.
490 P. Venkatachellum.—Bengal chutney.
491 P. Venkatachellum.—Madras chutney.
492 P. Venkatachellum.—Mango chutney.
493 P. Venkatachellum.—Lime chutney.
494 P. Venkatachellum.—Prawn chutney.
495 P. Venkatachellum.—Tamarind chutney.
496 P. Venkatachellum.—Sliced mango chutney.
497 P. Venkatachellum.—Minced mango chutney.
498 P. Venkatachellum.—Chow-chow chutney.
499 P. Venkatachellum.—Mixed mango chutney.
500 P. Venkatachellum.—Cashmere chutney.
501 P. Venkatachellum.—Hyderabad chutney.
502 P. Venkatachellum.—Delhi sweet chutney.
503 P. Venkatachellum.—Cayenne sauce.
504 P. Venkatachellum.—Tapp's sauce.
505 P. Venkatachellum.—Indian zest sauce.
506 P. Venkatachellum.—Delhi sauce.
507 P. Venkatachellum.—Nepaul pepper.
508 P. Venkatachellum.—Cayenne pepper.
509 P. Venkatachellum.—Ground pepper.
510 P. Venkatachellum.—Madras curry-powder.
511 P. Venkatachellum.—Madras curry-paste.
512 P. Venkatachellum.—Mulligatawny paste.
513 Kodanaad Estate.—Pekoe tea.
514 Kodanaad Estate.—Orange pekoe tea.
515 Kodanaad Estate.—Flowery tea.
516 Kodanaad Estate.—Pekoe souchong tea.
517 Kodanaad Estate.—Souchong tea.
518 Kodanaad Estate.—Congou tea.
519 Kodanaad Estate.—Hyson tea.
520 Kodanaad Estate.—Young hyson tea.
521 Avenue Estate.—Orange pekoe tea.
522 Avenue Estate.—Broken pekoe tea.
523 Avenue Estate.—Souchong tea.
524 Avenue Estate.—Green tea.
525 Hoveton Gardens Estate—Orange pekoe tea.
526 Glendale Estate.—Orange pekoe tea.
527 Glendale Estate.—Flowery pekoe tea.
528 Glendale Estate.—Finest orange pekoe tea.
529 Glendale Estate.—Finest flowery pekoe tea.
530 Glendale Estate.—Congou tea.
531 Liddelsdale Estate.—Broken pekoe tea.
532 Liddelsdale Estate.—Pekoe souchong tea.
533 Liddelsdale Estate.—Pekoe souchong tea.
534 Liddelsdale Estate.—Souchong tea.
535 Liddelsdale Estate.—Souchong tea.
536 Perindotty Estate.—Tea.
537 Ellembellary Estate—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
538 Ellembellary Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
539 Ellembellary Estate.—Plantation pea-berry coffee.
540 Ellembellary Estate.—Plantation Class C coffee.
541 Ellembellary Estate.—Plantation Class B coffee.
542 Ellembellary Estate.—Plantation Class A coffee.
543 Nedimbaley Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
544 Nedimbaley Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
545 Nedimbaley Estate.—Plantation pea-berry coffee.
546 Nedimbaley Estate.—Plantation Class C coffee.
547 Nedimbaley Estate.—Plantation Class B coffee.
548 Nedimbaley Estate.—Plantation Class A coffee.
549 Cootamundra Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
550 Cootamundra Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
551 Cootamundra Estate.—Plantation pea-berry coffee.
552 Cootamundra Estate.—Plantation Class C coffee.
553 Cootamundra Estate.—Plantation Class B coffee.
554 Cootamundra Estate.—Plantation Class A coffee.
555 Sussex Estate.—Plantation coffee, in cherry.
556 Sussex Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
557 Sussex Estate.—Plantation pea-berry coffee.
558 Sussex Estate.—Plantation Class B coffee.
559 Sussex Estate.—Plantation Class A coffee.
560 Chowdikadu Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
561 Chowdikadu Estate.—Plantation pea-berry coffee, in parchment.
562 Chowdikadu Estate.—Plantation pea-berry coffee, cleaned
563 Chowdikadu Estate.—Plantation small size coffee, cleaned.
564 Chowdikadu Estate.—Plantation medium size coffee, cleaned.
565 Chowdikadu Estate.—Plantation large size coffee, cleaned.
566 Tilly Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment
567 Tilly Estate.—Plantation pea-berry coffee.
568 Tilly Estate.—Plantation Class C coffee.
569 Tilly Estate.—Plantation Class B coffee.
570 Tilly Estate.—Plantation Class A coffee.
571 Eliza Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
572 Eliza Estate.—Plantation pea-berry coffee.
573 Eliza Estate.—Plantation Class C coffee.
574 Eliza Estate.—Plantation Class B coffee.
575 Eliza Estate.—Plantation Class A coffee.
576 Fairlands Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
577 Fairlands Estate.—Plantation Class B coffee.
578 Seaforth Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
579 Seaforth Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
580 Seaforth Estate.—Plantation pea-berry coffee.
581 Seaforth Estate.—Plantation Class C coffee.
582 Seaforth Estate.—Plantation Class B coffee.
583 Seaforth Estate.—Plantation Class A coffee.
584 Glenvans Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
585 Glenvans Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
586 Glenvans Estate.—Plantation pea-berry coffee.
587 Glenvans Estate.—Plantation Class C coffee.
588 Glenvans Estate.—Plantation Class B coffee.
589 Glenvans Estate.—Plantation Class A coffee.
590 Balmadies Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
591 Balmadies Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
592 Balmadies Estate.—Plantation pea-berry coffee.
593 Balmadies Estate.—Plantation Class C coffee.
594 Balmadies Estate.—Plantation Class B coffee.
595 Balmadies Estate.—Plantation Class A coffee.
596 Hallacarey Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
597 Hallacarey Estate.—Plantation pea-berry coffee.
598 Hallacarey Estate.—Plantation Class C coffee.
599 Hallacarey Estate.—Plantation Class B coffee.
600 Hallacarey Estate.—Plantation Class A coffee.
601 Stanes & Co.—Produce of several estates mixed: Plantation coffee, in parchment.
602 Stanes & Co.—Plantation pea-berry coffee.
603 Stanes & Co.—Plantation Class C coffee.
604 Stanes & Co.—Plantation Class B coffee.
605 Stanes & Co.—Plantation Class A coffee.
606 Hilgrove Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
607 Hilgrove Estate.—Plantation pea-berry coffee.
608 Hilgrove Estate.—Plantation Class C coffee.
609 Hilgrove Estate.—Plantation Class B coffee.
610 Hilgrove Estate.—Plantation Class A coffee.
611 Inglewood Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
612 Inglewood Estate.—Plantation pea-berry coffee.
613 Inglewood Estate.—Plantation Class C coffee.
614 Inglewood Estate.—Plantation Class B coffee.
615 Inglewood Estate.—Plantation Class A coffee.
616 Waverley Estate.—Plantation coffee, in parchment.
617 Waverley Estate.—Plantation pea-berry coffee.
618 Waverley Estate.—Plantation Class C coffee.
619 Waverley Estate.—Plantation Class B coffee.
620 Waverley Estate.—Plantation Class A coffee.
621 Goatfel Estate.—Plantation pea-berry coffee.
622 Goatfel Estate.—Plantation Class C coffee.
623 Goatfel Estate.—Plantation Class B coffee.
624 Goatfel Estate.—Plantation Class A coffee.
626 W. H. Stanes.—Specimen of coffee plant in fruit. Prepared in a concentrated solution of salt.
627 W. H. Stanes.—Specimen of coffee seed.
628 and 629 W. H. Stanes.—Photographs of the Colacumbay Estate.
630 Madras Government.—Palmyra sugar-candy.
631 Madras Government.—Palmyra jaggery.
632 Madras Government.—Refined cane sugar.
633 Madras Government.—White cane sugar, No. 1.
634 Madras Government.—White cane sugar, No. 2.
635 Madras Government.—Country brown cane sugar.
636 Madras Government.—Raw cane sugar.
637 Madras Government.—Cane jaggery.
638 P. Vencatchellum, Madras.—Pineapple jam.
639 P. Vencatchellum.—Guava jelly.
640 P. Vencatchellum.—Guava cheese jelly.
II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.

Class 15.—Mathematical and Philosophical Instruments.

1 Hormusjee Sorabjee Poonaghur, Bombay.—Box of various coins.

III. Furniture and Accessories.

Class 17.—Cheap and Fancy Furniture.

2 Bombay Committee.—Carved black wood and teak cabinet.
3 Jaffer, Sulliman & Co.—Chairs, couches, tables, &c., of carved blackwood.
4 Watson & Co., Bombay.—Carved blackwood tea-table, couch, cabinet, chairs, and other furniture.

Class 20.—Pottery.

5 Perozshaw Pottery Works.—Earthenware.
6 Terry, G. W., Bombay School of Arts.—Specimens of pottery.

Class 21.— Carpets, Tapestry, and other Stuffs for Furniture.

7 Jaffer, Sulliman & Co.—Four Persian carpets.
8 Superintendent, Tanna Gaol.—Carpets, window-hangings, diaper, and various manufactured Indian cloths.
9 Superintendent, Yerroda Central Gaol.—Woolen carpets.

Class 24.—Goldsmiths’ and Silversmiths’ Work.

10 Cursetjee, Nusserwanjee & Co., Ahmad-nagar.—Collection of silver-ware, chased and repoussé.
11 Jaffer, Sulliman & Co.—Cutch silver-ware, chased and repoussé work.
12 Watson & Co., Bombay.—Silver-ware, in Cutch, chased, and repoussé work.

Class 25.—Bronzes and various Art Castings and Repousse Work.

14 Grant, Mrs. C.—Sundry artistic and fancy articles.

Class 29.—Leather-work, Fancy Articles, and Basket-work.

15 Bombay Committee.—Fancy articles; box of ivory from the State of Junaghed.
16 Cursetjee, Nusserwanjee & Co., Ahmad-nagar.—Ivory-ware, pith models.
IV. Textile Fabrics, Clothing, and Accessories.

Class 30.—Cotton Thread and Fabrics.

22 Ahmadnagar Municipality.—Cotton cloth.
23 Manockjee Petit Manufacturing Co.—Samples cotton cloths and hose, merino and silk hose, and cotton yarns.
24 Morarjee Goculdass Spinning and Weaving Co.—Manufactured cotton cloths.
25 Morarjee Goculdass Spinning and Weaving Co.—Cotton yarns.
26 New Colaba Co.'s Spinning and Weaving Mills.—Samples cotton cloth and yarn.
27 New Great Eastern Spinning and Weaving Co.—Samples cotton cloth and yarn.

Class 34.—Silk and Silk Fabrics.

28 Ahmadnagar Municipality.—Four pieces silk.
29 Bombay Committee.—Surat hand-made cloth, of various fabrics, for preparing bodices, caps, coats for children, &c.

Class 38.—Clothing for both Sexes.

30 Admadnagar Municipality.—Eight pairs native shoes.
31 Bombay Committee.—Surat turbans and clothing of various kinds, made by hand at Ahmeabad and elsewhere.
32 Morarjee Goculdass Spinning and Weaving Co.—Men's underclothing.

Class 39.—Jewellery and Precious Stones.

33 Ahmadnagar Municipality.—Native ornaments.
34 Bombay Committee.—Ornaments and jewellery used by Hindus.

Class 40.—Portable Weapons, and Hunting and Shooting Equipments.

35 Bombay Committee.—Decorative arms used by Hindus.
36 Jaffer, Sulliman & Co.—Decorative arms &c.

Class 42.—Toys.

37 Bombay Committee.—Toys.

V. Raw and Manufactured Products.

Class 44.—Products of Hunting, Shooting, Fishing, and Spontaneous Products. Machines and Instruments connected therewith.

38 Heerjeebhoy Hormusjee Shroff.—Ghatty gum, clean and unclean.
Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food.

39 Ahmadnagar Municipality.—Collection of seeds and grains.
40 Bombay Committee.—Nine bales of cotton, bag kuppas.
41 Bombay Committee.—Seeds of oleaginous plants, myrabolans, nuts, and opium.
42 Heerjeebhoy Hormusjee Shroff.—Madderroot or munjeet.
43 Heerjeebhoy Hormusjee Shroff.—Coir yarns, Dewgudy and Jubbulpoor hemp.

Class 46.—Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products.

44 Dossabhoy Beiunjee Motiwalla.—Packet phials of Motiwalla's cough and dysentrodyne pills.

VII. Alimentary Products.

Class 67.—Cereals, Farinaceous Products, and Products derived from them.

45 State of Jamnuggur.—Specimens of various edible grains.

Class 71.—Vegetables and Fruit.

46 Heerjeebhoy Hormusjee Shroff.—Wet dates.

Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery.

47 Cursetjee Nusserwanjee, Ahmadnagar.—Indian condiments.
48 Framjee Nowrojee.—Indian condiments.
49 Heerjeebhoy Hormusjee Shroff.—Dry ginger, tussur silk, pistachio nuts, and spices.
50 Maju, M., & Co.—Indian tea.
51 Morton & Co., Bombay.—Indian tea.
52 Shapoorjee Framjee Wyeed.—Indian condiments.

BENGAL EXHIBITS.

I. Works of Art.

Class 3.—Sculpture and Die-sinking.

1 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Specimens of painted clay figures, from Krishnagurh.
2 Gopal Chundra Pal, Calcutta.—Seven painted clay figures.
3 Jadunath Pal, Krishnagurh.—Series of eight painted clay figures.
4 Matilal Pal, Krishnagurh.—Two painted clay figures.

II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.
Class 12.—Photographic Proofs and Apparatus.

5 Bourne & Shepherd, Calcutta and Simla.—Albums of photographs of Indian scenery, buildings, and characters.
6 Phillips, R., Darjeeling.—Series of photographs, illustrating tea planting and manufacture.

Class 13.—Musical Instruments.

7 Rajah Surendra Mohur Tagore, Calcutta.—Complete collection of Indian musical instruments.

III. Furniture and Accessories.

Class 20.—Pottery.

8 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Series of specimens of Sewan pottery.

Class 21.—Carpets, Tapestry, and other Stuffs for Furniture.

9 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Two finest machlandi or musnud mats, and 17 of cheaper kinds, from Midnapore district.
10 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Ten samples pieces different qualities Calcutta grass matting.
11 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Six sitalpati mats, from Sylhet.
12 Superintendent Bhagulpore Gaol.—Carpet, from Bhagulpore Gaol.
13 Superintendent Hazaribagh Gaol.—145 varus matting of aloe fibre, from Hazaribagh Gaol.
14 Superintendent Midnapore Gaol.—45 yards country coir matting, 42 yards Maldive matting, and 11 coir-brush mats.

Class 24.—Goldsmiths' and Silversmiths' Work.

15 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Eleven specimens of bidri-ware, silver and niello work, from Pur-neah.
16 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Silver filagree Cuttack-work.
17 Bundaban Sonas, Cuttack.—Silver filagree Cuttack-work.
18 Government of India.—Pair of gold-mounted elephants' tusks.
19 Government of India.—Gold cup, stand, and cover.
20 Government of India.—Silver golab posh and salver.
21 Government of India.—Gold-mounted kharan.
22 Nando Jethi Sonar.—Silver filagree Cuttack-work.
23 Rapil Sonar.—Silver filagree Cuttack-work.

Class 29.—Leather-work, Fancy Articles, and Basket-work.

24 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Berhampore ivory carvings.
25 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Monghyr inlaid ivory and ebony boxes and cabinet-ware.
26 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Carved and turned ebony and palm-wood, personal ornaments, studs, &c.
27 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Straw-work.
28 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Beerbhoom and Sylhet lacquered-ware.

IV. Textile Fabrics, Clothing, and Accessories.

Class 30.—Cotton Thread and Fabrics.

29 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Muslins (plain and embroidered), from Dacca and Santipore.
30 Babu Madun Mohun Basak.—Dacca muslins.
31 Gopal Chundra Pal, Calcutta.—Dacca muslins.
32 Jhoomuck Shaw & Co., Dinapore.—Tablecloths and towels.
Class 31.—Thread and Fabrics of Flax, Hemp, &c.
34 Ahmuty & Co., Calcutta.—Cordage and coir yarn.
36 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Cordage, &c.
37 Calcutta Mills, Agents of.—Jute fabrics, gunny cloth and bags.
38 Clive Jute Mills, Calcutta.—Gunny bags.
40 Howrah Mills Co., Calcutta.—Gunny bags.
41 Kamarhatty Co., Calcutta.—Gunny bags.
42 Superintendent Alipore Gaol.—Jute fabrics, gunny cloth and bags, from Alipore Gaol.
43 Superintendent Chittagong Gaol.—Coiryam.
44 Superintendent Hazaribagh Gaol.—Aloefibre rope.

Class 33.—Woollen Yarn and Fabrics.
45 Baddri Das, Calcutta.—Woollen cloth.
46 Hazari Mal & Ram Chand, Calcutta.—Woollen cloth.

Class 34.—Silk and Silk Fabrics.
47 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Silk cloth (mulberry worm), from Bogra, Beerbhoom, Pubna, Berhampore, Maldah, and Midnapore.
48 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Silk cloth (tusser), from Beerbhoom, Bancoorah, and Bhagulpore.
49 Government of India.—Shahi and Bahawal-pur silk.
50 Government of India.—Cashmere shawls.
51 Hazari Mal & Ram Chand, Calcutta.—Rampore chadurs.
52 Jhoomuck Shaw & Co., Dinapore.—Mixed silk and cotton fabrics, from Maldah and Bhagulpore.

Class 35.—Shawls.
53 Buddree Das, Chajjoo Das, & Keshee Das, Calcutta.—Cashmere and other woollen shawls, silk shawls, and scarfs.

Class 36.—Lace, Net, Embroidery, and Trimmings.
54 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Chikan embroidery in silk and cotton, on muslin, and on corah and tusser silk wearing apparel.
55 Buddree Das, Calcutta.—Dressing-gowns, shawls, &c.
56 Hazari Mal & Ram Chand, Calcutta.—Dressing-gowns, shawls, &c.
57 Sheik Golab, Calcutta.—Dressing-gowns, shawls, &c.

Class 39.—Jewellery and Precious Stones.
58 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Silver filagree-work, from Cuttack; personal and other ornaments and nicknacks.
59 Giridar Lall. Calcutta.—Jewellery—gold, silver, and precious stones.
60 Government of India.—Nepaul necklace.

V. Raw and Manufactured Products.

Class 43.—Products of the Cultivation of Forests, and of the Trades appertaining thereto.
61 Gamble. J. s., Deputy-Conservator of Forests, Bengal.—109 specimen blocks of Indian woods.
Class 44.—Products of Hunting, Shooting, Fishing, and Spontaneous Products. Machines and Instruments connected therewith.

62 Gamble, J. S., Bengal.—Samples of lac resin, india-rubber, and other forest produce.
63 Haworth & Co., Calcutta.—Samples of lac resin.

Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food.

64 Ahmuty & Co.—Samples of jute and other fibres.
65 Babu Mudden Mohun By sack, Dacca.—Indigo, lac-dye, and safflower.
67 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Samples of jute and other fibres.
68 Bengal Sub-Committee.—Indigo, lac-dye, and safflower.
69 Calcutta Mills & several of the Bengal Gaols.—Various oils.
70 Carritt & Co.—Castor oil.
71 Superintendent Chittagong Gaol.—Samples of jute and other fibres.
72 Superintendent of Hazaribagh Gaol.—Samples of jute and other fibres.

Class 46.—Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products.

73 King, Dr. G., Superintendent Royal Botanic Gardens, Calcutta.—Cinchona barks, cinchona febrifuge.
74 Rai Kanny Loll Dey Bahadur, Calcutta.—Collection of indigenous drugs.

VI. Machinery—Apparatus and Processes used in the Mechanical Industries.

Class 54.—Apparatus and Processes used in Spinning and Rope-making.

75 Ahmuty & Co.—Rope and cordage, from the Shalimar Ropery.

VII. Alimentary Products.

Class 67.—Cereals, Farinaceous Products, and Products derived from them.

75a Bengal Sub-Committee.—Samples of rice and other food grains.

Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery.

76 Collector of Customs, Rangoon.—Samples of tea.
77 Grindlay & Co.—Samples of tea.
78 Newson, W., & Co.—Indian condiments, pickles, and preserves, in great variety.
79 Turner, Morrison & Co.—Samples of Cossipore sugar.

NORTH-WEST PROVINCES EXHIBITS.
III. Furniture and Accessories.

Class 17.—Cheap and Fancy Furniture.

1 Goslett & Co., Meerut.—Shelves—quadruple set; show-case, and 12 Bareilly chairs.

Class 18.—Upholsterers' and Decorators' Work.

2 Kanti Chandra Mukarji, Jaipur.—Jaipur marble articles.

Class 19.—Crystal, Glass, and Stained Glass.

3 Department of Agriculture & Commerce, North-West Provinces and Oude.—Crude glass, manufactured from earth.

Class 20.—Pottery.

4 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Azamgarh pottery (first lot).
5 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Azamgarh pottery (second lot).

Class 21.—Carpets, Tapestry, and other Stuffs for Furniture.

6 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Agra carpets (fine Persian, &c.).
7 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Agra Gaol carpets (Persian and cotton), manufactured at the Agra Gaol by prison labour.
8 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Allahabad woollen carpets, manufactured at the Central Gaol at Allahabad.
9 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Mirzapur woollen carpets, manufactured at the Mirzapur Gaol.
10 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Basti woollen carpets, manufactured at Basti Gaol.
11 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Jhánsi woollen carpets.
12 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Allahabad rugs.
13 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Mirzapur rugs.
14 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Bareilly cotton carpets.
15 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Agra Gaol mattings.
16 Superintendent Bareilly District Gaol.—Bareilly munj matting, manufactured at the District Gaol.
17 Lang, G., Collector, Aligarh.—Aligarh cotton carpets (daris).

Class 24.—Goldsmiths' and Silversmiths' Work.

18 Hoey, W., City Magistrate, Lucknow.—Lucknow wares—scent-bowl, mustard-pot, &c.
20 Mir Imdad, All, C.S.I.—Benares brass-wares.

Class 25.—Bronzes and various Art Castings and Repousse Work.


Class 28.—Perfumery.

22 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Jaun-pur ittar, or otto of roses.

Class 29.—Leather-work, Fancy Articles, and Basket-work.

24 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Thibet stone articles, ornamental stone manufactures.
25 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Mainpun wood-work, inlaid with brass wire.
IV. Textile Fabrics, Clothing, and Accessories.

Class 30.—Cotton Thread and Fabrics.

32 Elgin Mills Co., The, Cawnpore.—Striped and chequered cotton.
33 Government of the N. W. P. & Oude. The.—Grey cashmere, without border; selected cashmere materials.
34 Government of the N. W. P. & Oude, The.—Fabrics of Luddhiana, pieces of gabroon.
35 Government of the N. W. P. & Oude, The.—Carpets made in Mirzapore and other gaols, 6 ft. by 2 ft.
36 Government of the N. W. P. & Oude, The.—Cotton fabrics of Azamgarh—(1) unwashed piece, (2) washed piece.
37 Government of the N. W. P. & Oude, The.—Fabrics of Azamgarh—gulta, white, silk mixed with cotton.
38 Muir Mills Co., The, Cawnpore.—American drill, officer's drill, T. cloth, sheets, &c.
39 Muir Mills Co., Cawnpore.—Faish, 12¼ yards.
40 Muir Mills Co., Cawnpore.—Yarn, dyed green; drill suits, &c.
41 Superintendent of Central Prison, The, Agra.—Carpet.

Class 34.—Silk and Silk Fabrics.

42 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Azamgarh silk; white, grey, brown, and other satins.

Class 35.—Shawls.

43 Saunders, J., & Co., Benares.—Case shawls, scarfs, and sundry embroidered articles.
43a Osborne, F. C., & Co., Delhi.—Case shawls, scarfs, and embroidered goods.

Class 36.—Lace, Net, Embroidery, and Trimmings.

44 Babu Brojo Mohan Banarji.—Jhánsi peacock feather trimmings.
45 Bulbadar, S., Dap. Benares.—Case kinkhāb gold and silver embroidery.
46 Deputy Commissioner of Lalitpur.—Lalitpur cloth, pagri, and handkerchiefs.
47 Hoey, W., Lucknow.—Lucknow lace, embroidery, &c.

Class 38.—Clothing for both Sexes.

48 Department of Agriculture.—Luddhiana gentlemen's suits and cloths.

Class 39.—Jewellery and Precious Stones.

49 Hoey, W., Lucknow.—Lucknow jewellery—car rings, bracelets, necklaces, &c.
50 Saunders, J., & Co., Benares.—Case Indian gold and silver jewellery.

Class 41.—Travelling Apparatus and Camp Equipage.

51 Elgin Mills, Cawnpore.—Single-poled tent, Casmere tent, shooting pal, and Kabul regulation tent.
52 Muir Mills, Cawnpore.—Double fly tent, and Swiss cottage tent.

Class 42.—Toys.
53 Bhawani Das, Toy Maker, Lucknow.—Elephant and marriage party.
54 Hoey, W., Lucknow.—Lucknow clay models of fruits and vegetables.
55 Hoey, W., Lucknow.—Lucknow clay figures of native servants, tradesmen, carriages, &c.

V. Raw and Manufactured Products.

Class 43.—Products of the Cultivation of Forests and of the Trades appertaining thereto.

56 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Specimens of dyes obtained from various kinds of forest trees.

Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food.

57 Begg, Sutherland & Co., Calcutta.—Specimens of tobacco—black cavendish cake, cut mixture, and cigars.
58 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Raw fibres—textile materials, cotton, and hemp.
59 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Collection of oil seeds—mustard, castor, linseed, poppy, &c.
60 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Collection of oils prepared from seeds.
61 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Specimens of oil cakes, chiefly used for cattle food.
62 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Dyeing substances—indigo, safflower, turmeric, &c.

Class 46.—Chemical and Pharmaceutical Products.

63 Department of Agriculture.—Khari salt, red earth—impure sulphate of soda, sajji, saltpetre, borax, wax, lac, &c.

Class 47.—Chemical Processes for Bleaching, Dyeing, Printing, and Dressing.

65 Department of Agriculture.—Farukhabad chintzes, quilts, wrappers, bed cloth, mattress.
66 Department of Agriculture.—Kanauj chintzes, wrappers, &c.
67 Hoey, W., Lucknow.—Printed Lucknow chintzes, samples of.

Class 48.—Leather and Skins.

68 Department of Agriculture.—Gorakhpur leather manufactures—Jae namaz or prayer carpet, mantelpiece border, bags.

VI. Machinery—Apparatus and Processes used in the Mechanical Industries.

Class 61.—Harness and Saddlery.

69 Foy Brothers, Cawnpore.—Horse harness, set of single and of double.

VII. Alimentary Products.

Class 67.—Cereals, Farinaceous Products, and Products derived from them.
70 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Samples of wheat, soft white and soft red.
71 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Rice, chiefly grown at the foot of the Himalayas.
72 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Samples of barley.
73 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Samples of millet.
74 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Samples of Italian millet.
75 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Samples of millet species (Panicum frumentaceum).
76 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Samples of large millet (Sorghum vulgare).
77 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Samples of bulrush millet (Penicillaria spicata).
78 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Indian corn.
79 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Peas (Pisum arvense).
80 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Pulse species (Phaseolus aconitifolius).
81 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Pulse species (Phaseolus Roxburghii).
82 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Pulse species (Phaseolus mungo).
83 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Pulse species (Cajanus Indicus).
84 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Horse-gram (Dolichos uniflorus).
85 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Pea species (Ervum lens).
86 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Millet species (Cynosurus coracanus).
87 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Gram (Cicer arietinum).
88 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Puis species (Cyamopsis psoraloides).
89 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Pulse species (Dolichos sinensis).

Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery.

90 Carew & Co., Rosa Sugar Factory, Sháhjahánpur.—Sugar (Rosa loaf and crystals).
91 Craik, W., Kumaun.—Tea.
92 Craw, W.—Tea, from the Doonagiree plantation, Kumaun.
93 Department of Agriculture, &c. Spices 1—red pepper, ginger, cummin, coriander seed, &c.
94 Department of Agriculture, &c.—Rod: salt from the Panjb, called Lahori salt; and lake salt from Rajputana, known as Sambhur salt.
95 Kousanie Co., Kumaun.—Teas (various).
96 Lines Factory, Kumaun.—Teas (various).
97 Thompson & Mylne, Bihia.—Sugars (various).

Class 73.—Fermented Drinks.

98 Carew & Co., Shdhjahanpur.—Rum, manufactured at Rosa.
99 Kousanie Co., Kumaun.—Rum.
100 Murree Brewery Co.—Ale and porter.
101 Naini Tal Brewery Co.—Ale and stout.

PUNJAB EXHIBITS.

III. Furniture and Accessories.

Class 17.—Cheap and Fancy Furniture.

1 Show Case, of carved deodar-wood (Cedrus deodara).

Class 20.—Pottery.

2 Bhola, Potter, Delhi.—Porcelain.
3 Mahomed Haslum, Mooltan.—Faience.
3a Shir Khan, Peshawar.—Faience.
Class 21.—Carpets, Tapestry, and other Stuffs for Furniture.
4 Davee Sahai, Amritsur.—Pair of Amritsur carpets.
5 Dus Mohamed, Mooltan.—Mooltan carpets.
6 Nisbet Industrial School, Kasur.—Kasur carpet.
7 Salig Ram, Amritsur.—Amritsur carpet.
8 Superintendent Central Gaol, Lahore.—Lahore carpet.
9 Turkestan, From.—Khotcn silk carpet.

Class 24.—Goldsmiths' and Silversmiths' Work.
10 Kutuli Das & Sharf Das, Siaikot.—Koftgari, or damascened work.
11 Vasna Mal, Mooltan.—Enamels.

Class 25.—Bronzes and various Art Castings and Repousse Work.
12 Salig Ram, Amritsur.—Teapots, large and small; tea-urn, or samovar; cups.

Class 29.—Leather-work, Fancy Articles, and Basket-work.
13 Abdulla Bahadur & Wabbs Buksh, Pakpattan.—Pakpattan lacquered-ware.
14 Amir Buksh Wassus & Ahmed, Pakpattan.—Pakpattan lacquered-ware.
15 Atta Bussi Golam Hosein, Hushiarpur.—Inlaid wood.
16 Davee Sahai, Amritsur.—Ivory carvings.
17 Dumroo Moochi, Bilaspur.—Bilaspur leather-work.
18 Kunhya Lal, Ilushiarpur.—Inlaid wood.
19 Mohaddin Patti, Kasur.—Hookah, brass and leather.

IV. Textile Fabrics, Clothing, and Accessories.

Class 33.—Woollen Yarn and Fabrics.
21 Salig Ram, Amritsur.—Amritsur and Ludiana woollen fabrics.

Class 34.—Silk and Silk Fabrics.
22 Dulbag Rai, Bahawalpur.—Bahawalpur silks.
23 Toshakhana, Bahawalpur.—Bahawalpur silks.
24 Virbhan, Bahawalpur.—Bahawalpur silks.
25 Wall Mohamed, Bahawalpur.—Bahawalpur silks.

Class 35.—Shawls.
26 Davee Sahai, Amritsur.—Amritsur-made cashmere shawls.

Class 36.—Lace, Net, Embroidery, and Trimmings.
27 Cashmere Relief Workshop.—Cashmere silk embroidery.
28 Manick Chand, Delhi.—Gold embroidery.
29 Mooti Ram, Delhi.—Gold embroidery.
30 Punjab Government.—Phulkaris silk embroidery.
31 Wall Mohamed, Lahore.—Gold embroidery.

Class 38.—Clothing for both Sexes.
Class 39.—Jewellery and Precious Stones.

34 Lula Soohag Chand, Delhi.—Gold and silver bracelets, brooch, lockets, necklaces, and belts.
35 Sadoo Ram, Amritsur.—Imitation jewellery—necklacs, bracelets, armlets, bangles, rings, &c.

V. Raw and Manufactured Products.

Class 43.—Products of the Cultivation of Forests and of the Trades appertaining thereto.

36 Baden-Powell, B. H.—Hazel, oak, ash, box, maple, pine, common yew, elm, cedar, walnut, olive, and other forest woods.

VII. Alimentary Products.

Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery.

37 Baree Tea Co. Limited.—Tea.
38 Bejnath.—Teas—orange pekoe, pekoe souchong, souchong, young hyson, hyson, gunpowder, and oolong, 1 and 2.
39 Bhoti.—Teas—orange pekoe, pekoe souchong, souchong, young hyson, gunpowder, imperial gunpowder, oolong, and hyson.
40 Bundlu & Burroo, Brai Tea Estate.—Teas—pekoe souchong, congou, and bohea.
41 Dharmsala Tea Estate.—Tea.
42 Kand Bari Tea Estate.—Tea.
43 Kullait Tea Estate.—Tea.
44 Loongul Tea Estate.—Teas—pekoe, orange pekoe, souchong, congou, and bohea.
45 Nassau Tea Co.—Teas—pekoe, white tip, orange pekoe, souchong, congou, young hyson, hyson, and gunpowder.
46 Punar Tea Estate.—Tea.

CENTRAL PROVINCES EXHIBITS.

III. Furniture and Accessories.

Class 20.—Pottery.

1 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Eight vases, from Burhanpur, Central Provinces.
2 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Two teapots, from Burhanpur.
3 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Six large plates, from Burhanpur.
IV. Textile Fabrics, Clothing, and Accessories.

Class 30.—Cotton Thread and Fabrics.

8 Manager Empress Mills.—‘Three pieces stout cotton cloth, suitable for bush wear, from the Empress Mills, Nagpur, Central Provinces.

Class 31.—Thread and Fabrics of Flax, Hemp, &c.

9 Manager Empress Mills, Nagpur.—Bundle No. 6 strong cotton yarn, made at the Empress Mills.

Class 34.—Silk and Silk Fabrics.

10 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Red, yellow, white, grey tasar silk skeins, from Bilaspur, Central Provinces.
11 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Red, yellow, white, and grey silk skeins of the tasar moth (Bombyx paphia), from Bilaspur.
12 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Piece red tasar silk, for turbans, from Bilaspur.
13 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Piece brown tasar silk cloth, from Bilaspur.
14 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Three pieces white tasar cloth, from Bilaspur.
15 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Two pieces dark-grey tasar cloth, from Bilaspur.
16 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Piece tasar silk chekered cloth, from Bilaspur.
17 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Silk thread of the large cocoons (No. 156B), from Sambalpur, Central Provinces.
18 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Silk, from the small cocoons (No. 156c), from Sambalpur.
19 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Tasar silk cloth, from silk thread (No. 161), from Sambalpur.
20 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Tasar silk cloth, from silk (No. 159), from Sambalpur.

Class 35.—Shawls.

21 Buddree Das, Chajjoo Das, & Keshee Das, Calcutta.—Cashmere and other woollen shawls, silk shawls, and scarfs.

Class 38.—Clothing for both Sexes.

22 Government, Central Provinces.—Embroidered mandil, or green turban, from Burhanpur, Central Provinces.
23 Government, Central Provinces.—Green embroidered velvet coat, with gold lace, from Burhanpur.
24 Government, Central Provinces.—Cap, embroidered in gold, from Burhanpur.
25 Government, Central Provinces.—Jam-bhala mandil, or turban, embroidered, from Burhanpur.
26 Government, Central Provinces.—Chira turban of gold thread, embroidered, from Burhanpur.
27 Government, Central Provinces.—Short coat, silk embroidered, with gold-thread phatwayee, from Burhanpur.
28 Government, Central Provinces.—Paijamas, or drawers, from Burhanpur.
29 Government, Central Provinces.—Paijamas, embroidered, from Burhanpur.
30 Government. Central Provinces.—Bodice, or choli, from Burhanpur.
31 Government. Central Provinces.—Dupata, ornamented, from Burhanpur.
32 Government, Central Provinces.—Dhoti, with silk border, worn by men, from Burhanpur.
33 Government, Central Provinces.—White uparni, or mantilla, worn by women, from Burhanpur.
34 Government, Central Provinces.—Red turban, embroidered, from Burhanpur.
35 Government, Central Provinces.—Plain white coat, from Burhanpur.
36 Government, Central Provinces.—Pair velvet shoes.
37 Government, Central Provinces.—Kurta, or small coat.
38 Government, Central Provinces.—Sari, with gold-thread embroidery.
39 Government, Central Provinces—Bodice, embroidered.
40 Government, Central Provinces.—Silk hatband, or pagri, termed jambhala purple.
41 Government, Central Provinces.—Silk necktie.
42 Government, Central Provinces.—Green hatband or pagri.
43 Government, Central Provinces.—Small necktie.
44 Government Central Provinces.—Red hatband or pagri.
45 Government, Central Provinces.—Neck-tie.
46 Government, Central Provinces.—White turban.
47 Government, Central Provinces.—Neck-tie.
48 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Dopata, worn by native gentlemen across the breast and shoulders, from Umrer, Nagpur, Central Provinces.
49 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Dopata, with border of gold-thread and silk, from Umrer.
50 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Dhotar jori, worn as trousers, from Umrer.
51 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Dhotar jori, with white border of very fine thread, from Umrer.
52 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Sári, worn by native women.
53 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Lady's cotton dress, with silk border, from Umrer.

Class 39.—Jewellery and Precious Stones.

54 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Moss agates (six), from Jubbulpore.
55 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Moss agate, from Jubbulpore.
56 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Moss agate, from Jubbulpore.
57 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Moss agate, from Jubbulpore.
58 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Agate dessert-knife handles (six), from Jubbulpore.
59 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Agate dessert-knife handles (twelve), from Jubbulpore.
60 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Jasper knife and fork handles (twelve), from Jubbulpore.
61 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Jasper paper-knives (four), from Jubbulpore.
62 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Grass-stone agate paper-knives (four), from Jubbulpore.
63 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Fortification agate paper-knives (two), from Jubbulpore.
64 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Jasper paperweights (two), from Jubbulpore.
65 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Fortification agate paper-weights (two), from Jubbulpore.
66 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Moss agates (twelve), from Jubbulpore, Central Provinces.

V. Raw and Manufactured Products.

Class 43.—Products of the Cultivation of Forests and of the Trades appertaining thereto.

67 Government, Central Provinces.—Stick lac, with lac crushed and the stick separated, from Jubbulpore.
68 Government, Central Provinces.—Seed lac, after the dye has been washed out, known as "cleaned seed lac," from Jubbulpore.
69 Government, Central Provinces.—The lac dye washed out of crushed lac, and strained, pressed, and dyed, from Jubbulpore.
70 Government, Central Provinces.—The lac dye, refuse of lac dye, bought by native dyers, from Jubbulpore.
71 Government, Central Provinces.—Sifting of cleaned seed lac, too fine to work into shell lac, from Jubbulpore.
72 Government, Central Provinces.—Shell lac made from cleaned seed lac, and known as "second orange" of commerce, from Jubbulpore.
73 Government, Central Provinces.—Shell lac made from medium-sized seed, and known as "European liver" of commerce, from Jubbulpore.
74 Government, Central Provinces.—Refuse taken from the bags in which the seed lac is heated to make shell lac, from Jubbulpore.
75 Government, Central Provinces.—Refuse from the vats in which the shell lac straining-bags are boiled, from Jubbulpore.
76 Government, Central Provinces.—Bahera kernel, from Seoni, Central Provinces.
77 Government, Central Provinces.—Sebesten plum, from Seoni, Central Provinces.
78 Government, Central Provinces.—Bahera fruit, from Seoni, Central Provinces.
79 Government, Central Provinces.—Raw lac, from Raipur, Central Provinces.
80 Government, Central Provinces.—Myrabolan or terminalia galls, used as a dye, and an astringent; from Jubbulpore and Raipur.
81 Government, Central Provinces.—The marking-nut, called "bihlawan."
82 Government, Central Provinces.—Resin of the Shorea robusta, called "Rall" or dammar.

Class 44.—Products of Hunting, Shooting, Fishing, and Spontaneous Products. Machines and Instruments connected therewith.

83 Government, Central Provinces.—Mhowa flowers, from which a spirit is distilled; and mhowa seed, from which an oil is made.
84 Government, Central Provinces.—Seeds of edible water lily, from Mandla, Central Provinces.
85 Government, Central Provinces.—Seeds of another variety of water lily.
86 Government, Central Provinces.—Chirongi. The fruit is eaten.
87 Government, Central Provinces.—Indian wild arrowroot, from Bálághat, Central Provinces.
88 Government, Central Provinces.—Zizyphus or jujube fruit, which when fresh or dried is eaten by the poorer classes.
89 Government, Central Provinces.—Cotton of the semal tree, from Bálághat, Central Provinces.
90 Government, Central Provinces.—Salai gum. From this gum the best frankincense is made.
91 Government, Central Provinces.—Bael, or Bengal quince. This fruit is used in medicine, and is eaten by the hill natives.
92 Government, Central Provinces.—Aonla, eaten as a pickle, and used as medicine.
93 Government, Central Provinces.—Wild arrowroot, and wild arrowroot flour, from Bhandara, Central Provinces.
94 Government, Central Provinces.—Bechandi. It is obtained from a gum, and resembles arrowroot.

Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food.

95 Curator, Nagpur Museum.—Grass oil, from the Andropogon Schoenanthus, used as a rubefacient in rheumatism, from Nirnar.
96 Curator, Nagpur Museum.—Cotton of the white silk cotton tree, from Bálághat, Central Provinces.
97 Curator, Nagpur Museum.—Salai fruit, from Bálághat, Central Provinces.
98 Government, Central Provinces.—Gingelly, black, white, and red varieties, from Narsinghpur, Central Provinces.
99 Government, Central Provinces.—Morinda and morinda powder (the root of Morinda tinctoria, a dye, of red colour), from Narsinghpur.
100 Government, Central Provinces.—Jagni, or black tilli.
101 Government, Central Provinces.—Heart-leaved madder. The root is known as East Indian madder.
102 Government, Central Provinces.—Castor oil seed, from Wardha, Central Provinces.
103 Government, Central Provinces.—Linseed, from Wardha, Central Provinces.
104 Government, Central Provinces.—Cotton (two varieties), from Wardha, Central Provinces.
105 Government, Central Provinces.—Cotton seed.
106 Government, Central Provinces.—Castor oil seed and mustard seed, from Nagpur, Central Provinces.
107 Government, Central Provinces.—Saflower seed, cultivated for oil.
108 Government, Central Provinces.—Cotton, from Nagpur, Central Provinces.
109 Government, Central Provinces.—Cotton-bolls, from Nagpur.
110 Government, Central Provinces.—Turmeric, long-rooted, from Nagpur.
111 Government, Central Provinces.—Saflower, from Nagpur.
112 Government, Central Provinces.—Nankin cotton and nankin cotton-bolls, from Nagpur.
113 Government, Central Provinces.—Sunn (Crotalaria juncea), from Nagpur.
114 Government, Central Provinces.—Hemp-leaved hibiscus seed and niger seed, from Nagpur.
115 Government, Central Provinces.—Cotton (common quality) and cotton-bolls (common quality), from Wardha, Central Provinces.
116 Government, Central Provinces.—Cotton-bolls (first quality) and cotton-bolls, from Wardha.
117 Government, Central Provinces.—Sunn (Crotalaria juncea), and hemp-leaved hibiscus fibre, from Raipur, Central Provinces.
118 Government, Central Provinces.—Castor oil seed and safflower seed, from Raipur, Central Provinces.
119 Government, Central Provinces.—25 cocoons of the tasar moth (Bombyx paphia), from Bilaspur.
120 Government, Central Provinces.—20 selected large tasar cocoons, and 20 selected small tasar cocoons, from Sambalpur.
121 Government, Central Provinces.—12 cocoons of the tasar moth (Bombyx paphia), from Bhandara, Central Provinces.
122 Government, Central Provinces.—Cotton, from Chanda, Central Provinces.

VII. Alimentary Products

Class 67.—Cereals, Farinaceous Products, and Products derived from them.

123 Government, Central Provinces.—Wheat (five varieties), from Hoshangabad, Central Provinces.
124 Government, Central Provinces.—Wheat (one variety), from Nagpur, Central Provinces.
125 Government, Central Provinces.—Wheat (two varieties), from Sagar, Central Provinces.
126 Government, Central Provinces.—Wheat (one variety), from Seoni, Central Provinces.
127 Government, Central Provinces.—Wheat (two varieties), from Wardha, Central Provinces.
128 Government, Central Provinces.—Wheat, from the Model Farm, Nagpur, Central Provinces.
129 Government, Central Provinces.—Gram, or chick pea (three varieties—red, white, and yellow), from Narsinghpur.
130 Government, Central Provinces.—Millet; great millet (white, red, yellow, and black varieties), from Wardha.
131 Government, Central Provinces.—Millet; great millet (white, red, yellow, black, and great millet varieties), from Nagpur.
132 Government, Central Provinces.—Italian millet, from Narsinghpur.
133 Government, Central Provinces.—Pigeon pea (red and white varieties), from Wardha.
134 Government, Central Provinces.—Pigeon pea (red and white varieties), from Nagpur.
135 Government, Central Provinces.—Urad and mung, from Narsinghpur.
136 Government, Central Provinces.—Masur, from Narsinghpur. This is the lentil from which the well-known Revalenta Arabica is made.
137 Government, Central Provinces.—Indian corn, from Chindwarra, Central Provinces.
138 Government, Central Provinces.—Bajra, from Saugor, Central Provinces.
139 Government, Central Provinces.—Kutki, a kind of millet, and kodo, from Betul, Central Provinces.
140 Government, Central Provinces.—Kutki, husked and unhusked, from Bálághat, Central Provinces.
141 Government, Central Provinces.—Sanwa, husked and unhusked, from Bálághat.
142 Government, Central Provinces.—Rice, cleaned, husked, and unhusked (eighteen varieties), from Bhandara, Central Provinces.
143 Government, Central Provinces.—Rice, cleaned, husked, and unhusked (fifteen varieties), from Raipur, Central Provinces.
144 Government, Central Provinces.—Rice, cleaned, husked, and unhusked (six varieties), from Bálághat.
145 Government, Central Provinces.—Rice, cleaned, husked, and unhusked (nine varieties), from Mandla, Central Provinces.
146 Government, Central Provinces.—Culthi, from Singhara, and Chickling vetch, from Nagpur, Central Provinces.
147 Government, Central Provinces.—Millet heads, from Wardha, Central Provinces.
148 Government, Central Provinces.—Singhara nut and Singhara flour (Trapa bispiriosa).

Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery.

149 Government, Central Provinces.—Ginger, narrow-leaved, from Nagpur, Central Provinces.
X. Mining Industries—Machinery and Products.

Class 82.—Mining and Metallurgy.

150 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Steatite paper-weights, slabs, pots, lamp-stands, cups, and plates, from Bhandara, Central Provinces.
151 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Kurand stone, from Bhandara.
152 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Two brass water-pots and cooking-pot, from Bhandara.
153 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Two brass lotas, from Bhandara.
154 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Brass cup and three brass cattle-bells, from Bhandara.
155 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Brass plate, dish, and saucers, from Bhandara.
156 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Two child's brass tops, from Bhandara.
157 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Brass plate for holding betel-nut; lamp, and spoon, from Bhandara.
158 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Brass bowl and a stand for plate, used for sacred purposes, from Bhandara.
159 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Samples coal, Nos. 1 and 2 seams, from Narbada Coal and Iron Co., Gadarwala, Central Provinces.
160 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Sandstone, white and variegated, from Babupet quarry, Chanda, Central Provinces.
161 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Sandstone, white and reddish, from Joonoona quarry, Chanda.
162 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Sandstone, white, from Mundabha quarry, Chanda.
163 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Sandstone, red and variegated, from Nandgaon quarry, Chanda.
164 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Sandstone, reddish and white, from Beokoond quarry, Chanda.
165 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Sandstone, white and whitish, from Tookum quarry, Chanda.
166 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Sandstone, white, from Jumunjetty quarry, Chanda.
167 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Sandstone, whitish, from Senara quarry, Chanda.
168 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Sandstone, white, from Lohara quarry, Chanda.
169 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Sandstone, variegated, from Chorundy quarry, Chanda.
170 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Sandstone, white and whitish, from Mana quarry, Chanda.
171 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Sandstone, whitish, from Mulkapi quarry, Chanda.
172 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Sandstone, two slabs variegated, from Colewa quarry, Chanda.
173 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Six sandstones and two red, from Jubulpore, Central Provinces.
174 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Limestone, white, from Sagra quarry, Chanda.
175 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Limestone, whitish, from Agra quarry, Chanda.
176 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Two variegated stones, from Wadala Toomkum quarry, Chanda.
177 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Steatite or soapstone, from Jamboolgatta quarry, Chanda.
178 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Stone, from Khandala quarry, Chanda.
179 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Five slabs of marble, from Murwara. Jubulpore.
180 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Eight white magnesian limestone slabs, from the Marble Rocks, Jubulpore.
181 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Sixteen specimens quartz crystals, and three slates, from Jubulpore.
182 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Carbonate of lime and oxide of iron, from Murwara, Jubulpore.
183 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Manganese ore, from Panagarh, Jubulpore.
184 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Stone, from Woon quarry, Chanda.
185 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Iron ore, from Goonjwahi quarry, Chanda.
186 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Iron ore, from Deolgaon quarry, Chanda.
187 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Iron ore, from Lohara quarry, Chanda.
188 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Ochre and red ochre, from Raipur, Central Provinces.
189 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Top and bottom coal, from Warora, Central Provinces.
190 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Warora fireclay.
191 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Kundalla limestone, Central Provinces.
192 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Mansar manganese ore, Central Provinces.
193 Curator Nagpur Museum.—Lohara iron ore, Central Provinces.
194 Government, Central Provinces—Iron ores, from Hoiapur, Saugor, and from Tendukhera, Narsinghpur, Central Provinces.
195 Government, Central Provinces.—Fire-clays, and one small basalt slate, from the Wardha district, Central Provinces.

BERAR EXHIBITS.

IV. Textile Fabrics, Clothing, and Accessories.

Class 30.—Cotton Thread and Fabrics.

1 Indian Government.—7 lb. inferior kuppas.
2 Indian Government.—2 lb. cleaned cotton from foregoing, and seed extracted therefrom.
3 Indian Government.—6½. superior kuppas.
4 Indian Government.—2 lb. cleaned cotton from foregoing, and seed extracted therefrom.
5 Indian Government.—6½ lb. "jerry" kuppas.
6 Indian Government.—2 lb. cleaned cotton from foregoing, and seed extracted therefrom.
7 Indian Government.—5½ lb. "American seed" kuppas.
8 Indian Government.—2 lb. cleaned cotton from foregoing, and seed extracted therefrom.
9 Indian Government.—4 lb. best "bunny" cotton.
10 Indian Government.—4 lb. best "jerry" cotton, grown in the Akote district.
11 Indian Government.—4 lb. best "bunny" cotton, grown in the Bassim district.
12 Indian Government.—4 lb. mixed "bunny" and "American seed" cotton.
13 Indian Government.—Sample "jerry" Ellichpore cotton.
14 Indian Government.—Sample Ellichpow "jerry" kuppas.
15 Indian Government.—Sample Ellichpore "jerry" seed.
16 Indian Government.—Sample Ellichpore "jerry" pods.
17 Indian Government.—Sample Bellattee cotton kuppas.
18 Indian Government.—Sample Bellattee cotton pods.
19 Indian Government.—Sample Bellattee cotton seeds.
20 Indian Government.—Sample "bunny" pods, grown in Oomraottee district.
21 Indian Government.—Sample "bunny" cotton.
22 Indian Government.—Sample Akote "jerry," in pods.
23 Indian Government.—Native chaska, or cotton gin.
24 Indian Government.—Standard samples Oomraottee cotton—fair, fully fair, good fair, fully good fair, and good.

BURMAH EXHIBITS.

V. Raw and Manufactured Products.

Class 45.—Agricultural Products not used for Food.

1 Government of British Burmah.—Arakan tobacco, in leaf and manufactured.

VI. Machinery—Apparatus and Processes used
in the Mechanical Industries.

Class 64.—Apparatus and Processes of Civil Engineering, Public Works, and Architecture.

2 Government of British Burmah.—Burmese thain, or chapel, of carved teak-wood.

VII. Alimentary Products.

Class 72.—Condiments and Stimulants, Sugar and Confectionery.

3 Government of British Burmah.—Arakan tea.

List of Maps, Plans, Charts, &c.,

On various scales, of the Survey of India (exhibited by Major-General J. T. Walker, R.E., F.R.S., Surveyor-General).

1 Indian Atlas, Sheets of the (bound in two parts—"Western and Eastern India").
2 India, 1877 (sixth edition).
3 India, 1873 (without hills).
4 India, 1877 (with hills).
5 India. Map of illustrating the Progress of the Imperial Surveys to 1st October, 1879.
6 India, Index to the great Trigonometrical Survey of, exhibiting the Bengal, Madras, and Bombay Presidencies the Triangulations and the Sections of the Indian Atlas, 1875.
7 Boundaries and Routes between the Empires of Russia and China.
8 India, 1877 (preliminary edition, without hills).
9 India, 1877, with additions to 1880 (with hills in chalk).
10 India, Preliminary Sketch of the Geology of, 1877, in four sections.
11 Hindustan and the Caspian Sea, a Sketch of the Countries between (fourth edition), 1880.
12 Bengal, the Territories under the Lieutenant-Governor of.
13 Oude Province, 1877.
14 Turkestan, and the Countries between the British and Russian Dominions in Asia (fourth edition), 1879, in 4 sheets.
15 Western Sind, Geological Map of.
16 Orissa and Tributary Mehals.
17 Assam Province, sheets 1, 3, 4, 5, and 6.
18 Bengal, in 20 sheets, with an index.
19 Bijnour, Furrakhabad, Jalaum, and Lalatpur Districts—Gazetteer maps.
20 Punjab Salt Range, Rajmehal Hills, and Trans-Indus Salt Range—Geological maps.
21 Bogra, Bara Bankee, Durbhunga, Patna, Roy Bareilly, Sooltanpoor, Chanda, and Nimar—District maps.
22 Kosi Valley, in 8 sheets.
23 Simla and Kalka Road Survey, in 14 sheets.
24 Guzerat, sheet No. 80, in 16 sections.
25 Dehra Dun and the Siwaliks, with an index map.
26 Mount Abu, Plateaux of.
27 Deccan, sheet No. 12, in 4 sections.
28 Bhawalpur State, sheets 16 and 11.
29 Bhopal and Malwa sheet.
30 Deccan, sheets, with an index map.
31 Dehra Dun and the Siwaliks sheets.
32 Gwalior and Central India sheets.
33 Jhelum and Shahpur, sheet 6, in 4 sections.
34 Kattywar sheet.
35 Kumaun and Garhwal sheet, with an index map.
36 Khandesh and Bombay Native States, sheets 16 and 18.
37 Jamoo territories, in 3 sheets.
38 Rajputana, half degree sheet No. 12, south.
39 Hooghly District, in 7 sheets.
40 Bijnour District, in 7 sheets, with an index map.

**Congregated Village Sheets:**

41 Agra District sheets.
42 Bareilly District sheets.
43 Delhi District sheets.
44 Ganges River, Country along.
45 Gya District.
46 Hooghly District.
47 Karnal District.
48 Patna District.
49 Shahabad District.
50 Calcutta City, in 2 sections.
51 Jhabia Patan and Gagron Fort.
52 Simla and Jutog, in 4 sheets.
53 Nairn Tal Cantonment and Settlement.
54 Murree Sanitarium, in 6 sheets.
55 Morar Cantonment.
56 Oodeypore City and Environs, in 6 sections.
57 Gwalior Fortress.
58 Mount Abu, Cantonment and Civil Station of.
59 Great Indus series.
60 Gwalior and Central India, degree sheet No. 12.
61 Khandesh and Bombay Native States, degree sheets 2 and 5.
62 Madras, meridional series.
63 Madras, longitudinal series, 1865-68.
64 Bay of Bengal, in 2 sections.
65 Bay of Bengal, sheet 1—Elephant Point to Cheduba Strait.
66 Jaygad, and entrance to Shastri River.
67 Pamban (Panben) Pass.
68 Ratnagiri, including Myria and Kalbadavie Pays.
69 Colombo Harbour.
70 Valley of the Alishang, from Tirgarie, by Major H. C. B. Tanner.
71 Views along the Khyber Pass, &c., by Lieutenant G. W. Bartram, R.E., in 26 sheets.
72 Bird's-eye view of country round Kabul, from west end of Bemaru Hills, by Lieutenant C. H. Manners Smith.
73 Panorama of Kabul from Camp Sia Sung, by Lieutenant C. H. Manners Smith.
74 Panorama of the country round Kabul, taken from the Takht-i-shah, in 6 sheets, by Lieutenant C. H. Manners Smith.
75 Photo engravings, coins (obverse and reverse), for the Asiatic Society.
76 Photo engraving of a portion of antiquities of Orissa.
77 Photo electrotype of a map, by Major J. Water-house.
78 Photo engraving of a female figure.
79 Autotype (carbon) prints—group of convicts.
80 Photo collotype of convicts.
81 Photo collotype of plan of Simla and Jutog.
82 Photo collotype of chart of Rangoon River.
83 Photo collotype of a map, on cloth and paper.
84 Photo collotype of a drawing—" The Search of Laban."
85 Photo collotype of a drawing—" Adoration of the Shepherds."
86 Photo collotype of a drawing—" Tobias with the Angel."
87 Photo collotype of views of the suburbs of Calcutta.
88 Photo collotype of a view.
89 Photo collotype of a rose-water (silver) bottle.
90 Photo collotype of Dimapur, on Dunsire River, Assam.
91 Photo collotype of beetles.
92 Photo collotype of antiquities of Orissa (A2, A3, A4, DD2).
93 Photo collotype of a ceiling.
94 Pigment prints (simple prints, through process).
95 Platinum print of hill, shading by Mr. A. E. Caddy.
96 Photo collotype of ancient map of Bengal—" Descripcao."
97 Photo collotype—" Renio de Bengalla."
98 Photo zincograph—" Magni Mogolis Imperium."
99 Washed carbon transfer.
100 Photo zincograph of a waterfall over Kymore Scarp.
101 Photo zincograph in colours, in Arabic, of mosque tablets.
102 Lithograph, in colours, of a helmet.
103 Silver print group of Lushai arms and utensils.
104 Silver print group (No. 8) of symbolical pendants found in fields.
105 Silver print from the sculpture at the Indian Museum.
106 Silver print figures of Lushai, &c., Nos. 1 and 2.
107 Silver print view of a Lushai village.
108 Silver print view on the Barak River, above Tipai Mookh.

Fine Art Gallery
CATALOGUE OF Works of Art.

America.

[Displayed with other Exhibits in the American Court.]

I—Works of Art.

Class 1.—Oil Paintings.

1 Barker, J. S., American Court.—Caligraphy on ivory, &c.
2 Weber, P. C—Oil painting.

Class 3.—Sculpture and Die-sinking.

3 Merryweather, G., 111 Broadway, New York City.—Three medals relating to Captain James Cook and discovery and settlement of Australia.

Class 4.—Architectural Drawings and Models.

4 Edgemoore Iron Co., Wilmington, Delaware—Photographs, drawings, &c., of bridge work.

Class 5.—Engravings and Lithographs.

5 American Bank Note Co., Broadway, New York City.—Steel-plate engraving.
6 Currier & Ives, 115 Nassau-st., New York City.—Coloured lithographs.
7 Lockwood, H., 74 Duane-st., New York City.—Engravings and lithographs.
8 Forbes Lithographic Manufacturing Co., 181 Devonsnire-st., Boston, Massachusetts.—Albertype
II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.

Class 12.—Photographic Proofs and Apparatus.

10 Gubleman, T., Jersey City.—Photographs.
12 Bradley & Rulofson, Sea Francisco, California.—Photographic and cray on portraits.
14 Taber,—, San Francisco.—Photographic portraits.
15 Scovill Manufacturing Co., Waterbury, Connecticut.—Brass goods, assorted.

Austro-Hungary.

I. Works of Art.

CLASS I.—Oil Paintings.

Budinszky, Dovani M., 16 Neugasse, Vienna.
1 Oil painting.

Hohenberger, Henry, 371 Via Boschetti, Trieste.
2 Two oil paintings—"Still Life."

CLASS II.-Various Paintings & Drawings.

Bogner, Antonie, Vienna.
3 Photographs, painted in oil, transparent, and etched on glass.

Bouche, Henriette, 9 Albertgasse, Vienna.
4 Photographs painted in oil.

Devide, Th., 4 Schottenring, Vienna.
5 Gobelin imitation, four ceiling pictures, oil paintings by Viennese masters.

Faber, A., Trieste.
6 "Rural Scene," photographed on cloth in imitation of Gobelin, and painted by Prof. Sturm.

Falb, C., 9 Webgasse, Vienna.
7 Enamel and porcelain paintings.

Zasche, Joseph, 3 and 15 Karnthnerring, Vienna.

8 Porcelain and enamel paintings; portraits, dishes, vases, plates; enamelled boxes, articles of attire, &c.

**CLASS III.—Sculpture & Die-Sinking.**

Jackel, Z. J., Spitz-on-the-Danube.

9 Wood carvings.

Tilgner, Victor, Vienna.

10 Bronze bust of Francis Joseph I., Emperor of Austria.

Unterberger, Fr., Innsbruck, Tyrol.

11 Tyrolese wood-carvings of "Margaret, Daughter of Emperor Maximilian I"; "Speckbacher and his Son," &c.

Vogl, Adolf, Innsbruck.

12 Statue—"Heart of Jesus."
13 "Two Kneeling Angels."
14 "Child Jesus."
15 Framed station picture.

**CLASS V.—Engravings & Lithographs.**

Czeiger, S., 43 Alleegasse, Vienna.

16 Self-published printed oil-colour pictures and baroque frames.

Engel, Emil M., Schottenring, Vienna.

17 Printings, illustrated works, pictures of photo., typo., and lithographical prints.


18 Art publishing works, illustrated; and some tableaux.

Holzel, Edward, 5 Louisengasse, Vienna.

19 Printed oil-colour pictures in frames, and objects for instruction.

Neumann, L. T., Vienna.

20 Printed oil-colour pictures.

Reiffenstein, G., I.R., Vienna.

21 Chromolithographs.

Stockinger, J. & Morsack. Al., Vienna.

22 Printing, illustrated works, modelling cartoons, picture-sheets and painted figures, pictures for children and schools.
Trassler, A., Troppau, Silesia.

23 Pictures in frames (photographs in ehromo-lithography).

Belgium.

I. Works of Art.

CLASS I.—Oil Paintings.

Abry, Leon, 43 Rue Ommeganck, Antwerp.

1 "Reverie."

Asselbergs, A., 9 Quai au Bois de Construction, Brussels.

2 "A Winter Day."

Beernaert, Mdlle. E., 20 Rue du Buisson, Brussels.

3 "Oak Trees at Modave."
4 "The Pool of Planchiport."

Bellis, H., S Rue du St. Esprit, Brussels.

5 "Fruit."
6 "Oysters."

Berlin, J., Brussels.

7 "Bad News."
7a "A Visit."

Bossuet, F., 165 Rue Royale, Brussels.

8 "View of Grenade."
9 "Xeres, South of Spain."

Bouvier, A., 18 Rue Caroly, Brussels.

10 "The Scheldt at Tholen, Holland."

Carabain, T., 54 Rue Vifquin, Brussels.

11 "View at Anticoli-Corrado, Italy."

Ceriez, Th., 89 Rue au Beurre, Ypres.

12 "Sketching a Bust—Time of Louis XV."

Clarys, A., Brussels.

13 "Lions Fighting."
13a "Races."
Cluysenaar, A., 61 Rue de la Source, Brussels.
14 "Le Petit Gate-Sauce."

Cogen, Felix, 192 Avenue d'Auderghem, Brussels.
15 "Fisherwoman."
16 "Fishermen Returning from Shrimp-fishing."

Collard, Mdlle. M., 3 Rue de Facqz, Brussels.
17 "After the Rain."

Coosemans, J. Th., 77 Rue Dupont, Brussels.
18 "Entrance of Wolf's Glen, Forest of Fontaine-bleau."

Courtens, Frans, 247 Chaussée d'Alsembergh, Brussels.
19 "Am Morning."

De Biseau, A., 34 Avenue d'Auderghem, Brussels.
20 "Winter, near Dinant."
20a "Old Mill on the Bièvre."

De Block, Eugr., 222 Chaussée de Haecht, Brussels.
21 "The Fisherman's Bride."

De La Hoese, Jean, 46 Boulevard du Jardin Botanique, Brussels.
22 "The Broken Chair."

24 "Extra Post Horses in Snowy Weather."

25 "Dordrecht on the Meuse."
26 "Tamise on the Scheldt."

De Vigne, Mdme. Emma, 111 Rue Charles Quint, Ghent.
27 "Peonies and Lilas."

Farasyn, E., 45 Rue de la Province, Nord, Antwerp.
28 "Naughty Pussy."

Francia, A., Rue du Berceau, Brussels.
29 "On the Beach, Scheveningen, Holland."
30 "Loch Katrine, in Scotland."
31 "Flemish Fishermen."

Gabriel, P. C. J., 331 Rue Rosier, Brussels.
32 "Landscape."

Gerard, Theodore, 40 Rue Gallait, Brussels.
33 "Hounds Feeding after Hunting."

Glibert, A., 118 Quai Mariemont, Brussels.
34 "Cabaret, under the Directory."

Herbo, Leon, 277 Rue Rogier, Brussels.
35 "A Brunette."
36 "A Marriage."

Heyermans, T., 40 Rue van Schoenbeke, Antwerp.
37 "A Village Shop in Flanders."

38 "Sunrise."

Hirth, du Fresnes, Nieuport.
39 "The Market-place at Nieuport."

Impens, Josse, 15 Rue Hermans, Brussels.
40 "The Artist."

Jacobs, A. R., Brussels.
41 "Little Greedy One."

Keelhoff, F., 1 Chaussde d'Ixelles, Brussels.
42 "The Water Mill."
43 "View of the Environs of Tongres."

Kuhnen, V., Chateau d'Habarn, near Neufchateau.
44 "Oven in Brittany" (France).
44a "Italian Girl."
45 "The 'Steen,' in Antwerp."
45a "Young Lady."

Markelbach, 129 Chaussde do Haecht, Brussels.
46 "Cromwell at Lady Claypole's."

Mellery, X., 29 Rue de la Charité, Brussels.
47 "Cornelia, Mother of the Gracchi."
48 "Woman in the Campagna of Rome."

Mols, Robert, 100 Rue van Schoenbeke, Antwerp.
Musin, A., 114 Rue de la Limite, Brussels.
50 "The Tower of London."

Musin, Francois, 114 Rue do la Limite, Brussels.
51 "The Quay at Ostend."

Oyens, D., 81 Ruo Traversiére, Brussels.
52 "Business before Pleasure."

Oyens, P., 81 Rue Traverstére, Brussels.
53 "The Studio."

Portaels, T., 25 Rue de Loxum, Brussels.
54 "Thou Shalt Not Kill."
55 "Spring."
55a "Mignon."
56 "Souvenir of Morocco."

Rayemaekers, T., 1 Chaussée d'lxelles, Brussels.
57 "Deer Shooting."
58 "Bog Shooting."

Ringel, Fritz, 276 Rue Rogier, Brussels.
59 "Oriental Sentry."

60 "Flowers."
61 "Fruits."

Robbe, L., 22 Rue Joseph II., Brussels.
62 "A Meadow in Flanders."

Roffiaen, Francois, 16 Rue Godecharles, Brussels.
63 "Morning on the Lake of Brienz, Switzerland."

Rosseels, T., Termonde.
64 "Midday on the Scheldt."

Sacre, Emile, 42 Rue des Drapiers, Brussels.
65 "Summer."

Serrure, A., 224 Rue des Coteaux, Brussels.
66 "Homesick."

Slingenyer, E., 93 Ruo du Commerce, Brussels.
67 "The Tambourine."

**Soubre, C., 14 Rue d'Auguste, Liège.**
68 "The Notched Sword."

**Stallaert, Joseph, 20 Rue des Chevaliers, Brussels.**
69 "A Young Girl at Albano."
70 "Young Italian."

**Stevens, A., 16 Rue des Drapiers, Brussels.**
71 "Reverie."

**Stevens, J., Brussels.**
72 "Persecution."

**Stroobant, T., 20 Rue van Aa, Brussels.**
73 "View at Delft."

**Seeldrayers, E., 45 Rue d'Allemagne, Brussels.**
74 "Monks Begging in Antwerp."

**Tschaggeny, Charles, 1 Rue de l'Abondanee, Brussels.**
75 "Under Fire."

**Van Der Bussche, E., 247 Rue Rogier, Brussels.**
76 "The War in Montenegro." (Van Lil, Joseph.)

**Van Der Meulen. Edm.. Rue de la Buanderie, Brussels.**
77 "Dogs in Kennel."

**Van Leemputten, Frans, a Jette-lez-Brussels.**
78 "Breakfast."

**Van Seben, 9 Rue van Aa, Brussels.**
79 "Children's Winter Games."
80 "Winter."

**Van Severdonck, Joseph, 26 Rue du Progres, Brussels.**
81-2 "The Swell Sleigh."

**Verhas, Jan, 21 Rue Seutin, Brussels.**
83 "Martha's Pigeons."
84 "In the Corner."

**Verheyden, L., Croenendal, near Brussels.**
85 "Heath, near Waesmunster."
Verheyden. J. J., 142 Chaussée d'Ixelles.
86 "A Maid Servant."

Verhoeven-Ball, 66 Avenue Moretus, Antwerp.
87 "The Christmas Pudding."
88 "Flower Girl of the Park."

Verwee, Ch. L., 31 Rue du Moulin. Brussels.
89 "The Beguinage at Bruges."

Verwee, A., 258 Rue Rogier, Brussels.
90 "Cows at Pasture."

Wilson, G., 73 Rue Capoul, St. Gilles-lez Brussels.
91 "The Organ Player."

CLASS II.—Various Paintings & Drawings.

De Biseau, A., 34 Avenue d'Auderghem, Brussels.
92 Two etchings in aquafortis.
93 Two etchings in aquafortis.

Gasparoli, Mdlle. Maria, 153 Rue du Trone, Ixelles, Brussels.
94 Hand-paintings on porcelain.

Gunther, Mdlle. Louise, 17 Rue Thére-sienne, Brussels.
95 Hand-paintings on porcelain.

Maltby, Mdlle. Eva, Rue des Petite Cannes, Brussels.
96 Hand-paintings on porcelain.

Maltby, Mdlle. Gertrude, Rue des Petite Carmes, Brussels.
97 Hand-paintings on porcelain.

Michel, Mdlle. C.,19 Rue Navez, Brussels.
98 "In a Forest" (in chalk).

Robinson, J., 77 Rue Bcrckmans, St. Gilles, Brussels.
99 Hand-paintings on porcelain.

Rochard, Mdme. Henriette, 127 Rue Malibran, Brussels.
100 Hand-paintings on porcelain.

Tourteau, E., 16 Rue Tasson, Snel, Brussels.
101 Hand-paintings on porcelain.
102 Hand-paintings on porcelain.

Van Immerseel, Mdlle. E., 53 Rue des Palais, Schaerbeck, Brussels.
103 Hand-paintings on porcelain.

CLASS III.—Sculpture & Die-Sinking.

Brunin, Charles, 31 Avenue du Pare, Moris.—Groups in marble:—
104 "Napolitani."
105 "La Milanaise."
106 "Ciocciara."

Cattier. Armand, 222 Chaussée de Vlleur-gat, Brussels.—Groups in bronze:—
107 "Italian Girl at a Fountain."
108 "Young Spartan."

Comein, P., 47 Rue van Dyck, Brussels.
109 Five groups in terra-cotta.

Laborne, Ed., 1 Rue Previnaire, Brussels.
110 "Resentment" (terra-cotta, broken).

Laumans. J., Laeken, near Brussels.
111 "Teaching the Dog" (bronze).

112 "Innocents' Day" (terra-cotta).

Wiener, C., 29 Rue de Spa, Brussels.
113 "Mutual Love" (group in terra-cotta).

CLASS V.—Engravings & Lithographs.

Danse, A., Engraver, Mons.
114 An engraving—"La Folie de Hugues van der Goes," by Wautere.

France.

I. Works of Art.
National Exhibits.

National Manufactory of Beauvais.

1 Screens of tapestry work, from the models of M. Chabal-Dussurgey, assisted by the following artists:—MM. Alexandre Mahu, Cantrel, Duca-tel, Lefevre, Jules Leveque, Charles Leveque, Senau.

National Manufactory of Gobelins.

2 "The Earth." Tapestry manufactured in 1877, according to the model of Charles Le Brun (XVII. century), by the following artists: for the figures—MM. Ernest Flament, Edouard Flament, Charles Durand, Prudhomme, Rousseau, Boiton, Sollier; for the embroidery—MM. Sollier, Rousseau, Maloirel, Duruy, Vernet, Desroy, Munier, Marie, de Brancas. This tapestry is intended to be placed in the new Hotel de Ville, Paris.

National Manufactory of Sevres.

3 One vase. Etruscan shape, painted and decorated by M. de Courey.
4 Flower stand, blue.
5 Clodion vases, painted by M. Paldisseroni.
6 Rivoli cup, painted and decorated by M. Dammouse in pâte appliquée.
7 Salamine vase, designed by Mrs. Escallier, executed by the above-mentioned process by M. Celos.
8 Vase Potiche, similarly executed by M. Caban.
9-10 Rimini vases.

Class 1.—Oil Paintings.

Allonge, A., 83 Rue Notre Dame des Champs, Pans.

1 "A Road."

Aviat, J., 77 Rue d'Amsterdam, Paris.

2 "Néere."


3 "Jeannot Looking for the Kitchen."
4 "Pottery Mender."


5 "Haïdée."


6 "The Child and the Grapes."
7 "Soup."


8 "Cows in a Meadow at Villerville."

Barillot, L., 16 Rue de la Tour d'Auvergne, Paris.

9 "The Fords at Las-Landies."

10 "Bowl Players."

11 "Plotting among the Courtesans." Marina Stella sells to the Ten the secret of the conspirators.
12 "The Pearl Fairy."

Bayard, E., 73 Rue Notre Dame des Champs, Paris.
13 "Going to the Meat Market, Siege of Paris."

14 "The Temptation of St. Antony."

Beauverie, C. J., 14 his Rue Durantin, Paris.
15 "On the Banks of the River Oise."
16 "The Lane of Cordeville."

Bellee, Leon Le G.. De Franc Port, Compiegne, Oise.
17 "The Sinope, Lower Normandy."

Benner, E., 23 Rue de la Chaussée d'Antin, Paris.
18 "The Water-Melon Seller."
19 "Lacustre Woman and her Child."

20 "Luisella."

Berne-Bell ecour, Etienne Prosper, 4 Rue Legendre, Paris.
21 "Noonday Sleep."

22 "Interior of a Cottage in Auvergne."

Berton, P. E., 33 Rue Mosnier.
23 "Alley in the Forest of Fontainebleau."
23a "Pond at Sainte Claire, Sologne."

Bertrand. G., 38 Avenue Villeneuve l'Etang, Versailles, Seine et Oise.
24 "Roses."

25 "The Last Resting-place of Coco."
26 "The Bride's Jewels, Algeria."

27 "Stormy Weather."
28 "Farmyard in Brie."

Bouquet, M., 56 Rue de la Rochefoucauld, Paris.
29 "Marshes in Brittany."
30 "A Creek in Brittany."

Brest, F., 52 Rue de Douai, Paris.
31 "The Midday Prayer in the Grand Mosque of Trebizond."
32 "A View of Kief from the Road of Kerrassonde to Massia."

33 "Sea Piece."

34 "Presents from the Farm."

Calamatta, Josephine, 24 Rue Vintimille, Paris.
35 "Night."

Calves, G., 44 Rue de la Tour d'Auvergne, Paris.
36 "In the Woods."
37 "Mother and Child."

Caraud, J., 9 Rue Bochard de Saron, Paris.
38 "Breakfast."
39 "Two Friends."

Chaillou, N., Plessis Belleville, Oise.
40 "An Alarm."

Champeaux, O. de, 23 Rue des Martyrs, Paris.
41 "Low Tide," Normandy.
42 "The Banks of the Arroux," Saone et Loire.

Charnay, A., Marlotte, Seine et Marne.
43 "Theatricals on the Sands of Yport."

44 "The Beach at Veules."

45 "Moonlight at Yport."

Collin, P., 10 Rue do la Paix, Paris.
46 A View of Jersey—"The Fisherman's Cottage."
47 "Noble Venetian Lady of the XVI. Century."
47a Head study—"Rosine."

48 "Jezebel Devoured by Dogs."

49 "Good Night."
50 "Curiosity."

51 "Dante."

Cormon, F., 38 Rue Rochechouart, Paris.
52 "A Parrot."

Damoye, P. E., 19 Rue d'Orsel, Paris.

Decan, E., 60 Rue de Clichy, Paris.
53 "A Country Wedding in Normandy."

Defaux, A., 5 Rue Martin, Paris.
54 "In the Snow."
54a "The Farmyard."

Delobbe, F. A., 100 Rue d'Assas, Paris.
55 "The Return from the Fields."

Desbrosses, J., 47 Rue de Seine, Paris.
56 "Interior of a Country House."
57 "The Harvesters at Rest."

Desgoffe, B., 80 Rue d'Assas, Paris.
57a "Objects of Art."

58 "A Young Girl Carrying a Cat."

59 "The Widow's Mite."
59a "Head Study."

Dubufe, P., Rue d'Aumale, Paris.
60 "Avenue of Trees, in Normandy."
61 "On the Banks of the Siagne, near Cannes."
62 "Loulette."
63 "Croquette."

Ferry, J-, 5 Place Pigalle, Paris.
64 "A Poacher."

Foulongne, C-A., 82 Rue du Bac, Paris.
65 "Reapers (Women)."

Flameng, Mane Auguste, 10 Place Males-herbes, Paris.
66 "Low Tide at Yport."
67 "Oyster Beds, Cancale."

68 "La Place du Plebiscite at Genzano, Italy."
69 "Le Lac de Némi, Italy."

70 "The Desert."
71 "Richard Saves a Nymph from Ariosto."

Gautier, A., 11 Rue de Bellefond, Paris.
72 "The Refectory."
73 "The Skate."

Genty, E., 26 Rue Poncelet, Paris.
74 "Giving Alms to the Troubadour."

75 "Convalescence."
76 "The Consequence of a Game of Cards."

77 "The Music Lesson."

78 "A Landscape."

Gonse, R., Trippleval, near Bonnières, Seine. A. Oise.
79 "Autumn Flowers."

Grandjean, E. G., 13 Rue des Sablons, Passy.
80 "The Meeting."
81 "In the Avenue of the Acacias."

82 "Women Knitting."

Gudin, T., Pare des Princes, Boulogne.
83 "The Last Gunshot of Admiral De Ruyter."
84 "The Setting Sun."

85 "Rêverie."

Guignard, G., 7 Rue Cauchois, Paris.
86 "Amongst the Snow, in Brittany."

87 "John Brown and his Accomplices."

Hay on, L., 38 Avenue Wagram, Paris.
88 "Bathers at Villerville."

Hedouin, E., 58 Rue de PUnivereié, Paris.
89 "The Pig Market."

90 "A Poitevin Landscape."
91 "The Allan at Montbeliard, Doubs."

92 "Salt Marshes at Poulignen, Brittany."

93 "Murder of Julien de Medicis in the Church of Santa Reparata, at the time of the Pazzi Conspiracy."

94 "Spring."

95 "Léda."

96 "The Faithful Guardian."

97 "Fellah Woman."
98 The Angel of Sorrow."

99 "Ephraim's Wife."
100 "The House."
101 "Vintage."

Lassalle, L. S., Ecouen, Seine et Oise.
102 "Red Riding Hood."

La Villette, Elodie. Fort de Bicetre, near Paris.
103 "Rising Tide at Yport."

104 "For so Little."

Lebel, E., 35 Rue Capron-Forest, Paris.
105 "A Cardinal Leaving the Church of Santa Maria della Pacé at Rome."

Lefebvre, J. J., 5 Rue dc la Bruyere, Paris.
106 "Chloé."

Lejeune, E., 14 Rue Boissonnade, Paris.
107 "French Leave."

108 "A Sabotmaker and his Family."

109 "Young Girls at the Fountain."
110 "Inside of a Kitchen."

111 "The Dancing Lesson."
112 "Fortune Telling."

113 "Playing."
114 "The Bather."

115 "Horses Loose."
116 "Full Speed."

Lesrel, A., 9 Rue Chaptal (chez M. Goupil), Paris.
117 "Soldiers of the time of Louis XIII."

118 "The First Lilacs."
119 "Child Riding a Dog."

Lobrichon, T., 64 Rue de la Victoire, Paris.
Maignan, A., Rue de la Bruyère, Paris.
122 "L'Attentat d'Anagni."

123 "Wall-Fruit."
124 "Washerwomen at Vignely."

Melingue, L., 19 Rue de Laval, Paris.
125 "The 24th of August, 1872."

126 "The Rhone on the 12th December, 1879."
126a "A Field of Corn."

127 "Hymn to the Creator."

128 "A Cricket."
129 "The Startled Bathers."

130 "Bad Players."
131 "Tea."

132 "On the Borders of the Forest."
132a "Gorges at Gapèau, Provence."

Moreau de Tours.. G., 28 Rue Mazarine, Paris.
133 "Meditation."
134 "Octavius Augustus at the Tomb of Alexander."

135 "Puss in Boots."

Nicolle, E. F., 36 Rue St. Nicaise, Rouen.
136 "Abandoned Hut, Normandy."

137 "A Game at Ninepins in Alsace."

137a "Minaret at Esneh, Egyp"
138 "The Convalescent on her Birthday."
139 "The Last Attempt."

Potemont, M., 60 Rue St. Georges, Paris.
140 "A Landscape in Auvergne."

Pradelles, H., 25 Rue de Cheverus, Gironde, Bordeaux.
141 "Twilight in the Landes at Ychoux."
141a "Track through the Wood."

Ranvier, J. V., 3 Rue Carnot, Paris.
142 "A Dryad."

Regamey,—, 9 Passage de la Visitation, Paris.
143 "Fox Hunting."

144 "An Odalisque."

Roslin, Emma (nee Blanche), 14 Rue du Chab-rol, Paris.
145 "Pepina."
146 "Indiscretion."

Roufflo, P., 26 Rue Poncelet, Paris.
147 "An Odalisque."

148 "Special Representation."
149 "A Victim."

Saintin, J. E., 56 Rue du Rocher, Paris.
150 "Indecision."
151 "Parisian Washerwoman."

152 "The Song of the Oleander."

153 "A Good Kiss."
154 "Just like Grandmamma."

Sebillot, P., 4 Rue de l'Odeon, Paris.
155 "Rocks at Low Tide."

Sergent, L., 55 Avenue des Ternes, Paris.
Serres, A., St. Gratien, Seine et Oise.
156 "Under Fire."
157 "The Renouncement."

158 "Chaos, Forest of Fontainebleau."

159 "Rebecca at the Fountain."

160 "Lot's Wife Changed into a Pillar of Salt."

Trouville, H., Barbison, Seine et Marne.
161 "Landscape in the Forest of Fontainebleau."

162 "A Basket of Pansies."
163 "Shepherds' Dogs Bathing."

164 "Herzegovinian Woman Spinning."
165 "A Young Gipsy Girl."

166-7 "The Last Sheaf."

168 "Sweet Idleness."
169 "At Bellerive, Lake of Geneva."

170 "A Market in Picardy."

171 "The Quai de Sevres, near Paris."

172 "La Colette, Island of Jersey."
173 "L'Ospedaletto."

174 "The Dress of a Musketeer."

Zuber, J. H., 89 Rue de Vaugirard, Paris.
175 "On the Banks of the Ill, in Alsace."
Class 2.—Various Paintings and Drawings.

176 "Solitude" (chalk).

Baron, S., 68 Rue d'Assas, Paris.
177 "A Presentation" (time of Louis XIV.).

Chevalier, Claire, 42 Rue Bonaparte, Paris.
178 Paintings on china, earthenware, and enamel.

179 "On the Banks of the Cousin, near Avallon."
180 "The Wolf's Den, in the Forest of Fontainebleau."

181 "Souvenir de San Germano " (Italie).

182 "A Good Blaze."

183 "Woman with a Dog" (coloured chalk).

Lalanne, M., 5 Boulevard Montmartre, Paris.
184 "A Park near Paris."
185 "View of Bordeaux" (crayon).

Lebel, E., 31 Rue Capron-Forest, Paris.
186 "An Italian Butcher."

Miriel, G. E. A., 15 Rue du Chateau, Brest.
187 "Winter in the Woods of Brittany."
188 "Summer in the Woods of Brittany."

Sain tin, J. E., 56 Rue du Rocher, Paris.
189 "Mamma's Breakfast."

190 "Fountain at Chaville."

Class 3.—Sculpture and Die-sinking.

191 Marble bust—"A Fashionable Lady."
Barrias, L. E., 40 Rue Fortuny, Paris.
   192 "The Child and the Basin."

   193 Bronze—"Genius in the Claws of Want."

   194 Bronze—"Young Girl at the Bath."
   195 Marble bust—"Spring."

   196 Bronze—"The Adulterous Woman."
   197 Bronze—"Cricket."

Chevalier, H., 5 Rue Largillière, Paris.
   198 Marble—"A Young Mother."

Delaplanche, E., 68 Rue d'Assas, Paris.
   199 Bronzo—"Child Riding a Turtle."

   200 Bronze—"The Education of Bacchus."

Gautherin, J., 84 Rue d'Assas, Paris.
   201 Marble bust—"Welcome to Spring."

   202 "L'Amour aux Pantins."
   203 "Jean qui Pleure, Jean qui Rit" (sunshine and cloud).

   204 Marble statue—"André Chenier's Muse."
   205 Marble statue—"Rebecca."

Martin, F., 30 Rue de Villiers, Paris.
   206 Bronze—"A Black Man Strangled by a Dog."
   207 Bronze—"Louis XI. Prisoner at Peronne."

   208 Bronze—"Flute-player."

   209 Marble statue—"A Virgin."

Sanzel, F., 16 Rue de Chalons, Paris.
   210 Bronze—"The Little Bacchus."
211 Marble statue—"Soap Bubbles."

**Vasselot, A. M. de, Rue Talma, Paris.**

212 Marble bust—"Hébé."

**Vaureal, H. de, 51 Avenue Montaigne, Paris.**

213 Bronze statue—"The Little Gleaner."

**Class 5.—Engravings and Lithographs.**

**Barbant, C., 57 Rue du Cherche Midi, Paris.**

214 "The Tears continued to Flow" (Ariosto), wood engraving, after Gustave Doré.
214a Seven wood engravings.

**Bertinot, G. H., 9 (chez M. Goupil) Rue Chaptal, Paris.**

215 "The Virgin, Jesus Christ, and St John," after Bouguereau.

**Brunet-Debaisne, A., 9 Rue Chaptal, Paris (chez M. Goupil).**

216 "The Valley of the Farni," after Constable.
217 "Church of Santa Maria, Venice," after Canaletti.
218 Three engravings.

**Champollion, E. A., 50 Boulevard St. Michel, Paris.**

219 "Arabs Playing with a Vulture," after Fortuny.
220 "Choosing a Model."

**Courtry, C. L., 114 Boulevard Montparnasse, Paris.**

221 "Bathing," after Jêrome.
222 "The Death of Marceau," after Jean Paul Laurens.

**Deblois. C. A, 9 Rue Chaptal, Paris (chez M. Goupil).**

223 "Shooting."
224 "Fishing," after Rudaux.

**Didier, A., 114 Boulevard Montparnasse, Paris.**


**Flameng, L., 125 Boulevard Montparnasse, Paris.**

226 A frame containing three engravings.

**Girardet, P., 9 Rue Chaptal, Paris (chez MM. Goupil et Cie.).**

227 "Fifty Years of Age."
228 "The Last Victim of the Terror."
229 "Cows Drinking."
230 "Sheep Grazing."
231 "The Prodigal Son."

**Girardet, E.. 9 Rue Chaptal, Paris (chez MM. Goupil et Cie.).**
233 "A Spanish Wedding," after Fortuny.

Hedouin, E., 58 Rue de l'Université, Paris.
235 "Portrait of a Woman," after Chaplin.
236 "A Sporting Luncheon," after Carl Van Loo.

Herkommer,—, 9 Rue Chaptal (chez MM. Goupil et Cie.), Paris.
237 "Alfred Tennyson."
237a "Wagner."

Hildibrand, H. T., 10 Rue de Buci, Paris.
238 A frame containing seven wood engravings.

Huot. A. J., 9 Rue Chaptal, Paris (chez MM. Goupil et Cie.).
239 "The Virgin of Liberation," after Hebert.

Jacquemart. J. P., 9 Rue Chaptal, Paris (chez MM. Goupil et Cie.).
240 "La Joconde," after Leonard do Vinci.

Jouanin, A. A., 9 Rue Chaptal, Paris (chez MM. Goupil et Cie.).
241 "A Panic," after Coomans.

Laguillermie, A. F., 81 Boulevard Montparnasse, Paris.
243 "Gulliver in the Island of Lilliput."

Lalanne, M-, 5 Boulevard Montparnasse, Paris.
244 Two frames containing 22 aquaforte engravings.

245 "Croquemitaine's Luggage," after Lobrichon.
246 "Christmas Box," after Lobriehon.

247 Views of Paris.
248 "A Parisian in 1795."

Prevost. Z., 9 Rue Chaptal, Paris (chez M. Goupil).
249 "The Wedding of Cana."
250 "Jesus at the House of Simon the Pharisee."

251 "Head of St. John the Baptist," after Henner.
252 "Victor Hugo."
Varin, E. & A, 9 Rue Chaptal, Paris (chez MM. Goupil et Cie.).

Waltner, C. A., 9 Rue Chaptal, Paris (chez MM. Goupil et Cie.).
   254 "The Infante Marguerite," after Velasquez.

Willenich, M., 6 Rue do Copenhague, Paris.
   255 View of Liverpool Anchorage (aquaforte).

Germany.

I. Works of Art.

Class 1.—Oil Paintings.

Amberg, Prof., Berlin.
   1 "Awaiting Decision."
   2 "Sour Grapes."

   3 "Help is Near."

   4 "Village near Munich."

Baumgarten, P., 1 Georgen-st., Munich.
   5 "Good Business."

Beck, T. von der, Dusseldorf.
   6 "The Friends."
   7 "Peasant Child."

Becker, A., Dusseldorf.
   8 "Bartholomew Lake, in the Bavarian Mountains."

Beckmann, W., Dusseldorf.
   9 "The Departure," after Freitag's "Ancestors."

Begas, O., Berlin.
   10 "Love Longing."

Blanc, L., Dusseldorf.
   11 "Best after the Bath."
12 "Art brings Favour."

Braun, L., 64 Schwanthaler-st., Munich.
13 "Upper Bavarian Cart."

Brendel, A., Weimar.
14 "Cows Grazing."

Cramer, A. von, Dusseldorf.
15 "Watched."

Dehn, G., 36 Theresien-st., Munich.
16 "Verona."

Douzette, L., 31 Lutzower, Ufer, Berlin.
17 "Venice—Moonshine."

18 Sea piece.

19 "Freshwater Bay, Isle of Wight—Sunrise"

Fahrbach, C. L., Dusseldorf.
20 "Moonrise."

Friedrichsen, Ernestine, Dusseldorf.
21 "On the Isle of Capri."

Grafle, A, 38 Karl-st., Munich.
22 "In the Lovely Month of May."

23 An oil painting.

Guterbock, L., Berlin.
24 "Krasmus of Rotterdam."

Haeselich, G., Hamburg.
25 "Holstein Landscape."

Hartmann, E., Dusseldorf.
26 "Love Suit, in Suabia."
Hellrath, E., 44 Landwehr-st., Munich.
  27 "Cloister Pond."

Hertel, A., Berlin.
  28 "Windmill, near Amsterdam."

Heyden, C., Dusseldorff.
  29 "Study."

Hoff, K., 27 Schwanthaler-st, Munich.
  30 "Moonlight Night in the Lagoons of Venice."

Horst-Hacker,—, Munich.
  31 "Lake of Lucerne, near Brunnen, Switzerland."

Hubner, C., Dusseldorff.
  32 "Expectation."

  33 "Dismasted Dutchman in the North Sea."
  34 "In Tow, at the Needles, Isle of Wight."
  35 "Fastnet Rock Lighthouse, on the Irish Coast."

Jacob, J., Berlin.
  36 "Landscape."
  37 "German Lake."

Jacoby, K., 6A Pariser-platz, Berlin.
  38 "Still Life."

Jutz, K., Dusseldorff.
  39 "Animals."

  40 "Rhone Glaciers."

Koerner, E., 5 Kronprinzen, Ufer, Berlin.
  41 "Under Palms."

Knackfus, H., Dusseldorff.
  42 "Firstfruits."

Kronberger, C., 29 Schiller-st., Munich.
  43 "The Aunt on a Visit."

Lasch, Carl, 29 Schiller-st, Munich.
45 "Black Forest Mayor."

Lindenschmit, W., 29 Schiller-st., Munich.
46 "Venus and Adonis."

Linnig, W., jun., Weimar.
47 "At the Fortune-teller's."

Linnig, W., sen., Weimar.
48 "After School."

Ludwig, Miss A., Dusseldorf.
49 "A Good Friend."

Ludwig, K., Stuttgart
50 "Midday Rest of a Herd of Cows in the Woods."

Lutteroth, A., Uhlenhorst, Hamburg.
51 "Italian Landscape."

Mali, C., 46 Landwehr-st., Munich.
52 "Return from Pasturage," Tyrol scenery.

Mayer-Wismar, F., 1 and 2 Georgen-st, Munich.
53 "Singing Woodworkers in the Bavarian Mountains."

Marc. W., 18 Schiller-st., Munich.
54 "The Music Lesson."

Meyerheim. F., Berlin.
55 "Rainy Day in Meran."
56 "Seamstress."

57 "Grandmother and Grandchild."
58 "Friendship Endangered."
59 "A Landscape."

Meyer, Miss Sophie, Dusseldorf.
60 "Study."

Michael, M., 75 Lutzow-st., Berlin.
61 "Parent's Pleasure."
62 "A Commander."
63 "A Politician."

Normann. A., Dusseldorf.
64 "Motive from Sogne Fjord."
65 "Norwegian Fjord."

66 "Ploughing Oxen."

Oehme, E., Residenz-st., Blaswitz, near Dresden.
67 "Winter."
68 "In Church."

Oemichen, H., Dusseldorf.
69 "Decorating the Church before the Wedding."

Perbandt, Miss L. von, Dusseldorf.
70 "German Landscape."

Poschinger, R. von, 10 Rollmann-st., Munich.
71 "Evening."

Porthmann, K., Dusseldorf.
72 "All Beginning is Difficult."

Rettich, K., Weimar.
73 "Pheasant Preserve, in Spring."

Rogge, W., 29 Augusten-st., Munich.
74 "The Mother's Return Home."

Roux, K., 38 Karl-st., Munich.
75 "Animals."

Ruths,—, 23a Uhlenhorstfahr Strasse, Hamburg.
76 "North German Spring Landscape."

Ruths, V., Hamburg.
77 "The Morteratsch Glacier in Engadine Valley, Switzerland."

Schanche, H. G., Dusseldorf.
78 "On the Norwegian Coast—Moonshine."

81 "Prince Bismarck," by A. v. Werner.

Schonfeld, E., Dusseldorf.
82 "On the Lake of Lucerne, near Meggen."

Schrader, J., Berlin.
83 "Return Home."

Schulz-Briesen, E., Dusseldorf.
84 "Rendezvous."

Schultz, Q., Dusseldorf.
85 "Still Life."
86 "Fruits."

Schuz, T., Dusseldorf.
87 "Sunday Afternoon on the Grafenberg, near Dusseldorf."

Seitz, O., 67 Schelling-st, Munich.
88 "Amor."

Seyppel, C. M., Dusseldorf.
89 "Using Scissors."
90 "Using Scissors"—a counterpiece.

Starkenborgh, J. N. T. van, Dusseldorf.
91 "Morning Landscape in Thuringia."

Steflfeck, c., 17 Hollmann-st., Berlin.
92 "Stable Friends."

Strecker, C. M., 65 Theresien-st., Munich.
93 "Autumnal Storm."

Sturzkopf, F., Weimar.
94 "In the Kitchen."

Thiele, A., Blaservitz.
95 "Harps."

Vecchio, P. del, Leipzig.
96 "Winter Landscape." G. Koken, Hanover.
97 "Landscape." G. Koken, Hanover.
99 "Quite among Ourselves." Gaisser, Munich.
100 "Marienkerk." A. Achenbach, Dusseldorf.
Wagner, K., Dusseldorf.

Wilberg,—, 79 Kaiserin Augusta Strasse, Berlin.

Willroider, L., Munich.

Class 2.—Various Paintings and Drawings.

Bouche, K. de, Munich.

Bruggemann, H., Berlin.

Carstens, P. G., Altona.

Ens & Greiner, Laustra.

Hildebrandt, C. L., Hamburg.

Jaeger, F., Munich.

Mayer's Artistic Establishment for Ecclesiastical Work, Munich.

Neider, Ottilia, Munich.

Thallmaier, F. X., Munich.

Till, F., Dresden.

Turcke, K. L., Zittau.
116 Paintings on glass—Gothic church window, with rosette.
117 German window, heraldic shields.

Zettler, F. X., Munich.
118 Painting on glass—religious subject.

Class 3.—Sculpture and Die-sinking.

Begas, C., Berlin.
119 Marble busts.

Hartzer, F., Berlin.
120 Marble statue.

Kieffer Brothers, Trier.
121 Terra-cotta statues of religious character.

Mayer's Artistic Establishment for Ecclesiastical Arts, Munich.

Rietzler, F. X., Munich.
123 Statues of religious subjects.

Schulz, M., Berlin.
124 Marble bust.
Laschky.
Lane.
Lehmann.
Otto, R.
Schneider, R.
Spangenberg.
Voigt, K.
124a Joint Exhibition of Berlin Engravers.—Engravings in metal, precious stones, ivory, &c.; enamel paintings, medals, &c.

Class 4.—Architectural Drawings and Models.

Gilbers, G., Dresden.
125 Architectural works.

Class 5.—Engravings and Lithographs.

Forndran, W., Munich.
126 Chromo-lithographs—religious and other subjects.

Frankel, F., Nuremberg.
127 Steel engraving, after Van Dyk.
ART in Great Britain has no ancient history. At the period when the noble Italian school was astonishing the world with the sublime productions of Michel Angelo, Raffaelle, Cagliari, Tintoret, Leonardo da Vinci, and a host of other painters of brilliant genius and astonishing fertility of invention, Britain—with the exception, perhaps, of the Scottish portrait-painter, Jamesone—had absolutely no native-born artist whose works are worthy of being remembered.

In Holland and Germany it was otherwise. Memling and Matsys, and later, Rubens and Vandyke, had made the Flemish school famous. And Germany can boast of the honoured names of Durer, of Lucas Cranack, and Hans Holbein (whose principal works were painted in England in the reign of Henry VIII.).

The first great British artist appeared at the close of the seventeenth century, and William Hogarth commenced the production of those remarkable works, which not only laid the foundations of the British school, but had a powerful and lasting influence on the modern art of Europe. Few men had the creative faculty more strongly developed than this great and original genius; and although his works were wanting in the singular grace of Reynolds, and, in a large measure, in the line sense of colour displayed in the portraits and landscapes of Gainsborough, yet, with all their coarseness, there are in them dramatic force and intensity which neither Reynolds nor Gainsborough could emulate. The style of Hogarth was entirely his own. He owed little or
nothing to schools which all the world had been imitating for years. He took nature for his model, and bringing
into play his keen sense of humour, dramatic instinct, and wonderful knowledge of human nature, he produced
those extraordinary historical works which will ever retain a high and honourable position in the history of art.
Morland and Crome, Sir T. Lawrence and Raeburn, may be mentioned amongst the many distinguished artists
who immediately succeeded the great English master. Sir David Wilkie appeared later, and the production of
his admirable series of scenes illustrative of domestic life gave a powerful impetus to the development of
British art. With all the power and none of the coarseness of Hogarth's, Wilkie's paintings are full of rare
humour, admirable in drawing, and in beauty and truth of colour they have rarely been surpassed. With Wilkie
may be classed the brilliant painters Etty and William Muller, and the charming genre artist Mulready, notable
for his fastidious correctness of drawing and his fine sense of colour.

In landscape painting the British school has attained the highest eminence, and has produced in this branch
of pictorial art a grand array of very noble and beautiful works. It has been said that were landscape painting
represented in Great Britain solely by the works of J. M. W. Turner, it would hold its own against the
productions of all the foreign schools. It is to be regretted that in the fine collection of paintings and drawings
sent here by the President of the Royal Academy there is no example, in either oil or water-colour, of the genius
of this great painter. To Victorian art students the boon would have been priceless, as many of them may never
have the opportunity of seeing in what manner he could translate the glow and freshness of nature to his canvas.
The genius of Turner was poetic in the highest degree. He was equally successful in nature's sublime aspects
and in her beautiful. His calms express stillness and a dreamy sense of rest. His storms are invested with
grandeur and sublimity, and a feeling of space, irresistible power, and impetuous force, so that one looking at
his famous "Snow Storm" cannot help thinking that the soul of the poet-painter went out of him, mingled with
and became one with the warring elements he has depicted with so much intensity and truth. In tenderness and
in intuitive perception of what is sweet and beautiful, in painting light and air and the ever-changing forms of
the sky, no artist ever excelled Turner; and his masterly creations will always be regarded by Englishmen as
among the grandest legacies ever left by genius to the world. Although the name of Sir Edwin Landseer does
not appear in the catalogue, the British animal painters are well represented by Cooper and Ansdell—Cooper,
by the noble landscape, "Amongst the Rocks, Glencoe"—an admirable composition in his happiest manner; and
Ansdell, by four characteristic works, "The Anxious Mother," "The Evening Meal," "Partridge Shooting," and
"The Deer Family." These paintings, however, beautiful as they undoubtedly are, ill supply the want felt by the
absence of an example of Landseer's grand manner and dexterous brushwork.

Examples of the English marine school are furnished by striking works from the easels of E. W. Cooke,
R.A., James Webb, and Edwin Hayes, R.H.A. "Off Dordt," by Webb, is an exquisite example of this school; and
"Dutch Pinks returning from Sea," an equally fine specimen of the broad and masterly style and fine sense
of colour of Edwin Hayes; while the latter's grand water-colour, "A Signal of Distress in the Offing," is quite
represent the historical school. Mr. Herbert has sent one of his greatest works, the celebrated "Lear and
Cordelia," and undoubtedly the masterly grouping, the splendid and harmonious colour, and the grandeur
and dignity of the composition, stamp this work a masterpiece. C. W. Cope's "Lieutenant Cameron's Welcome Home" is a less satisfactory performance, but it displays astonishing variety of character; and in it the student may perceive how a master can, by skilful disposition of
his materials, make out of a stiff and awkward subject a painting full of human interest, and of great pictorial
value. Sir John Gilbert is represented by four fine pictures, of which "The Battle of Naseby" is the best and
most characteristic of his singular and masterly style. Gilbert's manner is peculiarly his own, and his subjects
are treated with surprising boldness and freedom of drawing. His lines are graceful and flowing, and his
compositions noble and dignified, while in archaeological knowledge he is unsurpassed by any modern painter.
Seymour Lucas's "Gordon Riots," also, may be pointed out as an excellent historical work; and Wynfield's
"Death of the Duke of Buckingham" is undoubtedly the finest example of chiaroscuro in the entire collection.

We have a number of splendid examples of the British genre school, and need only name the brilliant
productions of J. C. Horsley, R.A.—"Cupboard Love" and "The Unwilling Salute"—Mr. Dicksee's charming
"Lady Teazle" and "Mrs. Pepys," and Morgan's extraordinarily brilliant "Wards in Chancery," to show to what
degree of perfection this delightful branch of painting has been brought in England. In Colín Hunter's "Salmon
Fishers, Loch Fyne," we have a representative of the realistic art of the present Scottish school; and certainty
there is in the whole Exhibition no finer specimen of vigorous brushwork, nor any more masterly interpretation
of nature.

The Society for the Encouragement of Arts has sent a characteristic example of a bygone period of English
art in Jas. Barry's "Adam and Eve;" and the Lords of the Committee of Council on Education deserve the
gratitude of all art-students in Victoria for permitting them to study one of the noblest works of modern times,
the cartoon by Sir Frederick Leighton, A.R.A., "Industrial Art as applied to War."
The Great British water-colour school—a school peculiarly English—is well, if not adequately, represented in the British Galleries. Founded by Girtin and Cozens, Colman and Joshua Chrystall, and supported by Blake, Stothard, J. M. W. Turner, S. Prout, L. Hague, Fielding, De Wint, Cattermole, Leitch, Hine, Carl Haag, Houston, and a number of other eminent masters, the British school of water-colour painters has taken, and to all appearance will keep, the foremost place.

Necessity for condensation will not permit a critical examination of the fine collection displayed in the British Water-colour Gallery; but the masterly sea-pieces of Hayes, and the splendid landscapes of Hine, Mogford, and Alfred Hunt, may be indicated as showing to what degree of perfection that charming branch of art has been elaborated by modern British artists.

The United Kingdom.

Special Exhibits.

THE ROYAL PLATE.

Electrotype Reproductions,
Contributed by the Department of Science and Art, South Kensington Museum, London.

The objects forming part of the Regalia preserved in the Tower of London were lent, for the purpose of being reproduced, by the gracious permission of Her Majesty the Queen.

They consist for the most part of plate made at the time of the Restoration, in 1660, to replace, and in some instances to represent, earlier pieces. This seems to be the case with the Ampulla, or Anointing Cruse, the original of which is of pure gold. Its form is antique, evidently derived from an early epoch; but the actual work is of the seventeenth century. The Anointing Spoon, however, which accompanies it, made of silver richly gilt, dates from the early part of the thirteenth century. The sanctity of the anointing oil was, in early ages, deemed of great importance, and various legends were current respecting its discovery and efficacy. These superstitions afforded, no doubt, a special reason why in 1649 the Commissioners of the Parliament destroyed all that they could lay hands on, and were well content to be able to report these ancient and long-valued objects as "broken and defaced." The salt-cellar dates from the time of Queen Elizabeth, and has been called a model of the "White Tower" of London, to which, however, it has little resemblance except in being square and castellated. It was used on the King's table at the coronation of George IV.

The wine fountain, of silver gilt—a large and elaborate piece of English silversmiths' work—was presented to King Charles II. by the Corporation of Plymouth.

The other objects exhibited are from the Royal collection of plate at Windsor Castle, and were also reproduced by permission of Her Majesty the Queen.

Case No. 1.

SPOON. The bowl engraved with foliated scrolls, the shaft enriched with filigree work, and set with four pearls. The original, of silver gilt, called "The Anointing Spoon," and used in the ceremony of the coronation, forms part of the regalia in the Tower of London. English. Date, about 1200-50. '65.—75.

FLAGON, with foliated scroll-work, cherubs' heads, in repoussé or beaten work; in front, a cartouche with cyphers of William III. and Queen Mary. The original, of silver gilt, is a sacramental flagon, and forms part of the regalia in the Tower of London. English. Seventeenth century. '65.—78.

SALVER, OR ALTAR DISH. The centre embossed in high relief, with a composition representing the Supper at Emmaus, below which is a cartouche bearing the cypher of William III. and Queen Mary, the margin chased with scroll foliage and cherubs' heads. The original, of silver, forms part of the regalia in the Tower of London. English. Date, about 1690. '65—79.

CHRISTENING FONT, WITH COVER, embossed in relief with scroll foliage, natural flowers, and cherubs'
heads. The cover is surmounted with a group of figures, in the round, representing Philip baptising the eunuch. Engraved with the crowned cypher of Charles II. The original, of silver gilt, forms part of the regalia in the Tower of London. English. Date, about 1660.

'SALVER OF CHRISTENING FONT, embossed in relief with scroll foliage, natural flowers, and cherubs’ heads, and engraved with the Royal arms. The original, of silver gilt, forms part of the regalia in the Tower of London. English. Date, about 1660.

'SALT-CELLAR, on high pedestal, chased with foliage and allegorical figure subjects in circular medallions, the summit crowned by a small statuette of a warrior. The original, of silver gilt, forms part of the regalia in the Tower of London. English. Date, about 1560.

'WINE FOUNTAIN. The bowl embossed with subjects of marine deities surrounded by cartouche work, the stand or stem decorated with foliage and figures of mermaids. The upper part of the fountain forms a quadrangular pedestal, against each face of which stands a statuette in full relief surmounting a shell. The figures represent Neptune, Hercules (?), with a dolphin, and two sea nymphs. On the summit of the pedestal is placed a statuette of Cleopatra with the asp. The original, of silver gilt, forms part of the regalia in the Tower of London. English. Second half of seventeenth century.

'TANKARD, WITH COVER, embossed with a group representing the loves of the gods. The original, of silver gilt, forms part of the regalia in the Tower of London. Flemish (?). Seventeenth century.

'SALT-CELLAR. In the centre the Triumph of Ariadne in high relief, the border ornamented with trophies of musical instruments and masks on a trellis of vino leaves and grapes. The original, of silver gilt, was designed by Stothard, and executed by Rundell and Bridge for the Prince Regent, afterwards George IV. It is the property of Her Majesty the Queen, and forms part of the Royal collection of plate at Windsor Castle. English. Date, 1814.

'VESE, OR WINE-COOLER. Antique classical design, the body ornamented with figures in low relief, the border of grapes and vine leaves, with twisted vine-stock handles. The original, of silver gilt, was designed by Flaxman, and executed by Rundell and Bridge for the Prince Regent, afterwards George IV. It is the property of Her Majesty the Queen, and forms part of the Royal collection of plate at Windsor Castle. English. Date, 1812.

'VESE, OR CUP. Antique classical form, with subjects in relief emblematic of the gold and silver ages. The original, of silver, one half gilt, was designed by Flaxman for the Prince Regent, afterwards George IV. It is the property of Her Majesty the Queen, and forms part of the Royal collection of plate at Windsor Castle. English. About 1812.

'CUP. The body carved with a representation of the birth of Venus; on the cover are representations of shells, &c. The original, of ivory with silver gilt mounting and gold cover, is the property of Her Majesty the Queen, and forms part of the Royal collection of plate at Windsor Castle. The ivory carving Flemish (?), seventeenth century. The mounting English, date 1785.

'ELEPHANT. On its back are figures of an Indian god and a driver in Oriental costume. The original, of silver gilt, is the property of Her Majesty the Queen, and forms part of the Royal collection of plate at Windsor
Case No. 2.

TABLE. Covered with foliage in repoussé work, and bearing the monogram of Charles II. The original, of silver, is the property of Her Majesty the Queen, and forms part of the Royal collection of plate at Windsor Castle. English. Date, about 1670. '68.—99.

TABLE. The upper surface chased with the arms of William III. in the centre. The original, of silver, is the property of Her Majesty the Queen, and forms part of the Royal collection of plate at Windsor Castle. English. Date, about 1700. '68.—100.

FIRE DOG, on a Quadrangular base and surmounted by an urn; on one side is the monogram of Charles II., on the other has subsequently been engraved the arms of the Prince Regent, afterwards George IV. The original is the property of Her Majesty the Queen, and forms part of the Royal collection of plate at Windsor Castle. English. Date, about 1670. The base modern. '68.—102.

I. Works of Art.

British Works of Art.
(The Copyright of all the Works of Art Exhibited is Reserved by the Artists or Contributors.)

Royal Collection.

Paintings Lent to the British Royal Commission by HER MAJESTY THE QUEEN.

1 "THE QUEEN RECEIVING THE SACRAMENT" (the concluding part of the ceremony of Her Majesty's Coronation) on the 28th of June, 1838. By C. R. Leslie, R.A.

The picture represents Her Majesty in the Dalmatic Mantle (the Coronation robe), having taken off the Crown in approaching the altar, and wearing no jewels. The peers and peeresses, who had worn their coronets from the moment in which the Queen was crowned, have now put them off. The Sacrament is administered by the Archbishop of Canterbury (Dr. Howley), assisted by the Rev. Lord John Thynna in the absence of the Dean of Westminster. On the farthest side of the altar is the Lord Chamberlain (the Marquis of Conyngham) and the Bishop of London (Dr. Blomfield). The Sword of State is borne by viscount Melbourne, near whom are the Duke of Wellington and the Duke of Sutherland. The Crown is held by the Lord Great Chamberlain (Lord Willoughby d'Eresby), next to whom is the Earl Marshal (the Duke of Norfolk). Under the lower canopy are seated the ladies of the Royal Family. Nearest Her Majesty are the late Princess Augusta, attended by Lady Mary Pelham; the Princess Augusta of Cambridge, attended by the Hon. Miss Kerr; the Princess Hohenlohe and the Duchess of Kent, attended by Lady Flora Hastings and Viscount Morpeth. The other ladies and gentlemen in attendance under the canopy are the Ladies Caroline Campbell and Caroline Legge, and Viscounts Villiers and Emlyn. Immediately behind the Queen are the Mistress of the Robes (the Duchess of Sutherland) and Lady Barham, the lady in waiting. In the foreground are five of the eight young ladies who bore the Queen's train—namely, the Ladies Caroline Lennox, Adelaide Paget, Fanny Cowper, Wilhelmina Stanhope, and Mary Grimston. Beyond the Coronation chair are the Duke of Nemours and Prince George of Cambridge, and behind it are the Dukes of Sussex and Cambridge, the Duke of Coburg, Prince Ernest of Phillipsthal, and the Duke of Argyll; and two pages of honour (the Marquis of Stafford and Lord Mount Charles).

2 "THE ROYAL FAMILY IN 1857." Copied by Signor Belli from F. Winterhalter's Picture at Osborne.

3 "THE MARRIAGE OF HIS ROYAL HIGHNESS THE PRINCE OF WALES," at St. George's Chapel, Windsor
Castle, 10th March, 1863. By W. P. Frith, R.A.

Seventh Carriage in the order of the Procession:—Earl of Bessborough (Lord Steward), Viscount Sydney (Lord Chamberlain), the Duchess of Sutherland (Mistress of the Robes), General Lord Strathnairn (Gold Stick in Waiting).

Eighth Carriage in the order of the Procession:—Their Royal Highnesses the Duke of Edinburgh, the Duke of Connaught, Prince Leopold, and Prince George of Wales, and the Marquis of Ailesbury (Master of the Horse).

On Horseback:—The Lord Mayor and the Civic Authorities.

Ninth Carriage in the order of the Procession:—Her Majesty the Queen, and their Royal Highnesses the Prince and Princess of Wales, Princess Beatrice, and Prince Albert Victor of Wales.

Painting Lent by His ROYAL HIGHNESS THE PRINCE OF WALES.

5-6 "CEREMONY OF THE OPENING OF THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION IN VIENNA, 1873." By N. Chevalier.

This picture contains more than 100 portraits. On a platform, profusely decorated with plants and flowers, are seated the Emperor and Empress of Austria; the Prince of Wales, the Crown Prince and Princess of Germany, the Duke of Connaught, the Crown Prince of Denmark, the Count of Flanders, the Countess Girgenti, the Princess Amalia of Coburg, and the Duke of Coburg are also present, and a vast concourse of princes and nobility of all nations occupy the second and successive rows of seats. The Archduke Carl Ludwig is represented in the act of reading the first address.

CLASS I.-Oil Paintings.

Paintings on Canvas, on Panel, and on other Grounds.

Aikman, George, 51 York-place, Edinburgh.
7 "Cornfield, East Coast of Scotland."

8 Miss Thackeray's "Elizabeth."
9 "Spring."
10 "Sunflowers."
10a "Portrait of Herr George Henschel."

Alma-Tadema, Mrs., Townsend House, Titchfield-terrace, Regent's Park, London.
11 "ABirdcage."

12 "Evening; Girl and Dogs."
13 "The Anxious Mother; Sheep."
14 "Partridge Shooting."
15 "The Deer Family."

Archer, J., R.S.A., 7 Cromwell-place, South Kensington, London.
16 "From the Ballad of 'Sir Patrick Spens."
  18 "Pygmalion's Galatea."
  19 "The Mother of Moses."

  20 "Dolgarrog Mill, Conway Valley, North Wales."
  21 "South Cove Common, Suffolk."

Ballin, A., 1 Park Villas, Barton-road, Brentford, Middlesex.
  22 "The 'Victory' Cutting the Franco-Spanish Line at the Battle of Trafalgar (Oct. 21st, 1805)."

Barber, J. M., 26 Canterbury-road, Brixton, London.
  23 "Mowers."
  24 "Elstead Bridge, Surrey."

Barnard, Frederick, Kingston House, Steele's-road, London, N.W.
  25 "Scene from 'Barnaby Rudge.'"
  26 "Saturday Night in the East-End of London."

  27 "Nearing Home." In the Oety Thal, Tyrol.
  28 "TheTruants." Bavaria.

Bauerle, Carl, 12 Dawson-place, Bayswater, London.
  29 "Spring."
  30 "Midsummer Noon."
  31 "Daisies."

Baxter, C. (the late).
  32 "H.R.H. the Princess of Wales." Lent by A. Tooth.

Bayes, A. W., 21 Adelaide-road, London.
  33 "Friends and Foes."
  34 "Disturbed."

  35 "Interior of Strasburg Cathedral."

Beale, Miss Sophia, 3 Kent-terrace, N.W., London.
  36 "The Last Chapter."

  37 "Bedouin Caravan descending the High Ground at Wady Ghurundel, en route to Mount Sinai."
  38 "Threshing-floor at Gilgal."
Beckman, E.
39 "The Coastguard."

40 "Fair Margaret."

Bingley, J. G., Wallington, Surrey.
41 "The Miller's Belongings." Sketch near Penzance, Cornwall.

42 "Dawdling Home."

Boughton, G. H., West House, Camden Hill-road.
43 "Sunshine."
44 "Clouds."

Brett, John, 38 Harley-st., London.
45 "Mount's Bay, Cornwall."

Brewtnall, Edward F., 1 The Mall, Park-road, Haverstock Hill, London.
46 "The Sleeping Beauty."

47 "Going to Market."

Brooks, Miss Maria, 121 Sloane-st., London.
48 "The Penny Story Book."

49 "A Story of the Sea."
50 "The Rendezvous."

Brown, A. K., 113 West Regent-st., Glasgow.
51 "Pass of the Lyon, Perthshire, Scotland."

Browning, Robert Barrett, 15 Water-loo-place, London, S.W.
52 "A Stall in the Fish Market at Antwerp."
53 "The Unanswered Question."

54 "Joan of Arc."

Calthrop, Claude, 31 Coleherne-road, Redcliffe Gardens,
London.
  55 "Meeting of Scotch Jacobites."

Campion, Howard, 14 Charles-st., Middlesex Hospital, London.
  56 "Woodland Stream, Normandy, France."
  57 "On the Thames, Maple-Durham."

  58 "Tramps, Burnham Common, near Slough, Bucks."
  59 "Caerleon Cove, near the Lizard, Cornwall."

  60 "The Old Curiosity Shop."—Vide Charles Dickens.

Charlton, John, 7 Victoria-road, Kensington, London.
  60a "Beauty and the Beast."

Chester, F., 18 Emperor's Gate, Cromwell-road, London.
  61 "Making Hay while the Sun Shines."

Chester, George, 10 St. Alban's-road, Kensington, London.
  62 "The Hampshire Hatches on the River Avon, above Christchurch."
  63 "Wood Gathering in the New Forest, Hampshire."

Clark, Joseph, 396 Camden-road, London.
  64 "Wandering Minstrels."

Collier, John, 104 Eaton-place, London.
  65 "Andrea dal Castagno." Surnamed degl' Impiccat, (of the hung).

Connolly, Ellen, 116 Gower-st., London, W.C.
  66 "Granny's Pets."

  67 "The 'Cleopatra' Cylinder Vessel in a Hurricane in the Bay of Biscay, on the 14th of October, 1877."
  68 "Ruins on Island of Phike the Beautiful." On the right the Temple of Isis, with its huge Pylons; on the left, the building called Pharaoh's Bed.
  69 "A Dutch Galliot aground on a Sand Bank in the 'Bies-bosch,' Holland. Low-water."

Cooper, T. G., 42 Chepstow Villas, London.
  70 "A Scene in Sherwood Forest."

  71 "A Brook in the Meadows."
  71a "Amongst the Rocks, Glencoe."

Correggio School.
73 Panel, "The Holy Family."
74 "A Dead Christ and Mater Dolorosa." By Domenichino.
[Both lent by J. S. Laurie, Esq.]

Cotman, F. G., 10 Boscobel-place, Alpha, road, London.
75 "Going through the Orchard."
76 "I am Monarch of all I Survey."
77 "A Sunny Bit."

78 "Maternal Affection."

79 "The Towing Path." On the Thames.

80 "The Fate of Persephone."

81 "Sheep-Shearing Match."

Davidson, T., 82 Park-road, Haveretod Hill, London.
82 "Dessert"

Davis, VaL, Lismore Lodge, Haverstock-road.
83 "Among the Buttercups."

Dicey, F., 76 Fulham-road, London.
84 "Song of Solomon."

Dicksee, J. R., 6 Fitzroy-square, London.
86 Mrs. Pepys "Home, and Found my Wife making Tea."

Dicksee, Thomas Francis, 2 Fitzroy square, London.
87 "Lady Teazle."

Dillon, Frank, 13 Upper Phillimore Gardens, London.
88 "Eavesdropping."
89 "Tombs of the Mameluke Sultans, Cairo."
[Both lent by Frederick Wigan, Esq.]
90 "A Japanese Interior: The Lost Shuttlecock."
91 "House of the Sheikh Sedât, Cairo."

93 "In Shelved Nook the Mill-stream still Sings its Merry Lay."

94 "The Course of True Love Never did Run Smooth."

Dowling, Rt., 27 Coleherne-road, West Brompton, London.
95 "Morning in the Market Place, Cairo."
96 "Moses Viewing the Promised Land."

97 "The Haunt of the Fallow Deer." The Rother, Petworth, Sussex.

98 "A Spring Morning."

Edward, Alfred S., 100 Foulden-road, Stoke Newington, London.
99 "From Birnam Hill to Ben-y-Gloe, Scotland."

(Medal, Vienna, 1873.)
100 "On the Housetops, Algiers."

101 "King James IV. before the Battle of Flodden."

Fahey, E. H., Member of the Institute of Painters in Water Colours, 10 Elsham-road, Kensington, London.
102 "All Among the Barley."
103 "Heartsease."

Field, Walter, East Heath Studios, Hampstead, London.
104 "A Summer Evening."

Fry, S., Windmill Hill, Hampstead, London.
105 "The Founder's Tomb, Westminster."

Fulleylove, J., I.P.W.C., 13 Braunstone Gate, Leicester.
106 "Where Heaves the Turf in many a Mould'ring Heap."—Gray.
107 "The Young Cavalier." Fancy portrait of artist's son, aged seven years.
108 "Portrait of Gordon Campbell Ogg, aged seven years." Exhibited in Royal Academy, 1869.

Gadsby, W.
109 "The Picture Book."

Gale, Wm., 30 Osnaburgh-st., Regent's Park, N.W.
110 "Spoils of War."
111 "Maggie."

Garland, Henry.
112 "A Highland Drove, Argyleshire."

113 "Doge and Senators of Venice in Council."
114 "Squire and Sophia Western and the Aunt at Cards."
115 "The Battle of Naseby."

116 "Mamma's Flowers."

117 "Arming the Household."
118 "Arrested."

Goodall, F., R.A., Hon. Member of the Institute of Painters in Water Colours, Graeme's Dyke, Harrow Weald, Herts.
119 "Spring Time in Egypt."
120 "Sheep-washing near the Pyramids of Geezah."

Goodman, Mrs., 53 Winchester-st., London.
121 "Waiting."
122 "Will He Come?"

Gow, James, 35 Fitzroy-square, London.
122a "An Easy Lesson."

Grace, A. F., Amberley, by Arundel, Sussex.
123 "Sussex Downs—Evening."

Graham, T., Stanhope Studios, Delancey-st., London.
124 "O'er the Downs."

Griffith, W., Bromley House, Bromley, Kent.
126 "Carting Turf on the Yorkshire Moors."
127 "On the"Portland Road, near Weymouth."

128 "Waiting for the Ferry." Scene on the Thames.

Hardy, T. B.
129-130 "Fishing Boats off Scheveningen."

Hargitt, E., Associate of the Institute of Painters in Water Colours, 10 Alexander-square, Brompton, London.
131 "West Loch, Tarbet."
132 "Arran, from Cantyre."

133 "Dutch Pinks Returning from Sea, Katwyke Beach, Holland."
134 "Genoa la Superba."

Hetherington, J., 4 Steele's Studios, Haverstock Hill, London.
135 "A Provincial Tour in South Devon."
136 "After the Apple Harvest, South Devon."

Hemy, C. Napier, Myrtle Lodge, North-end, Fulham, London.
136a "Home Again."

137 "Bay of Brodrick, Isle of Arran, in the Firth of Clyde."

137a "Lear Disinheriting Cordelia."
137b "Christmas Eve at Bethlehem."

Herbert, Wilfred V., The Chimes, Kilburn, London.
137c "A Captive Briton in the Colosseum."

Hicks, G. E., 36 Kensington Park-road, London, W.
138 "Home from Work."
139 "All that was Left to Love."

140 "The Foolish Virgins."

"Loot."—"One touch of nature makes the world akin."


Holden, E. H.

"Lane Scene at Scarborough, Yorks."


"Cupboard Love."

"The Unwilling Salute. 'Discipline Oblige.'"

Horsley, W. C., 1 High-row, Kensington, London.

"Going to the Front." India, 1870.

Houston, John A., R.S.A., 10 Upper Phillimore-place, Kensington, London.

"The Matchlock." "Warlike Gear of Old."

Hughes, Wm., 32 Cheyne-row, Chelsea, London.

"English Flowers."

Hume, E., Petersfield-road, Midhurst, Sussex.

"Shrimpers."

Hume, Hy., 22 Park Village East, Regent's Park, London.

"A Normandy Farmyard."

Hunter, Colin, 14 Melbury-road, Kensington.

"Salmon Fishers, Loch Fyne."

Jay, W., 42 Great Castle-st., Regent-st.

"In Leigh Woods, near Bristol."

Johnston, Alexander, 36 King Henry’s-road, London, N.W.

"The Wanderer."


"A Gipsy Encampment."


"An October Morning in Sussex—Waiting for the Guns."

"The Old Lock. Summer Twilight after Rain."
157 "In the Leafy Lanes."

Jones, Carl.
158 "Chilston Lane, Cockington."
159 "Hampshire Downs. Sneye and Rooks."

Jopling, Mrs. Louise, Trafalgar Studios, King's-road, Chelsea, London.
160 "The Five Sisters of York."

161 "Spring Spoil."

162 "Home, Sweet Home." Wales.
163 "The High Road, Winchelsea."
164 "Farm near Fairlight, Hastings."

Koberwein, Rosa, 182 Holland-road, Kensington, London.
165 "In that Sweet Mood when Pleasant Thoughts bring Sad Thoughts to the Mind."

Lancaster, A. D., 5 Sheffield-terrace, Kensington, London.
166 "Convalescents." In the Chapel of the Children's Hospital, Great Ormond-st., London.

Law, David, 9 Regent's Park-terrace, London.
167 "Dittisham, on the Dart."

Lawson, Cecil, 280a King's-road, Chelsea, London.
167a "The Hop Gardens of England."

Lehmann, R., 1 South Villas, Camden Hill, London.
168 "Ophelia."

Leighton, Sir Frederick, President of the Royal Academy of Arts, 2 Holland Park-road, London.
169 "Samson and Delilah."

170 "Queen Catherine's Dream."

Lewis, C. J., Cheyne House, Chelsea, London.
171 "The Water Lane."
172 "A Wiltshire Mill-race."
Lucas, Albert Durer, Chilworth, Romsey, Hampshire.
173a Four oil paintings—"Flowers."

Lucas, Seymour, 26 Cavendish-square, Bloomsbury, London.
173b "The Gordon Riots."
173c "An Ambuscade."

174 "Scotch Cattle in Down Park—Spring Morning."
175 "Spring Time—Burnham Beeches."

176 "The Forest of Balloch Rhui, Balmoral."

Maccallum, Hamilton, 171 Stanhope-st.
177 "Catching Dabs, Tarbart Harbour."

Macbeth, R. W., 6 The Mall, Park-road, Haverstock Hill.
178 "A Sardine Fishery."

179 "Porten Cross Castle, on the Clyde."

180 "Sheepfold—Winter."

Marks, H. Stacey, R.A.
180a "The Jolly Postboys."

181 "Tis mercy calls them to the work—a ship is in distress."—E. Cook.
182 "And England, rich in record of her princes, kings, and crowns,
May tell still prouder stories of her boatmen of the Downs."—E. Cook.
183 "I saw the pomp of day depart, the cloud resign its golden crown."—Longfellow.

Mogford, J., Member of the Institute of Painters in Water Colours, 17 Park-road, Haverstock Hill, London.
184 "The Menai Straits."

Montague, Alfred.
185 "Off the Coast, Isle of Wight"

Moore, Henry, Associate of the Society of Painters in Water Colours, 4 Sheffield-terrace, Camden Hill, London.
186 "Mist and Sunshine, Yarmouth Roads."
187 "Towing out with the Tide—Sunset, Port Madoc."
Morgan, John, South Hill Villa, Guildford.
188 "Wards in Chancery."

Moscheles, F., Cadogan Gardens, London.
189 "On the Banks of the Kanagawa."
190 "Father's Nets."

Munger, Gilbert, 11 Fitzroy-st., London, W.
191 "Treberwith, Cornwall."
192 "Willapark, Cornwall."

Mutrie, Miss A. F., 36 Palace Gardens-terrace, London.
193 "Evening Primrose."

Mutrie, Miss M. D., 36 Palace Gardens-terrace, London.
194 "White Lilac."

Naish, John George, Runnacleave, Ilfra-combe, Devon.
195 "Hell Cove, North Devon."

196 "The Three Sons of Sir Charles Nicholson, Bart."
197 "Portrait of Sir Charles Nicholson, Bart., D.C.L., LL.D."

198 "Evening on the Thames at Westminster."
198a "Granada, Spain."

199 "Afternoon Tea in the Last Century."

Parsons, Alfred, 54 Bedford Gardens, London, W.
200 "A Willowy Brook that Turns a Mill."

201 "A Modern Bacchante."
202 "Finishing Touches."

203 "The Dawn of Christianity in Britain."

204 "A Wounded Knight."

Pratt, Mrs. A. Epps, Marley, Haslemere, Surrey.
205 "First of May, Haslemere."

**Prinsep, Val., A.R.A., 1 Holland Park-road, Kensington, London.**

205a "The Death of Cleopatra."

**Redgrave, R., R.A., 18 Hyde Park Gate South, London.**

206 "Jack o' Lanthorn."

**Robertson, H. R., 1 Steele's Studios, Haverstock Hill, London.**

207 "A Summer Flood."
208 "Gleaners."

**Rooke, Thomas M., 7 Queen Anne's Gardens, Bedford Park, Tumham Green, London.**

209 "A Devonshire Maid."
210 "In Dittisham Church, Devonshire."

**Sains Bury, E., 5 Rectory Grove, Clapham, London.**

211 "A Late Visitor."

**Scholderer, Otto, 8 Clarendon-road, Putney.**

212 "Reverie."

**Small, William, 294 Camden-road, London.**

213 "The Captive Briton."

**Smart, J., R.S.A., 4 Picardy-place, Edinburgh.**

214 "The Crofter's Flitting."

**Smith, George, Augusta Villa, Camden Hill, London.**

215 "Far Away."

**Starr, Miss Louisa, 14 Russell-square, London.**

216 "Rose Time."

**Stock, F. R., Stanhope Studios, Delancey-street, London.**

217 "The Model."
217a "Jeannette."

**Stocks, Arthur, 29 Harley-road, Hornsey Rise, London.**

218 "Our Soldiers, Past and Future."

**Stone, Marcus, A.R.A., 8 Melbury-road, Kensington-road.**

219 "An Appeal for Mercy."

221 "Furze in Blossom, Scotland."
222 "Where Tweed and Teviot Meet."

Thornycroft, Theresa G., Moreton House, Melbury-road, Kensington, London.
223 "Dives and Lazarus."

Thomas, Miss, London.
224 "Portrait of Charles Summers, Sculptor."


Waite, James Clark, 9 Camden Studio, Camden-st., London.
226 "What shall we say next, Dickey?"

227 "Preparing for the Festival."

Waller, S. E., 58 Circus-road, St. John's Wood, London.
228 "The King's Banner." Lent by Col. H. Stuart Wortley.

229 "A Morning Call. Ladies of Smyrna."

Walters, G. S., 134 Adelaide-road, London.
230 "An Autumn Afternoon near Amsterdam."

Walton, F., Holmbury, St. Mary, near Dorking.
231 "The Home of Many Generations."

232 "A Mill-stream in Wales."

233 "Ecclesiastical Ruins and Round Tower, on Inniscaltra, or Holy Island, Lough Derg."

Watson, Charles J., All Saints' Green, Norwich.
234 "Boatbuilding on the Yare."

235 "On the Beach—Coast of Kent."
236 "A Little Picnic."

237 "Britomartis and her Nurse."
238 "Esau."

Webb, James, 5 Haymarket, London.
239 "Brighton."
240 "Off the Dordt, Holland."

241 "Come on, Come along."
242 "A Herd of Highland Cattle."

Weigall, H., 35 Bryanston-square, London, W.
243 "Trumpeter."

Williams, Haynes, 23 St. Edmonds-terrace, Regent's Park, N.W.
244 "Foundlings." Spain, 1790.
245 "A Spanish Matador."

246 "Mending Nets." Hastings.

Wyllie, Chas. W., 70 Carlton Hill, St. John's Wood, London, N.W.
247 "The Sanded-up Harbour of Ambleteuse."

Wyllie, W. M.. 70 Carlton Hill, St. John's Wood, London, N.W.
248 "The House of Commons, 1877."

Wynfield, D. W., 14 Grove End-road, London.
249 "Joseph Revealing Himself to his Brethren."
250 "The Death of George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham."

Yeames, W. F., R.A.
251 "Pour les Pauvres."

Yglesias, V. P., 22b Ebury-st., London.
252 "At Greenwich."

THE VICTORIA CROSS GALLERY,

British Works of Art.
Painted by The Chevalier Louis W. Desanges.
# This Collection of Fifty-Five Pictures is for Sale.
1 Private Samuel Parkes, V.C., 4th Light Dragoons.
In the charge of the Light Cavalry Brigade at Balaclava, Trumpet-Major Crawford's horse fell. He was attacked by two Cossacks, when Private Parkes saved his life by placing himself between them and the Trumpet-Major, and drove them away by his sword. In attempting to follow the Light Cavalry Brigade in the retreat, they were attacked by six Russians.

2 Lieutenant Francis Edward Henry Farquharson, V.C., 42nd Highlanders.

For conspicuous bravery when engaged before Lucknow, on the 9th March, 1858. in having led a portion of his company, stormed a bastion mounting two guns, and spiked the guns, by which the advanced position held during the night of the 9th of March was rendered secure from the fire of artillery. (See No. 29.)

3 Major Christopher Charles Teesdale, C.B., V.C., Royal Artillery. Date of act of bravery, the Battle of Kars, 29th September, 1855.

For gallant conduct in having thrown himself into the midst of the enemy, who had penetrated during the darkness of the night into the Yuksek Tabia redoubt, thus encouraging the garrison to make a vigorous attack. And, further, after having led the final charge, which completed the victory of the day, for having, at great personal risk, saved from the fury of the Turks many of the disabled among the enemy.

4 Private John M'Dermond, V.C., 47th Regiment.

Saving the life of Colonel Haly, on the 5th of November, 1854, by his intrepid conduct in rushing up to his rescue when lying on the ground disabled, and surrounded by a party of Russians.

5 Lieutenant William Hope, V.C., 7th Fusiliers.

After the troops had retreated on the morning of the 18th of June, 1855, Lieutenant W. Hope, being informed by the late Sergeant-Major William Bacon, who was himself wounded, that Lieutenant and Adjutant Hobson was lying outside the trenches badly wounded, went out to look for him, and found him lying in the old agricultural ditch running towards the left flank of the Redan. He then returned, and got four men to bring him in.

6 Captain (now Brevet Lieut-Col.) Dighton Macnaughten Probyn, C.B., V.C., 2nd Punjab Cavalry.

At the Battle of Agra, when his squadron charged the rebel infantry. Captain Probyn, at the head of and in advance of his men, became for some time separated from his followers, and being surrounded by Sepoys, had to defend himself against fearful odds.

7 Captain Frederick Robertson Aikman, V.C., 3rd Sikh Cavalry.

Charging with 100 men a body of the Indian rebels, comprising 500 foot and 200 horse, on the march to Lucknow. In this action Captain Aikman captured two guns, completely routed the enemy, cutting up more than 100 men, and killing five with his own hand. He was severely wounded in the encounter.

8 Commanders John Talbot Burgoyne, V.C., and Cecil William Buckley, V.C.

The former, as senior Lieutenant of the "Swallow," the latter whilst serving as junior Lieutenant of the "Miranda" landed in presence of a superior force, and, lighting their port fires with their cigars, set fire to the Russian stores at Genitchi, on the 29th of May, 1855.

9 Colonel Bell, V.C., Royal Welsh Fusiliers (23rd Regiment).

Recommended for his gallantry, more particularly at the Battle of the Alma, where he was the first to seize upon and capture one of the enemy's guns, which was limbered up and being carried.

10 Major Charles John Stanley Gough, V.C., 5th Bengal European Cavalry.

The scene is the roof of a house at Khurkouda, near Rhotuck, where a party of rebels have taken up a position, from which Major Hodson, Major C. Cough, V.C., Captain Hugh Cough, V.C., and Captain Ward, have succeeded in dislodging them. In the affray, Captain H. Cough, receiving a wound, falls, and, but for his brother's intervention, must have inevitably lost his life.

11 Commander Henry James Raby, V.C., and the late Lieutenant Edward Hughes D'Aeth, of H.M.S "Sidon," assisted by John Taylor (afterwards promoted to Boatswain for his constant gallantry and general good conduct), carrying from a most exposed spot a wounded soldier of the 57th Regiment.

Hearing that the poor fellow was sitting up and calling loudly for assistance, the party sallied forth, and, climbing over the breastwork of the advanced sap, proceeded upwards of seventy yards across the open space towards the salient angle of the Redan, and, in spite of the heavy fire which was still continuing, succeeded in carrying the wounded man to a place of safety at the imminent risk of their own lives. Commander Raby was the sole survivor to reap the reward and to wear the Cross.

12 Major Frederick Sleigh Roberts, V.C., Bengal Artillery. Date of act of bravery, 2nd January, 1858.

Lieutenant Roberts' gallantry has on every occasion been most marked. On following up the retreating enemy, on the 2nd January, 1858. at Khodagunge. He saw in the distance two Sepoys going away with a standard: he put spurs to his horse, and, overtaking them, he grabbed them, the standard-bearer was cut down by this gallant young officer.

13 Captain William Alexander Kerr, V.C., South Mahratta Horse. Date of act of bravery, 10th July, 1857.

On the breaking out of the mutiny of the 27th Bombay Native Infantry, in July, 1857, a party of the
mutineers took up a position in the stronghold, or Paga, near the town of Kolapoor, and defended themselves to extremity. In this action Lieutenant Kerr was severely wounded; and of his seventeen followers, eight were killed on the spot, four died subsequently of their wounds, and all the rest were more or less severely wounded.

14 Major Robert Dunn, V.C., 100th Regiment. Date of act of bravery, 25th October. 1854.

When Lieutenant in the 11th Hussars, in the Light Cavalry Charge at Balaclava, this officer saved the life of Sergeant Bentley, of the same regiment, by cutting down two or three Russian Lancers who were attacking him from the rear.


Was one of the Sergeants at the Battle of the Alma, and advanced between the officers, carrying the colours. When near the redoubt, Lieutenant Anstruther, who was carrying a colour, was mortally wounded; and Sergeant O'Connor was shot in the breast at the same time and fell, but recovering himself, snatched up the colour from the ground, and continued to carry it till the end of the action, although urged by Captain Granville to relinquish it and go to the rear on account of his wound.

16 Ross L. Mangles, Esq., V.C., Bengal Civil Service, Assistant-Magistrate at Patna.

On the 30th July, 1857, Mr Mangles volunteered and served with the force consisting of detachments of H.M.'s 10th and 37th Regiments and some native troops, despatched to the relief of Arrah. Under the command of Captain Dunbar, of the 10th Regiment. The force fell into an ambuscade on the night of the 29th. and during the retreat next morning. Mr. Mangles, with signal gallantry and self-devotion, and notwithstanding that he had himself been previously wounded, carried for several miles out of action a wounded soldier of the 37th Regiment.


On the occasion of the breaking of the Persian square by the 3rd Bombay Light Cavalry, led by Colonel Forbes, C.B., Lieutenant Moore was foremost by a horse's length. He leaped into the square, and his horse fell dead, and he would have inevitably lost his life had not his gallant brother officer. Lieutenant Malcolmson, observing the Adjutant's peril, fought his way back through the broken ranks of the enemy, and, giving him a stirrup, safely carried him through everything out of the throng.

18 Colour-Sergeant Henry M'Donald, Royal Engineers, V.C., Knight of the Legion of Honour. Date of act of bravery, 19th April, 1856.

For gallant conduct when engaged in effecting a lodgment in the enemy's rifle-pits in front of the left advance of the right attack on Sebastopol; and for subsequent valour.

19 Dr. Home, V.C., and Dr. Bradshaw, V.C., 90th Regiment.

In charge of the sick and wounded, having missed the road to the Residency, penetrated into the heart of Lucknow. When a fearful massacre by fire and sword took place. Nearly all the escort and dooley-barers having been shot down by the mutineers, Drs. Home and Bradshaw, with a very few survivors, gallantly defended each other from behind some sheds until they were delivered from their living tomb the next day.—A sketch.


For his gallant and devoted conduct in having, on the night of the 25th and morning of the 26th September, remained by the dooley of Sir H. M. Havelock, Bart., V.C., then Lieutenant, H.M.'s 10th Foot, Deputy-Assistant Adjutant-General Field Force, who was severely wounded, and, on the morning of the 26th. escorted that officer and Private Pilkington, 78th Highlanders, who receiving a wound, had flung himself into the dooley, thereby causing the bearers to drop their double load. (Relief of Lucknow.)

21 Commander William Nathan Wright Hewett, V.C., R.N.

1st—On the occasion of a repulse of a sortie of Russians, by Sir de Lacy Evans's Division on the 26th October, 1854, Mr. Hewett. then Acting-Mate of Her Majesty's ship "Beagle," was in charge of the right Lancaster Battery before Sebastopol. The advance of the Russians placed the gun in great jeopardy, their skirmishers advancing within 300 yards of the battery, and pouring in a sharp fire from their Minié rifles. By some misapprehension the word was passed to spike the gun and retreat; but Mr. Hewett. taking upon himself the responsibility of disregarding the order, replied that "Such order did not come from Captain Lushington, and he would not do it till it did." For the gallantry exhibited on this occasion, the Board of Admiralty promoted him to the rank of Lieutenant. 2nd—on the 6th November. 1854, at the battle of Inkermann, Captain Lushington again brought before the Commander-in-Chief the services of Mr. Hewett, saying, "I have much pleasure in again bringing Mr. Hewett's gallant conduct to your notice."

22 Dr. Sylvester, V.C., assisted by Corporal Shields, V.C., succouring Lieutenant and Adjutant Dyneley, 23rd Royal Welsh Fusiliers. (See No. 36.)

23 Lieutenant (now Major) Leith, V.C., 14th K.L.D., saving Captain Need's life at the Battle of the Betwah, 1st April, 1858.

Extract of Major-General Sir Hugh Rose's despatch:—
"I beg to do justice" to Captain Need's troop. They charged with steady gallantry the left, composed of the enemy's best troops, Velaities and Sepoys, who, throwing themselves back on the right, and resting the flanks of their new line (four or five deep) on two rocky knolls, received the charge with a heavy fire of musketry. We broke through the dense line, which flung itself among the rocks, and bringing our right shoulders forward, took the front line in reverse, and routed it. I believe I may say that what Captain Need's troop did on this occasion was equal to breaking a square of infantry, and the result was most successful. I have the honour to recommend to his Excellency's favourable consideration Captain Need and his devoted troop, and Lieutenant Leith, who saved Captain Need's life, for which I have ventured to recommend him for the Victoria Cross." (See also No. 26.)

24 Lieutenant-Colonel Loyd Lindsay, V.C., Scots Fusilier Guards.
When the formation of the line of the regiment was disordered at Alma. Captain Lindsay stood firm with the colours, and by his example and energy greatly tended to restore order. At Inkermann, at a most trying moment, he, with a few men, charged a party of Russians, driving them back, and running one through the body himself.


26 Lieutenant Harry North Dalrymple Prendergast, V.C., Madras Engineers.
At the action of "The Betwah," Lieutenant Prendergast voluntarily acted as Sir Hugh Rose's Aide-de-Camp, and distinguished himself by his bravery in the charge which was made with Captain Need's troop, H.M.'s 14th Light Dragoons, against the left of the so-called Peishwa's army, under Tantia Topee. He was severely wounded on that occasion. (See also No. 23.)

On the 9th July, 1857, Lieutenant Hills was on picket duty with two guns at the mound to the right of camp. At about 11 o'clock there was a rumour that the enemy's cavalry were coming down on this post. Lieutenant Hills proceeded to take up the position assigned in case of alarm; but before he reached the spot, he saw the enemy close upon his guns before they had time to form up. Having given a rapid order to his sergeant, Lieutenant Hills boldly charged, single-handed, the head of the enemy's column, cut the first man down, struck the second, and was then ridden down, horse and all. On rising, he was attacked by three of the enemy; one he despatched, another he wounded, and having fallen in the struggle with the third, would have inevitably lost his life, but for the almost miraculous intervention of Colonel Tombs, who, having crossed the path of the enemy's cavalry, and having escaped apparently certain death in so doing, shot one of the remaining assailants, and is represented in the picture as about to cut down the other.

"Date of act of bravery, 9th July, 1857. For very gallant conduct on the part of Lieutenant Hills before Delhi, in defending the position assigned to him in case of alarm. And for noble behaviour on the part of Lieutenant-Colonel Tombs, in twice coming to his subaltern's rescue, and on each time killing his man."—From "Gazette" of 27th April, 1858.

Present when the charge was made in defence of the colours, and also charged singly upon the enemy, as witnessed by Sir C. Russell; is said to have saved Sir C. Russell's life.

29 Lieutenant Thomas Adair Butler, V.C., 1st Bengal Fusiliers.
"... of which success the skirmishers on the other side of the river were apprised by Lieutenant Butler, of the Bengal Fusiliers, who swam across the Goomtee, and, climbing the parapet, remained in that position for a considerable time, under a heavy fire of musketry, until the work was occupied, 9th March, 1858."—Extract of Major-General Sir J. Outram's Memorandum in the Governor-General's "Gazette Extraordinary," Saturday, 5th April, 1858. (See No. 2.)

30 Lieutenant-Colonel Sir Charles Russell, Bart., V.C., &c., Grenadier Guards.
Offered to dislodge a party of Russians from the Sand-bag Battery, if anyone would follow him; Sergeant Norman, Privates Anthony Palmer and Bailey (who was killed) volunteered the first. The attack succeeded.
"Our ammunition was failing us, and the men, armed with stones, flung them into the masses of Russians, who caught the idea, and the air was thick with huge stones flying in all directions; but we were too much for them, and once more a mêlée of Grenadiers. Coldstreams, and Fusiliers held the battery their own, and from it on the solid masses of the Russians still poured as good a fire as our ammunition would permit. There were repeated cries of 'Charge!' and some man near me said, 'If any officer will lead us, we will charge'; and as I was the only one just there, I could not refuse such an appeal, so I jumped into the embrasure, and, waving my revolver, said, 'Come on my lads, who will follow me? I then rushed on, fired my revolver at a fellow close to me. But it missed fire. I pulled again, and think I killed him. Just then a man touched me on the shoulder, and
said, 'You was near done for.' I said, 'Oh no, he was some way from me.' He answered, 'His bayonet was all but into you when I clouted him over the head.' And sure enough a fellow had got behind me and nearly settled me. I must add that the Grenadier who accompanied me was publicly made a corporal on parade next morning. His name is Palmer. I did not know it, but I said, 'What's your name? Well, if I live through this, you shall not be forgotten.'—Extract from a letter written by Sir Charles to his mother after the Battle of Inkermann.

31 Sergeant Alfred Ablett, V.C., 3rd Battalion Grenadier Guards.
On the 2nd September, 1855, seeing a shell falling in the centre of a number of ammunition cases and powder, he instantly seized and threw it outside the trench; it burst as it touched the ground.

32 Lieutenant William George Cubitt, V.C., 13th Bengal, N.I. Bate of act of bravery, 30th June, 1857.
For having, on the retreat from Chinhut, under most adverse circumstances, and at the imminent risk of his own life, saved the lives of three men of the 32nd Regiment.

33 Colonel the Hon. Hugh Percy, V.C., Legion d’Honneur (Aide-de-Camp to the Queen), Grenadier Guards, dislodging the enemy from the Sand-bag Battery at the Battle of Inkermann.

34 Lieutenant Young, V.C., William Hall, A.B., V.C., and Lieutenant Nowell Salmon, V.C.
Received the Cross—the two former for fighting the "Shannon" 24-pounder gun close under the wall of the Shahnujef before Lucknow, under a very heavy fire (hand-grenades bursting all around); the latter for volunteering and climbing into a tree overlooking the wall to stop the mutineers' fire by shooting them with rifles that were handed up by a Private of the 93rd Highlanders. Lieutenant Salmon was badly wounded in this action.—16th November, 1857. (Relief of Lucknow.)

35 Thomas Henry Kavanagh, Esq., V.C., Assistant-Commissioner in Oude.
On the 9th of November, 1857, Mr. Kavanagh, then serving under the orders of Lieut.-General Sir James Outram, in Lucknow, volunteered on the dangerous duty of passing through the city to the camp of Sir Colin Campbell, the Commander-in-Chief, for the purpose of guiding the relieving force to the beleaguered garrison in the Residency, a task which he performed with chivalrous gallantry and devotion.

36 Corporal Robert Shields, V.C., Chevalier de la Legion d’Honneur, 23rd Regiment (Royal Welsh Fusiliers), seeking his wounded Adjutant, Lieutenant Dyneley.
After the unsuccessful attack on the Redan, before Sebastopol, on the 8th of September, 1855, the Adjutant was missing. Corporal Shields immediately volunteered to return to the scene of the attack, search for him, and bring him in. On turning the angle of a rock which shielded him from the fire, he discovered his officer and friend mortally wounded. Afterwards, assisted by others who volunteered, Corporal Shields brought the Adjutant in, under a heavy fire from the enemy. For this noble action the Cross of the Legion of Honour was conferred upon Corporal Shields by the Emperor of the French; and on the institution of the Order of Valour, the Corporal was one of its earliest recipients.

For distinguished gallantry whilst in command of the sharp-shooters furnished by the Guards, on the 28th October, 1854, on the occasion of "the powerful sortie on the 2nd Division," when he held the Windmill Ravine, below the Picquet House, against a much larger force of the enemy. The party of sharpshooters then under his command killed 38, and took three prisoners of the enemy. Major Goodlake being the sole officer in command. Also for distinguished gallantry on the occasion of the surprise of a picquet of the enemy, in November.

38 Commander George Fiott Day, V.C., R.N.
With great gallantry this officer landed and twice successfully carried out a reconnaissance within the enemy's Tines at Genitchi, advancing to within about 200 yards of the enemy's gun vessels. From the silence on board them it was his conviction that they were without crews, and when he returned it was with the full impression that an expedition to surprise them would be feasible; but on the following day, increasing activity being apparent in the direction of the vessels, he again at night visited the spot, when, finding the vessels manned and their crews on the alert, he relinquished the idea of attempting a surprise.

39 Major Elphinstone, V.C., Royal Engineers, recovering scaling ladders on the night of the 18th of June, after the repulse of the British at the Redan.

40 Captain Andrew Henry, V.C., Land Transport Corps (late Royal Artillery).
Received the Cross for defending the guns of his battery against overwhelming numbers of the enemy at the Battle of Inkermann and continuing to do so until he had received twelve bayonet wounds. He was at the time Sergeant-Major of G Battery, 2nd Division.

41 Colonel Collingwood Dickson, C.B., V.C. (Aide-de-Camp to the Queen), Royal Artillery.
Directing and personally assisting in bringing in powder to the battery from a waggon in a very exposed position under a destructive fire from Sebastopol, a shot having disabled the horses.—17th October, 1854.

42 Dr. J. Jee, C.B., V.C., Surgeon, Assistant-Surgeon Valentine M. M'Master, V.C., and Lieutenant and Adjutant Herbert T. Macpherson, V.C., 78th Highlanders.
Drs. Jce and M'Master received the Victoria Cross for heroic self-devotion, and the intrepidity with which they exposed themselves to the fire of the enemy, in bringing in and attending to the wounded, on the 25th of September, at Lucknow. Lieutenant Macpherson, for distinguished conduct at the head of the regiment, when they captured two brass 9-pounders, at the point of the bayonet.

43 Captain John Edmund Commerell, R.N., V.C.
When commanding the "Weser," in the Sea of Azoff, crossed the Isthmus of Arabat, and destroyed large quantities of forage on the Crimean shore of the Sivash. The enterprise was performed by Commander Commerell at night, accompanied by William Rickard, Quartermaster, and George Milestone, A.B.

44 Private John J. Sims, V.C., 34th Regiment.
For having, on the 18th June, 1855, after the regiment had retired into the trenches from the assault on the Redan, gone out into the open ground, under a heavy fire in broad daylight, and brought in wounded soldiers outside the trenches.

This gallant soldier died shortly after he had given a sitting to the artist, and before sufficient description of the event had been obtained for the execution of a picture.

46 Captain Henry Evelyn Wood, V.C., 17th Lancers.
A Potail of the name of Clemmun-Singh and his relations, having incurred the enmity of a band of robbers who infested the jungles between Beora and Muksudnugger, were carried into captivity, and would inevitably have been murdered but for the gallantry of Lieutenant Wood, who, with a Duffador and one Sowar of Beatson's Horse, rescued the prisoners and put to flight about 70 of the rebels, 9th February, 1860.

48 Lieutenant Charles George Baker, V.C., Bengal Police Battalion.
For gallant conduct on the occasion of an attack on the rebels at Suhejnee, near Peroo, on the 27th September, 1858.

49 Lieutenants Duncan Charles Home, V.C., and Philip Salkeld, V.C., 1st Bengal Engineers, with Bugler Hawthorne, V.C., 62nd Regiment.
Immediately after the blowing in of the Cashmere Gate, Delhi, on the 14th September, 1857.

For distinguished gallantry in entering the North Taku Fort by an embrasure during the assault, 21st August, 1800. Second Chinese war.

51 Lieutenant Andrew Cathcart Bogle. V.C., 78th Highlanders.
For conspicuous gallantry on the 29th of July, 1857, in the attack at Onao, in leading the way into a loop-holed house strongly occupied by the enemy.

52 Lieutenant Francis D. M. Brown, V.C., 1st Bengal Fusiliers.
For great gallantry at Narrioul, on the 16th November, 1857, in having rushed to the assistance of wounded soldier of his regiment, whom he carried off under a heavy fire.

53 Mr. William Fraser M Donnell. V.C., of the Bengal Civil Service, Magistrate of Sarun.
For great coolness and bravery on the 30th of July, 1857, during the retreat of the British troops from Arrah in having climbed, under fire, outside the boat in which he and several soldiers were, up to the rudder, and with considerable difficulty cut through the lashing which secured it to the side of the boat. On the lashing being cut the boat obeyed the helm, and thus 35 European soldiers escaped certain death.

54 The Battle of Inkermann.
Lord Raglan, anxious to gain some commanding point which would enable him to obtain a more definite notion of the disposition and numbers of the enemy, was moving with his staff along the ridge in front of the second division camp, when General Strangways, who was riding at his side, was mortally wounded by a shell which burst inside Colonel Somerset's horse, that officer miraculously escaping uninjured. The battle was raging on every part of the field. The struggle in the Sand-bag Battery was desperately maintained against fearful odds by guardsmen and linesmen intermixed, animated by the presence of the Duke of Cambridge, whose horse was shot under him during the conflict. It was about 11 o'clock when the welcome sounds of the French bugles were heard above the rattling and rolling of the firing. The Zouaves came upon the right. The enemy's left flank was turned. His batteries on the heights were silenced by Dickson's guns. By 12 o'clock the Russian columns were in full retreat along the whole of the line, and the day was ours.—Extract from a letter from the Crimea.

55 Lieutenant John Watson, 1st Punjaub Cavalry.
On the 14th November, 1857, Lieutenant Watson came upon a body of the rebels. The Ressaldar in command rode up and presented his pistol, fired, fortunately without result; thereupon Watson ran the Ressaldar through the body.

56 The Hero of No. 35.
CLASS II.—Water Colours.

Various Paintings and Drawings.

Absolon, J., Member of the Institute of Painters in Water Colours, 106 Palace Gardens-terrace, London.
1 "The Emigrant Ship, Sunday Evening."
2 "Madame Desmoulins."
3 "Church of Tredamit, Brittany."
4 "A Bit of Wiltshire."
5 "Sir Roger de Coverley."

Aumonier, James, 136 Camden-road, London, N.W.
6 "A Yorkshire Fishing Village."

Bannatyne, J., 7 Crescent-place, Mornington-crescent, London.
7 "Duncraggan, Trossachs, Scotland."
8 "The Old Road to the Trossachs, Scotland."
9 "Bury, Sussex."

Barraud, C. J., 4 Langham-place, London.
10 "On the Coast of Devon."

Bayliss, Wyke, 7 North-road, Clapham Park, London."
11 "Interior of St. George's Chapel, Windsor."

Beale, Sophia, 3 Kent-terrace, London, or care of Thomas Harlin, Esq., The C.E. Grammar School, Melbourne.
12 "Paris, from the Salle d'Apollon of the Louvre."

13 "Desert Travelling." Valley of Sinai.

14 "Cherry Ripe."

Bouvier, Gustave, Associate of the Institute of Painters in Water Colours, 1 Caversham-road, Kentish Town.
15 "The Old Sun Dial, Hastings."

Brierly. O. W., 38 Ampthill-square, London, N.W.
16 "Man Overboard, in the Baltic."
17 "Admiral Blake Blockading the Royalist Fleet under Prince Rupert."

Bromley, John.
17a "On the Old Road to Llanrwst."
17b "For the Midday Meal."

Buckman, E., 22 Ovington Gardens, London, S.W.
18 "Decorative Treatment of Modern Subject—London Street Itinerants."
18a The same.

Callow, Wm., Great Missendon, Bucks.
19 "The Town Hall and Market-place of Padua."
20 "Entrance to the Port of Tréport, Normandy."

Chase, Marion, Haddon Lodge, Reux-road, Kilburn, London.
21 "In the Conservatory."
22 "Cowslips and Orchises."

23 "Henry V. passing through the Streets of London after the Battle of Agincourt."
24 "Jehu on his Way to Jezreel."

Connell, J. M.
24a Ivory miniature—"Empress of Austria."
24b Ivory miniature—"Australian Chess Player."

Chevalier, Nicholas, 5 Porchesterterrace, Hyde Park, London.
25 "Te Anau Lake, New Zealand."
26 "Monte Rosa," from the Riffel, Switzerland.

Dakin, Joseph, Beaufort Cottage, Red Hill, Surrey.
27 "The Seine at Meudon."

28 "Pandy Mill, North Wales."

Davis, Val., Lismore Lodge, Haverstock-road, London.
29 "An Anxious Moment."

Donaldson, A. B., 10 Argyll-road, Kensington, London.
30 "Warwick Castle."
31 "Guy's Cliff, near Warwick."
32 "Bright Morning after Rain." Ely.
33 "A May Morning." Dordrecht, Holland.

Du Maurier, G., New Cross House, Hampstead Heath.
33a "Original Drawings for Punch," &c.
Duncan, E., Member of the Society of Painters in Water Colours, 36 Upper Park-road, Haverstock Hill, London.

34 "A Study near Hurley Mill, on the Thames."


35 "The Lizard Lighthouse, Cornwall."
35a "An English Homestead on Sussex Downs."

Frere, Miss Catherine, Wressil Lodge, Wimbledon, Surrey.

35b "Fruitstall in Capetown Market."


36 "Louis XIV. Transacting Business with his Ministers in the Apartment of Madame de Main-tenon."

Gilbert, Miss Ellen, Vanbrugh Park, Blackheath, Kent.

37 "Old Letters."
38 "A Sunny Corner."

Gilbert, Miss O. P., Vanbrugh Park, Blackheath, Kent.

39 "The Miniature."
40 "Beatrice—' Much Ado about Nothing'' (Act iii. scene i.)."

Gillies, Margaret, 25 Church-row, Hampstead, London.

41 "Expectation."

Goodall, Edward A., 57 Fitzroy-road, Regent's Park, London.

42 "The Remains of the Causeway which Originally Extended from the Ancient City of Memphis to the Lybian Hills."
43 "Gate of Justice, Alhambra."
44 "Venice, from the Lagunes."

Goodall, Mary, 104 Wellington-buildings, Chelsea, Bridge-road, London.

45 "Seaweed Gatherers."
46 "Little Bo-peep."

Gosling, William, Sycamore Lodge, War-grave, Henley-on-Thames.

47 "The Thames by Bolney, near Henley."

Grace, A. P., Amberley, by Arundel, Sussex.

48 "August in England."

Grace, James E., Milford, Surrey.

49 "The Mill Pool."
50 "Striped Azalea Tree."
51 "Wall Flowers."
52 "Azaleas."
53 "Cottage at Shere, Surrey."
54 "Farm Houses, Shere, Surrey."

Guinness, Miss E. S., 4A Chesson-road, West Kensington, London.
55 "Holy Bible, Book Divine, Precious Treasure, thou art mine."

56 "In the Cloisters of the Stiptskirche, at Berchtesgarten, Bavarian Highlands."

Haghe, Louis, President of the Institute of Painters in Water Colours, 103 Stockwell-road, London.
57 "Rood Loft in the Church of Dixmude, Belgium."

Hargitt, E., Associate of the Institute of Painters in Water Colours, 10 Alexander-square, Brompton, London.
58 "Evening."
59 "Highland Poachers."
59a "Loch Ling."

60 "The Mount of God—Sinai."

61 "Ryde Boat, off Portsmouth."
62 "A Signal of Distress in the Offing, Gorlston Pier, Great Yarmouth."
63 "Tarifa, Coast of Spain."

64 "North Side of the Choir, Westminster Abbey."
65 "Chapel of St. John, Westminster Abbey."
66 "Coronation Stone, Kingston-on-Thames."

Herkomer, Hubert, A.R.A., Dyreham, Bushy, Hants.
66a "Alfred Tennyson."

67 "Thirlwall Castle, Northumberland."
68 "At Wareham, Dorsetshire."
69 "View from Hayward's Heath, Sussex."
70 "On the Kyles of Bute."
Hine, Harry, 60 Park-road, Haverstock Hill, London.

71 "St. Alban's Abbey, Hertfordshire."
72 "Chalky Sea, Eastbourne, Sussex."


73 "The Boy's Paradise."

Houston, J. A., R.S.A., Member of the Institute of Painters in Water Colours, 10 Upper Phillimore-place, London.

74 "Loch Vennacher and Ben Venue."
75 "Glen Sannox."
76 "Cuniag, Sutherland; "Stark, from the Lax ford;" "White Castle, Monmouth;" "Near Arrochar—Evening."
77 "Harlech Castle, North Wales."
78 "Loch Earne."
79 "Druidical Remains."
80 "Death of Warwick, the King-maker."
81 "Snowdon—Evening."

Hunt, Alfred William, 1 Tor Villas, Camden Hill, London.

82 "Loch Coruisk, Isle of Skye, Scotland."
83 "Ben Sleogh, Kinloch Ewe, Scotland."


84 "When Spring and Summer Meet."
85 "Wigmore, an Old-World Village in Orchard Country."
86 "On the River Cad, under the Dewerstone, Devon."
87 "A Trout Stream near St. Peter Tavey, Dartmoor."


88 "Preparing the Banquet."
89 "Lily."
90 "The Terrace, Balcarres, Fyfe, Scotland."


91 "A Royalist"


92 "Closing Day, the Kennet Valley, North Wilts."

Lewis, Lennard, Pembroke Lodge, 26 Upper Park-road, Hampstead, London.

93 "The Votive Church of St. Barbe, near Le Fauvët, Morbihan, Brittany."
Lewis, C. J.
93a "Village Gossips."

94 "Autumn's Touch."

95 "Beside the Meuse, Dinant, Belgium."
96 "Inn Garden, Remouchamp." In the Ardennes, Belgium.

Macculloch, James.
96a "Blavin, from Loch Kilchrist, Skye."

Maplestone, F. E., 1 Richmond Gardens, Uxbridge-road, London, W.
97 "Anxious Moments."

Maplestone, Henry, 1 Richmond Gardens, Uxbridge-road, London, W.
98 "The Old English Festival of Rush-bearing."
99 "A Sudden Excitement in the Village."

Marrable, Mrs., 42 Ladbroke-road, London.
100 "View from St. George's Hill, Weybridge, Surrey, looking towards Windsor Castle."
101 "Ancient Larches, looking towards Pontresina, Engadine."

Mead, Miss, 8 Hornton-st., Kensington, London.
102 "Gossips of Many Years."
103 "A Yew Tree."

Miller, Henrietta, 7 Perham-road, West Kensington, London.
104 "In the Boathouse, Saint's Bay, Guernsey."
105 "Roses."
106 "Jug of Roses."
107 "Chrysanthemums."

Mitchell, Philip, 4 Bedford-terrace, Plymouth.
108 "Plymouth Sound, with Drake's Island."

Mogford, J., Member of the Institute of Painters in Water Colours, 17 Park-road, Haverstock Hill, London.
109 "Colzean Castle, West Coast of Scotland."
110 "Cornish Harvesting, near Grangewood."
111 "A Path through the Ferns, near Falmouth."
112 "From Beaumaris across to Aber, North Wales."
113 "An Estuary."

114 "Wreck in the Baltic."
115 "The Choir of St. Marc's, Venice."

Nash, J.

115a "Interior of the International Exhibition, 1862."


116 "Mont St. Michel, Coast of Normandy."

Newton, A. P., Member of the Society of Painters in Water Colours, 44a Maddox-st., London.

117 "Ben Nevis, from Lochlochy."
118 "A Study in the New Forest, Hampshire."

Pratt, Mrs. A. Epps, Marley, Haslemere, Surrey.

119 "The Slipway, Ryde, Isle of Wight."

Rigby, Cuthbert, High Duddon, Broughton, in Furness.

120 "In the Declining Summer Sun, the Labouring Mill-wheel Rests."
121 "A Dangerous Coast."


122 "Good Friends."


123 "The Boulogne Boat entering Folkestone Harbour in a Storm."
124 "Venetian Boats Becalmed."
124a "Florence, from the Albergo d'Arno."

Severn, Walter, 9 Earl's Court-square, London.

125 "Street in Old Cairo—Palace of the Grand Vizier."
126 "Boscastle, North Coast of Cornwall."


127 "Drying Herring Nets." Banff, Scotland.

Smallfield, F., Member of the Society of Painters in Water Colours, 62 Boundary-road, London.

128 "May Time in England."
129 "Æsop at School."

Smith, James W., 30 Abercorn-place, St. John's Wood,
London.
130 "A Rainy Day—Farm-house, near Aldeburgh, Suffolk."
131 "Farm-house, on the Road between Lyndhurst and Lymington, Hants."

Smith, T. R.
131a "Brambletye."

Smith, W. Colling-wood, Wyndham Lodge, Brixton Hill,
London.
132 "Wreck of an Indiaman on the Longships."

Spiers, Richard Phene, Carlton-chambers, 12 Regent-st.,
London.
133 "Great Hall of Columns, Kmac, Egypt."
134 "Church at Hux, on the Meuse, Belgium."
135 "Court of Justice, Cairo."

Stevens, A., 38 King-st., Covent Garden, London.
136 "The Thames at Bray, Berks."

137 "Caernarvon Castle, North Wales."
138 "An English Village."

Tayler, E., 37 Gloucester place, Portman-square, London.
139 "Far Away."
140 "The Casket."

Thornycroft, Helen, Morton House, Melburly-road, Kensington,
London.
141 "Strolling Players."

Toft, P., 156 Cornwall-road, Notting Hill, London.
142 "Bamborough Castle."

Wade, T., Hill Cottage, Windermere.
143 "A Farm Yard."
144 "Old Cottages."

Warren, E. G., Member of the Institute of Painters in Water
Colours, 1A Phillimore Gardens, London.
145 "A Clearing in the New Forest, Hants."
146 "The Greendale Oak, Wellbeck, Sherwood."

Watt, Linnie.
147 "On the Downs. Somerssetshire."

148 "Ploughing in Italy."
149 "Threshing in Italy."

Westcott,—.

150 "Fruit Piece." Lent by J. S. Laurie, Esq.

Cartoon Lent by the Lords of the Committee of Council on Education.

"INDUSTRIAL ART AS APPLIED TO WAR." By Sir Frederick Leighton, P.R. A.

Monochrome in oil on canvas. The scene represents an armourer's yard in an Italian town in the middle ages; youths select and try weapons of offence and defence, while in the foreground girls embroider tabards, &c. Painted as a design for a fresco (now executed) for the decoration of a lunette in the central court of the South Kensington Museum.

Contributions Illustrative of the Action of the Department of Science and Art, South Kensington, London.

EXHIBITED BY PERMISSION OF THE LORDS OF THE COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL ON EDUCATION.
Drawings and Paintings by Students of Schools of Art, of the United Kingdom, Exhibited by the Science and Art Department of the Committee of Council on Education.

Painting and Etchings

BY James Barry, R.A. (Born 1741, Died 1806), LENT BY The Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, ADELPHI, LONDON.

Painting.

"THE TEMPTATION OF ADAM."

"I feel
The link of nature draw me; flesh of flesh.
Bone of my bone thou art, and from thy state
Mine never shall be parted, bliss or woe."
So having said, as one from sad dismay
Re-comforted, and after thoughts disturbed
Submitting to what seemed remediless.


Etchings.

THESE ETCHINGS, AT THE CLOSE OF THE EXHIBITION, WILL BE PRESENTED TO THE NATIONAL GALLERY OF VICTORIA.
Etchings Nos. 1 to 6 represent the series of paintings executed by Barry for the Lecture Hall of the Society.
1 "Orpheus."

The scenery of this picture exhibits a view of the mountainous and desert country of Thrace; near the centre of the piece is Orpheus, singing his poems, his right hand stretched towards heaven; and accompanying his instructive song upon the lyre suspended from his shoulder.

2 "A Grecian Harvest Home."

The season is as the title expresses, that of harvest; and as most of the persons represented are employed in rural sports, the evening is chosen as the most proper time for such relaxation from the labours of the field.

In the foreground is a double terminal figure of Sylvanus and Pan, with their proper attributes; round which young men and women are dancing to the music of a rural pipe and tabor. Behind them are oxen with a load of corn, and other characteristic marks of the season of the year.

The distant parts of the picture exhibit a view of a fertile cultivated country, with a farmhouse, near which are men wrestling, and engaged in other manly exercises; aged men are sitting and lying along, discoursing and enjoying a view of those athletic sports in which they can no longer engage, and a marriage procession is advancing from a distant temple.

3 "The Victors at Olympia."

In this picture the artist has chosen that point of time when the victors in the several games are passing in procession before the judges, where they are crowned with olive in the presence of all the Grecians. At the right hand corner of the piece, the three judges are seated on a throne, ornamented with medallions of Solon, Lycurgus, and other legislators, and with trophies of the victories of Salamis, Marathon, and Thermopylae. Near the foot of the throne is a table, on which the scribe appears writing, in the Olympic records of noble deeds, the name, family, and country of the conqueror; near this table, a victor in the foot-race, having already received a branch of palm, which he holds in his hand, is being crowned; next him is a foot-racer, who ran armed with a helmet, spear, and shield. Close following is seen a manly group, formed of two athletic figures, bearing on their shoulders their aged father; one of these represents a pancratiast, the other the victor at the cestus. The old man is Diagoras of Rhodes, who, having in his youth been celebrated for his victories in the games, has, in his advanced age, the additional felicity of enjoying the fruits of the virtuous education he had given his sons, amidst the acclamations of the people of Greece, some of whom are strewing flowers around the old man's head, while one of his friends is grasping his right hand, and supposed to be making the celebrated speech recorded on this occasion, "Now, Diagoras, die, for thou canst not be made a god." Near this group are seen a number of persons, the chief of whom represents Pericles speaking to Cymon, Socrates, Euripides, and Sophocles, are earnestly attending to what is said by Pericles, whilst the malignant buffoon Aristophanes is ridiculing the deformity of the cranium of the speaker, which was unusually long. The painter has in the person of Pericles introduced the likeness of the late Earl of Chatham.

Sitting on the base of the statue of Hercules, the artist has introduced his own portrait, in the character of Timanthes, holding in his hand a picture of the Cyclops and Satyrs, as related by ancient writers.

4 "The Thames."

The artist has in this picture represented the Thames, of a venerable, majestic, and gracious aspect, sitting on the waters in a triumphant car, steering himself with one hand, and holding in the other the mariner's compass, by the use of which modern navigation connects places the most remote, and has arrived at a certainty, importance, and magnitude unknown to the ancient world. The car is borne along by our great navigators, Sir Francis Drake, Sir Walter Raleigh, Sebastian Cabot, and Captain Cook; in the front of the car, and apparently in the action of meeting it, are four figures, representing Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, ready to lay their several productions in the lap of the Thames.

Overhead is Mercury, the emblem of Commerce, summoning the nations together; and following the car are Nereids carrying several articles of the principal manufactures of Great Britain.

5 "The Society."

This picture represents the distribution of the rewards of the Society of Arts, founded in 1754 for the purpose of introducing and perfecting the useful arts in this country. Not far advanced from the left side of the picture stands the late Lord Romney, then President of the Society; near the President stands His Royal Highness the then Prince of Wales; and sitting in the corner of the picture, holding in his hand the plan of the institution, is Mr. William Shipley, "whose public spirit gave rise to this Society." In the back-ground appear part of the water-front of Somerset House, St. Paul's, and other objects in the vicinity and view of this Society as instituted at London. As a very large number of the rewards bestowed by the Society had in Barry's day been distributed to promote the arts of painting and sculpture, the artist has also most judiciously introduced a picture and statue; the subject of the picture is the Fall of Lucifer, designed by Mr. Barry when the Royal Academy had selected six of the members to paint pictures for St. Paul's Cathedral; the statue is that of the "Grecian Mother Dying," and in those moments attentive only to the safety of her child. In the corners of the picture are represented many articles which have been invented or improved by the encouragement of this Society.
In this picture the artist has brought together those great and good men, of all ages and nations, who have acted as cultivators and benefactors to mankind.

In the top of the picture the painter has glanced at what is called by astronomers the system of systems, where the fixed stars, considered as so many suns, each with his several planets, are revolving round the Great Cause of all things; and, representing everything as affected by intelligence, has shown each system carried along in its revolution by an angel.

In the centre of the picture are animated portraits of the good and great of all ages; and in the other corner of the picture the artist has represented Tartarus, where are seen War, Gluttony, Extravagance, Detraction, Parsimony, Ambition, Tyranny, Hypocrisy, and Cruelty, with their proper attributes.

In Barry's original design the space at the end of the room, between the pictures of "Orpheus" and the "Grecian Harvest Home," was to have been filled with a portrait of George III.; and that between "The Thames" and "The Society," with a group representing Queen Charlotte superintending the education of her family at Windsor Castle. Barry did not live to complete these pictures, but his intentions were accurately recorded in this etching.

Nos. 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15 are groups taken from the pictures Nos. 3 and 6.

16 "THE TEMPTATION OF ADAM."

A tablet in this picture is thus inscribed:—"O Liberty, thou parent of whatever is truly amiable and illustrious, associated with virtue, thou hastest the luxurious and intemperate, and hast successively abandoned thy loved residence of Greece, Italy, and thy more favoured England, when they grew corrupt and worthless; thou hast given them over to chains and despondency, and taken thy flight to a new people, of manners simple and untainted. Hallowed and venerable are thy footsteps. Time, that best arbiter, shall distinguish, and strew thy track with honours."

18 "TESTIMONIAL TO THE MEMORY OF CHARLES JAMES FOX."

19 "JOB REPROVED BY HIS FRIENDS."

Dedicated to Edmund Burke, Esq.

20 "SACRA CHRISTA FAMILIA."

21 "THE CONVERSION OF POLEMON."

Polemon, an Athenian youth, returning home in the morning from his night's entertainment overcome with wine, saw the door of the philosopher Zenocrates open. He entered the school, which was filled with learned men, and endeavoured to disturb the company and the wisdom and eloquence of the speaker by his drunken jests. The countenance of Zenocrates still continued the same, and departing from the subject on which he was speaking, he began to discourse on modesty and temperance, by the gravity of which Polemon was so affected that from an infamous debauchee he became an illustrious philosopher, remarkable for his sobriety, virtue, and abilities, and succeeded Zenocrates in the school of Plato.

22 "PHILOCTETES IN THE ISLAND OF LEMNOS."

This is an engraving of a picture in the institute at Bologna, inscribed to Sir George Saville, Bart.

23 "THE FALL OF SATAN."

The Royal Academy having in the year 1773 selected six of the members to paint each a picture for St. Paul's Cathedral, this sketch of the Fall of Satan was the design executed by Barry for that purpose.

24 "SATAN'S ADDRESS TO THE FALLEN ANGELS."

25 "SATAN AND DEATH."

26 "THE BIRTH OF VENUS."

27 "KING LEAR."

28 "PORTRAIT OF PITT, EARL OF CHATHAM."

29 "PANDORA."

CLASS III.—Sculpture & Die-Sinking.

Adams-Acton, T., 103 Marylebone-road, London.

1 "Mirth." Marble bust.
2 "Sadness." Marble bust.
3 "The Rev. Mr. Spurgeon." Terra-cotta bust.
Foley, J. H., R.A. (the late).
4 "The Youth at the Stream." Lent by the Royal Horticultural Society.

Joy, A. Bruce, 76 Fulham-road, London.
5 "Mrs. Scott Siddons." Medallion.
6 "The Viscountess Monck." Medallion.
7 "Mrs. David M'Ivor." Medallion.

Soane, Harry, 8 Green-st., London.
9 Frame of specimens of engraving and die-sinking, heraldic painting, seals, &c.
10 Frame of specimens of engraving and die-sinking, heraldic painting, seals, &c.
11 Frame of specimens of engraving and die-sinking, heraldic painting, seals, &c.
12 Frame of specimens of engraving and die-sinking, heraldic painting, seals, &c.

Stevenson, D. W., 2 Castle-terrace, Edinburgh.
13 "Nymph at the Stream."
14 "The Fair Maid of Perth."
15 "Beatrice, a Roman Girl."
16 "The Blue Bell." Bust of a Scotch peasant girl.

17 "The Song of the Shirt"

18 "Ophelia." Marble.

CLASS IV—A Rchitectural Drawings and Models.

1 "Decoration of large Drawingroom."
2 "Decoration of Boudoir."
(Executed for T. E. Smith, Esq., M.P., 52 Prince's-gate, London.)
3 "Decoration of Second-floor Bedroom."
4 "Decoration of Drawingroom."
5 "Decoration of Boudoir."
(Executed for F. Lehmann, Esq., 15 Berkeley-square, London.)

6 "Burlington House." Erected for the use of the learned and scientific societies of England.
7 "Dulwich College." General view.
8 "Dulwich College, Great Hall."
9 "Dulwich College." Sketches of various portions.
10 "Design submitted in Competition, in 1859, for New Foreign Offices." Awarded second premium by the judges.


12 "Marlborough Club House, Pall Mall, London."
15 "Hemsted Manor, Kent." Erected for Lord Cranbrook.
16 "Taverham Hall, Norfolk." Erected for J. N. Micklethwait, Esq.
17 "Lytchett Heath, Dorset." Erected for Lord Eustace Cecil.
18 "Corn Exchange and Public Rooms, Aylesbury."

19 "Side Chapel, St. Chad, Haggerstone."
20 "Church of Annunciation, Chislehurst, Kent." South-west view.
21 "Church of Ascension, Lavender Hill." South east view.
22 "Schools of St. Michael, with Convent and Hospital, Shoreditch."
23 "Chapel of the Convent of St. Mary at-ye-cross, Shoreditch."

Cameron & Elliott, 46 Duke-St., Manchester-square.
23b "Adoration of the Magi; Presentation in the Temple." Stained glass design.
23c "Transfiguration." Stained glass design.
23d "Four Apostles." Stained glass design.
23e "Domestic Window, for Billiard-room." Stained glass design.

Champneys, Basil, 39 Great Marlborough-st., London.
24 Two successful "Competition Designs for the New Literary and Divinity Schools for Cambridge University."
25 "Competition Design for New Examination Schools for Oxford."
26 "New Church of St. Peter-le-Baily, Oxford."
27 "Now Church of St. Martin, Mayfield, Kent."

Clarke, E. F. C., 10 Serjeants' Inn, Temple, London.
28 "Holy Trinity Church, Beckenham, Kent." In course of erection.
29 "House at Rotherham, Yorkshire."

30 "Perspective View of the Royal Bank of Scotland, Bishopsgate-st. Within."
31 "Perspective View of 36 and 37 Leadenhall-st."

32 "First Premiated Design for the Foreign Office, Whitehall, London."

Goodman, T., Southend, Essex.
33 "Interior View of the South Porch of the Church, South Benfleet, Essex."


35 "Natural Science Schools, Harrow." Front view.
36 "Natural Science Schools, Harrow." Garden elevation.
37 "Hunting Lodge, Copsehill, Gloucestershire."
38 "Grand Pump Room Hotel, Bath."


39 "Perspective View of School Building, erected on site of old Charter House Schools in London, for Worshipful Company of Merchant Tailors."

Jackson, T. G., Devereux-chambers, Temple, London.
(Honorable mention, Paris Universal Exhibition, 1878.)

40 "New Examination Schools for the University of Oxford." View in High-st.
41 "New Examination Schools for the University of Oxford." View of quadrangle.
42 "New Town Hall, Tipperary, Ireland." Architecture in terra-cotta, with decoration in sgrafflatura; walls rough-cast.


43 "Perspective View, in Pen and Ink, of the New Municipal Buildings recently erected at Cardiff."
44 "Front Elevation of Design, submitted in competition, for Shakespere Memorial Theatre, Picture Gallery and Library, at Stratford-on-Avon."


45 "The New Markets of the City of London:—Central Meat Market; Central Poultry and Provision Market; Billingsgate Fish Market."
46 "The Library and Museum of the City of London."


47 "Original Design for proposed new Parliament Houses at Sydney, N.S.W."


48 "North-east View of Wentworth Church, Yorkshire."
49 "South-East View of St. Augustine's Church, Kilburn, London."
50 "Interior of Wentworth Church."
51 "View of a House in South Wales."
52 "Interior of Sutton Verry Church, Wiltshire."


53 "Design for Leicester Town Hall."
54 "Design submitted in Competition for the new Vestry Hall, Kensington, London."
55 "The new Greek Church, Bayswater, London."
56 "The new Parish Church, Slough, Buckinghamshire."
57 "Design submitted in Competition for the new Examination Schools for the University of Oxford."

58 "Interior of Chapel, St. Peter's Orphanage, Isle of Thanet."
59 "Rood-Screen, Ingham Church, Norfolk."
60 "University College of Wales, Aberystwith."
61 "Lambeth Palace Chapel (interior)."

63 "Blythwood." Designed and built for George Hanbury, Esq.
64 "Brambletye." Designed and built for Donald Larnach, Esq.

65 "The Town Hall, Bromley, Kent."
66 "The County Court Offices, Barnsley."
67 "Design submitted for Municipal Buildings, Leicester."

68 "Schools erected in British-st., Millwall, for the London School Board."
69 "Memorial Tower erected in Locke Park, Barnsley."

70 "Exterior Perspective of Congregational Church, George-st., Croydon."
71 "Interior Perspective of Congregational Church, George-st., Croydon."

72 "Design for Congregational Church, Blackburn, Lancashire."
73 "Presbyterian Church, Marylebone, London."
74 "Messrs. Doulton's Studios, Lambeth, London."

Taylor, W. G.
74a "Design for Window, St. Paul's."

75 "Design for University Building at Nottingham."

Taylor, Andrew J.
75a "The Angel Choir, Lincoln."
Trevail, Sylvanus, Tywardreath, Par, Cornwall.

76 "Towey Board Schools, Cornwall."
77 "St. Ives Board Schools, Cornwall."


78 "The Tower and Spire of St. George's Church, Tufnell Park, London."


79 "Interior View of the Index Museum, Natural History Museum, South Kensington, London."
80 "Exterior View of the Principal Front of the Natural History Museum, South Kensington, London."


81 "Church of St. Luke, Deptford."
82 "Church of St. Mary, Loughton."


83 "Premises occupied by the Bank of New Zealand, and the National Safe Deposit Company, London."
84 "St. Stephen's Club House, Westminster Bridge, London."


85 "Church of St. Mark, Battersea Rise," South-east view.
86 "Church of St. Peter, Battersea," South-east view.


87 "Elevation of New Portions of Chateau de Martin-vast, near Cherbourg, France."
88 "Elevation (facing Courtyard) of New Portions of Chateau de Martinvast, near Cherbourg, France."
89 "Lateral Elevations of New Portions of Chateau de Martinvast, near Cherbourg, France."
90 "Longitudinal Sections of Chateau de Martinvast, near Cherbourg, France."


91 "View of the Exchange and adjoining Buildings, Liverpool."

Young, William, 14 and 15 Exeter Hall, London.

93 "Designs for Mansions.

CLASS V.—Engravings & Lithographs.

Ballin, A., 1 Park Villas, Brentford, Middlesex.

FOUR ETCHINGS—BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR.

1 "The Morning."
"The English 'Temeraire' and the French 'Redoutable' and 'Fongueux.'"
"The 'Royal Sovereign' after the Battle."
"The Last Shot"
2 "Landing at Gravesend of their R.HH. the Duke and Duchess of Edinburgh."


3 "Her Majesty the Queen, with her Grandchildren, Prince Albert Victor, Prince George, and Princess Victoria of Wales." After J. Sant, R.A.
4 "Prayer." After J. Phillip, R.A.
5 "Coming Home." After J. Phillip, R.A.
6 "La Gloria." A Spanish Wake. After J. Phillip, R.A.
7 "Breakfast in the Highlands." After J. Phillip, R.A.
8 "My First Sermon." After J. E. Millais, R. A.
9 "My Second Sermon." After J. E. Millais, R.A.
10 "Baron Julius Reuter." After R. Lehmann.

Evershed, A., 10 Mansfield Villas, Ham-stead, London.

11 "The Tower of London—The Byward Gate." Etching.
13 "On the Thames—Kingston Bridge." Etching.
14 Ten etchings on the Thames, from nature.

Heseltine, J. P., 196 Queen's Gate, London.

15 Three etchings.
16 Three etchings.

Lowenstam, L., 9 Titchfield-terrace, Regent's Park, London.

17 "Portrait of Lord Salisbury." Etching.
18 "Portrait of Lord Derby." Etching.
19 "Portrait of the late Lord John Russell." Etching.


20 Frame of etchings—including portrait of Sir Moses Montefiore.

Severn, W.

21 "Our Boys." From a painting by W. Severn. Engraved by J. B. Pratt.

Simmons, W. H.


CLASS XII.—Photographio Proofs and Apparatus.


(Instantaneous Photographs on Dry Plates. Artistic Studies from Nature.)
1 "The Hill Side."
2 "Caernarvon Castle."
Heath, Vernon, London.

14 "Elder Brethren, Burnham Beeches."
15 "Summer, Burnham Beeches."
16 "Windsor Castle, from the Thames."
17 "Horse Chestnut Tree. The Thames, at Cook ham."
18 "The Old Manor House, Stoke Park."
19 "The Queen’s Deodara—The Stopes, Windsor Castle."
20 "A Peep into Fairy Land, Burnham Beeches."
21 "Scotch Fir. Kentchurch Court."
22 "Blaven, from Scour-na-Gillean, Isle of Skye."
23 "Great Scots Fir, Inverary."
24 "Marscow, Isle of Skye."
25 "Ben-Venue and the Trossachs."
26 "Glen Shira, Inverary."
27 "Study of an Elm, Stoke Park."
28 "The Vale of Festiniog, North Wales."

Brightman, E., Bristol.

29 Group of photographs.

Maps and other Documents Exhibited by the Ordnance Survey Department of Great Britain,

Which will be Presented to the Public Library of Victoria at the Close of the Exhibition.

1 Map of part of the city of Winchester, scale 1-500th.
2 Map of part of the city of London, scale 5 feet to a mile.
3 Map of Southampton and environs, scale 1-2500th.
4 Map of part of Hampshire, scale 6 inches to a mile.
5 Map of part of Scotland (in outline), one inch scale.
6 Map of part of Scotland (with hills), one inch scale,
7 Portfolio containing specimens of maps of towns, on 1-500th and 5 feet scales.
8 Portfolio containing specimens of maps of the cadastral survey, 1-2500th scale, and photographic reductions.
9 Portfolio containing specimens of maps, scale 6 inches to a mile.
10 Portfolio containing specimens of maps, on the scale of 1 inch to the mile.

Photozincographs.

11 Domesday Book (in separate counties), 33 vols.
12 National MSS. of England, complete in 4 parts.
13 National MSS. of Scotland, parts II., III
14 National MSS. of Ireland, parts I., II.
15 Anglo-Saxon MSS., part I.
16 Magna Charta.
17 National Covenant of Scotland.

Italy.

I. Works of Art.

Class 1.—Oil Paintings.

Ardy, Commendatore Bartolomeo, Turin.
1 "Solitude."
2 "Between Albano and Rome."

Baldulno, Alessandro, Turin.
3 "The Friendly Barons."

Ballerini, Felice, Venice.
4 "Venice, from the Mole."
5 "Palermo."

Baratti.
6 "The Honeymoon" (exhibited by Cavaliere Felice Pisani, Florence).
7 "A Lady Sleeping" (exhibited by Cavaliere Felice Pisani, Florence).

Barbavara, Count Alfonso, Turin.
8 "H.M. Umberto I., King of Italy."

Bello, Pietro, Naples.
9 "Rising of the Moon on the Lagunes of Venice."

Betti, Augrusto, Florence.
10 "A Forest of Abruzzi."

Biscarra, Carlo Felice, Turin.
11 "The First Symptoms of Jealousy."
12 "Peasant Girls of the Hills, near Turin."

Bologrna, Domenico, Turin.
13 "Returning from the Pasture."
14 "The Convent Dole."

Borrani, Prof. Edoardo, Florence.
15 "The Recall of the Conscript."

**Bradley, T. H., Florence.**
16 "Florence, from the Arno."
17 "Florence, from the Villa Galileo."

**Brandeis, Antonietta, Venice.**
18 "Palazzo, Cavalli, Venice."
19 "A Balcony in Venice."
20 "The Buranella" (native of Burano Island, near Venice).

**Bruzzi, Stefano, Florence.**
21 "Country Fair on the Appennines."

**Caprile, Vincenzo, Naples.**
22 "Costumes of Naples."

**Carcano, Filippo, Milan.**
23 "La Romantica" (exhibited by V. Grubicy).

**Castagnola, Prof., Florence.**
24 "Faust and Marguerite" (exhibited by Cavaliere Felice Pisani).

**Castelli, Alessandro, Rome.**
25 "The Alps."

**Cavarretta, Giuseppe, Naples.**
26 "A Caprice."

**Cefaly, Commendatore Andrea, Naples.**
27 "The Car of Progress."

**Celomoni, P., Florence.**
28 "A Sea Piece" (exhibited by R. Metzgor).

**Ciardi, Guglielmo, Venice.**
29 "An Italian Market, Treviso."

**Cimino, Mrs. G., Naples.**
30 "Mamma's Bouquet" (exhibited by Vincenzo Cimino).

**Cipriani, Nazzareno, Rome.**
31 "Poultry Market in Rome."

**Colle, Angelo, Venice.**
32 "To the Wood."
Colle, Leone, Venice.
33 "Piazza S. Marco during the Carnival."
34 "A Serenade on the Grand Canal."

Corrodi, Hermann, Rome.
35 "Greek Temple. Paestum, near Salerno."
36 "Nicosia, Capital of Cyprus."
37 "Venice."

Costa, G., Florence.
38 "First Thought."
39 "The Ambitious Model."
40 "Costume of Tuscan Peasant."
41 "Costume of Tuscan Peasant."
42 "The Painter."

Crevatin,—, Florence.
43 "A Lady in the Garden" (exhibited by Cavaliere Felice Pisani).

Cumbo, Cavaliere Ettore, Florence.
44 "Bondasca."
45 "Sunset."
46 "Ischia."

D'Agliano, Cavaliere Michel Angelo, Turin.
47 "Erinitaggio, near San Remo."
48 "Rocks, near Bordighera, after a Storm."
49 "Olive Trees, at Bordighera."
50 "Near Cuneo."
51 "Seashore, near Bordighera."
52 "Mountains of Biellese."

D'Ancona, Vito, Florence.
53 "Costume of the Pope's Swiss Guard."
54 "Teresina, the Thoughtless."
55 "Capuchin Monk in his Cell."

D'Andrea, Jacopo, Venice.
56 "Fisherman, from a ballad of Goethe."
57 "Quereini Stampalia Presenting a Medal to Voltaire."
58 "Head of a Venetian Woman."

Danielli, Prof. Giovanni, Belluno.
59 "A Wood in Val Savarance. Victor Emmanuel, late King of Italy, hunting."

De Francesco, Lorenzo, Naples.
60 "Italian Costume."
61 "Italian Costume."
Delia Libera, G. B., Venice.
62 "The Doge's Palace in Venice."
63 "Interior of the Church of St. Mark, Venice."

De Martino, Guglielmo, Naples.
64 "Costumes of Calabria,"

De Nigris, Giuseppe, Naples.
65 "The Last Mass."
66 "Blind Working-women."

De Tommasi, Pubblio, Rome.
67 "Sunday."

De Vivo, Donato, Naples.
68 "Trophy—Pheasants, Hares, &c."
69 "Trophy—Ducks, Dogs, &c."
70 "Souvenir of Naples—Sailors on the Seashore of Posillipo."
71 "Souvenir of Naples—Peasants of the Abruzzi Dancing."

De Vivo, Cavaliere Tommaso, Naples.
72 "Allegory of America."

Di Pinto, Domenico, Naples.
73 "A Religious Procession."

Dovera, Achille, Milan.
74 "The Island of Pescatori, Lake Maggiore."
75 "Villa Clara, on Lake Maggiore, the Residence of Her Majesty the Queen of England."

Faccio, Cavallere Pier. Luigi, Turin.
76 "Harvest in Valles."  

Faccioli, Raffaele, Bologna.
77 "Visiting at the Castle."

Fattori, Prof. Giovanni, Florence.
78 "Horse Market, on the Piazza della Trinita, Rome."
79 "Costumes of Italian Forest Labourers."

Fiore,—, Florence.
80 "Bacchanals" (exhibited by Flor and Findel, Florence).
81 "Card Players" (exhibited by Flor and Findel, Florence).
82 "Monk Playing Chess" (exhibited by Flor and Findel, Florence).
83 "Wine Drinker and Dog" (exhibited by Flor and Findel, Florence).
84 "Roman Girl and Man" (exhibited by Flor and Findel, Florence).
Flor & Findel (exhibited by), Florence.
85 "Raphael's Madonna of the Chair" (copy from the original).
86 "Raphael's Madonna of the Goldfinch" (copy from the original).

Folli, Francesco, Florence.
87 "The Beard."
88 "The Holy Water."

Francini, Francesco, Florence.
89 "A Page."
90 "A Page."

Gabani, Giuseppe, Rome.
91 "A Herd of Buffaloes in the Campagna of Rome."

Galletti, M., Naples.
92 "The Ploughman's Breakfast" (exhibited by Vincenzo Cimino).

Gelati, Prof. Lorenzo, Florence.
93 "Florence."

Giacomelli, Cavaliere Vincenzo, Venice.
94 "Christopher Columbus sighting Laud."

Giannelli, Enrico, Naples.
95 "After Rain at Sunset."
96 "Palace Medina, at Posillipo."

Gioli, Francesco, Florence.
97 "The Mothers' Return."

Glisenti, A., Florence.
98 "Caught"

Gordigiani, Cavaliere Michele, Florence
99 "Portrait of H.M. Victor Emmanuel IL"

Guardabassi, Guerrino, Rome.
100 "The Silly Old Man."
101 "La Malade Imaginaire."

Guerra, Achille, Rome.
102 "Cardinal Borromeo."
103 "Interior."
104 "Porta S. Antonio, Sorrento."
105 "A Chapel."
Guida, G.
106 "Odalisca."

Guzzardi, G., Florence.
107 "An Old Caress" (exhibited by R. Metzger, Florence).
108 "A Kitchen with Boys" (exhibited by R. Metzger, Florence).
109 "Woman with a Vase" (exhibited by R. Metzger, Florence).
110 "Peasant" (exhibited by R. Metzger, Florence).
111 "A Soldier of the Sixth Century" (exhibited by R. Metzger, Florence).
112 "Woman in Costume" (exhibited by R. Metzger, Florence).
113 "A Costume" (exhibited by R, Metzger, Florence).

Laezza, Prof. Giuseppe, Naples.
114 "A Curiosity for a Painter."
115 "Panorama of Sorrento."
116 "The Cupa of Tagliano after a Procession."
117 "Pu-ti-pu Player at the Fête of the Architiello."
118 "Cow and Sheep."
119 "Two Calves in a Stable."

Lega,—, Florence.
120 "Welleda" (exhibited by Cavaliere L. Pisani, Florence).

Legay, Roberto, Venice.
121 "North Facade of the Church of St. Mark."
122 "Rivo dei Santi Apostoli and Palace of the Doge, Marino Faliero, in Venice."

Liberti, Roberto, Naples.
123 "Ioni and Clodius' Flowers: Scenes of the Last Days of Pompeii."
124 "Neapolitan Costumes."

Locatello, Gian Francesco, Venice.
125 "Venus Playing with Cupid."
126 "The Prisoner's Comfort."
127 "The Secret Denunciation in the Lion's Mouth at Venice."
128 "Convent Politics."
129 "Portrait of H.M. Victor Emmanuel II."

Lori, A., Florence.
130 "Ciociara," peasant of the Campagna, Rome (exhibited by R. Metzger, Florence).

Lovatti, Matteo, Rome.
131 "Sunset."
132 "in the Heart of the Campagna, Rome."
133 "Dead Nature."
134 "Roman Costumes."
135 "Bulls Fighting."
136 "A Baron's Court in the Sixth Century."

Loverini, Ponziano, Bergamo.
Lugli, Florence.
138 "Calabrian Costume" (exhibited by Cavaliere L. Pisani).

Luzzi, Florence.
139 "Campagna at Rome" (exhibited by Cavaliere L. Pisani).

Maccari, Prof. Cesare, Rome.
140 "Indians at Venice."

Manaresi, Ugo, Florence.
141 "Winter."

Marcato, Antonio, Venice.
142 "Madonna and Child."
143 "Roman Costume."

Marinelli, Prof. Vincenzo, Naples.
144 "An Episode of the Song of Songs of Solomon."

Marko, A., Florence.
145 "Roman Horsemen" (exhibited by Cavaliere L. Pisani).
146 "Crossing the River."

Meglio, Prof. Francesco, Naples.
147 "The Market."

Meucci, Florence.
148 "Fruits and Birds" (exhibited by A. Pollastri).
149 "Flowers and Birds" (exhibited by A. Pollastri).
150 "Live Birds" (exhibited by A. Pollastri).
151 "Live Birds" (exhibited by A. Pollastri).
152 "Dead Birds" (exhibited by A. Pollastri).
153 "Live Birds" (exhibited by A. Pollastri).
154 "Live Birds" (exhibited by A. Pollastri).
155 "Live Birds" (exhibited by A. Pollastri).

Monteforte, Edoardo, Naples.
156 "Porta Capuana, Naples."
157 "La Fonte, Naples."

Palizzi, F., Naples.
158 "The Lace Maker" (exhibited by V. Cimino).
159 "The Old Grandmother" (exhibited by V. Cimino).

Palma il Giovane.
160 "Taking down from the Cross" (exhibited by G. Zezzos, Venice).
Paoletti, Rodolfo (exhibited by), Florence.
161 "Madonna of the Chair."
162 "A Nosegay."
163 "A Nosegay."
164 "A Nosegay."
165 "Madonna of Sassoferrato."
166 "After a Masked Ball."

Picchi, Andrea (exhibited by), Florence.
167 "Fanfulla da Lodi."
168 "A Page."
169 "Monk and Soldier."
170 "Titian's Love."
171 "The Musician."
172 "A Wreath of Flowers."
173 "Titian's Daughter."
174 "The Sybil."
175 "A Nosegay."
176 "A Nosegay."
177 "Game."
178 "Fish."
179 "Bay of Naples."
180 "Posillipo."
181 "Juliette and Romeo."
182 "A Russian."

Poggi, Pietro, Rome.
183 "Ciociara" (costume of the Campagna).

Pollastri, Augusto (exhibited by), Florence.
184 "Angels" (after Fra Beato Angelico).
185 "Game-seller."
186 "Shame."
187 "Madonna" (Andrea Del Sarto).
188 "Madonna of Muriello."
189 Various small pictures.

Polli, Francesco, Florence.
190 "Fruits and Flowers."

Querena, Luigi, Venice.
191 "Canal of St. Mark."
192 "Departure of the Bucentaur from the Mole, St. Mark."

Ricca, Prospero, Turin.
193 "A Fall of Snow."

Ricci, Arvotalo Giuseppe, Turin.
194 "A Visit to the Old Aunt."
Rigo, Leonardo, Udine.
195 "Sunset in Friuli."
196 "The Tiber in Winter."

Roy, Pietro, Venice.
197 "An Old Prelate of the Middle Ages."
198 "Head of a Young Man in Agony."

Rubio, Cavaliere Luigi, Florence.
199 "Swiss Costume."
200 "A Woman Sleeping."

Sagliano, Prof. Francesco. Naples.
201 "Vesuvius, seen from Torre Annunziata."
202 "Pozzano, near Sorrento."
203 "The Hour of Rest."
204 "Fisherman of the Sarno"
205 "Dolce far Niente."
206 "A Gondolier of the Sarno."

Sassi, Pietro, Rome.
207 "Ruins of the Aqueducts of Claudius."

Sauli, Count Giuseppe d'Igliano, Turin.
208 "The Habit does not Make the Monk."
209 "On the Beach."

Schmith, Natanial, Rome.
210 "Children Playing."

Sehwicker, C.
211 "News of the War" (exhibited by R. Metzger, Florence).
212 "Near Rome" (exhibited by R. Metzger, Florence).
213 "Returning from School" (exhibited by R. Metzger, Florence).

Scuri, Prof. Enrico, Bergamo.
214 "The Nymph."

Serritelli, Giovanni, Naples.
215 "The Obelisk of S. Gennaro, from the side door of the Dome of Naples."

Siemiradzki, Enrico, Rome.
216 "A Pirate’s Cavern."

Simonetti, Prof. Alfonso, Naples.
217 "A Young Man near an Oven, costume of Palazzolo."
Squarcina, Giovanni, Venice.

218 "Portrait of Garibaldi."
219 "The Laurel in the Nineteenth Century."

Talarico, Achille, Naples.

220 "The Dreamer."
221 "Neapolitan Costumes."

Tano, Eugenio, Florence.

222 "The Tower of Michelangelo at S. Miniato."
223 "The Country Beggar."
224 "Neighbourhood of Florence."

Tessitore, Francesco, Naples.

225 "A Snow Effect."

Tiratelli, Aurelio, Rome.

226 "Sheep in the Roman Campagna at Sunrise."
227 "Alone in the Roman Campagna."

Trenti, Girolamo, Pomponesco.

228 "Summer."
229 "Winter."
230 "Autumn."
231 "A Visit."

Ussi, Prof. Stefano, Florence.

232 "Tacruri Amusing Arab Merchants camped in High Egypt."

Verita, F., Florence.

233 "A Camel" (exhibited by R. Metzger, Florence).
234 "Hunting Dog" (exhibited by R. Metzger, Florence).

Volpe, Angelo, Naples.

235 "Siesta."
236 "G. Cabalesti."

Werner, Orlando, Rome.

237 "The Last Day of Pompeii."

Ximenes, Ettore, Florence.

238 "On the Arno."

Zamboni, G., Florence.

239 "Near Rome" (exhibited by R. Metzger).

Zezzos, Giuseppe (exhibited by), Venice.
240 "A Battle."
241 "Santa Maria Elizabeth."
242 "San Gerolamo."

Zona, Baron Girolamo, Naples.
243 "Spring Flowers."
244 "Returning from the Marsh."
245 "The Disturbed Siesta."
246 "Innocence."
247 "The Sleep of Spring."
248 "Card Players."

Class 2.—Various Paintings and Drawings.

Ardy, Commendatore Bartolomeo, Turin.
249 Two hand-painted china plates, representing "The Tiber" and "Winter."

Battaglia, Gaetano, Naples.
250 Artistic earthenware, Capodimonte style.

Boncinelli, Giovanni, & Sons, Florence.
251 Pictures in Florentine mosaic.

Bradley, J. H., Florence.
252 Etching plate, artist's proof—"Venice, from the Giudecca."
253 Etching plate, artist's proof—"Ponte Panada."

Carabba, Vespesiano, Venice.
254 "Our Saviour and the Woman of Canaan" (copy de Palma).
255 "Portrait of Raphael da Urbino's Mother" (after a portrait in the Uffizi Gallery of Florence).
256 "Madonna and Child" (St. Catherine, copy of A. Cordigliaghi).
257 "The Fame of Giovanni Bellini."
258 "The Rape of Europa" (after Paolo Veronese's picture).

Chelazzi, Tito, Florence.
259 Mirror, with painted flowers.

Cipriani, Nazzareno, Rome.
260 Water-colour—"Roman Countryman."
261 Water-colour—"Roman Countrywoman."

Civita, A., Florence.
262 Collection of mosaics.

Corrodi, Salomon, Rome.
263 Water-colour—"Park, at Terni."
264 Water-colour—"Port Anzio."
265 Water-colour—"Pozzuoli."
266 Water-colour—"Via Appia, Rome."
Corsi, Pietro, Florence.
267 Mosaic works, ancient style.

De Nigris, Giuseppe, Naples.
268 Water-colour—"An Eruption of Vesuvius."
269 Water-colour—"Mugellina."
270 "The Aqueduct of Claudius."
271 "Coast of Sorrento."
272 "Costumes of Palazzolo, Castrocielo."
273 "Landscape, with Goat."
274 "Torre del Greco."
275 "The Forum of Pompeii."

De Tommasi, Pubblio, Rome.
276 Water-colour—"The Public Writer."

Ethofer, Teodoro, Rome.
277 Water-colour—"Game at Chess."
278 Water-colour—"Spanish Duet."

Falcini, A., Florence.
279 Collection of Mosaics.

Farina, A., & Son, Faience.
280 Artistic earthenware, Faience imitation.

Gallandt, L., Rome.
283 Monumental mosaic works—"Cascades of Tivoli and Temple," "Forum of Rome," "St. Peter."

Ginori. Manifattura, Doccia, near Florence.
284 Paintings on earthenware and china.

Giustiniani, A., Naples.
285 Artistic earthenware, Urbino and Capodimonte style.

Guardabassi, Guerino, Rome.
286 "The Month of May."

Mariotti & Fantoni, Florence.
287 A collection of Florentine mosaic pictures.

Martinetti, Angelo, Rome.
288 Mirror, with painted flowers and animals.
Mazzarelli, B., Naples.
289 Artistic earthenware, Urbino and Capodimonte style.

Meyer, Oscar, Florence.
290 Collection of Florentine mosaics.

Olivieri, Luigi, Venice.
291 Collection of mosaics.

Ricci, Paolo, Fiesole.
292 Various designs.

Rinaldi,—, Milan.
293 Water-colour—"Ugo and Parisina" (exhibited by V. Grubicy, Milan).
294 Water-colour—"Hamlet and Ophelia" (exhibited by V. Grubicy, Milan).

Roccheggiani, C., Rome.

Roesler, Ettore, Rome.
298 "The Supplication."

Sandrini, A., Florence.
299 Collection of mosaics.

Severati, Pilippo, Rome.
300 Enamelled lava—"Head of the Fornarina, after the 'Transfiguration' of Raphael."
301 Two portraits, enamelled lava.

Soave's Manufactory of Tradesmen's Signs, Turin.
302 A sign.

Societa Venezia Murano, Venice.
303 "Christ," monumental mosaic work.
304 Celebrated men, in mosaic. Ornament.
305 "The Last Supper." monumental mosaic work.
307 Two mosaics of Christ.
308 "Last Supper."
309 "Christ, the Redemptor" (copy of St. Marco).

Societa Musiva Veneziana, Venice.
310 "Byzantine Madonna" (copy of mosaic work in Church of St. Maria e Donate of Murano, Venice).
311 Three small mosaics, representing Christ and Raphael.
Tanfani, C., Rome.
312 Artistic earthenware—Etruscan vases.

Tarantoni, Luigi, Rome.
313 Picture in mosaic, representing "Night," by Raphael.
314 "Poetry—Raphael."
315 "Theology."
316 "La Sibilla Eritrea of Michel Angelo."
317 "The Prophet Isaiah."

Torrini, Giocondo, Florence.
318 Collection of mosaics.

Class 3.—Sculpture and Die-sinking.

Albacini, Achille, Rome.
319 Bust—"Ciociara," costume of the Campagna.
320 Statue—"Rebecca at the Well."

Ancona, Amilcare, Milan.
321 Bust—"Shakespeare."
322 Statue—" Leonardo da Vinci."
323 Statue—"Michel Angelo."
324 Statue—"Complacency."
325 Bust—"The Beggar."

Andreini, Perdinando, Florence.
326 Statue—"Cupid Chaining Hearts."

Angelini.
327 "Phryne and Iperide" (exhibited by Cavaliere G. Riga, Naples).

Argenti, Angelo, Milan.
328 Statue—"The Flower Girl."
329 Bust—"Innocence."
330 Bust—"Modesty."
331 Bust—"Hope."
332 "Happy Age."

Barcaglia, Donato, Milan.
333 Statue—"Returning from the Hunt."
334 Statue—"Daring."

Bazzanti, Pietro, & Son, Florence.
335 "Childhood of Michel Angelo."
336 "Childhood of Raphael."
337 "Sharon's Rose (Solamitide)."
338 "Forced Praver."
339 "Forced Lesson."
340 "Shepherdess."

**Becucci Brothers, Florence.**

341 "Fidelity."
342 "A Cold Bath."
343 Bust—"Bacchus."
344 Bust—"Murillo's Madonna."
345 Bust—"Bacchus."
346 "The Four Seasons."
347 "The Young Cricketer—'Good Morning.'"
348 "Music."
349 "Forsaken."
350 "Fisherman (Masaniello)."

**Bernasconi, Pietro, Milan.**

351 Statue—"A Child's Pleasure."
352 Statue—"A Child's Pain."

**Besarel, Panciera, Venice.**

353 Wood sculpture and carving.

**Borro, L., Venice.**

354 "Innocence."
355 "Youth."

**Bottinelli, Antonio, Rome.**

356 Marble bust—"Spring."
357 Marble bust—"Summer."
358 Marble bust—"Autumn."
359 Marble bust—"Winter."
360 Small group of marble—"The Genius of Poetry."
361 Small group of marble—"The Virgin Camilla."
362 Marble bust—"Roman Girl."
363 "First Communion."

**Braga, Enrico, Milan.**

364 Marble statue—"Shame."

**Butti, Enrico, Milan.**

365 Marble statue—"The Second Lesson."

**Buzzi, Luigi Giberto, Milan.**

366 Marble bust—"Inspiration."
367 Divan of carved stone.
368 Two scats of carved stone.
369 A table, with grapes and birds.

**Calvi, Cavaliere Costantino, Rome.**

370 A plate, in chased silver and iron, inlaid with gold and silver.
371 Small iron box, inlaid silver, with children chased in silvered bronze.
372 Chased and silvered bronze candlesticks; flagon, inlaid with gold and silver.
Caniparoli, Antonio, Carrara.
373 Marble statue—" Summer."

Casoni, Tacca Ariodante, Carrara.
374 Marble group—"Leda, and Jupiter (as a swan)."

Ceccarini, Pietro, Rome.
375 Bust—" Queen Victoria."

Cencetti, Adalberto, Rome.
377 Group—" Temptation."
387 Bust—"Piccolo Tonietto."

Ciapponi, F., ————, Rome.
379 Cameos.

Ciniselli, Giovanni. Rome.
380 Marble statue—"First Sorrow."
381 Marble statue—"Suzanne."
382 Bust—"Modesty."

Creco, Luigi, Osbuni, Bari.
383 Sculpture, damaged on the voyage.

Dal Todesco, Marco, Venice.
384 Wood sculpture and carving.

De Caro, A., Venice.
385 Cameos.

Delia Vedova, Cavaliere Pietro, Turin.
386 Marble statue—"Summer."

Dell'Ara & Co., Milan.
387 Marble group—" Children with an Umbrella."
388 Marble group—"Children with an Umbrella."
389 Statuette—"A Girl in Mask."
390 Two vases.

De Lotto, G. B., Venice.
391 Wood-carving and sculpture.

Del Panta, Egisto, Florence.
392 Statue—" The Future Soldier."
393 Statue—" Childhood of Carlo Goldoni."
394 Three groups—"Innocence," "Fidelity," "Boy and Dog."
D'Epinay, P., Rome.

395 "Sapho."
396 "Prince of Wales."
397 "Prince of Wales."
398 "Violette."
399 "Ciociara, Brigand's Wife."
400 "Princess of Wales."
401 "Satyr and Bacchus."
402 "Trasteverina."
403 "Penelope."
404 "Calypso."

Dini, Commendatore Giuseppe, Turin.

405 Marble statue—"Youth."
406 Marble statue—"After the Bath."
407 Marble statue—"Shipwreck."
408 Marble statue—" Autumn."
409 Marble statue—" Roman Girl."

Dupre, G. B., Florence.

410 Bronze statue—"Cain" (cast and exhibited by A. Tognozzi, Moreni).

Evangelista, Francesco Paolo, Naples.

411 Statuette, terra-cotta—"Repentance."
412 Statuette, terra-cotta—"Poverty and Love."
413 Model for a monument, in terra-cotta,

Fiacchi, Enrico, Florence.

414 Jewel cabinet, in walnut, carved frames end brackets.

Fiaschi, Gerolamo, Carrara.

415 Marble statue—"Ambition."
416 Marble plate, with fruits.
417 Fruits, &c.

Fontana, Achille, Carrara.

418 "Venus de Medici" (copy of Canova).

Francati & Santamaria, Rome.

419 Cameos.
420 Engraved shells.

Frilli, Antonio, Florence.

421 Original group—"Fidelity."
422 Original group—"The Guardian Angel."
423 Statue—"An old Beggar."
424 Reproduction—"Venus of Canova."
425 Reproduction—"Trust in God" (Bartolini).
426 A collection of marble and alabaster statuettes.
427 Artistic works in serpentine.
Galletti, Prof. Stefano, Rome.
428 "A Girl with Flowers."
429 Bust—"Tho Archangel Raphael."
430 Bust—"The Archangel Gabriel."
431 Bust—"Salve."
432 Bust—"Vale."
433 Bust—"Moses."
434 Bust—"Jesus Sleeping."

Galli, Rizzardo, Milan.
435 Group—"The Orphans."
436 Statue—"Christopher Columbus."
437 "St. John the Baptist, as a Child, Sleeping on the Lamb."
438 "The Bride."
439 "The Devotee."
440 "Modesty."
441 "Prayer."
442 "Resignation."
443 "Spring."
444 Table and chairs for garden.

Gajani, Egisto, Florence.
445 Carved brackets, frames, &c.

Gamberai, Saul, Florence.
446 A book-cabinet, ancient style, carved frames, brackets, &c.

Gatti, Cavaliere G. B., Rome.
447 Wood-carving.

Gemignani, Antonio, Naples.
448 Statuetta—"Progress."

Giordani, Angelo, Venice.
449 Bronze statue—"Leda, with the Swan."

Grilli, Camillo, Rome.
450 Small group—"The Fall."

Guarnerio, Pietro, Milan.
451 "Forced Prayer."

Guggenheim, M., Venice.
452 Wood-carving and sculpture.

Guglielmi, Prof. Luigi, Rome.
453 "Sleeping Boy."
454 Bust—"Marcus Aurelius."
455 Bust—"Venus del Campidoglio."
456 Bust—"Little Dog."

Jerace, Francesco, Naples.
457 Bronze statue—"Guappatiello."
458 Bronze statue—"A Donkey."
459 Marble bust—"Victa."

Kopf, Joseph, Rome.
460 Marble fountain—"Child upon a Dolphin."

Lazzerini, Pietro, Carrara.
461 "Two Children."

Leone, Angelo, Catania.
462 Sculpture.

Maccagnani, Eugenio, Rome.
463 Bronze—"A Negro of Tunis."

Marai, Luigi, Milan.
464 Marble bust—"La Stella Confidente."

Maraini, Adelaide, Rome.
465 Bust—"Romeo and Juliet."
466 "Magdalen."
467 Statuette—"Innocence."

Mariotti, Francesco, Carrara.
468 Statuette—"The Little Smoker."

Martini, Garibaldi, Pietrasanta.
469 "An Old Beggar."

Masini, Prof. Gerolamo, Rome.
470 "Fabiola."

Meli, Prof. G., Rome.
471 Small group—"St. John the Baptist."

Meyer, Oscar, Florence.
472 Terra-cotta statuettes.

Mossuti, Enrico, Naples.
473 Statue—"G. B. Pergolesi" (broken on the voyage).

Monzini, Gelindo, Milan.
474 Marble statuette—"First Sorrow."
Monteverde, Commendatore Giulio, Rome.

475 Marble statue—"The Genius of Franklin."

Morini, Francesco, Florence.

476 Two book-cabinets, in walnut.
477 A gilt carved lustre, and carved frames, brackets,

Morozzi Brothers, Florence.

478 A gilt carved lustre.

Olivieri, Cavaliere Luigi, Venice.

479 Cameos.

Orfanatrofio, Gesuati, Venice.

480 Wood-carving.

Pagani, Luigi, Milan.

481 Marble statue—"The Peri."

Pandiani, Costantino, Milan.

482 Statue—"A Mask."

Panducci, Evaristo, Florence.

483 Carved frames, &c.

Pazzi, Prof. Commendatore E., Florence.

484 Bronze statue—"Moses, as a Child."

Petrucci, R., Naples.

485 Cameos.

Pollastri, Augusto, Florence.

486 Works of art in carved wood, with figures and birds.

Pozzi, Egidio, Milan.

487 Marble—"Baby's Food."

Quartara, G., Turin.

488 A table.

Rech, A., Treviso.

489 Marble work.

Ricci, Paolo, Florence.

490 Bas-relief—"Holy Water."
491 Marble statue—"Dante, as Ambassador."
492 Medal made in remembrance of Buonarroti's Fourth Centenary, celebrated at Florence.
493 Six different works, modelled in chalk.

Ripamonti, Riccardo, Milan.
494 Sculpture.

Romanelli Brothers. Florence.
495 "A Boy."

Romanelli, Ferdinando, Florence.
496 "A Girl, with Roses."
497 "St. Cecily" (wood-carving).
498 Carved frames, brackets, and friezes.

Rondoni, Alessandro, Rome.
499 Marble bust—"Modesty."
500 Marble bust—"Fauna."

Rossetti, Antonio, Rome.
501 Statue—"Ophelia."
502 Fountain and table—"Vintage."
503 Pedestal, African marble—"A Vestal Tempted by Love."
504 "The Last Days of Pompeii."
505 Statue—"Secret Love."
506 Group—"The Heart Question."
507 "Louis XVI. Vases."
508 Statue—"Secret Love."
509 "Hope."

Sani, Tommaso, Melbourne.
510 Statue—"Welcome."

Santarell, Prof. Cavaliere Emilio. Florence.
511 Marble statue—"The Madonna."
512 Marble statue—"Prudence."
513 Marble statue—"Secrecy."
514 Marble statue—"Michel Angelo."
515 Marble statue—"Galileo Galilei."
516 Marble statue—"Dante."

Scalambrini, G-, Rome.
517 "A Cup."

Siotto, P., Rome.
518 Cameos.

Societa Indoratori (S. Capasso, President). Naples.
519 Two small busts, in terra-cotta.

Somasca, Francesco, Rome.
520 Wood-sculpture and carving.

**Spassi, Grazioso, Verona.**
521 Marble group—"An Innocent Kiss."

**Summers, Charles. Rome.**
522 "Lynceus and Hypermnestra."

**Tabacchi, Commendatore Edoardo, Turin.**
523 "The Bather" (damaged on the journey).

**Tacco, Giuseppe, Carrara.**
524 "Leda."

**Tognozzi Morein, A., Florence.**
525 Bronze statuette—"Bacchante."
526 Bronze statuette—"Venus."
527 Bronze statuette—"Small Horse, with Harness."
528 Statue—"Bull."

**Tombini, A., Rome.**
529 "Child's Play."

**Trombetta, Ezechiele, Milan.**
530 Marble statuette—"Harvest."

**Udney, John, Carrara.**
531 Marble statue—"Shepherd Crossing the Alps."

**Vichi, Ferdinando, Florence.**
532 Alabaster statuette—"Bacchus."
533 Alabaster statuettes.

**Weiller & Co., Leghorn.**
534 Marble and alabaster works.

**Weizenberg, A., Rome.**
535 Marble statue—"The Youth at the Brook" (Schiller).

**Zannoni, Cavaliere Ugo, Milan.**
536 Marble statue—"Study and Work."
537 Marble statue—"Illusion."

**Class 5.—Engravings and Lithographs.**

**Brogi, C., Florence.**
538 Engravings.
Frauenfelder, Paolo, Palermo.
539 Lithographs.

Netherlands.
[Displayed with other Exhibits in the Netherlands Court.]

I. Works of Art.

Class 1.—Oil Paintings.

Eversen, A.
1 "Village View in Winter."
2 "Village View in Winter."

Henkes, G., The Hague.
3 "In the Cabin of a Trekschutt."

Mesdag, H. W., The Hague.
4 "On the Zealand Streams."
5 "The Strand Scheveningen."

Mesdag, Madame.
6 "Marshland, Province of Drenthe."

Paling, J. J.
7 "Interior."

Schiedges, P. P.
8 "River View, with Hazy Sky."

Schulman, L., Hilversum.
9 "Landscape in Guelderland."

Schwartze, Therese.
10 "Afra. a Martyr."
11 "A Study."

Taanman, J., Amsterdam.
12 "Girl and Flowers."
13 "A Conservative."
14 "When the Teacher's Back is Turned."

Van Bosse, Miss, The Hague.
15 "A Brook Province of Guelderland."
Van de Sande, Miss E., Bakuysen.
16 "Roses."

Van den Berg.
17 "Landscape, with Sheep."
18 "Wood, with Shags."

Van Essen, J., Amsterdam.
19 "In the Forest."

Veder, H., Rotterdam.
20 "On the Meuse."

Westerwoudt, G. B., Amsterdam.
21 "Village Scene."
22 "A Study."

New South Wales.

[Displayed with other Exhibits in the New South Wales Court.]

I. Works of Art.

Class 1.—Oil Paintings.

Banning, Clara, 15 Selwyn-st., Sydney.
1 Landscape painting.

2 Oil paintings.

3 "Bulli Pass."
4 "Bulli, from Mount Pleasant."
5 "Mount Macedon Swamp, Victoria" (N. S. Wales Art Society).

CollingTidge, A. & G., Ryde, Parramatta River.
6 "Manly Beach, from Shell Bay."
7 "Wattles."
8 "Sunset," Ryde (N. S. Wales Art Society).
9 "Kissing Point, Parramatta."

Fielding, T. H., Woodlands, Double Bay.
10 "On the Dart, Devon" (N. S. Wales Art Society).
Franklin, F. A., Buona Vista, Wollongong.
11 Oil painting of Sydney Harbour.

12 Landscape "View of West Sydney" (N. S. Wales Art Society).

13 "Sydney Harbour, from Vaucluse."

Hunt, C., 16 Bond-st., Sydney.
14 "Hyde Park, Sydney."
15 "On the Parramatta River" (N. S. Wales Art Society).

Hunt, Mrs. G. H., Ryde Public School, Parramatta.
16 Oil paintings.

Lowrey, C. C., Brundah, Grenfell.
17 "Head of the Killeries."
18 "The Song of the Streamlet."
19 "Stranded."
20 "Ship on Fire."

21 "Morning after the Gale" (after Meilby).

22 "Govett's Leap" (N. S. Wales Art Society).

Municipal Council, Sydney.
23 Oil painting of Her Majesty the Queen.

Piguenit, W. C., Warren-road, Marrickville.
24 "Cook's River, Canterbury, from near Under-cliff Bridge" (N. S. Wales Art Society).

Piguenit, Miss H. V., Warren-road, Marrickville.
25 "Flowers" (two) (N. S. Wales Art Society).

Rennick, Marian, Forest Lodge, Parramattaroad, Sydney.
26 Two landscapes of Australian scenery.

Samuel, Miss Lydia E., Auburn Villa, Bourke-st., Surrey Hills.
27 "Salmon Pool" (after Hull).
28 "Morning after the Gale" (after Meilby).
29 "Garden Palace, Sydney."

Woodehouse, E. B., Mount Gilead, Campbell-town.
30 "Prize cattlo" (two), by W. Macleod.

**Woolley, Mrs. N. N., 15 Elizabeth-terrace, Upper William-st.**

31 "Early Morning, Ocean side of Manly Beach."

**Class 2.—Various Paintings and Drawings.**

**Alexander, Miss E. K. N., 48 Margaret-st., Sydney.**

32 Two crayon drawings.

**Anderson, R., 127 Riley-st., Woolloomooloo.**

33 Pen-and-ink drawings—(1) "Elizabeth Knighting Drake," (2) "The Young Zither-Player."

**Basham, J., 234 Elizabeth-st., Sydney.**

34 Two crayon drawings.

**Bonnefin, C., Lane Cove, Sydney.**

35 Frisain drawings—"Lithgow Valley," "Lane Cove River," "Crossing the Ford," "Forest Scene, Bulli"

**Booth, Marian, Tooyal Station, Wagga.**

36 Paintings on—(1) Satin, (2) cotton-velvet, (3) white moleskin, (4) paper formulas used in working.

**Boyd, J. H., 250 George-st., Sydney.**

37 Paintings in water-colour and Indian ink.

**Chard, Eliz., Sherwood House, Stanmore-road, Sydney.**

38 "Prince Consort and Prince of Wales," from casts.

**Combes, E., C.M.G., M.P., Victoria Lodge, Miller's Point.**

39 "Outskirts of Breeza Plains."
40 "Curl Curl, Manly Beach."
41 "Near Barmouth, North Wales."
42 "A Bit of Wiltshire" (outdoor sketch).
43 "Deserted" (Langham sketch).
44 "Top of the Hill" (Langham sketch).

**Devine, Catherine, 2 Great Thorn st., Woollahra.**

45 Portrait in water-colours.

**Finlay, H., Thornthwaite, Scone.**

46 "Valley of the Grose."
47 "On the Road to Bulli."
48 "Kangaroo Driving."
49 "Yarding Kangaroo," &c.

**Harry, Eleanor J., The College, Ashfield.**

50 Three head studies, in black and white chalks.
Hern, C. E., 105 Pitt-st., Sydney.—Water-colour paintings, viz.:

- 51 "Mullion, Cornwall."
- 52 "On the Dart, Devon."
- 53 "Brink of the Falls, Govett's Leap."
- 54 "Govett's Gorge, looking towards Valley of Grose."


- 55 "Rosa Gully, Watson's Bay."
- 56 "Mount Egmont, Taranaki, N.Z."

Hunt, G. H., Ryde Public School, Parramatta.

- 57 Various drawings.

Hunt, Mrs. G. H., Ryde Public School, Parramatta.

- 58 Water-colours, crayons, paintings on various articles.

Hunt, C., 16 Bond-st., Sydney.

- 59 "Cook's River."
- 60 "Left by the Tide" (N. S. Wales Art Society).


- 61 "Fern-trees on Creek at Upper Kurrajong" (N. S. Wales Art Society).

James, H. A., Department of Mines, Sydney.

- 62 Specimens of map-drawing and etching, map of Hill End and Tambaroora.

Levvy, Miss Frances D., 21 Linsley-terrace, Lower Fort-st.

- 63 "Manly Beach, Ocean side."
- 64 "Shell Bay, Manly Beach."


- 65 Four water-colours.

Lowrey, C. C., Brundah, Grenfell.

- 66 Two water-colour landscapes.


- 68 "Moth," in water-colours, from nature.

Municipal Council, Sydney.

- 69 Water-colour painting of the Town Hall.

70 Crayon portrait of Lord Augustus Loftus.

Rae, J., Under-Secretary Public Works, Sydney.
71 Water-colour—"Turning the First Sod of New South Wales Railways."

Richardson, J. T., Underwood-st., Paddington.
72 "Bell Rock."
73 "Merivieve, Bondi" (N. S. Wales Art Society).

Sayers, J. W., Treasury, Sydney.—Crayon drawings, viz.:—
74 "Ajax."
75 "Bust."

Smithers, W. H., 88 Victoria-st., Darlinghurst.
76 "Group of Roses."
77 "Yacht Race."
78 "Steamer in Gale."

Stoddard, Mrs., 2 Great Thorn-st., Woollahra.
79 Water-colour portrait.

Technical, or Working-man's, College, Pitt-st., Sydney.
80 Water-colours and drawings, illustrative of system of study.

Thorne, C., 3 Roslyn-terrace, Darlinghurst.
81 Crayon drawing.

Tioshbaner, A., 139 Castlcreagh-st., Sydney.
82 Sketches in water-colours for churches and apartments.
83 Panels for apartments.

Walker, Miss A. F., Sydney.
84 Seven groups of flower paintings.
85 Copy of gold medal.

Whiting, Miss E. W., 9 Cowper-terrace, Church Hill.
86 Five crayon drawings (three after Landseer).

Williams, P. E., Treasury, Sydney.
87 Crayons—(1) "Fighting Gladiator," (2) "Apollo," (3) "Bust."

Class 3.—Sculpture and Die-sinking.

Lavie, A., Albury.
88 Carved shield, in stone.

89 Royal coat-of-arms, carved in Australian beech.

Sallkild, A., Grove-st., Camperdown.
90 Sculptures in stone.

Simonetti, A., Sydney.
92 Busts—"Sir Hercules Robinson," and three others.

Thorpe, G. S., University-St., Camperdown.
93 Portraits, busts, models, relievos, in marble.

Wright, W., 458 George-st., Sydney.
94 Modelling in plaster, from life.

Class 4.—Architectural Drawings and Models.

Coomes, H., 15 Rose-st., Darlington.
95 Model of a double self-supporting staircase.

96 Plans, sections, and elevation of a theatre.
97 Full set of drawings for a cottage and villa.

Hordern, A., & Sons, Haymarket, Sydney.
98 Picture showing elevation of premises.

Rowe, T., Vickcery's-chambers, Pitt-st., Sydney.
99 Elevation of Great Synagogue.
100 Wesleyan College, Stanmore.
101 Perspective—Sydney Infirmary, &c.

Technical, or Working-man's, College, Pitt-st., Sydney.
102 Architectural drawings.

Class 5.—Engravings and Lithographs.

103 Frame of stamps, illustrating the progress in stamp-making.

Collingridge, A. & G., Ryde, Parramatta River.
104 Engravings of New South Wales, and other scenery.

105 Chromo-lithographs.

Richards, T., Government Printer, Sydney.
106 Photographs.
107 Engravings on wood.

**Umpleby, E. C.,** Bayville-st., Balmain.

108 Lithographic designing.
109 Drawing on stone.


110 Two frames, with impressions of engravings.

**II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.**

Class 12.—Photographic Proofs and Apparatus.

**Albury Local Committee.**

111 Photographic views of Albury, with statistics of district.

**Bonney, P.,** Wilcannia.

112 Photographs of Wilcannia district.

**Boyd, J. H., 250 George-st, Sydney.**

113 Photographs.

**Caspers, Rudolph,** Goulburn.

114 Photographs, enamelled surface.

**Clarence River Group (T. Page, Grafton).**

115 Public buildings in Grafton: School of Arts, Post-office, &c.

**Harrison, Jones & Devlin, Macquarie-place, Sydney.**

116 Two photographs of business premises.

**Hart & Roux, Wilson-st., Newtown.**

117 Phototypes, or photographs in printers’ inks.

**Holterman, B. O., 674 George-st., Sydney.**

118 Photographic panorama of Sydney.

**Newman, J. H., 12 Oxford-st., Sydney.**

119 Autotype photographs.

**New South Wales Commission.**

120 Panorama of Sydney.
121 Photographic views of objects of interest in and around Sydney.
Paine, J., 49 Elizabeth-st., Waterloo.
123 Landscape photographs.

Richards, T., Government Printer.
124 Collective exhibit of photographs.

Rustfeldt, E., 488 George-st.
125 Photographs on glass.

New Zealand.

[Displayed with other Exhibits in the New Zealand Court.]

I. Works of Art.

Class 1.—Oil Paintings.

Annabell, J., Hastings, Napier.
1 Four oil paintings.

Brandon, Misses, Wellington.
2 Paintings on silk.

Barraud, C. D.—Oil paintings—
3 "Mitre Peak";
3a "Hall's Arm, Milford Sound."

Farr, S. C., Christchurch.
4 Panoramic oil painting of Banks's Peninsula, 1853.

Garrard, W., Christchurch.
5 Oil painting—"St. Kilda, 1857," by G. Winton, F.S.T.

Geisler, W., Nelson.
6 Two oil paintings; two paintings on porcelain.

Gibb, J., Christchurch.
7 Four oil paintings.

Gibb, W., Christchurch.—Two oil paintings—
8 "Akaroa Harbour";
9 "In the Bush, Little River."

M'Kenzie, G., Dunedin.
10 Four oil paintings, illustrative of Scottish scenery, by J. D. Moultray.

**Merritt, T. E., Wanganui.**

11 Oil painting.

**Moreton, S. H., Invercargill.**

12 Oil paintings.

**Nairne, C. J., Paurerere, Hawke's Bay.**

13 Oil painting of Terawera, Jube, and Rua Waihia mountains.

**Nicholls, Mrs. A. R., Southbridge, Canterbury.**

14 Four oil paintings.

**Peele, J., Rangiora, Canterbury.**

15 Two oil paintings of New Zealand scenery.

**Power, P., Leith-st., Dunedin.—Original oil painting of local scenery—**

16 "Water of Leith, near Dunedin."

**Pownall, R. W., Nelson.—Oil paintings—**

17 "Mount Crusader."
17a "A Bit of Bush."

**Roberts, Miss Undine, Dunedin.**

18 Two pieces of Dresden china, ornamented by paintings by exhibitor.
19 Two paintings of flowers on silk.

**Robin, A. W., Dunedin.**

20 Two oil paintings from nature, by an amateur.

**Stafford, Mrs., Amesbrook, Nelson.**

21 Historical oil painting (by exhibitor)—"Lady Jane Grey refusing the Crown."

**Thomson, J. T., F.R.G.S., F.R.S.S.A., Invereargill.**

22 Oil paintings.

**Watkins, W. M. N., Akaroa.**

23 Four oil paintings.

**Waymouth, Miss E., Invercargill.**

24 Four oil paintings.

**Class 2.—Various Paintings and Drawings.**
Aubrey, C., Invercargill.
25 Water-colour drawing—"Oyster Fisheries."
26 Neutral-tint drawing—"Mouth of Wairau."

Barraud, C. D., Wellington.
27 Copy of "The New Zealand Graphic."
28 Four water-colour paintings of New Zealand scenery.

Barraud, N., Wellington.—Original water-colour sketch of New Zealand scenery—
29 "Mount Egmont."

Boscawen, H., Wellington.
30 Pen-and-ink drawings (one on paper, one on parchment).

Brandon, E., Wellington.
31 Seven water-colour pictures.

Cane, T., Christchurch.
32 Four views in water-colours; drawing of the town and harbour of Akaroa.

Fox, Lady, Rangitikei.
33 Water-colour—"New Zealand Shrubs and Flowers, from Nature," by Miss King.

Freeth, C. J., Masterton, Wellington.
34 Pencil drawing—"Grace Darling at the Wreck of the 'Forfarshire.'"

Gapes, W., Gapes' Valley, Canterbury.
35 Two water-colour drawings of New Zealand scenery.

36 Pen-and-ink drawing.

Gully, J., Nelson.
37 Water-colour paintings.

38 Drawing in sepia and pencil, by Mrs. Halcombe—"Town of Fielding."

Halcombe, Mrs. E., Fielding, Wellington.
39 Water-colour—"Lake Rhea. Otago."
40 Sketches of ferns and trees, by the late W. Swainson, Esq., F.R.S.

Hamilton. A., Petane, Napier.
41 Three illuminations.
Harris, Miss E., Nelson.
   42 Twenty-eight water-colours of New Zealand wild flowers and berries.

Home, Miss M. W., Pamell, Auckland.
   43 Water colour paintings (landscapes, Auckland and Taranaki).

Hutton, D. C., Art Master, Dunedin.
   44 Various drawings, chalk and coloured.

Kesteven, Dr., Wellington.
   45 Sketches of Sydney and suburbs (taken 50 years ago), by Edward Mason.

Merritt, Charlotte E., Wanganui.
   46 Water-colour painting.

Moreton, S. H., Invercargill.
   47 Water-colour painting.

Muntz, S. H., Nelson.
   48 Three water-colour paintings.

Neville, L., Christchurch.
   49 Three water-colour drawings of New Zealand scenery.

Nutt, Miss. Dunedin.
   50 Twenty-four water-colour designs of ferns.

Oliver, J. T., Dunedin.
   51 Drawing of wood planing machine.

Palmer, R. G., Foxton.
   52 Water-colour paintings.

   53 Landscapes in water-colours.

Rowan, Mrs. F. C., Taranaki.
   54 Water-colour drawings.

Savage, W., Christchurch.
   55 Pen-and-ink drawing, by J. A. Wrigg.

Sharpe, A., Auckland.
   56 Water-colour picture, representing New Zealand bush—"Entrance of Cadman's Creek."
Sinclair, G-, Draughtsman, Dunedin.
57 Decorative design, part of William Blake's "Mad Song."

Stiffe, Miss Nellie, late of Christchurch.
58 Water-colour paintings of flowers and ferns.

Stuart, Helen, Auckland.
59 Frame of photographs, painted in water-colours.

Sturtevant. G., jun., Auckland.—Two water-colour drawings—
60 "Manukau Harbour."
61 "Waitemata Harbour."

Temple, E. F., Christchurch.
62 Three water-colour paintings.

Tizard, Mrs. E., Thames.
63 24 water-colours of New Zealand flowers.

Willis, A. D., Wanganui.
64 Water-colour painting, by a crippled Maori boy—"Rangitoto Island."

Wrigg. H. C. W., Chief Draughtsman, Public Works Department, Wellington.
65 Pen-and-ink drawing, by the exhibitor—"Leisure Hours."

Class 3.—Sculpture and Die-sinking.

Bock, W. R., Wellington.
66 Specimens of die-sinking.

Godfrey, L. J., Dunedin.
67 Two carvings in stone.
68 Carvings in wood.

Jackson, J. W., Wanganui.
69 Engraving on glass; subject—"Racehorses," by A. Milne.

Leves & Scott, Dunedin.
70 Specimen of glass embossing.

71 Four engravings on plate-glass, by steel point.

Minister for Native Affairs. The.
72 Bust of the late native chief, Hapuka.

**Munro, G., Dunedin.**

73 Kakanui stone, worked drapery vase.

**Oamaru Stone Co., Oamaru.**

74 Carved stone, by L. Godfrey; subject—"Duck and Pukeka," with ferns and creepers.

**Thomson & Co., Sculptors, Dunedin.**

75 Carving in native white marble.

**Class 4.—Architectural Drawings and Models.**

**Burwell, F. W., Invercargill.**

76 Architectural drawings.

**Lamb, R., Napier.**

77 Series of five designs for timber-framed churches, illustrated by six sheets of drawings.

**Class 5.—Engravings and Lithographs.**

**Bock, W. R., Wellington.**

78 Engraving.

**Buchanan, J., F.L.S., Wellington.**

79 Illustrations of grasses and Alpine plants of New Zealand, drawn on stone.

**Holmes, R. T., Wellington.**

80 Steel plate, with progressive proofs—"Wayside Reverie," from a painting by Gilbert

**Knowles, J., Under Secretary, Public Works, Wellington.**

81 Lithograph—"Native Pah, Wanganui."

**II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.**

**Class 12.—Photographic Proofs and Apparatus.**

**Bartlett, R. H., Photographer, Auckland.**

82 Views of New Zealand, and portraits.

**Bloch, T., Nelson.**

83 Photographic panorama of Nelson, photographic views and portraits.
Bothamley, A. T., Wellington.
   84 Photographic views.

Bragge, J., Wellington.
   85 Photographs.

Brown, W. E., Nelson.
   86 Photographic views and portraits.

Burton Brothers, Dunedin.
   87 Photographs of New Zealand scenery

Carnell, S., Napier.
   88 Carbon enlargement of the late Sir Donald M'Lean, and shield showing New Zealand natives.

Chamber of Commerce, Oamaru.
   89 Photographs of the town of Oamaru.

Cherrill, N. K., Christchurch.
   90 Photographs (ceramic, enamel, carbon, or autotype); also photographs on paper, glass, porcelain, &c.

Clifford & Morris, Dunedin.
   91 Case cabinet photographs, case carte-de-visite photographs.

Collie, W., Napier.
   92 Photographs.

Corporation of Dunedin, New Zealand.
   93 Photographs of Dunedin and its neighbourhood.

Corporation of Wellington, New Zealand.
   94 Thirty photographs of the principal buildings in the city of Wellington.

Gibbs, W. B., Wellington.
   95 Portraits and landscape photographs.

Graham, R., Wai Wera, Auckland.
   96 Photographic views, &c., of Wai Wera Hot Springs.
   97 Photographic views of Rotomahana, Ohinemutu, and Hot Lakes.

Hart, Campbell & Co., Queenstown.
   98 Photographic views of lake scenery, Wakatipu district.

Hart, R., Wellington.
   99 Photograph (from life) of Edward Gibbon Wakefield, with autograph.
Hemus & Hanna, Auckland.
100 Case of photographic portraits.
101 Six large framed photographs.

Hokitika Local Committee, Hokitika.
102 Photographs of Westland scenery and glaciers.

"Lyttelton Times," Proprietors of, Christchurch.
103 Specimens of photo-lithography.

Nicholas, R. J., Invercargill.
104 Photographs: portraits and architecture.

Perkins, W. H, Greymouth.
105 Photographs.

Surveyor-General of New Zealand, Wellington.
106 One hundred photographic views, and photo lithographs printed by the Survey Department.

Tait, J., Hokitika.
107 Two frames of photographs.

Taylor, J. J., Moturka, Nelson.
108 Photographs of scenery, Nelson Province.

Taylor, J. P., Havelock, Blenheim.
109 Artistio and uncommon photographs of New Zealand scenery.

110 Photographs.

Williams, H., Greymouth.
111 Photographs.

Wrigglesworth & Binns, Wellington.
112 Photographs, mezzo-tint portraits.

Queensland.

I. Works of Art.

Class 1.—Oil Paintings.
1 Bartley, N., Brisbane.—"Landscape, with Cattle."
2 Bartley, N., Brisbane.—"The Opportunity for Elopement."
3 Bartley, N., Brisbane.—"Stable Scene," by Woollett, 1856.
4 Clarke, J. A., Brisbane.—Original oil painting by exhibitor—"A Bush Scene near Brisbane."
5 Diggles, S., Brisbane.—Copy of Raphael's "Transfiguration," painted by exhibitor.
6 Ewart, W., Indooroopilly.—Oil painting—"Adam and Eve Finding the Body of Abel."
7 Ewart, W., Indooroopilly.—A small full-length portrait, in oil.
8 Ewart, W., Indooroopilly.—"He Does Not Like It," oil.
9 Ewart, W., Indooroopilly.—Portrait of the late R. Jarrott, in oil.
10 Queensland Government.—"View of Brisbane" from Bowen-terrace, in oil, by J. A. Clarke.

Class 2.—Various Paintings and Drawings.

13 Hamilton, D. D., Brisbane.—Picture—"Petrified Sand."
14 Lascelles, P. M., Brisbane.—Seventy engravings of British birds, coloured to nature in water-colours, by exhibitor.

Class 3.—Sculpture and Die-sinking.

15 National Agricultural and Industrial Association of Queensland, Brisbane.—Silver and bronze prize medals of the Association.

Class 4.—Architectural Drawings and Models.

16 Eyre, W. M., Toowong.—Collection of architectural drawings.

Class 5.—Engravings and Lithographs.

17 Clarke, J. A., Brisbane.—"Creek Crossing at Ashgrove," near Berisbane, original etching.
18 Lukin, G., Brisbane.—Plan of route of "Queenslander" transcontinental expedition.

II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.

Class 12.—Photographic Proofs and Apparatus.

19 Bartley, N., Brisbane.—"Auld Lang Syne," "Heads of the People," Sydney, 1857; each figure numbered, key to names at back.
20 Bartley, N., Brisbane.—"Auld Lang Syne"—explorers, pioneers, early colonists, celebrities of Queensland and Australia.
21 Bartley, N., Brisbane.—Natives of Brisbane, white, aged three years and seventeen years; coloured photographs, four cabinets in frame.
22 Botanic Gardens, Brisbane.—Photographs—six (enlarged) of views taken in gardens; enlarged photograph—Platycerium Hillii, a new fern.
23 Favenc, E., Brisbane.—Sketches made on "Queenslander" transcontinental expedition.
24 M'Laren C., Brisbane.—Photographic portrait of Dr. Swedenborg.
25 Municipal Council, Bowen.—Photographic views of Bowen.
27 Queensland Government.—Collection of photographs (220), by the late R Daintree, coloured in oils.
28 Slater, G., Brisbane.—Photographic copy of Swedenborg’s Bible, with annotations.
I. Works of Art.

Class 1.—Oil Paintings.

Archer, J., Panshanger.
1 Oil painting, by F. L. Piguenit.

Baily, H. H.
2 Two oil paintings from photographs.

Beauchamp, R. P., Launceston.—Four oil paintings—
3 "Quambys Bluff."
4 "Cumminir's Head, Sunrise."
5 "North Esk River."
6 "Mount Roland, River Mersey."

Dodery, W. H., Launceston.
7 Oil painting, by Miss Piguenit.
8 Oil painting, by Miss Piguenit.

Douglass, A., M.H.A., Launceston.
9 Oil painting, by Piguenit.

Fearnley, J., Hobart.
10 "Hobart in 1856," by Bull.

Higgs, Miss K., Launceston.
Higgs, J., Chudleigh.
12 "Mount Claude," painted by owner.
13 "Quamby Bluff," painted by owner.

Hubbard, G., Launceston.
14 "Tasmanian Flowers," by Miss Piguenit.

Mechanics' Institute, Launceston.
15 "Aboriginal Inhabitants of Tasmania."

Moore, J., Latrobe.
16 "River Forth, Tasmania."
17 "River Mersey, Tasmania."

Class 2.—Various Paintings and Drawings.

Beauchamp, R. P., West Tamar.
18 Four water-colours of Tasmanian scenery.

19 Plaster bust of William Lanné, the last of the aboriginal male inhabitants of Tasmania.

George, Miss M., Launceston.
20 Crayon drawings.

Ken worthy, Miss A., Launceston.
21 Water-colours—Tasmanian flowers and berries.

Meredith, Mrs. L. A., Launceston.
22 "Mountain Memory," water-colour painting, on a screen.

Pybus, R.
23 Pencil drawing—"Tigers."

Sherwin, Miss E., Launceston.—Four pencil drawings, viz.:—
24 "Mirth."
25 "Melancholy."
26 "Amy Sherwin."
27 Not named.

Whitfield, A., Longford.
28 Pen-and-ink sketches, &c.

II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and
Processes of the Liberal Arts.

Class 12.—Photographic Proofs and Apparatus.

Anson Brothers, Hobart.
29 Framed photographs—Scenery and portraits.

Bailey, H. H., Hobart.
30 Framed photographs—Portraits.

Burrowes, W., Launceston.
31 Framed photographs—Portraits.

Commissioners for Tasmania, Hobart.
32 Framed photographs of Tasmanian scenery and public buildings.

Commissioners for Tasmania, Launceston.
33 Framed photographs of Tasmanian public buildings and scenery.

Hull, H. M., Hobart.
34 Two framed photographs of the last aboriginal woman and man.

King, T. F., Circular Head.
35 Photographs of scenery, Circular Head.

Wherritt & Co., Hobart.
36 Framed photographs—Portraits.

Winter, A., Hobart.
37 Three glazed frames of photographic portraits.

Victoria.

I. Works of Art.

Paintings and Drawings Exhibited by the Victorian Academy of Arts.
F. B. Gibbes, 55 ST. DAVID STREET, FITZROY, Secretary.

CLASS I.—Oil Paintings.

Ball, Miss Elsie, Punt-road, South Yarra.
1 "Brighton Beach, Hobson's Bay."
Bugg, R. W.
2 "Going Free."

Campbell, M. A., Punt-road, Windsor.
3 "Caught in a Squall."

Carter, John, 23 Drummond-st, Carlton.
4 "Fruit."
5 "Fruit."

Earles, Chester (President), South Yarra.
6 "The Third Day of a Hot Wind."
7 "Forgotten."

Ford, William (Vice-President), Inkerman-st., St. Kilda.
8 "The Road to Bristol, at Clove."
9 "White Flowers."
10 "By the Wayside."
11 "On the Banks of the Wandle, Surrey."
12 "Virginia."
13 "Gossip at the Farm."
14 "A Young Bull."

Mather, John, 5 Royal-terrace, Nicholson-st.
15 "Sunset, Gippsland."

Parsons, Mrs. George, Charnwood-crescent, St. Kilda.
16 "View near Woodend."
17 "Entrance to the Mitchell River from Gippsland Lakes."
18 "View at Loutit Bay."

Peacock, G., Bowen-st., Richmond.
19 "At Ringwood."

Richardson, C. D., Gurner-st., St Kilda.
20 "The Princess."
21 "After a Shower, Beechworth."
22 "Fern Bower, Mount Macedon."
23 "Study of a Head."

Rielly, Henry, Eastbourne-st., Windsor.
24 "Oh! summer land of silence, oh! land of beauty rare,
Where solitude lies brooding, o'er hills and valleys fair."

Rielly, Miss Isa, Eastbourne-st., Windsor.
25 "Waterfall, at Macedon."

Wat Kins, W. M. N., 23 Drummond-st, Carlton.
26 "Head Waters of the Mathias."
27 "Teramakau River."

Webb, Alex., Geelong.
28 "Near Randolph's Leap, on the Findhorn, Scotland."

Wilson, C. V.
29 "Little Nell"

CLASS II—Water Colours.

Boulton, E. B., Sydney.
30 "Near Bondi, N.S.W.—Winter."

Calvert, S., 87 Little Collins-st. East.
31 "Camille."
32 "Light and Shadow."

Carter, John, 23 Drumraond-st., Carlton.
33 "New Zealand Caw Caw."
34 "Belladonna Lily."
35 "Redbreast's Retreat."
36 "New Caledonian Pigeon."

37 "A Walk in the Garden."
38 "The Old Familiar Air."

Gibbes, F. B. (Secretary), 55 St. David-st, Fitzroy.
39 "Viewin Otago, N.Z."
40 "Point Nepean, Port Phillip Heads."
41 "Queenscliff Lighthouse."

Peacock, G., Bowen-st., Richmond.
42 "Near the Plenty."
43 "Off the Yan Yean Road."
44 "On the Plenty."

Parsons, Mrs. Geo., Charnwood-crescent, St. Kilda.
45 "Boisdaile Plains, Gippsland."
46 "On the Avon, Gippsland."
47 "Pomegranates and Grapes."
48 "View on the Dandenong Road."
49 "Sketch at Lorne."
50 "Sketches at Loutit Bay."

Robertson, A., Hawthorn.
51 "Boroondara (looking east)."
Richardson, C. D., Gurner-st., St. Kilda.
52 "Spring, near Dunolly."

Thomson, Mrs. Stephen, Auterly, St. Kilda.
53 "View near Bauloupara, New Caledonia."
54 "View on the Espiritu Santo Coast, West Pacific."

Webb, T. Prout, 23 Temple-court.
55 "The Barwon Falls, Milford Sound."

CLASS I.—Oil Paintings.

56 "An Apple Orchard."
57 "The Sudden Quarrel."
58 "Louis Buvelôt."
59 "A Chip of the Old Block."
60 "Boldest of the Party."
61 "Hon. W. J. Clarke, M.L.C."
62 "Marquis of Norman by."
63 "J. A. Panton, Esq., P.M."
64 "Checkmate."

65 "Beg! Floss."

66 "When Sorrow Sleepeth, Wake it not."
67 "Dr. Bromby."
68 "The Dean of Melbourne."

Arnall & Jackson, 44 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.
68a Illuminated border on vellum.

Buvelot, Louis, George-st., Fitzroy.
69 "Between Tallarook and Yea."

Cockshott, Mrs., "Kinnord," Balaclava.
70 "On the Cornice Road."
71 "On the Roman Campagna."
72 "Mademoiselle Bardi."

Coates, Mr3. J., South Yarra.
73 "Lilies."
74 "Geraniums."

Davis, W., Madeline-st., Carlton.
75 "Art Relics."
Evans, G. R.
79 "Early Morn at Newlands, Tasmania."
[Exhibited by G. Dougharty, Esq., Grey-st., East Melbourne.]

Flintoff, T., St. George's Hall, Bourke-st. East, Melbourne.
80 "R. L. J. Ellcry, Esq."
81 "T. Flintoff."
82 "The Prince of Wales."

Foster & Martin, Collins-st. East.
83 "Miniature of a Gentleman."

Fuller, S. P., Ecclesbourne, Church-st., Brighton.
84 "The Village Smithy."

85 "Milford Sound. New Zealand."
86 "Lake Wakatipu. New Zealand."
87 "Track on the Mitta Mitta. Victoria."
88 "View on the Mitta Mitta, Victoria."

Hamilton, Miss G. J. V., Elderslie, Gisborne.
89 "Scene in Gippsland Ranges."

Hulme, E., Oxley.
90 "Camping Ground near Goulburn, in 1854."
91 "Rush, oh!"

Lightfoot, T. H., Melbourne.
92 "An Autumn Evening." On a branch of the Severn, Wales. From nature.

Murcott, T., 3 Erin-st., Richmond.
93 "Head of an Old Soldier."
94 "Azalea Geraniums."
95 "The Pride of our Garden."
96 "Last Glimpses."
97 "Corner of a Ladies' Boudoir, Sixteenth Century."

M'Alpine, T. W., Campbell-parade, Richmond.
98 "Dr. Gunst."
99 "Hon. J. Munro."
100 "Mr. R. D. Bannister."
101 "Dr. Cairns."
102 "Mr. A. Davidson, Architect, Geelong."

103 "Apples." From the round.

**Panton, J. A., Esq., P.M., City Court, Melbourne.**
104 "Nanny," Native of Melool tribe, Murray River.
105 "Eagle Rock, Angahook."
106 "Winter at the Acheron Falls, Marysville."
107 "Menindie Lake, Lower Darling."
108 "Cadell's First Steamer on the Murray."
109 "Government Residence, Melbourne, 1837."

**Pearson, J. G., Esq., Mount Ridley, Craigieburn.**
110 "A Calm Evening—Moonrise."
111 "A Moonlight Study."
112 "Foggy at Sea."
113 "Sea and Sky."

**Paterson, J. F., 125 Lygon-st., Carlton.**
114 "After Rain."
115 "December."
116 "Salmon Fishing."

**Petrowits, Paul, 83 Swanston-st., Melbourne.**
117 "T. H. Lempriere, Esq."
118 "H. A. Lowrey, Esq."

**Ramage, A.**
118a "Two Sheep."

**Riddell, Miss A. C., Cavers Carre, Elstern-wick.**
119 "Near Mount Kosciusko."
120 "Near Creswick."

**Riddell, Miss B. C., Cavers Carre, Elstern-wick.**
121 "Water-pool, Elwood."

**Roberts, T. W., 170 George-st., Fitzroy.**
122 "A Study."

**Sommers, John, Bull-st., Castlemaine.**
123 "Portrait." From life.

**Short, W., Post-office, Woodend.**
124 "Summer Evening."
125 "Jack's Creek, Woodend."

**Van Den Houten, 11 Henry-st., Windsor.**
126 "Melbourne in 1837."
127 "Batman's First Meeting with Buckley, in 1836."

128 "Fernshaw."
129 "Mount Cook, New Zealand."
130 "White Pine Forest, West Coast, New Zealand."
131 "Early Morn, Milford Sound, New Zealand."
132 "Entrance to Aniti Bay, Milford Sound, New Zealand."

Wolf, F., 105 Collins-st. East, Melbourne.

133 "Sir Samuel Wilson."
134 "A Child."
135 "Major J. A. Anderson."
136 "A Young Lady."
137 "A. Campbell, Esq."
138 "Hon. W. Campbell, M.L.C."
139 "John Wilson, Esq."
140 "J. B. Were, Esq., Consul-General, Sweden and Norway."
141 "Joseph Clarke, Esq."
142 "Miss Ida Wilson."

Wright. Miss Annie, 9 Fitzgerald-st., South Yarra.

143 "Herr Plock."

Loan Collection.

Aitken, W., Esq., 64 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.

144 "Madonna and Child." Guido.
145 "Jacob's Return from Bethany."
146 "Italian Seaport at Sunset." Claude Lorraine.
147 "Architecture and Landscape." Poussin.
148 "Landscape and Figures." Tracharilla.
149 "Landscape and Architecture, with Figures."
150 "Hunting Scene." Salvator Rosa.
151 "Beatrice Cenci." Copy, by Madame Lerroni.
152 "Madame L Brun." Madame Lerroni.
153 "Roman Peasant" (water-colour). B. Gioja.
154 "Landscape, with Cattle." K. Voogd.
155 "Roman Lady, with Sheep" (water-colour). B. Gioja.
156 "Fruit and Game." Briglia, Conti Alberti.
157 "Cat and Mouse." Briglia. Conti Alberti.
158 "Landscape, with Bridge." Salvator Rosa.
159 "Landscape, with Village." Salvator Rosa.

Brown, Mrs. M. M., 4 Henry-st., Windsor.

160 "A Monk's Head."

Birkmyre,—, Esq., Mona-place, South Yarra.

162 "Enid's Dream" (Tennyson's "Idylls of the King"). E. H. Corbould.

Charsley, E., Esq., Hedgerley Dean, Malvern.

163 "Landscape." Joseph Vernet
164 "Landscape and Figures." John and Andrew Both.
165 "Dutch Fair." Theodore Rombouts.
166 "Landscape and Figures." John Wynants and Philip Wouvermans.
167 "Fête Champêtre." D. Hals.
169 "The Old Woman and Bowl of Porridge." Gerard Dow.
170 "A Burgomaster." Rembrandt school.
171 "Christ's Agony in the Garden." Sir Benjamin West, F.R.A.
172 "Landscape and Figures—Procrus and Cephalis." John (Velvet) Breghel and J. Rottenhamer.
173 "Allegorical Subject allusive to the Life of Mary de Medici." Sketch for the original painting formerly in the Luxembourg. Rubens.
175 "Landscape and Figures." Rosa da Tivoli.
176 "Virgin and Child." II Sapo Ferrato.
177 "Battle Piece." Peter Van der Meulen.
178 "Battle Piece." John Van Hugtenberg.
179 "Brisk Gale." Simon de Vlieger.
181 "Landscape, and Boy Fishing." P. P. J. de Loutherbourg.
182 "Landscape and Cattle." Abraham Begyn.
183 "Siege." J. Franck.

Clarke, Hon. W. J., Sunbury.
185 "Ships of the Spanish Armada driven on Shore on the Coast of Ireland, September, 1588" (water-colour). O. W. Brierley.

186 "Hunting Scene." Wouvermans.
187 Do. do. Do.

Dalgety, Blackwood & Co., Little Collins-st. West, Melbourne.
188 "Mitherless." T. G. Cooper.
189 "'Tis Opportunity that Makes the Thief." T. G. Cooper.

Dawbin, Mrs. A M., O'Hea-road, Coburg.
190 "St. Catherine Vowing Celibacy." Piêtro da Cartona.

Fellows, Rev. Walter, Toorak.
191 "Cat on Eend, Kingslip, Middlesex" (water-colour). R. Mobb.
192 "Trottscliffe, Kent" (water-colour). R. Mobb.

Harrison, Mrs. Louisa, Erin-st., Richmond.
193 "Candlelight" Soholken.
194 Do. Do.

Hume, Mrs. E., Burwood-road. Hawthorn.
195 "Drinking Scene." Jan Miel, 1650.

Heath, R., Esq., Hamilton.
196 "Mastiff." Herring.
197 "Farm-yard Scene. Herring.

198 "H.M. Gunboat 'Mermaid' off Cape Banks, December 4th, 1820." Conrad Martens, from a sketch by Admiral P. P. King.

Larnach,—, Esq., Bank of Victoria, Fitzroy.

Lightfoot, T. H., Melbourne.
200 "The Quarrel." J. Barry, R.A.

201 "The Doge of Venice Receiving the Ring of St. Mark." Copy by J. G. Lorenzi, from Bordoni.

Lefevre. Dr., Collins-st. East, Melbourne.
202 "Dr. Johnson at Chesteleld House." G. Catermole.
203 "An Artist's Studio." C. Lees. R. A.
204 "Roslyn Castle." W. Bonnor, R.S.A.

205 "Hans von Griffendorf," on ivory. Lucas Enfgat

Manton, Miss Malvina, Camberwell-road, Hawthorn.
206 "Borrowdale, Cumberland." From Stoddart

Martin, J., Esq., 58 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.
207 "Landscape." One of the old masters.

Newbery, Mrs. J. Cosmo, Hotham-st., St. Kilda.
208 "Tartana, in the Gulf of Salerno." G. F. Newbery.

209 "Hush! don't make a noise for fear you wake the baby." J. T. Nettleship.


211 Engraving—"The Stoning of Stephen the Martyr." Marcellus Venustus (from Cornelius Cort, 1576).

212 "Lord Somers, the First Wigged Chancellor." Sir Godfrey Kneller.

Walduck, W. W., Esq., 56 Chancery-lane, Melbourne.
213 "Esau Selling his Birthright." J. Martin, K.L. This picture is unfinished, and is noteworthy as being Martin's last work, he being en-aged at it when taken with the illness of which he died.
214 "The Sea of Galileo." J. Martin, K.L.
215 "Canute and his Courtiers." Do.
216 "Paul and Silas." E. II. Corbould.

Were, J. B., Esq., Collins-st. West.
219 "The 'Eolus' winning a Yacht Race in Plymouth Sound." O. W. Brierley, 1S37. This is Brierley's first marine painting, and was painted for Mr. Were, Brierley being on board the yacht with Mr. Were at the time.

CLASS II.—Water Colours & Drawings of Every Kind.

220-221 "Death of the Prince Imperial."
222 "Victorian Police."
223 "Collins-st., Melbourne."
224 "Incident during the Zulu War."

225 "My Turn Now."
226 "Sunset on the Yarra."
227 "A Moonlight Walk."
228 "View in Fitzroy Gardens."
229 "Early Morning on the Yarra."
230 "Government House, from the Yarra."
231 "Queen's Wharf."
232 "Queen's Wharf and Falls Bridge."

Bannister, Mrs. R. D., Lydia House, Drummond-st., Carlton.
233 "Tulips," on ivory, from nature.
234 "Single Dahlias" (now extinct), on ivory, from nature, 1S20.

Black, Mrs. J. E., Cilcunda.
235 "Australian Wild Flowers."
236 "Australian Wild Flowers."
237 "Australian Wild Flowers."
238 "Australian Insects."

Buchanan, Annie E., Titanga, Lismore.
239 to 244 Six specimens of illuminated lettering of the time of Queen Elizabeth.

Bull, Miss E., 13 Carlton-st., Carlton.
245 "Geraniums."
246 41 Wild Flowers."

Cairnes, E. M., Mining Department, Melbourne.
247 Pen-and-ink drawing—"Scene in Cuba."
248 Pen-and-ink drawing—"Horse's Head," After Landseer.

Castieau, Miss, Corio-terrace, Geelong.
249 "Native Wild Flowers," from nature.
250 "Native Wild Flowers," from nature.
251 "Native Wild Flowers," from nature.

**Currey, Miss Fanny. Exhibited by Sir Redmond Barry.**
252 "An Old Doorway in Brittany."
253 "Welsh Miner's Cottage Window."
254 "Spring Flowers."
255 "A Welsh Brook."

**Davis, W., Madeline-st., Carlton.**
256 Design for stained glass window.

**D’Alton, Miss H., Stawell.**
257 "Victorian Wild Flowers," from the Grampian Ranges.

**Franks, J., 63 Great Myers st., Geelong.**
258 "Flowers," from nature.
259 "Flowers," from nature.

**Greene, Miss Cora.**
260 Design for a fan—"Blossom of Ironbark Gum."
261 Design for a fan—"Hardenbergia Clematis."
262 Design for a fan—"Sydney Wild Flowers."
263 Design for a fan—"Clematis (Victorian Wild)."

**Harper, C., Education Office, Melbourne.**
264 "Flowers," from nature.

**Hume, Mrs. E., Burwood-road, Hawtnorn.**
265 "H.M.S.'Blanche,' in a gale."
266 "P. and O. S.S. 'Malta,' off Fort Macuerie, Sydney."

**Langton, Miss A., 1 Moor-st., Fitzroy.**
267 "Flowers," from nature.

**Lightfoot, T. H., Melbourne.**
268 "Summer's Evening, Wales," from nature.
269 "Mountain Spring (Morning), Wales," from nature.

**Mackenzie, C. R., Grey-st., East Melbourne.**
270 Specimens of illuminated lettering, &c.

**Murcott, T., 3 Erin-st., Richmond.**
271 "Lymouth. North Devon."
272 "By the River."
273 "In spots of sunny openings, and with nooks to lie and read in, sloping into brooks."

**Peebles, Miss Eva, Agnes-st., Jolimont.**
274 "Flowers," on silk, from nature.
275 "Flowers," on silk, from nature.
276 "Australian Wild Flowers," from nature.
277 "Wreath of Flowers" do.

**Purves, Miss Caroline Frances, care of G. H. Purves, Exchange, Melbourne.**

278 Design for a fan—"Roses and Dragon Fly," on satin.
279 "Rhododendrons."
280 "Flame Flowers, and others."
281 "White Carnations."

**Roper, T T., California Gully, Sandhurst.**

281a Pen-and-ink drawing—"Pavilion of the Star of Hope, Tong Chow."

**Rowan, Mrs. F. C., Macedon.**

282 Fire-screen—"Australian Wild Flowers," on satin. See key attached.
283 to 286 Four panels—"Various Lilies." on satin.
287 to 289 Three panels—"Various Flowers" do.
290 to 299 Group of 10 frames—"Wild Flowers," as per list attached.

**Russell, R., 104 George-st., East Melbourne.**

300 "Views of Melbourne at Different Periods."

**Sale Borough Council.**

301 "Redbank, River Avon, North Gippsland." Alfred Bock.
302 "On the Albert River, South Gippsland." Alfred Bock.

**Sasse. Miss S. E., 63 Great Myers-st., Geelong.**

303 "Flowers," from nature.

**Sasse, Miss M. B., 63 Great Myers-st., Geelong.**

304 "Maiden-hair Fern," from nature.

**Scales, Mrs. S. A.**

305 "South Australian Wild Flowers."
306 "Victorian Wild Flowers."
307 "Victorian Wild Flowers."

**Watkins, Mrs. F., Stawell.**

308 Frame of 13 specimens flower-painting.

**Watson, Mrs. Sarah, Bumett-st., St. Kilda.**

309 Twelve hand-painted table d'ouleys.

**Weedon, W., 50 Barkly-st., Carlton.**

310 Design for a ceiling.

**Yuck Sun. care of Kim Fong Hie, Little Bourke-st., Melbourne.**
311 Miniature of a gentleman.
312 Miniature of a lady.
313 Miniature of a child.
[All on ivory.]

Heraldic Painting.

Stevenson, Thomas, King-st., Melbourne.

314 "The 'Norm an by' Arms," and other specimens of armorial painting, monograms, &c. (in oils).


315 "The 'Normanby' Arms."
316 "The Earl of Mt. Edgecomb's Arms."

Porcelain Painting.

Brush, Miss Grace, Wilgah, Burnett-st., St. Kilda.

317 "Toilet Ornament."
318 "Cup and Saucer."
319 "Flowers," in frame.
320 "Toilet Ornament."
321 "The Poachers."
322 "The Dancing Lesson."
323 "Lilies."
324 "Plague."
325 "Saucer."


326 Panel—"Cloth of Gold Roses."
327 Panel—"Maiden's Blush Roses."
328 Plate—"Daisies and Buttercups."
329 Plate—"Bluebells and Cowslips."

Murcott, T., 22 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.

330 Glass case, with various specimens of work.
331 One panel, of three tiles.

Nicholson, Lady.

332 Plaque—"First Primroses."

Parker, Miss—. Bowden, Alma-road.

333 One medallion, with photo, of boy.

Crayons.


334 "Hon. W. J. Clarke."

M'Alpine, C. A., Campbell-parade, Richmond.
337 "Dr. Gillbee."
338 "Dr. Burke."

Martin, Miss Letty.
338a "Girl and Child."

Thunder, Mrs. A., Inkerman-st., St. Kilda
339 "Forget Me Not"
340 "Study from Life."
341 "Madonna and Child."

Pencil.

Smith, Bernhardt., Mansfield.
342 to 349 Eight outline sketches.

CLASS III.—Sculpture & Die-Sinking.

350 Glass case of dies, medals, and chased cup.

Candy, W., 67 George-st., Fitzroy.
351 One terra-cotta garden ornament, and pedestal in freestone.
352 One terra-cotta garden ornament, and pedestal in freestone.
353 One church font, in freestone.

Mathieson, Alexander, Coleraine.
354 Stone picture of native scenery, cut out of the solid by A. Priest.
355 Stone picture of native scenery, cut out of the solid by A. Priest.
356 Stone picture of native scenery, cut out of the solid by A. Priest.
357 Samples of the rough stone attached.

Phillips, W., 4 Grattan-place, Keppel-st, Carlton.
358 "Sleeping Infant." Marble.
359 "Cross Entwined with Flowers." Marble.

Summers, Albert, Newbridge.
360 Reversible medallion, in marble.

Teale, G., Malvern-road, Prahran.
361 Roman camco—"The Toilet of Venus" (loan).

Twentyman, G., 6 Eastbourne-st., Windsor.
362 Glass case, specimens of seal-engraving on gems, and wax impressions from same.
CLASS IV.—Architectural Drawings and Models.

Bolger, J. L, Clyde Cottage, Davis-st., Carlton.
363 "Model of Scots' Church, Melbourne." Cardboard.

364 Cardboard "Model of State-school," Ballarat
365 Cardboard "Model of State-school," in framed timber, for mining district

Clarke, J. J., 22 Collins-st. West, Melbourne.
366 "Design for Town Hall, Emerald Hill." Perspective.
368 "Do. Royal Arcade, Melbourne." Do.

369 "Design for a Theatre."

370 "Design for Adelaide University."
373 "Do. New Prince's Bridge, Melbourne." Do.
374 "Bird's-eye View of New Government Offices, Melbourne."

Fitzpatrick, Rev. Dr., St. Patrick's R.C. Cathedral, Melbourne.

Henderson & Smart, 22 Collins-st East. Melbourne.
376 "Design for Colonial Bank, Melbourne." Perspective.
378 "Design for Adelaide University." Perspective.

Harbour Trust of Melbourne.
379 to 385 Seven framed "Plans of the Proposed Harbour Works at Melbourne, by Sir John Coode."

M'Gowan & Son, Cardigan-st., Carlton.
386 "Model in Plaster of St. Patrick's R.C. Cathedral, Melbourne."

387 "Principal Facade, Palais du Commerce de Lyons."

Nulty, Rev. C.

Pritchard, W., 30 William-st, Melbourne.
389 "Design for Melbourne International Exhibition" Perspective.
390 "Plans of Melbourne International Exhibition."
391 "Sections of Melbourne International Exhibition."
392 "Sections of Melbourne International Exhibition."
393 "Design for Colonial Bank, Melbourne."

**Tayler, Lloyd, Chancery-lane, Melbourne.**


**CLASS V.—Engravings & Lithographs.**

**Ashton, G. R., Faraday-st., Carlton.**

395 Proof—Three portraits drawn on stone.

**Baird, J., Moray-st., Emerald Hill.**

396 Illuminated original poem to Princess of Wales.

**Bartlett, Mrs. Sarah, 162 Swan-St., Richmond.**

397 Specimen of writing, by J. Meeks. being a condensed history of Victoria to 1860.

**Bruce, R., 13 Hotham-st., Windsor.**

398-9 Two frames of specimens of wood engraving.

**Calvert, Samuel, 87 Little Collins-st. East, Melbourne.**

400 Proof specimens of the art of drawing and engraving on wood; with samples of the wood used, in its different stages of preparation. Also specimens in colours.

**Connor, Miss J., Ryrie-st., Geelong.**

401 to 406 Special collection—four frames of statistics, book of same, and one illumination.

**Clarke, Hon. W. J., Sunbury.**

407 Illuminated address. Hamel and Ferguson.

**Evans, F. W. T., Town Hall, Fitzroy.**

408 Illuminated address. Hamel and Ferguson.

**Gourlay, Mrs. J., 196 Cecil-st., Emerald Hill.**

409 Ornamental writing.

**Hamel & Ferguson, 85 Queen-st., Melbourne.**

410 to 414 Five framed specimens of Illuminated addresses.
415 Frame lithographic tint printing.
416 Frame chromo-lithography.
417 Frame lithographic portraits, black and tint
418 Litho. map of Riverina, coloured.

**Ivy, T. J., Camberwell-road, Hawthorn.**

419 Illuminated address. H. Malpas.

**Jenny, R., 85 Collins-st East, Melbourne.**
420 to 422 Three frames of engravings on wood.

423 to 425 Three frames of specimens chromo-typography.

426 to 433 Eight mounted specimens of photo-lithographic plans, and description of same.

Troedel & Co., 43 Collins-st East, Melbourne.
434 Framed specimens of lithography.

Watson, A. J., Izett St., Prahran.
435 Framed specimen of lithography, original design.
436 Litho. stone from which specimen printed.

II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.

CLASS XI.—General Application of the Arts of Drawing and Modelling.

Perugia & Son, Stephen-st, Melbourne.
437 Bust—"Clytie."
438 Bust—"Prince of Wales."
439 Bust—"Princess of Wales."
440 Bust—"Duke of Edinburgh."
441 Bust—"Duchess of Edinburgh."
442 Statuette—"Apollo Belvidere."
443 Statuette—"Diana."
444 Statue—"Madonna," painted and gilt,
445 Statue—"The Conception," painted and gilt
446 Statue—"St. Joseph."
447 Statue—"The Saviour."

Peppercorn, J. R., Balaclava-road, Haw-thorn.
448 Modelled group for centre of a conservatory, fish basin.

449 Bust of late "Judge Fellows."
450 Bust of late "Charles Summers," sculptor.
451 Design of "Lion," for entrance-door.
452 Design of "Lion," for a "Fountain."

453 Bust of "David Willis," from life.
454 "Diomede." Copy from antique.
455 Ornamental architectural panel. Original design.
456 Mask and scrolls, from the antique.
Schlemm. C., Powlett-st., East Melbourne.
457 Bust in bronze—"Empor of Germany." (Loan.)

Summers, Albert, Newbridge.
458 Three medallions.

CLASS XII.—Photographic Proofs and Apparatus.

Ararat, Shire of.
459 Frame of 15 local views (M'Donald, St. Hilda), and statistics.

Ararat, Borough of.
460 Frame of 15 local views (M'Donald, St. Kilda), and statistics.

Bennett, Mrs. W. W., Domain-road, South Yarra.
460a Two specimens of colouring photographs in water-colours.

Brunswick, Borough of.
461 to 475 Group of 15 local views (Burman).

Brennand, J. R., 4 Macquarie-st., Prahran.
476 to 482 Seven portrait specimens of mezzo-tints, mezzo-crayon, and crayon-tint.

483 to 499 Group of 17 large and small portraits.

Caire, N., Melbourne.
500 Frame of 12 views forest scenery, Victoria.
501 Portrait—"Lily."
502 Frame of 12 views forest scenery, Victoria.
503 Frame of 5 portraits.

Clunes, Borough of.
504 Frame of 9 views local scenery (Beauchamp, Ballarat), and statistics.

Cornell, P., Sale.
505 to 540 Group of 86 views Gippsland scenery.

Commissioners for Victoria.
541 to 546 Six views in Dandenong State forest.
547 to 549 Three views of Melbourne.

Connor, Miss J., Geelong.
550 Frame of portraits—"Winchelsca Shire Council." (Part of special collection in Class 5).

Emerald Hill, Borough of.
Footscray, Borough of.
552 to 572 Group of 21 local views (Burman).

Fitzroy, City of.
573 to 595 Group of 23 local views (Burman).

Foster & Martin, Collins-st. East, Melbourne.
596-97 Two frames, 34 portraits, various.

Grant & Cameron, Bourke-st. West, Melbourne.
598 View of monster eucalyptus—"The Grizzly Giant."

Geelong, Town of.
598a Frame. 21 local views and portraits of Council
598b Frame. 21 local views and statistics.

Hamilton, Borough of.
599 Frame of 12 local views.

600 to 611 Group of 12 frames portraits, coloured, &c., and in different styles.
612 to 627 Group of 16 portraits, coloured.

Kruger, F., Geelong.
628 "Panoramic View of Geelong and Suburbs."

629-30 Group of two frames, 27 portraits.
631 to 643 Group of 13 frames, native portraits and scenery.

Marong, Shire of.
644 to 657 Group of 14 local views.

Metcalfe, Shire of.
658 Frame of 14 local views (Nettleton, Melbourne), and statistics.

M'Donald, D., St. Kilda.
659 Frame of 16 country views.

Nettleton, C., 19 Madeline-st., Carlton.
660 to 672 Group of 13 frames of 40 views in town and country.

673 Seven coloured photos., in frame.
Portland, Borough of.
674 Frame of 11 local views.

Paterson Brothers, 68 Lygon-st., Carlton.
675 Case of portraits and scenery.

Sale, Borough of.
676-7 Two frames of coloured wild flowers. A. Bock.

Sale, Borough of.
678 Frame of 12 local views (Bock, Sale), and statistics.

Stawell, Shire of.
679 to 702 Group of 24 local views. Nettleton, Carlton.

Sandridge, Borough of.
703 Frame of 20 local views and statistics.

Swan Hill, Shire of.
704 Frame of 14 local views.

Taylor, A. E., 29 Dandenong-road, Windsor.
705 Case specimens of the art of colouring photos, in water-colour.

Tuttle & Co., 84 Elizabeth-st., Melbourne.
705a Group of 3 frames of 42 plain and 3 of coloured portraits.

Wollamai & Phillip Island, Shire of.
706 Frame of 12 local views. Paterson Brothers, Carlton.

Warrnambool. Town of.
707 to 718 Group of 12 local views.

Exhibits by the Schools of Design in various parts of the Colony of Victoria.

Ballarat East School.
719 Architectural panel, crayon, from the round. A. E. Curnow.
720 Architectural panel, crayon, from the round. M. G. Duffy.
722 "Head." crayon. Miss C. M. Toy.
723 "Jug" crayon. Miss C. M. Toy.
724 "Pelargonium," water-colour. Do. from nature.
725 "Pansies" water-colour. Do. from nature.
Ballarat West School.
726 Crayon, from the round. Bertha Wedel.
727 Water-colour—"Fruit." Jeannie M'Gavin.
728 Crayon, from the round. A. Doepel.
729 Crayon, from the round. A. Doepel.
730 Crayon, Corinthian capital. W. Brimblecomb.

Bendigo.
731 Water-colour—"Fuchsias," from nature. Miss Palmer.
732 Illuminated letters. D. Mendell.
733 Crayon, from the round. Miss A. E. Craven.

Carlton School.
735 Illuminated letter, in oils. H. Weedow.
736 Geometrical design from Australian leaves and flowers. H. Weedow.

Collingwood School.
737 Architectural design—"Universal State College." B. W. Tapner.
738 Architectural design—"Anglican Church." B. W. Tapner.
739 Mechanical design for "A Drilling Machine." F. J. Rawlings.
740 Crayon, from the round—" Gothic capital." W. Merriott.

Clunes School.
741 Crayon—"Mares and Foals." J. G. Dickson.
742 Crayon—"Flowers," Miss Kempson.
743 Crayon—"Flowers," Miss Kempson.

Fitzroy School.
744 Crayon—"W. S. Lyster," from a photo. G. J. James.
745 Crayon—"Head." G. J. James.
745a Crayon—"Acanthus Leaf," from the round. W.J. Moore.

Footscray School.
746 Pencil landscape.
747 Crayon—"Flower Girl."
748 Crayon—"Alpine Flowers."

Geelong School.
750 Water-colour—"Wild Flowers," from nature. S. E. Sasse.

Hotham School.
751 Crayon—"Vases," from the round. F. R. Long-land.
752 Crayon—"Acanthus Leaf," from the round. F. C. Lording.
753 Crayon, from the round—Ioniccapital. T.Burrell.
754 Crayon, from the round—"Laocoon." J. Himen.
755 Crayon, "Flowers." Miss E. Spencer.
756 Crayon, "Flowers." Miss E. Spencer.
Hawthorn School.

757 Crayon—"The Startled Duck." A. Middlecoat.

Prahran School.

759 Water-colour—"A Glint of Sunlight in Winter in the Wanden Ranges," from nature. A. Izett Watson.
760 Oil painting—"Zingara." Josephine Muntz.

Richmond School.

761 Crayon—"A Staghound's Head." G. H. Bosch.
762 Crayon—"Dignity and Impudence." C. Holgate.

South Richmond School.

763 Water-colour—"Flowers," from nature. S. Frobisher.
764 Crayon—"Oak Wreath," from the round. S. Frobisher.
765 Crayon—"Tree," from nature. S. Frobisher.
766 Illuminated writing. H. Altmann.
767 "Burke and Wills," crayon, from the round (front view). F. H. Barnard.
768 "Burke and Wills," crayon, from the round (back view). F. H. Barnard.

Talbot School.

769 Crayon—"The Peony." Fred. Foster.
770 Geometrical design, 250 different problems (linear drawing). Fred. Foster.

Western Australia.

I. Works of Art.

Cass 1.—Oil Paintings.

1 Prinsep, H. C., Howick-st., Perth, Western Australia.—"A Tale of Southern Seas."

Class 2.—Various Paintings and Drawings.

2 Rowan, Mrs., Mount Macedon, Victoria.—Water-colour paintings of groups of the wild flowers of Western Australia.

II. Education and Instruction, Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts.

Class 12.—Photographic Proofs and Apparatus.

3 Government of Western Australia, The.—Collection of photographic views of Western Australia.
4 Public Works Department.—Photograph of railway bridge over the Swan River at Fremantle.
Dunedin National Industrial Association

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Vice-Presidents:

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- J. Robin (Messrs. Robin and Co., Coach Builders.)
A Challenge to Free Traders.

A Challenge to Free Traders decorative feature

The following letter, written by Mr Thomas H. Dudley, late American consul at Liverpool, to Mr Charles Edward Rawlins, of Liverpool, has found its way into print, and merits careful perusal:— Camden, N. J., 20th January, 1880.

To Charles Edward Rawlings, Esq., Liverpool.

Dear Sir,—Your letter of the 8th ultimo was duly received. I noted its contents, and read with attention all you said about the tariff system and your ideas with regard to Free Trade. I do not see these questions as you do; indeed, I entertain views directly opposed to yours, and I have no doubt that, if you should ever visit this country, you would at least modify your views upon these questions, if you did not entirely agree with me before you left us. You would see what Protection is doing and has done for us; that under its fostering and benign influence we, in almost every branch of manufactures and human industry, are supplying ourselves with products quite equal in finish and quality to those made anywhere, and in very many branches are now in the market with our goods and products competing with the world. Our cotton goods are largely exported, and we are your competitors in cotton fabrics everywhere. We are sending clocks, watches, dental instruments, edge-tools, and other manufactured commodities to England, locomotives to Russia and Brazil, and carpets to Norway and Sweden. With every variety of climate and soil, and almost unbounded mineral resources, in a few years, if our tariff system should remain as it is, we will become independent of Europe in almost everything, and in very many, if not most, branches of industry, be actual competitors with you in all markets of the world. In this small State of New Jersey more than 10,400 persons are now engaged in the manufacture of silk. The fabrics we are making equal those made in France, while our sewing silk is said to be the best made anywhere. We expect next year to export the last-named product to England, and before two years have passed to supply Europe with sewing silk. I single out and refer to the silk business among many other and vastly larger and more important branches of industry because it is new—the growth of the last seven or eight years—and clearly and entirely the child of Protection; and I have confined it to my own small State because I have not the statistics of this industry in any of the other States. Our census, which is to be taken this year, will show a condition of things with regard to our products, manufactures, and industries which will astonish Europe. We are making rapid—most rapid—progress in every branch of human industry. With regard to commerce, I do not see how Free Trade will ever help us to build ships, though I am ready to concede that Free Trade will create a demand for ships. Protection means that the people are to be transported to where the food and the products for manufactures are produced, and that there the commodities shall be manufactured. Free Trade means the reverse of this: the people are to remain where they are, and the food to feed them and the material to be manufactured are to be taken to them. To transport the raw material (cotton) across the ocean, and the food to feed the operatives, requires ship$3 and costs money, and the consumer of the manufactured product, whoever...
and wherever he may be, has to pay this cost. Fortunately for us, our people in the West have already seen this, and are now largely engaged in manufacturing, while the people at the South are beginning to see it, and consequently are building manufactories: and the coming census will show an advance in the South and West that will astonish you. Chicago will appear as one of the largest manufacturing towns in the country, and the State of Ohio and these States to the west of it will soon equal the Fast—if not in kind, at least in quantity and value of the commodities they manufacture. You build ships; we build and equip railroads, and steamers for our rivers and lakes. Your commerce is mainly on the sea, and ours more on the land. I presume we put more money into railroads, locomotives, cars, and steamers for our rivers and lakes than you put into your ships. When we find it more profitable to build steamships for the ocean than to build railroads and steamers for our inland navigation we shall do it; and the day I may come, and is not probably very far! distant, when even without the subsidies: which you give your line of steamers (and which to this extent is only Protection in another form), you may again find us your competitors upon the ocean as well as on the land.

**Agricultural Products of this Country.**

The Agricultural Department at Washington has just published an estimate of, some of the agricultural products of our country for the year 1870. Their value is put down at 1,904,480,659 dol. I suppose this to be a great under-valuation; but, taking it as stated, let us examine it, and make an estimate as to what we consume at home and what we sell abroad:—

In 1878 the corn which you imported from all countries amounted in value to £58,064,875. This, I suppose, is its computed value when landed in England, and not the value at the place from whence it was imported. Of this quantity only a fraction more than one-half was from the United States—say what we received for it in value in our money, 142,936,995 dol.—and if other foreign countries took 60,000,000 dol. more in value, then, as compared with our crop for 1879, you would leave at home for domestic consumption an amount valued at 1,044,178,005 dol. The hay crop is nearly all consumed at home, and so is the potato crop. The one is valued at 325,851,280 dol, the other at 78,971,000 dol. The value of cotton imported by you is stated to be £33,519,549. Supposing that two thirds of this was from the United States, the value of what you imported from our country would then amount in our money to 108,156,41 dol; and if we shipped to other foreign ports 10,000,000 dol in value, there would be left for home consumption an amount worth 112,843,589 dol. The value of manufactured tobacco imported into England is stated at about £2,500,000. Now, if two-thirds of this came from the United States—say 8,066,666 dol.—there was left over 13,000,000 dol worth for home consumption. The result in respect to the article named is this:—We, in our manufactures at home, used or consumed, as the figures stand, over 1,575,000,000 dol in value. While I have given you, as I think, full credit for all if not more than you took of what we exported, I am satisfied the amount we consumed at home was at least one-fifth more than is stated, owing to under-valuation of our production, and that our consumption of these five agricultural products amounted in value to over 1,900,000,000 dol, as against less than 330,000,000 which we exported or sold abroad. Now this estimate of the agricultural products of our country is limited to the five named articles, and does not include meat, hogs, cattle, sheep, or horses; or the vegetable crop (excepting potatoes), which in this country, both in variety and quantity, is enormous, and constitutes a large item in the food of our people; or the fruit crop, including the apple, peach, pear, and grape, and the smaller fruits that are raised by the ton; or the fish, poultry, eggs, rice, butter, or cheese. None of these are included, and when taken together they amount in value to many millions of dollars. Now of the agricultural products which we raise I do not suppose one-fifteenth part is exported abroad, certainly not more than this quantity, while the remainder remains at home, and is consumed or used by our people who are engaged in manufacturing and commercial pursuits, &c.

**The Home Market of Most Value.**

The home market is therefore more important to us than the foreign; and the more we stimulate it and increase it the better it is for the agricultural as well as every other interest in the country. Protection does this: it sustains the manufactories, thereby making a market for the farmers. It even does more, for it encourages new enterprises. But for our protective tariff we should not have had the silk manufacture. The 10,400 persons in the State of New Jersey engaged in this business are all fed by our farmers. The nation is benefited as well. It gives employment to our people, and the profits to the manufacturers on the 13,000,000 dol in value of silk goods produced yearly are saved here; that is, whatever they make is made in this country, and goes towards the increasing wealth of the nation; and the capital thus saved or accumulated here is employed in developing the country and its numerous resources and industries. One manufacturer in the silk business at Paterson, in New Jersey, is said to have made a million of dollars. I am informed he has invested all this money, whatever it may be, in the town where he lives, in building houses and other improvements. Now who is injured by this? Not the
people, because the duty on silk is just the same now that it was when imposed years ago as a mere revenue duty; for silk goods are cheaper at the present time than they were when the duty was imposed; the fact in this, as in many other instances of production, being that there is a reduction in price of the goods produced by reason of domestic competition. Steel rails a few years ago, and before we began to manufacture them, cost us in England 140dol. per ton. We are now manufacturing them here for 60dol., and within the past two years the price has been 40dol. per ton. So with cotton fabrics; they are cheaper than ever they were—and, indeed, so cheap that they are sending them to England by the million of yards, and competing with you in your own market. It is no answer to say of some of these commodities—steel rails, for instance—that they are cheaper in England than they are in America. So far as the mills are concerned, this at the present time may be true; but it is not so with regard to cotton goods, watches, clocks, and many other kinds of protected goods which we are sending to your market; the are cheaper here, and cheaper when exported to England than those which you manufacture; hence we are competing with you in your own market. And with regard: to steel rails, everyone knows that, if we were to stop manufacturing them and to rely upon you for what we require, the price in England would not remain where it is, but would immediately advance to an extent probably more than the difference now existing between the price here and in England, so that the end would be that we should have to pay you more than we are now paying for those made here. This is the natural consequence of trade, and follows just as surely as the night follows the day. You may ask why, if we can produce cotton fabrics, edge-tools, clocks, and watches cheaper than you, we require I protection for these commodities, &c. My answer is that it is quite probable that in some particular descriptions of cotton fabrics and manufactured products we cannot compete, and require protection to enable us to work up to the production of them; but in those branches where we can compete and are competing we require protection to keep our market steady and to maintain the domestic competition. It is a fact in the commercial world, of which we do not require an example, that foreign competitors, when there are no impediments will, in order to disturb markets and break down competition, sometimes combine to flood the foreign market. They will sell without profit to accomplish their purpose, in the hope that in the end, with the confusion in business and destruction in trade, and breaking down domestic competition, they can make up more than they lose. I myself have known a foreign manufacturer to sell his goods in America for a less price than you could buy them in England, and for less than he was selling the same kind of goods for there. While Consul at Liverpool, numerous instances came to my knowledge in which there were two prices—one for the goods to be consumed in England, and another and lower price for those that were to go abroad, and the manufacturer's profits were made up on j the average price of the goods sold at home and those sold abroad. There is gambling in trade as well as in stocks. Our tariff checks if it does not entirely prevent this, at least so far as foreign competition is concerned, and enables our small capitalists freely to enter, with their limited means, our markets and become domestic competitors where they would not—indeed dare not—if exposed to the large foreign capitalists. It is our policy to encourage these and all such, for everyone who starts in this way helps to cheapen the article produced, while he increases our home market for our agricultural products, and assists in creating and accumulating capital here at home, and in this way in increasing our national wealth.

**Price, and not the Balance of Trade, the Controlling Agent.**

There is another point to which I must call your attention, an error which most of you Englishmen fall into when discussing this matter with your people, viz., that what you buy from us depends on what we purchase or take of you; in other words, if we do not purchase your manufactured goods you will not buy agricultural products from us. Our friend Thomas Bayley Potter, in his recent visit to this country, fell into this error, and in almost all of his speeches laid great stress upon it. He told our people in substance that this result would follow if we persisted in retaining our tariff. You, like all other sensible people, buy where you can buy cheapest, and sell where you can obtain the best prices for what you sell. If you can buy your grain and breadstuff's in Russia cheaper than you can in America, you buy them there. If, on the other hand, we can sell to you at a cheaper rate than Russia, you buy of us. It is price that regulates and controls, and not the balance of trade between the two countries. Do you suppose that any grain dealer in England ever looks to see whether the balance of trade is for or against his country when he is about to make a purchase? He buys wherever he can obtain the grain for the lowest price. As proof of this, take the trade of your own country with Russia for the last 20 years. There has not been one single year during this period in which you have not purchased off her greatly in excess of (and in most years more than double in value) what she bought of you. Take the year 1878, the last for which you have made up the figures, and they stand as follows:—Your imports from Russia were £17,808,752, and your exports to Russia £9,458,729; and for the year before (1877) your showing is still worse. You imported from her £22,142,422, while you exported or sold to her only £6,243,973—less than one-third of what you imported. Your trade with Russia for the last 20 years was, in the aggregate, as follows:—Your imports were £369,782,059, and your exports £158,436,122. In other words, you buy of Russia more than double what i she
buys of you. And if you will examine the statistics of your trade with other foreign countries you will find the same results. The same inequalities exist as in your trade with Russia, proving what I have said, that what you buy of a nation is not dependent on what she buys of you; that it is price and not the balance of trade that regulates and controls the business you do.

A Radical Difference between England and America.

In the discussion of the question of Protection and Free Trade, your people do not take into consideration the difference between our country and yours with regard to land and population. You have a scarcity of land and a redundancy of population, and in consequence cannot raise sufficient food to feed your people. We in the United States have a redundancy of land and a scarcity of population, and in consequence can not only raise sufficient food to feed our own people, but a very large surplus for export. There is scarcely one article of food that you can raise or produce in sufficient quantity to supply or feed you own people, while with us there is not one of the staples which we cannot raise in abundance, and with a large surplus. Of course I do not mean to include in this category articles of foreign production, such as tea and coffee, but domestic articles, and in most instances those common to both countries. It is admitted that your agricultural production varies in quantity in different years; a good harvest yields more than a bad; but there is no year when your produce is sufficient to feed your people. You do not and cannot raise enough. Now let us look at this for a moment, and see to what extent; this deficiency exists, and we will take as an example the year 1878, which is not an exceptional one. You paid during this year as follows for the following articles:

This table shows for the ten articles above-named, in our money, over 510,000,000 dol. Now, this being your condition, and since you have every year to buy these staples and indispensable articles of food, it is your interest to get them as cheaply as possible; hence your policy is to induce other nations, including the United States, to devote themselves to agricultural pursuits; for the more foreign nations you can persuade to engage in this industry the cheaper the food will be which you are compelled to buy, and to this extent you are, or will be, the gainers by the operation.

England’s Search for Good Markets.

But you not only want cheap food to feed your people, you also want good or dear markets in which to sell your manufactured commodities. Now if you can induce the United States or any other country to give up manufacturing and devote itself to agricultural pursuits, you not only thereby to this extent cheapen the price of food, but you accomplish another result, which also works to your advantage—you check foreign competition and create another market for your manufactured products. You are doubly benefited, and must necessarily grow rich. It is gain to you on both ends of the stick. You buy for less and sell for more. But how is it with the nation that is weak enough to be misled by such delusive arguments? It loses all that, indeed more than you gain, and if you thrive and grow rich it starves and grows poor; and it requires not much reasoning to demonstrate that bankruptcy and ruin must soon follow if this policy is persisted in. We think we understand these questions, and what our true interest is so far as they apply to our people and our country, and we do not regard ourselves as benighted because of the policy we have adopted, or behind any other country in the world, even England, in civilisation and progress. Indeed, we look with great satisfaction, if not pride, upon the rapid advance we have made as a people, and as a nation, in population, wealth, and intelligence, and think that history, either ancient or modern, does not show a parallel example. You will permit me to say, in conclusion, that we attribute no small share of this progress and development to the American system of Protection, in contradistinction to your so-called system of Free Trade.

—Very truly yours,
THOMAS H. DUDLEY.

Objects.

1. The Association shall be called "THE DUNEDIN NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL ASSOCIATION."
2. The objects of the Association will be to watch over, assist, and promote the legitimate advancement of our local industries, and to utilise and employ to the best advantage our labour and raw material.
3. To adopt all legitimate means of keeping before the public mind the fact that true national economy demands the promotion and encouragement of native industries.
4. To collect and publish statistics and information relating to or calculated to forward the objects of the
Association.

5. To agitate for the adoption of a fair and discriminating Tariff, and the improvement of our relations with the producers, distributors, and consumers in New Zealand, the neighbouring Colonics, and other Countries.

6. To co-operate with similar associations in other centres of population, and to promote the discussion and consideration of matters affecting the manufactures and trade of the Colony.

7. To secure the co-operation of members of parliament in furthering the objects of the Association.

The Subscription of Members of the Association shall be an annual payment of One Guinea by employers and others, and of five shillings by employees.

Every information as to the objects of the Association will be furnished on application to the Secretary, with whom members and others interested are invited to 'put themselves in communication.'

By order,
George Grant,
Secretary.

7, Union Chambers,
Princes Street, Dunedin.

As the weight and influence, and consequently the interests of this Association will be augmented and advanced in proportion to its increase in numerical strength, it is suggested that each Member should urge its importance and advantages upon all manufacturers and others interested in the prosperity of the Colony within the circle of his acquaintance, with a view to inducing them to join its ranks.

George Grant,
Secretary.

7, Union Chambers
Princes Street, Dunedin.

Ceremony of Turning the First Sod Of the Thames Valley Railway.
Sir Geo. Grey, K.G.B.
Premier of New Zealand,
Before his Constituents.
Saturday, the 21st December, 1878.
Hunted at the Office of "the Thames Advertiser. Grahamstown Corner of Dowling and High Streets. 1879

Introduction.

The Thames people are desirous of showing their appreciation of the policy, as well as the disinterested exertions, of the present Premier, their representative in the Assembly, which have resulted in the turning of the first sod of a railway of such importance to their welfare, and to the wealth of the colony. After years of patient waiting, and much agitation, the Government of Sir George Grey introduced the line in the general schedule of works, and the future welfare of the Thames was from that moment assured. Those who have visited the fertile lands of the Upper Thames, and the vast area from the Hauraki Gulf to the Waikato and the Bay of Plenty, will be convinced of this. In recognition of this important work, and with the view of giving the widest possible publicity to it, and to the Speech delivered by the Hon. the Premier when before his constituents in the evening, the full report of the proceedings, compiled from the Thames Advertiser's account of the same, is herewith published in a pamphlet form, as well as in the ordinary newspapers. It is a souvenir of the important work thus commenced under the auspices of the Grey-Macandrew administration, and will be read with interest by all sincere well-wishers of the colony's progress. The speech is worth careful perusal, study, and preservation. The noble principles which it enunciates, and the liberal and far-sighted policy which it embodies, must commend themselves to the good sense of all.

Turning the First Sod of the Thames Valley
Railway.

SATURDAY was a red letter day in the history of the Thames. It ushered in a new order of things, which will enable us to take a fresh lease of life. The district has for some time past been under a cloud, but let us venture to hope that the turning point has at length arrived, the silverising dawned, and that ere long we may have no cause for complaining on the score of progress and prosperity. The work just inaugurated promises to be the harbinger of that prosperity to which we have long looked forward as the result of the opening up of our lands by an industrious class, and aided by railway communication. Should our sanguine hopes be realised, we shall have cause to thank the Grey-Macandrew administration for the inauguration of this work, and it was, therefore, to be expected that the citizens of the Thames would vie with each other in their efforts to do honour to the gentleman representing the head of that administration, when it was ascertained that he intended to comply with our wishes in the turning of the first sod of the projected fine of railway, uniting the Thames with the fertile valley which links it with the interior. In accordance with arrangements made, the Colonial Government steamer 'Hinemoa' left Auckland at 7 a.m. on Saturday for the Thames, having 011 board Sir George Grey and a number of invited guests. At 11 o'clock the little p.s. 'Ruby' proceeded to the Government steamer to land the guests, His Worship the Mayor, Mr Davies (Chairman of the Harbour Board), Mr A. Brodie (County Chairman), and Mr W. Carpenter (Chairman of the Parawai Highway Board) accompanying. Arrived at the Goods Wharf Sir George Grey and the visitors were received by members of the local bodies, and at the shore end by members of the Railway Committee, the band of the Thames Scottish playing suitable airs, and the guns of the Naval Brigade firing a salute at the time. The wharf and entrance were gaily decorated, and carriages were in readiness to convey the visitors, the committee, and local bodies, &c., to the site fixed upon for the ceremony of turning the first sod of the railway, on the beach midway between Shortland and Grahamstown, a little below high-water mark. The places of business were closed, a half-holiday having been arranged for, and various decorations met the eye as the long line of carriages bore the guests and members of local bodies to the place prepared for the ceremony. Here an enclosure had been constructed with accommodation for some 500 children who were to sing on the occasion. Under a shed at the end of the avenue the spade and wheelbarrow to be used by Sir George Grey in the turning of the sod were in waiting. The attendance of spectators was very large, not less than 2000 adults being present, in addition to the 500 school children, who introduced the proceedings with the singing of two verses of the National Anthem.

The Chairman of the Thames Valley Railway Committee then read and presented to Sir George Grey the following Address. TO SIR GEORGE GREY, K.C.B.,—

SIR,—This Committee, in asking you to turn the first sod of the Thames Valley Railway, desire to express to you the great satisfaction which they, in common with every inhabitant of the District, feel on the present occasion, which is the happy termination of a long and arduous agitation commenced more than six years ago, and carried on without much encouragement. Notwithstanding the want of success which attended their efforts to obtain a favorable consideration of this question for many years, the Committee never lost sight of the object they bad in view, but took every opportunity of pressing it upon the attention of the Government of the day, but still without any result until you, sir, appeared upon the scene, and announced to the people of the Thames that you considered the scheme to be not only practicable, but reasonable, and a project deserving the attention of the legislature of the Colony and of capitalists seeking profitable investments. From that time until the last session of Parliament the prospects of the Thames Valley Railway continued steadily to improve, when your Government took the decided step of placing it on the schedule of railway works to be undertaken by the Colony of New Zealand. This recognition of a scheme no less useful than necessary redounds much to the credit of your Government for justice, impartiality, and foresight, and we now have the pleasure to invite you thus to crown an undertaking which already owes so much to your advocacy, by making a formal commencement of the work.

For the Thames Valley Railway Committee,
JAMES KILGOUR,
Chairman.

Sir GEOGOE GREY said: Dr. Kilgour, ladies, and gentlemen,—I will only say it is with great delight I find
that the wishes of the inhabitants of the Thames are at length crooned with success in respect to the commencement of this railway. It is with infinite satisfaction and pleasure that I to-day render you my assistance in commencing this important undertaking. (Loud cheers).

Sir George Grey then proceeded to turn the first sod. A gangway had been run out from the small platform erected, alongside which were some turf sods. A very handsome wheelbarrow of rimu (manufactured by Mr F. Dann), and varnished, was standing near, and a light spade of ordinary make, the silver implement ordered for the occasion not being finished, Sir George proceeded to handle his tools in a workmanlike manner. He dug a good sod, put it into the barrow and wheeled it back to the shed, instead of putting it over the "tip," amid a salute fired by the Naval Volunteers, and the cheers and complimentary remarks of the spectators, by whom the greatest enthusiasm was manifested.

Addressing Dr Kilgour, Sir GEORGE GREY said: Ladies and gentlemen,—I trust that the railway, which has now been inaugurated, may prove a blessing and convenience to the inhabitants of the Thames, and be the means of bringing a large amount of commerce from the interior of the country to what I believe will be one of the greatest ports in New Zealand. I thank you all for having allowed me the opportunity of assisting at the commencement of so great and noble an undertaking. (Loud and repeated cheers.)

Mr PEACOCK, Mayor of Auckland, said he had very great pleasure on behalf of the people of Auckland in congratulating the Thames on the proceedings of that day. There would have been a much greater attendance of Auckland visitors, but for some uncertainty regarding the steamer and the day. He need not dilate on the importance of railway works. That was recognised everywhere, and the benefits felt. Auckland people were aware of the importance of opening up the country. He energy which had been displayed in bringing the work commenced that day to a practical issue was deserving of success, and he could assure them they had the good wishes of the people of Auckland.

Mr J. W. MELTON expressed the plea, sure he felt at being present to represent the Borough of Parnell. After the speech of Mr Peacock it would be unnecessary for him to say much, but he would reiterate that they had the good wishes of the burgesses of Parnell in this undertaking. He regretted that the Mayor (his successor), Mr Coleman, was prevented by illness from attending today and occupying the position he (Mr Melton) did. He would again say he congratulated the Thames people on the result which had attended their exertions.

Mr McMinn, M.H.E. for Waipa, hoped to be able some day to congratulate them at the other end of the line on the completion of the work begun that day. He was sorry there was no other representative from Waikato present, but the fact was they were nearly all farmers in Waikato, and it was very inconvenient to leave their homes at this season. The Thames had a warm friend in the Premier, who had always done what he could for the district, and particularly in regard to the railway and other matters during the late session of Parliament.

Mr. A. J. CADMAN, Chairman of Coromandel County Council, congratulated the Thames people that day. He hoped it would not be many years before the Coromandel people would be able to invite the Thames to assist in a similar work at their end of the peninsula.

Dr Kilgour read an apology from H. Brett, Esq., ex-Mayor of Auckland, congratulating the Thames people on the work of that day, and regretting that he and Mrs Brett were unable to avail themselves of the invitation to be present.

Three cheers were then given for the visitors in a hearty manner, and the band played a selection of music.

The school children than sang the following piece, entitled "My own New Zealand Home," the words and music being by Mr John Grigg, of Pollen-street:—

I love my home, my happy home,  
In fair New Zealand's isle—  
The glory of the South, where all  
The face of nature smiles;  
Where noble forests crown the hills,  
And streamlets thread the vales,  
And mighty ocean circles round  
And breathes refreshing gales.  
CHORUS—My happy home, my happy home,  
My own New Zealand home.

I love to stroll on summer's morn,
Before the sun is high,
And gather flowers and ferns and moss,
And chase the butterfly;
At noon to shelter Heath the trees,
And hear the tui's song,
And then, 'ere ev'ning spreads her veil,
Homeward to speed along.
CHORUS—My happy home, my happy home,
My own New Zealand home.

I love to wander by the shore,
Beside the flowing tide,
And watch the seabird's graceful flight.
And ships with sails spread wide.
The pleasant school and busy town
Are full of charms for me,
While on this British Southern soil
I dwell content and free.
CHORUS—My happy home, my happy home,
My own New Zealand home.

(The hymn was much admired by those present, the tune being specially commended by musical
connoisseurs for its sweetness and softness of cadence. The Thames Scottish Band rendered the chorus
accompaniment.) At the conclusion of the local anthem, for which great credit is due to Mr Grigg, the
composer, Sir George Grey proceeded to the raised ground where the children were assembled.

Sir GEORGE GREY, addressing the children, said: It affords me very much pleasure to see so many children
assembled here to-day, and to hear them sing so well. I tell you this—that myself and a great many other
friends of the children of New Zealand have been working for many years to try and secure them a happy future
in this colony. It is with great delight that we have seen that wherever the children of New Zealand have been
brought in competition with the children of other countries, they have taken a very distinguished place.
(Cheers.) God has given you a country in which there is a climate which developes well not only your frames
but the human intellect. "Well, now, my earnest prayer to you is that you reward all those who have worked to
make this country for you by growing up to be a noble race of men and women, and doing your very best to
make the country in which you were born one of the greatest nations in the world. (Cheers.) I do not mean a
nation merely distinguished for wealth, but I mean a nation distinguished by the goodness of its inhabitants, and
by the care which is bestowed upon its children. When you grow up remember that we have all tried to be kind
to you when you were helpless and could not care for yourselves. Recollect that kind words make happy homes
(Cheers.) That kind looks make happy children. You must all have felt that you liked to be met by smiling faces
and by kind words., and that they brighten up your homes. Now, do you try to brighten your homes by your
kind looks, by your cheerful faces, by your good actions towards your fathers j and mothers. Be obedient and
loving children to them. Endeavour to repay them for the care they have taken of you, and when you come to be
fathers and mothers, you will reap your reward. I will not keep you longer. I will only wish you a Merry
Christmas and a Happy New Year, and hope that God will bless you throughout all your lives. Good-bye to you
all. (Loud and continued cheers.)

The children again cheered, and the visitors moved towards the beach, where the carriages were in waiting
to convey them to the luncheon, but the proceedings being over earlier than was anticipated, and before
luncheon was ready, it was arranged that the party should be driven out in the direction of Parawai and the new
County road. The decorations at various places along the line of route were admired, and the appearance of the
country generally, especially the progress made since Sir George, and others who accompanied him, last visited
the road. The party proceeded along the newly-formed county road as far as the native reserves at Totara Point.
A great battle; was once fought at this place. On one of the invasions of the Ngapuhi, the Thames tribes
assembled at Totara, and constructed there an enormous pa. This was besieged and taken by the Ngaputu, who,
armed with muskets, made a tremendous slaughter amongst the Thames people. Ever since, the place has been
strictly tapu, no person having till lately been allowed to pass over it. Many of those who knew the natives, and
the awe which surrounded the place, predicted that they would never consent to a road being made there, as it
might disturb the bones of their ancestors. From the configuration of the country, it was absolutely necessary
that the road should pass by Tolara. The perseverance of the County Council at length had its reward, the road
was made, and it is anticipated that the railway will be laid down alongside. The verdure and foliage along the
road was green and refreshing to the eye, although the sun-light and heat and the dusty road, made the journey
otherwise unpleasant. Hero the party halted, and the horses were directed towards Shortland again. Arrived at
the Volunteer Hall, everything was in readiness for the guests, and the neatness of the hall was a theme of
general admiration. The building had been elegantly decorated for the occasion with tree ferns, flowers, and
shrubs. Great credit is due to the Luncheon Committee for their excellent arrangements for the comfort of the
guests. The luncheon was prepared by Mr J. Forgie, of Pollen street, and included the delicacies of the season.

The Luncheon.

The Luncheon Committee, consisting of Messrs Allom, W. Davies, F. C. Dean, ’J. McGowan, H.
Mcllhone, It. N. Smith, and John Osborne, successfully supervised preparations for a cold collation, in the
drill-hall, Richmond-street. About 200 attended. During luncheon the Scottish Volunteer Band enlivened the
proceedings by the performance of a selection of music. The chair was taken by the Chairman of the Thames
Valley Railway Committee, Dr Kilgour, supported on his right by Sir George Grey, the Mayor, Colonel Eraser,
and Major Murray; on his left by the County Chairman, Wm. Rowe, M.H.R., and E. W. Puckey. The vice chair
was occupied by Cr. J.Brown. The elite of the town were there, together with the many distinguished visitors
from a distance who came to mark their interest in the proceedings.

After lunch the usual loyal toasts were given from the chair, each being received with hearty cheers.

The MAYOR (who was received with cheers), said the next toast had been placed in his hands. It was that of
"His Excellency the Governor of the Colony." He believed there were no portions of the British Empire more
loyal than its colonies. His Excellency was the representative here of Her Majesty the Queen, and it was only
their duty to drink his health. The toast was received with cheers.

A. BRODIE, Esq., said that in proposing the next toast he was placed in rather unfavourable circumstances
for doing justice to it, inasmuch as a change in the programme had been made, and he was not aware that it
would fall to his lot to propose the Army, the Navy, and the Volunteers, until he entered the room. What the
British army had done in former years, and more recently what it had done in India, needed no recapitulation
from him. What the Volunteers had done in this colony was well known. He remembered that several now
present were engaged in defence of the colony, either as soldiers and sailors in the British navy, or as soldiers in
the ranks of the volunteer force. He saw a very old volunteer before him in the Mayor of Auckland. As to the
force here, the Premier would have an opportunity of inspecting it himself that evening, and as an old military
man he may perhaps tell us, later on what he thinks of them.

Major WITHERS responded for the army, regretting that he lacked the necessary eloquence to reply to the
toast. The deeds of the British army were blazoned in history. As to the Volunteers, in this colony we knew
what they had done. He was only sorry that his powers of speech were not greater, to enable him to do proper
justice to the toast.

The MAYOR OF AUCKLAND, in responding for the Volunteers, said he was somewhat surprised to be called
on, after so many years, to respond to the toast, which, however, was in itself a proof that the service rendered
in a time of difficulty to the country was long remembered. He had served in the Volunteer force, and in the
rank of "full private" he had endeavoured to do his duty. He thought that the toast would be more appropriately
responded to by some volunteer whose connection with that branch of the service was more recent. He had
every confidence that, if the Volunteers should ever be called on again in presence of active hostilities, they
would do their duty as they had done before.

Major MURRAY, in obedience to loud calls, also responded, and in doing so took the opportunity of again
acknowledging the support given them by the present Government and especially by the immediate head of that
department—Col. Whitmore.

Col. FRASER could not refrain from saying a few words on this toast. He came to this colony emphatically
as a volunteer. The late Captain Goldsmith and himself, with their men came, when help was needed. Our men
felt happy they had done so, he felt happy in his happy home, and if they carried out the work commenced they
would have a happy people.

The CHAIRMAN said the toast he had next to propose was that of their illustrious guest, Sir George Grey
(prolonged cheers). He was sure he had but to ask them to drain their glasses without another word and they
would respond at once, but the present was not an occasion to be passed lightly over. This had been a great day
for the Thames. A great day in so far that they were favoured with the presence of the Premier to initiate an
important work for the district. Long before he came to New Zealand Sir George Grey was a man of mark. He
had been Governor of the Cape of Good Hope and South Australia, and the peoples of both rejoiced at his rule. He had not therefore, when he re-entered public life, yet to win his laurels, but as the world would say "he was comfortably laid up in lavender at Kauau." But when the colony needed his help, he once more in answer to the call of duty emerged from his privacy and reentered political life. He did this not for the sake of sordid gain, but for the good of the country. We may differ in opinion from Sir George Grey on some points, but in this we should be united, that in the attempt to open up the lands of the colony to bona fide settlers Sir George Grey's policy was one that must be endorsed by all the world. As one instance he noted the case of the Broom hall settlement, in which Sir George and his colleagues took a much broader view of the question of settlement than that implied in the sale of lands to English capitalists, who could send out labouring people to work them, or immigrants with more or less capital. He looked to a more permanent advantage from settlement than was implied by the money paid into the Treasury. Sir George felt that the lands should be as open to settlers actually in the country, or the children of settlers born in the country, as to gentlemen in England and those whom they employed, They took high ground, and said we have men ready and willing round about us, and it is our duty to give these men, who have come so far and suffered so much, an opportunity to obtain and cultivate this land. No political man with whom he was acquainted had achieved such deserved success as had Sir George Grey. He trusted the toast would be drunk with enthusiasm. He wished Sir George a "Merry Christmas and a Happy New year, and many of them." (Musical Honours.)

Sir GEORGE GREY, after the prolonged cheering had somewhat subsided, said Mr Chairman, ladies, and gentlemen, your Chairman just now in proposing my health, said I ought to be a proud man. Well, I am both proud and thankful to be allowed to live to realise what had almost seemed a vision. The scene of that day reminded him of a vision he had tried to realize years back. It was 35 years since he first visited the Thames. He came down in a little schooner belonging to the late Bishop of Lichfield, who brought him down and left him here a few days. He proceeded up the river Thames, in a small boat, as far as practicable, and then still fun her in a canoe. At that time he wait perfectly satisfied that this district was one of great importance. He relied on the belief of Captain Cook, formed years before, that a great city ultimately must stand here. (Cheers.) He stated that if a great city was to arise in New Zealand, he felt perfectly certain that no more convenient locality could be found for it than the Thames River. That was the opinion of a great navigator. (Cheers) He spent several days in going up the river, and in fancy saw such a city rise and a great settlement established. Early one morning he walked up to the top of the Aroha Mountain, and as he looked down upon the valley he spent some time musing upon what the future of this valley and this country was to be, and in that fancy saw some such scene as witnessed today. (Cheers) He did not imagine that he was to take a part in the scene himself, but he thoroughly believed that a day of greatness was to come for this place. He now enjoyed the blessing—a blessing not often realised in the world—that after the lapse of so many years he had been permitted to see the visions of comparative youth thus brought vividly as a fact before him. (Loud Cheers.) Now, from this he could point to one thing worthy of their consideration, and that was that steadiness in the pursuit of some particular object almost invariably merits its reward. (Cheers.) We are told that "the rolling stone gathers no moss," and there is more in that proverb than at first strikes the ear. If he had not persistently, through many years, felt a great affection for New Zealand,—felt determined to see this country reach the goal to which he felt sure it must come,—If he had not remained here and felt that determination to witness the great end which years before he had seen in prospect,—if he had been a mere rover, a wanderer, caring little for the country, except during the time of official life, he could not have had the infinite pleasure and satisfaction which that day had afforded him (cheers.) Now, to form the opinion be had then required a belief in many things. It did not simply require a belief in oneself and one's own powers to do anything; but it required a belief in his fellow man. It required a belief that an industrious, thrifty, and enterprising population must prepare to face great difficulties and great dangers. They came to this country and persisted in the noble career upon which they had entered of founding a great nation and a great people in the very remotest corner of the earth. He believed in that—he believed in his race; he believed in the Anglo-Saxon people; he believed in the British as a race and people who were destined to occupy the earth, who would dare all difficulties and dangers, and who would not be easily turned back from any proper and legitimate pursuit upon which they had entered—he asked them all to look around today, and answer him, had they well and faithfully fulfilled this expectation of his? (Cheers.) Had they shown that they had sprung from a race who would dare all things, and do all things legitimately and properly to found homes for the families who were to follow them? He said the enterprise developed here had been wonderful, and was but little known. Look at the machinery brought into the place? look at what the miners have achieved; look at the difficulties and dangers which they all had to encounter. See them all overcome, and see now the great career which is opening before them! (Cheers.) Well, now, in reference to that career, just let him say one thing more. It was not his business on an occasion like this to make a political speech or allude to politics. He might tell them that he had heard it said Sir George Grey will make a fine speech to you; he will tell you all about the Public Works Policy" Now, he would tell them that he was the first man who introduced
...the Public Works Policy into the British Colonies. (Cheers.) He was the first man who even proposed that a change should be established—the first man who recommended the British Government to establish a system which should be carried out in all Her Majesty's dominions—and he, upon his own recommendation and his own advice, pointed out a Public Works Policy which was afterwards introduced into this colony. They have done this, and it was as much their duty to make use of it to extend their public works as it was their duty to grind their corn. Well, that subject, introduced by him, raised great discussion. He had returned to Great Britain, and recollected being present at a dinner party where a discussion arose on the subject as to whether he was right in wishing to spend money on works part of the burden of which would rest on posterity. There were present among others Sir G. Cornewall Lewis, Lord John Russell, Mr Gladstone, and Lord Macaulay. The first three opposed his view, but Macaulay—who was a man of infinite wit in a peculiar way—supported him by saying in opposition to the statement that you have no right to burden posterity with anything—it is a bad system, "We all know of the massacre of the 100,000 Chinese under Lin. When I (Macaulay) heard of it I was painfully affected, but I really believe that the effect of distance is such that an attack of gout in my little finger would have caused very much more trouble and pain to me," and applying the story to the burdens on posterity said "he did not think they would ever bring the people to think much of those burdens if they were satisfied that the money raised was to be expended for right and legitimate objects. It was like professing an intense regard for those who surround you, but neglecting their demands out of consideration for those who might come 300 years hence. ' But here the time has come. You have created that invisible thing, credit; and it is your duty with it to open up the country—to spend it, not extravagantly but wisely, so that the country may become populous and fertilized. Insist on your right to have that done for you which has been done for other parts of the colony. Do not be led astray by the glittering temptation of imported wealth held up before you. As your chairman said just now, with reference to your lands, whether, temperance settlements or intemperance settlements, or any other kind of settlement that may be proposed, by which Urge numbers of people are to be brought from England, allow nothing of the kind to be done until the wants of yourselves and your children have been provided for. He made no answer to the arguments on that side of the subject used in the House. They amounted to this, it would be providing a great blessing for Thames people if capitalists came from England to provide work and employ labour. He sat still, he said nothing. In his own mind he thought the Thames people knew their own interest too well. They want to employ themselves. Knowing that nothing could be done, he made no answer, but resolved in his own mind that the lands (which properly belonged to them) now that the power rested with himself, should be secured to them. When what is necessary for their own wants has been taken, let the whole world have a chance and not the water drinkers only (Laughter and cheers). He was himself a water drinker and had a very great respect for them: let them have the same rights is other men. But he believed the way to make men temperate was not by restrictive laws, which produce little effect; not by depriving them of lands and money and making them simply labourers to other men. The true way, he believed to make sober, thoughtful, temperate, and, he believed, religious men was to give them the opportunity of obtaining homes for themselves; to give them a chance of providing for the wants of this life, and time in their old age to prepare in peace and comfort for the life to come. One word more, on the work in which we have this day been engaged. May the work in which we have been engaged produce all the prosperity and blessing for this place which he believed it was capable of achieving He hoped those who had aided him that day might live to see this good and prosperous town the starting point of a railway connecting every part of New Zealand. (Applause)

The Vice-Chairman (John Brown, Esq.) rose to propose the next toast—"Our Visitors"—which he said he was sure would meet with a ready response from the people of this goldfield. They were much indebted to those gentlemen who had come from the Waikato, Auckland and Coromandel to assist them on that occasion. He trusted that they would have the pleasure of carrying out Mr McMinn's wish, by going to Waikato to assist them, in return, to make a success of their end of the line. He also hoped they would have the pleasure of going to Coromandel on the same business, to assist them when they had completed their own line. The wisest policy they could carry out was that of assigning one another to get through New Zealand with their lines of railway, opening up the country, and carrying prosperity with them. This event was one of great importance. It was the beginning of the end, and he hoped it would be pushed on with all possible expedition until completed. It was the good intention of the Government to give us the railway. They did not like to be under any obligation to the Auckland people, and hoped soon to be able to help them on a similar occasion. (Drunk with loud cheers)

THOMAS PEACOCK, Esq. (Mayor of Auckland) rose amidst applause to respond to the toast. He said he could assure them he appreciated the hospitality they had extended to him and others that day. The undertaking they had commenced that day was pregnant with the most beneficial results to this community. He had a high opinion of the efficiency with which they conducted matters. He need only point to their Volunteers and Volunteer Fire Brigades as evidence of this, as well as to their County and Borough officials, who carried out all their undertakings with energy and enterprise. (Cheers.) He felt sure the Government would concur in his...
opinion when he said that they looked after the interests of the Thames people. (Cheers) He had heard words of a jealous tendency between the two places, but he did not think it was their wish such should arise. (Cheers) The interests of both were identical—the success of one meant the success of the other. He hoped that cordiality would not diminish, but grow on and on. (Cheers.) He concluded by thanking them for the kindness and hospitality shown him.

J. W. MELTON, Esq. (ex-Mayor of Parnell), also thanked the proposer for the toast, and regretting that the Mayor-elect, Mr Coleman, was not able to attend. He was assured he would have afforded him great pleasure.

Mr A. J. CADMAN (Chairman of the Coromandel County Council) was called upon to respond, and in doing so said the committee deserved credit for the successful issue of the arrangements. The Coromandel people had an interest in the Thames railway, and hoped when the time arrived they would not forget that Others wanted railways also. They hoped to see the line extended to Coromandel from the Thames. (Cheers.)

Dr KILGOUR (Chairman) rose to propose the toast of "The health of W. Rowe, Esq, our representative, Mr McMinn, and other members of the House present." He could add his testimony to that of others as to the work done during the last session. He happened to be present during the session, and it was his duty to be brought into contact with their representatives present, and he could testify to their diligence, and to the kindness he had received during his stay there. They worked hard to promote the welfare of the country. He could say that there was complete accord between the gentlemen before them when anything affecting the good of the country was concerned, just as there was with himself. He hoped they would be in accord in time to corneas they had been in the past. (Cheers.)

W. ROWE, Ksq, M.H.R., rose to respond. He said he believed short speeches ought to be the order of the day on these occasions. For himself he had not felt a happier day for a long time past. He felt that the outcome of the day was but the result of what they had been looking after for years past, and he saw before him those who had assisted to push it forward years ago. There was Mr Berry and Mr Robertson, both to be classed among the pioneers of the movement, and to-day they saw the outcome of their exertions. He was a firm believer in consistency. He believed that if men formed their convictions they should not let men or circumstances put them aside. He did not seek popularity—he cared nothing for that. His convictions were his guide as to his public duty, and by those he stood. They might have heard something of differences between Sir George Grey and himself—(Question?) They were met to-day on an occasion when old sores could be healed,—when they might take advantage of the occasion to become united. (Hear, hear.) He had differed from Sir George on some occasions, but he might say that on all he had found him intensely desirous to promote the welfare of this community. (Cheers.) He always endeavoured to say to Sir Geo. Grey that he was about to do so and so for the Thames, as representative, and his invariable reply was, "Very well, it is good, it is right, and I will support it." No man had a greater respect or affection for Sir George Grey than he had; but he might say that he would not sacrifice any political opinion of his own in that respect. He was glad to see the Auckland people present, because he did not believe in the reports that they would oppose the Thames getting their railway. Now is the time for cementing a unity of opinion not only among the people of the Thames, but of the people of the whole Provincial District. (Cheers.) He could say of Mr Macandrew, the Minister of Public Works, a more sincere friend Auckland never had. He believed that the Parliament of New Zealand desired to promote the best interests of the colony at large; that they did their duty, and deserved every praise. The Hon. Hoani Nahe and Mr McMinn were sterling representatives of the interests of their constituents. He was sorry that the name of the former had been omitted from the toasts. (Cheers.)

The Hon. HOANI NAHE rose to respond to the toast (interpreted by R. W. Puckey, Esq.) He said he was glad to meet them that day. He was pleased at the way they had drank the toast of the New Zealand Parliament, although he hesitated about making a speech, for it occurred to him that Sir George Grey had already spoken long enough. (Laughter and cheers) He was pleased at the opening of the railway, 8nd hoped it would be carried to a successful completion. He was also very glad to hear that the permission of the chiefs of this district had been given to take the land necessary for the railway line. The railway would be the greatest possible blessing to the native race as well as to the European. The first railway he saw was the one from Grahamstown to Tararu. He would only say that he was pleased at the proceedings with a view of opening the Thames Valley Railway. (Cheers).

E. McMinn, Esq., M. H.R. for Waipa, rose to respond, and was greeted with loud cheers. He said he was proud to see so many people of the Thames and Auckland, and had to apologise for the Waikato people, as he was the only representative present from that district. Mr Whyte, the Mayor, and a number of others, intended to be present, but as he had already explained, the harvest season prevented their leaving home just now. He was pleased to see them in one respect because they reminded him of the large body of consumers in this district which the railway would open a market for from the Waikato, although he did not say so in any selfish way. (Cheers.) He felt sure the settlers of the Waikato would take the same view, and say the same. (Cheers.) He was glad to see that those entrusted with the arrangements for the day had shown their good sense by
inviting the presence of the ladies. There was one hon member of the House who, if he were present, would be rejoiced to see them—he referred to the ladies' champion, Dr. Wallis. (Laughter). Mr McMinn said he had a toast to propose before he sat down—the "Health of Mr Brodie," and he paid a high compliment to the County Chairman of Thames (Mr A. Brodie), whom he had met in Wellington. He said that there was not a person present at the County Conference held there so well versed in the County system as Mr Brodie. He thought he was somewhat proficient in that respect himself, but he himself was a mere child in these matters in the presence of Mr Brodie, and there were others who also felt they had their match on that occasion, when Mr Brodie is present. (Loud cheers). He asked them to drink his health. (Cheers.)

A. BRODIE, Esq. (County Chairman), thanked Mr McMinn and those present for the honour thus conferred upon him, and the hearty expressions accompanying the toast. (Cheers.)

"The Ladies," by Cr. ROBT. GRAHAM, and "The Mining, Commercial, and Agricultural Interests," by Capt. SOUTER, brought the programme to a close, and the proceedings terminated with three cheers for Sir George Grey.

At six o'clock Sir George Grey, accompanied by Major Withers, inspected the Volunteers, comprising six companies, and numbering about 500 men, commanded by Major Murray. After the review Sir George Grey said:—"Major Withers, officers and men of the Thames Volunteers,—Your appearance to-day is in every way satisfactory. I was much pleased to hear from Colonel Whitmore of your efficiency and enthusiasm in all that pertains to volunteering, and I take this opportunity of informing you that he has in no way overlauded your commendable spirit and satisfactory condition, which I can now fully endorse as being equal to anything I have seen in the colony."

**Sir George Grey's Address to his Constituents**

In the evening Sir George Grey, Premier and representative of the Thames, addressed his constituents in the Theatre Royal, Grahamstown, before a crowded and overflowing audience, which could not have numbered less than 1000 persons. Sir George Grey was half-an-hour late in arriving, but when he arrived, accompanied by Dr Kilgour and friends, he was received with deafening rounds of cheers.

Mr W. McCULLOUGH took the chair, on the motion of Mr Greenwood, seconded by Mr Hansen, and after a pause to await the arrival of Sir George Grey he said that he was looking forward like them to the pleasure to be derived from Sir George Grey's address. To Sir George the Thames community were indebted, and should for ever be grateful. He had proved himself the best friend the Thames had ever had. (Cheers). If anything were wanting to prove that such was the case they could point to the successful turning of the first sod of the Thames Valley Railway, which that day had been inaugurated. (Cheers). Sir George's interest in the Thames Harbour Bill would also be for ever remembered with gratitude by the people of the Thames. He would not detain them any longer, but introduce Sir George Grey. (Cheers).

After demonstrative applause, Sir GEORGE GREY said: Your Chairman has been good enough to say that you, as a constituency, have reason to be grateful to me; all that I can answer is I have reason to be grateful to you, for you gave me opportunity of serving New Zealand. Before I speak to you upon what are purely political subjects, I will just say a few words upon practical local matters. Firstly: Since I was returned a great deal has been done in the way of constructing roads through the country, and very great improvements have been made. I should be very ungrateful if I did not say that these improvements have been carried out by aid of your local authorities. They entered into arrangements With Government that they would endeavour to carry them out for the benefit of both races. They tried to convince the native race that their interests were identical with their own, and that it was desirable that roads should be opened up. New the Chairman of your County Council and the heads of your local bodies have faithfully, energetically, and loyally carried out that agreement, not only here, but in Coromandel also. I should be sorry in the heat of discussion to-night to have forgotten to have rendered my thanks to them for what has taken place during the last twelve months. I need hardly say that this will be great encouragement to myself and Government in endeavouring to do our utmost for a community which so willingly aids in carrying out what is for the good of all. I will endeavour to give you an account of my stewardship during last session, stating what is the proper course for us to pursue during the coming session; what are the objects which we should endeavour to obtain, and what is the system which we should strive to build up? Before entering upon this, however, I will say we have heard such language as "Grey will make a fine speech, but that is all." I don't consider you so wanting in intellect that you should be led astray by fine speeches. (Hear, hear) God has endowed every one of us with different faculties, and if a man makes winning speeches, the power is not his own, but the gift of God. Some men have one gift, and some another. Such gifts as they have they cannot avoid using, and for those gifts and their use they are responsible. (Applause) Now persons who use such language do so most unjustly. If the arguments used are unjust, let them
answer the arguments, but that they never do. Let them answer reasoning. They simply indulge in vapid declamation. As an example of what I mean by that, I will just mention one or two facts that occurred last session. You are all aware that, in the case of Canterbury, a clause was introduced into the Bill by which 7,000,000 acres of land were given to the run holders in Canterbury that ought not to have been given,—that is, three years before their leases had expired, and these leases had been for a long term of years. On that subject an appeal ought to have been allowed to the country, but a majority in the House would not allow such an appeal. If the runs had been divided, instead of a few persons holding them, a large rental could have been derived from them. Were the children to be patient whose parents had been robbed of a chance of that kind, or were they not? (Cheers.) A large additional rental would have been obtained by fair competition in the market. If they had been reduced in their proportions, they would have been placed in a larger number of hands. A far greater number of cattle and sheep would have been carried on them; the country would have been relieved from a considerable burden of taxation through the additional revenue obtained, and by the increased commerce and trade, so that the whole community would have been benefited. Was I justified in pitying the children who were called upon to make some sacrifice to give more money to those favoured individuals, or was I not? (Cheers.) I felt pity for them, placed in such circumstances. I say that I was thoroughly justified in feeling that pity, and I believe that the heart of any man who cared lor his country would have felt the sympathy and pity that I felt on looking at a large number of children who, I believe, are compelled to make some sacrifice which they ought not to be required to make, and whose parents, I believe, in many cases have been impoverished. I was angry at that—indignant at it; and, upon remarking that I pitied the children of the South who had been deprived of such chances, I was ridiculed. The arguments were not answers as to the wrong done, but there were roars of laughter at the speech the hon. gentleman made who "pithed the little children." I appeal to you whether I ought to pity the children or not. (Applause.) I believe the mind of any man who cared for his country would have felt such pity. Then, again, this further thing took place. I had been ridiculed for speaking of the wives of the poorer colonists as ladies. What I did say was this—and bear in mind the statement was not made in the House, but at a religious meeting at which I was asked to preside—that I had entered many cottages where the influence of Christianity was such that it had softened the manners and the tones of the occupants, and I am not ashamed to make such a confession. I have been ridiculed for such statements. Laughter is no answer to argument. Ridicule undeserved is no answer to just and weighty argument. Another kind of argument used lately has been this: "Don't you be led astray by Sir George Grey; what you require is material advantage, and one great material advantage given to a place is worth all constitutional truths, or all constitutional principles. Look out for your pockets; they say that is the thing for people to do. Let them not think of their rights in these days, or what their constitution is to be, but let people see that they get a large amount of public revenue spent among them. That is what you want for your constituents," they say. To that I answer I do not believe that this constituency is capable of so acting. It is a thing to look for that you have a fair amount of the public revenue spent amongst you. I tell you, as your representative, I will take care that you have your fair share of the public revenue spent amongst you. I will make myself responsible for that whether I am in office or not. I don't believe you will be so foolish as to neglect to look after yourselves. It is for you to see that the public revenues are properly spent. Now I think you will agree with me upon that point, and those who attempt to delude you that your object should be simply to get money are not your real friends You may depend upon it there is something beyond it if they recommend you to do that. Well, I will pass now to some other subjects. Lately the cry has been raised in several parts of New Zealand—in the North Island especially, about the land being unfairly dealt with. The argument used is, that some people have rights coming to them which are not coming to the public at large. Well, now, do not be led astray by arguments of that kind. In this case a law is made, under which lands become the property of private individuals, although that law gives to every man equal rights. But if we come to some of these individuals' peculiar rights where they have the power to make a law that what has been done shall be made lawful, they say they have power to do that. Now I say any people who argue in that way are enemies to their country. (Cheers.) What does it mean? It means this, if you behave in that way you will break the law, because you assume that you have power to render the infraction of the law lawful. There is no law in this world that can give power to any Government to do exactly as they like. I say it is impossible for any Government to break the law. I say it is impossible for them to do that, and in doing so they are doing wrong to the whole community. (Cheers) They do wrong to themselves in breaking the law. They are doing wrong to think that they can get the law broken when they like, and they are doing wrong to the community by dealing with that which they only hold as trustees. When they say they are developing a country because some gentlemen are spending large sums of money in improving it, I say it is not their money; it is your money. If I give a man one hundred thousand acres of land, you know he can go into the market and raise a large sum of money upon that. That money so raised is your money, it is raised upon your property. If labourers are employed in improving property so acquired it is not the money of the employers which is invested, but your own money given back again. (Loud cheers.) Then further consider this, to give men large
tracts of country in that way you give them the power of raising enormous loans. Every one of you must know this that the value of the produce of a farm depends upon the facility of getting it to market and the means of communication. If therefore I give a man the power of determining whether roads are to be made through that land or not I give him the power of taxing every one of his neighbours about him. I give him the power of determining whether they shall get their produce to market or not. I limit the value of every man's farm who is in his vicinity—it is literally to give one individual the power of taxing all his fellows in his neighbourhood. Well, now, that leads to another point—to a subject upon which I shall have to speak to you to-night. The people who acquire these great tracts of land I hope I make myself clear to you—(cheers)—by a law peculiar to this colony have votes in proportion to the land they hold. They may have five votes to one—that is a man owning the smallest area of property can have but one vote, while a man with a large amount in a riding may have five votes. It is possible for a man to have forty-five votes and most of his neighbours to have only one vote. Now you will therefore see that votes are not, under such circumstances, given to human beings but to acres. According to my view the vote should be proportionate to the owners of property in a district. I would not care how many acres it was; and persons thus qualified should have the power of saying we desire our properly should be taxed at so much per acre. (Cheers.) I contend the majority of the people in such a district should have the power of determining what amount should be imposed per acre. (Cheers.) I contend that it should not be allowed to one man to have forty-five votes, with which he may elect a County Council and all the officers. I say to give a man power to do this, is to create a governing class you will never get rid of. I should wish to make myself clear to you. Where one man has a right to exercise forty-five votes you give him the power to spend the money, and you create a distinct class in the community—one of whom will have the power to govern all the rest of another class, who will go hat in hand to him and ask to be employed, to get work and be paid with their own money. I say no worse attempt has been made to set up an aristocracy in New Zealand, and that of the worst possible kind. If you will search the writers on this subject of plurality of votes, you will find that they say this: "We believe in plurality of votes,—that is to say, the time may come when plurality of votes will be given; but we believe the greatest curse that can afflict a country would be to attach to that plurality of votes property and money." We believe that to do that is to secure degradation to a class for all time, and raise up a class in the country of the worst possible kind. Then they go on to say money may be acquired fraudulently, and by mean habits in various ways, and even by prudent people—often by people who have saved and accumulated money, and often by people who have no right to acquire money by the means they have used, and to reward wealth by giving it plurality of votes is one of the worst ways by which power can be acquired. These are the disreputable means by which power is acquired in the present day. They say, further, the time may come when the community will recognise some men of greater wisdom—some men of greater faculties. Perhaps, then it will be a wise thing to do. That is different from what has been done here I am anxious you should understand that question, for it is a point upon which I shall bare to speak at large with reference to my conduct last session. In round numbers I may say three quarters of a million will be taken from the general revenue and given to local bodies. You will see that this three quarters of a million belongs to you, belongs to myself, belongs to each one of you in equal proportions, and that no person has any right to a larger share than his fellow. He does not contribute more than I do—he contributes exactly the same. Why, because they have a greater extent of laud or property do they expend money which has no relation to their property at all, but which belongs to all of us? (Cheers.) The whole rates of New Zealand at the present moment—I have not brought papers with me, and cannot therefore give the exact amount—are under £100,000 a year raised in rates in New Zealand, therefore the proportion which this bears to the whole expenditure may be set down at one eighth; and I say that nothing can be more unjust to my mind than that they should have the power of spending our money and contributing so little themselves. I think that you will understand that the people really contribute the revenue themselves. I now come to the Electoral Bill. You may either agree with me or not as to my action with regard to that Bill. In the old country the Government have always power to dissolve Parliament and appeal to the people. I have made the greatest search through the writings of all governing statesmen, their histories, and all that can throw light on the subject, and I find that the opinion of those authorities is this if certain circumstances take place we shall dissolve. They do not say we shall advise the Crown to do it, but they say the Crown must take their advice. They say we intend to appeal to the constituencies. They speak always with the most perfect confidence that that shall take place. I think you will agree with me, there is no possible harm in appealing to the people. I say they have always their right to dissolve Parliament, and appeal to the people. That is certainly the proper course. (Cheers.) In New Zealand that has been denied to us. It is said the Governor here is to decide the question of right, and that his rights descend from Governor to Governor. That some Governors may please to allow a dissolution, and some Governors may not allow it—that is to say that New Zealand statesmen are not to be trusted with the same powers which are exercised by statesmen at Home, and we have heard here in New Zealand some members of the New Zealand Parliament say, "thank God that is the case." (Loud laughter.) I think in that they might hold their sides for laughter. They knew they had their
seats for a long time. What they mean is this: that a Ministry, having a minority, shall be tried as to whether they can get a majority; and unless they can show that, they shall not be allowed a dissolution. The effect of this is not only to weaken a Ministry in the House of Representatives, but that the party opposed to the Ministry know that they will not be sent back to their constituents. No Ministry in New Zealand can be strong enough to carry measures with certainty. That has been the position of myself and my friends. Now, certainly, in the next session of Parliament—I say when a dissolution is asked for that dissolution will probably be allowed. That must be the position of any Ministry when a new Parliament is elected with power to appeal to the people. Now let us consider the constitution of the Upper House of this colony. They are a nominated Upper House. In some other colonies there are Upper Houses, but none with the peculiarities of the Legislative Council of New Zealand. Perhaps some people will say we have an Upper House as the House of Lords is in England; but there is this extraordinary difference between England and New Zealand. In England the Upper House can impose no new burthens on the community. The House of Peers are not paid out of the public funds. If I were in England and endeavoured to impose any new burdens upon the community the Upper House could not interfere. There is no Upper House in the colonies which is paid as the Legislative Council is here. A man here is appointed in one day to the Council and immediately acquires two hundred a-year. It is not for a day but for his life. It is a pension for life. (Laughter.) I do not know if I make myself clear to you on that point. Take the civil service here: You put a man, who will shortly be entitled to his pension, into the Upper House—you give £200 a year, in addition to what he gets as a pension. That gives him a position. There is no difficulty about that. In England, when they give a civil servant a pension, that pension comes from the Crown, and if he gets a further appointment he loses a proportionate part of his pension. Take my own case—I get a pension of £1,000 a-year. I wanted to get my ministerial salary reduced. I introduced a Bill for that purpose, and the House threw it out. I wanted £1,200 instead of £1,750. Well, from my pension they took £890 a-year. In New Zealand if a civil servant is put in the Upper House he nets 200 gs. added to what he will receive by his pension. Then this extraordinary thing takes place in New Zealand: in the Parliament at home, if you make a man a Peer, he not only cannot sit in the House of Commons, but he cannot interfere in any election of a member of that House, rendering himself liable to punishment if he does. Here, a person is taken and put into the Upper House because he loses his seat in the Lower House. At home, if you make a man a Peer, he must always be a Peer; but here, if a member has a chance of getting in 1 or another constituency, he can resign his peership, and go back to the Lower House. And he does that, I may say, shamelessly. I should be ashamed to occupy that position myself, but there is nothing to prevent a man from doing it, and then if he loses his election he goes back to the Upper House again. Now you will see really the dominant power in the country consists of some fifty members in the Upper House, each of whom is paid 200 guineas a year. There are upwards of fifty now.—I forget the exact number,—property, money, and power have got them in, neither myself nor my friends got them there, and if my friends wanted to get a majority in, we should have to get fifty-five, each with 200 guineas a year for life. No man who wants to work the constitution properly would try to do it. The Governor himself has no power to do anything at all, although you may depend upon it that the Governors at the present time are intended for party purposes. (Hear) Look at what Beaconsfield said—he admitted that some years ago attempts had been made by a certain section of the Colonial Department to break up the Colonial Empire. I say no party who would attempt to do that would have any right to be put into the third branch of the Assembly. You will see that the Constitution is most difficult to work. If you expect me as a minister to carry measures as they do at home you will be greatly disappointed. I say it is in the power of any Governor to ruin any Ministry, because he may ally himself with the party opposed to the Ministry; and then it is an alliance between the Governor and a particular party. If a Ministry is weak in the House, and has not power to carry its measures, it must fall into disgrace. Well, now then I come to the question of the Electoral Bill. You yourselves must judge whether I was right or not. I am on my trial, as it were, before you. We did not want to introduce a bill which we could not carry, We had to consult our friends. We could not carry a measure against our friends. We were obliged to bring a bill in without attempting to interfere with the plural voting. We were obliged to bring in the bill in that shape which would conserve our vote. We believed, as a Ministry, that if we divided that vote the Ministry would be lost altogether. I was fully certain in my own mind that an appeal to the country would not be granted upon the question: but I asked for it. Another of my friends brought in a proposal to do away with the plural vote—that each man should have one vote, and votes be the representatives of human beings, and not of acres of land. We endeavoured to get that carried, but it was lost. I am in favour of triennial Parliaments. I will tell you why, because if any great political crisis arises during a five years' Parliament, it cannot be dealt with during that period without a dissolution, which one Governor may give who is on good terms with the Ministry, and another in anger may refuse. I think this is a matter which ought not to be left to a decision of that kind, and that the constituencies ought not to be debarred from having a voice in every three years. I thought it was a pity to stop the constituency from exercising its voice for a period of fire years. Surely it was reasonable enough to ask that the time should be reduced to three years. I was quite willing to submit to that test. I did my best to get
that measure passed, but it was rejected. As you are all aware, the Constitution of the country gave the natives exactly the same right of voting as the Europeans. That has prevailed for some time. Many years ago the Legislature said the great bulk of the natives resided in districts where there were no polling-places, and it was said they had no franchise at all. Therefore, they said, we will allow four native members to be elected in and for those districts; and they elected four members accordingly. I have no hesitation in saying that when my opponents were threatened with an adverse vote of the house they saved themselves by keeping those four votes in hand, and they managed the whole thing upon an admirable plan. But after four years or so they would take that out of our hands. (Laughter.) I his Electoral Bill, the object of which was to give fresh privileges to every one of her Majesty's subjects in New Zealand—in effect, universal suffrage—when it got to the Upper House they struck out the dual vote altogether except in respect of these four native members. That they left in. The Act went on to say that all natives whose names were enrolled as ratepayers should have power to vote if they paid their rates, and all Europeans whose names were on the ratepayers' roll should have the power of voting whether paying rates or not. Myself and my friends determined that they should not submit to it. They put in these words, "Every male subject of her Majesty in New Zealand, being twenty-one years of age, and not being a Maori, shall have a vote," and that left the House to the four native members. That was accompanied by a statement made in this House, that the natives in the Upper House had arranged to pass the Land Tax, and that they ought not to be allowed to do so again. Well I was in favour of the Land Tax myself. I believed that the Customs' Duties were already sufficiently heavy, and that the people should not be taxed or punished twice over. I contended that the Upper House exceeded their privilege in rejecting that measure—that they were a nominated body—that they had no right and that a sense of delicacy should have restrained them from interfering in a matter of that kind. (Cheers.) Therefore I said to myself, I now believe in doing away with the plural vote. I believe in Triennial Parliaments, and I believe it is quite possible that parties in the Upper House may want to meddle, and have set us this example of meddling. They do not hesitate to interfere with the privileges of the Lower House, therefore what is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander, and I have followed the example which they gave to me. They threw the gage down. I determined in my own mind not to accept the amendments on the measure made by the Legislative Council, and I found a majority of the House coincided with me, therefore I would not accept their amendment. I believe the result will be that next year we shall get a fundamentally better Reform Bill, and that we will get it in time for the new elections. We shall see that the country is divided into fair representative districts—that there shall be no more pocket Boroughs. (Cheers.) Then I shall say you are no more a divided constituency. I recollect you had for years only one member here, and other places with less population had as many as three or even four members. We are determined that population shall carry representation with it. I believe I shall get a Reform Bill which shall do away with plurality of voting, and probably we shall have triennial Parliaments. If we cannot carry that we shall have to appeal to the people next year, and then you must decide yourselves whether you like it or not. Mind, I only tell you what my own views are, and I try to assert them with humility—I tell you that I do not like the plural vote, and I am persuaded that you will agree with me that I am right. As to triennial Parliaments, representation in proportion to population, you will have an opportunity of saying whether you like these things or not. I shall say if you do not like them you will be unwise, and I shall lie by until I get some other constituency that will like them. I now come to the Land Bill. We say that every man in New Zealand—every father of a family—shall have a right of homestead, and have no tax upon it, that they shall be enabled to bring up a family and found a home to live in—that every man shall begin to pay a land tax in proportion as his property grows. Whatever structure may be erected for the decent living and comfort of a man's family, to enable them to be brought up and to have a proper home to live in, to that extent there shall not be a tax upon a man's homestead. That a man shall be enabled to leave it to his children without a public burden upon it, no tax shall be put upon it. But the moment that a man passes beyond that boundary, he shall begin to pay a tax exactly in proportion to his property. We say to the poor man that, in regard to property which is merely sufficient to support himself in comfort and decency, he shall pay no tax. We will say on the other hand, to the man who holds large quantities of land for the purpose of speculation, that he shall pay not less for his land than for his neighbours, and that in proportion to its extent the poor man shall pay taxes for making roads that give additional value to the , and in the neighbourhood, while the owner of the land did not make any improvement whatever upon it. We say the selling value of the land without improvements upon it is that which shall be taxed. The whole theory of the Public Works Policy is that land shall be taxed. They say "we want a property tax." But that does not suit our views at present at all. I have no objection to a property tax by and bye. Let those people who have large tracts of land with speculative principles set an example. Let those people who live in England, and derive large revenues from the colony, pay their share towards the general taxation of the colony. (Cheers) Never fear, I will get it out of them by and bye, if it is possible to do it. (Loud cheers.) And if I am out of power I will aid you at getting at those people. Let us make sure that those people who hold immense properties in this country contribute in proportion to their property—those people who hold great runs. There
are large numbers of people in this colony who hold millions of acres of land, and they shall and will be got at, as will those who hold investments in public companies. (Cheers.) They want a tax on improvements. I hey believe if a tax were put on improvements a large number of farms in the country would fall into their hands. We say no, let every man who has land improve it to the best of his ability, but do not let him pay for the improvements which he has made upon it by his own labour. (Loud cheers.) The landowners tried to create discontent. They said you have only made a tax of one halfpenny in the pound to deceive the people I would reply, "Let us see what this tax of one halfpenny in the pound will bring in, and if we want more we have an easy means of getting it. You have a great machinery in your hands. It will be for you to use it as you like. If you want to raise greater revenue you can do it, and I believe it is a perfectly fair way for you to do it. Then this other objection was made; it was said, "Oh, you have not taken enough burthens off the people. Why do you not take more off at once?" The answer was, "We want to see what the Land Tax Bill will bring in to be quite sure of what we are doing." They said, "You have imposed one halfpenny in the pound per acre, why have you not imposed twopence or fourpence?" The answer to that is, "We want to see what the Land Tax would bring in. We have taken off half the duty on sugar, and it will be very easy to take the other half off. We will gladly do so when the proper time comes. We have taken twopence in the pound off tea, and we will be delighted to take off the other four pence when we see what will be the result of the new tax. I believe this tax at the present moment is fairer than any other tax in the neighbouring colonies. The moment we know what the land tax really does yield, we will unhesitatingly do our very best to remove the whole of these burthens from the public, under which they ought not to suffer. You will see from what I have stated that you are entitled to a reduction upon articles of consumption. We were obliged to deal gingerly with every one of these subjects, not being certain of a dissolution. But you will see next session, if a dissolution takes place, the power rests in your own hands. You become the legislators for the time. We shall lay down a programme, and you shall vote upon that; you will become the General Assembly for the time being. You now understand what I mean upon that point? (Cheers) There are some other points on which I will speak to you, and which will agitate the Assembly next session. You will have next session to determine—and this is the first time it will have become public—this matter, which will be submitted for appeal to you: Is a titled aristocracy—an aristocracy peculiar to New Zealand—to be set up in this colony, or is it not? ("No.") Well that is what I want to know. I intend to resist it to the utmost. I will tell you what has taken place. In England the law is this: The Crown is the fountain of honour. The Crown can make peers, baronets, knights, and every degree, and invest them with decorations, and every order that people are liable to have stuck upon them. (Laughter.) It has all these powers, but the Crown can create no new rank in England, and can create no new title. It tried to do it; it tried to make a life Peer without an Act of Parliament. Both Houses resisted, and it was admitted that in England, according to the Constitution, the Crown can create no new title whatever. Now the Crown determines to set up in New Zealand a new order of aristocracy. It was to be a life aristocracy. They were to be called honourable for life, but they were only to carry their title of honourable within two miles of New Zealand. Directly they went outside that line they threw it off, and directly they come back they are again honourable for life. If the Crown can create an order of nobility, it can create anything it pleases. I think you are aware they sent out to me to promulgate an order in a New Zealand Gazette that Judges in New Zealand, on retirement, and certain civil servants were to be made honourable for life. I said I cannot put that in the Gazette, I do not think the Queen has power to do it; and, in the next place, I said, when an honour is conferred on one of her Majesty's subjects it is put in the London Gazette, and the whole world knows his name and the honour that has been bestowed upon him. I said, "I will not put anything of the kind in the New Zealand Gazette: I will not put anything in the New Zealand Gazette that will not be in the London Gazette, and you have no power to order me." (Cheers.) I tell you now that it has been conceded that these notices shall be put in the London Gazette for the future. The authorities to whom this matter has been referred have said it is right, and we intend to carry it out. To that I answer distinctly that "The Queen has no right; and I tell you the reason that she cannot do it in England, and there is an additional reason why she cannot do it in New Zealand. The only power left to the Queen upon such a subject is this: the Queen is one part of the General Assembly, and it is said the General Assembly may make laws for the happiness and good government of New Zealand. Clearly, the creation of an aristocracy is a question relating to the good government of the colony. I said further, suppose you have the power to do that it would be an act of generosity to consult the people on the subject, and if you create a separate aristocracy in New Zealand you also at the same time create a class here that will tend to separate from the mother country. I said the people of New Zealand have a dislike to such things, why not behave generously to them, and say, although we claim the power in New Zealand, we will not force it unless the representatives in the General Assembly address the Crown, asking the Crown to do so. We all know the Queen takes no interest in those matters. It would be a generous and fair thing to her subjects in New Zealand that this thing should be done by their consent and by their choice." They do not notice that. They simply say they intend to do it. They do not say that they have taken any legal opinion, but they say they are quite satisfied the Queen has the power. Now I say this, that you
must not think because the Colonial Department says this, that there is any reason to believe they are right. I will give you an instance of what I mean. The Colonial Department claimed the power of creating Bishops in all these colonies, and they issued letters patent to the Bishops at home, and they made them Peers within the colonies. They said the same rights and dignities belonged to them in these colonies as was enjoyed by the Bishops in Auckland. They authorised Bishops to set up Ecclesiastical Courts, to sue people, to have people within their jurisdiction brought up and tried upon ecclesiastical questions. This was a power the Bishops had not at home. All these letters patent were drawn up by law officers, Crown solicitors, and law officers of the Crown, and they got £5 5s for reading those documents, or some clerk got it, I do not know which. However, these letters were said to be perfectly legal. I remonstrated with them. At one time the clergy of Cape Colony were in a similar position, and reference was made to the House of Commons, and they said the Queen had no right to do anything of the kind. I next referred the question to the legal authorities. They argued that the Queen was right, and that the issue of these letters patent was perfectly legal, but I managed to get the question brought before the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. Fortunately, just at the time, the Bishop had suspended a clergyman from his living, giving him a right to appeal, and subscriptions were raised—that enabled us to take the whole matter before the Privy Council. The decision given was that the Queen, having granted a constitution to that colony very much such as we have here, and having created a Legislature for the conservation of the peace, order, and government of the colony, she could not now by letters patent issued in Great Britain over-ride what had been done, and, therefore, we got rid of the Bishops. (Laughter.) I do not mean that we got them abolished, but we got rid of their power derived from the Crown—that is we elect them, and they exercise just such powers as their congregations choose to give them. This will convince you that the Colonial Department is very often wrong. I have no hesitation in saying that the Colonial office has no power whatever to force a colonial aristocracy on this colony. And I, as your representative, possessing the powers which you have delegated to me, shall not be fairly behaving to you unless I use every means to insure that nothing of the kind shall be done in this country. And I am perfectly satisfied that as soon as the Home Government find that a decided stand is taken they will give way. If I see that the country does not go with me still I shall protest, and I think you will protest. I believe this will be one of the burning questions in the next session. I now come to another question—that of the nomination of the Governor. I have told the people of this colony that they had a perfect right to pass a law to decide upon the manner in which their Governors should be nominated. I have always held that they had a perfect right to pass a law providing that the Governor should be recommended to the Queen, leaving the Crown to make the appointment. Now the Colonial Department at home have come to their senses upon that point, and they admit that the colonists have a right to pass such a law. But I say if the Colonial Legislature exercises that power the Queen has no right to reject that law if she chooses—we know that the Queen has power to reject it. You know now that you have to pass such a law as to how your Governor shall be nominated—I think it is a great thing for you to know that the power rests in your hands to use it as you may please. (A cheer.) I had intended to speak to you on other matters, but I fear the time is late (go on)—but there are subjects upon which there is great misapprehension. The one point which I shall refer to is the question of the power of the Judges. Before last session the Judges claimed that they had the right at any time to commit any man to gaol for life for contempt of Court, and that they were not obliged to make a record of such committal. They also said that the Governor, and even the Queen, had not the power to release him. (Laughter) Some little time ago they committed Mr Barton to gaol for a month for making an application on behalf of one of his clients. The matter came before Parliament, and we found that they also claimed the right to commit editors as well as lawyers. Well, I thought this power was dangerous, and should be restrained. I thought power with regard to the Press should be limited. The Judges said, "We are witnesses of the contempt: we saw the gestures and heard the tone of voice, and we must take these things into consideration in deciding on the punishment." Therefore, it was contended that power ought to be absolutely left in the hands of the Judges, and that there should be no trial by jury in such cases. With regard to the Press, I said that they did not write the article in the Court; they did not say anything in the Court. The Judges are not qualified in deciding about this as a jury I said that the Judges should direct a prosecution if they wish, and punish the offender, and let the State bear the cost, and the jury decide upon the matter. The result of the debate was that the majority in the House were of opinion the Judges should not be interfered with, and I think they were wrong (hear, hear), and I wish you to know it. I firmly believe this, that in the course of a few years no man will say that anyone should be sent to gaol for life, for I believe that any such power to Judges is a bad power. One Judge will imprison a man for life, and another for a month. It depends on the caprice, or, it may be in some cases, the personal animosity of the Judge. Not long ago in England the Judges had the power to torture prisoners for the purpose of wringing a confession from them. For example, there was once a lady named Margaret Clitheroe, who was a devout Roman Catholic, and she was arrested on a charge of having secreted priests at a time when they had a price on their heads. Well, as she refused to plead she was tortured, but to no purpose, and pressed to death. An investigation into the legality of torturing people was then made, and it was found that they had no
power. I believe this to be the case with the New Zealand Judges. They claim from custom; and I am convinced that they have no power; and I think we should strive to remedy what I believe to be a great wrong. (Hear, hear.) With your help I will endeavour to do so. I think I have gone through the main points of what took place last session, and given you a look at the programme for the future, and will now turn to matters nearer home. I believe that this portion of New Zealand is destined to have a great future. With the railway you will have an opportunity of developing the capacities of the district. You have a splendid water power, and immense water power for turning machinery. Then, again, you have auriferous deposits, which you must see are properly worked. Passing, as I hope the railway will, along the whole peninsula, so that the whole of the auriferous land can be got at, it will unite the varied capacities of the whole district, and these are many. You have at the back of the Thames a fertile country, and you must take care to have a proper harbour constructed to connect with the railway. Without a harbour your communication will be incomplete. When you have these you will possess all the necessary artificial advantages, in addition to many natural ones, and a bright future is in prospect. As I have before stated to-day, it had been said we should do our utmost to induce capitalists to come here and provide labour for the inhabitants. Of course, it would be a great pity not to allow them to come; but what they should most desire was to provide fertile homesteads for themselves, employing their own labour. There was the attempt to obtain what was termed the Broomhall settlement. We refused to have that land surrendered while the inhabitants already here wished to obtain it. At the small charge of £3,500 the claim made was surrendered and the land secured for yourselves. (Cheers.) Now, just let me make a personal application of these matters to myself, as your representative, and to you as my constituents. Supposing that my plan had been this—that, for example, I had secured on this goldfield, and between this and the Waikato, the best blocks of land I could get for myself and my friends, and then that I had got a railway made, how would you have looked upon me? Would you have felt the same sentiments in the getting of the railway for you as you would when you know— that I have not an acre of land in the district, and that I have no personal interest whatever in it? Would you have felt that I had been really working for your advantage? [Cries of "No."] I say that your bounden duty is to aid me in watching all the lands in this district, that I as your representative and you as my constituents, should see that as far as possible, these lands are secured to the public. I say again, shut your ears to the voice of the charmers who tell you, "Give us large blocks of land, and we will find employment for you." I say that in this country the thing that we desire is, that the people should have the opportunity of making homes for themselves. These are objects which you should all desire to attain; and I feel certain that those persons who aid in such a work will earn the gratitude of future times,—that many humble men, perhaps some of those who are now listening to me, by working for that object, would leave imperishable names behind them. [The hon. gentleman here referred to a statement recently published by a leading Bishop in England, depicting the terrible state of the poor in the towns.] Now, I say this, that it is your duty to take care and watch things in their beginning, and not allow yourselves to grow up in a state which will assuredly entail a future of that kind in a few generations upon our posterity. I say, than that man who, for the sake of getting labour easily, and allows land to be improperly acquired, that he may get labour, who deprives his fellow men of their rights of obtaining land for themselves and their families, is a disgrace to the community. I say, then, let us all lay these subjects to heart; let us work to lay down a broad platform for the future benefit of the nation which we are building up here, and I am certain that we shall obtain the blessing of those who will follow us. Let me close by using the last words which I uttered in the House of Representatives: That in New Zealand there is the noblest clay existing, ready to the hand of the potter. I pointed out that the original immigrants were chosen with the greatest care, that they all came out in the prime of life, that they were of good character, men selected of good health, free from vice, who had families; and that the young men of the higher ranks who came out were some of the most distinguished families in England; that the flower of some of the other colonies Hocked here, believing there was a great opening in New Zealand for such a class of immigrants. I said that here is the noblest clay ready to the hand of the potter; that there may be fashioned one of the greatest and best nations that the world has ever seen I said this that that noble clay will be moulded by no unskilful potter; it will not be moulded in a shape which will create misery and destitution to millions hereafter to come. It will see that justice is done to itself, and any Government that attempts to pass laws of an unfair kind, creating these class distinctions that I spoke of—creating these vast inequalities of property—giving favours to certain individuals over others,—I say such a Government and such a system is rotten, and if attempted to be enforced cannot exist for a day. I say that the clay is truly noble—the clay will be moulded into a noble shape,—those potters who try to act otherwise will find that the whole population of New Zealand will cry out: Away with you; we will be moulded by no such potters as you are! (Loud applause.)

The CHAIRMAN proposed that this meeting cordially thank the Hon Sir George Grey for his admirable address, and reiterates the feelings of confidence so frequently expressed by the people of this district in him as their representative in the New Zealand Parliament.

This was seconded by Mr R. GRAHAM, and carried most enthusiastically, when the proceedings closed with
three cheers for Sir George.

Printed at the Thames Advertiser Office, Grahamstown.

Cape of Good Hope. The Education Manual, 1879-1880
South African Readers.

Mr. Juta begs to inform the Principals of Schools that advice from London has been received about the South African Readers, Nos. 1. 2, 3, which will be ready shortly, and may be expected here in the beginning of December next.

Teachers will hereby be able to order complete sets for the lessons to begin in January next.

The Prices of the South African Readers are as follows:

s. d. No. 1 ... ... 0 6 2 ... ... 1 0 3 ... ... 1 6 4 ... ... 2 0 5 ... ... 2 6

A School Geography of South Africa.

As the "Outlines of the Geography of South Africa," although an excellent Book for the lower, is not comprehensive enough for the higher, classes in a School. Mr. JUTA has now ready for the Press A School Geography of South Africa, Edited by A. WILMOT, Esq., F.R.G.S., Postmaster, Port Elizabeth, which will be issued in the style of CLARK'S Schoo Geography recently published by Messrs. MACMILLAN & Co., London. Examination Papers.

J. C. Juta, Publisher to the University Cape Town
Cape of Good Hope. The Education Manual, 1879-1880

Compiled Under the Immediate Direction of the Superintendent-General of Education, For the Guidance of Managers and Teachers of Schools, With Examination Papers.

J. C. Juta, Publisher to the University Cape Town Saul Solomon & Co., Printers Cape Town St. George's Street.

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Appendix.

Department of Public Education.

Cape Town, Cape of Good Hope.

Superintendent-General of Education.

• LANGHAM DALE, ESQUIRE, M.A., LL.D.

Correspondence Branch.

• GEORGE MACONACHIE, ESQUIRE, Secretary and Examiner.
• WILLIAM LEWIS BOVELL, ESQUIRE, Clerk.

Accounting Branch.

• ALEXANDER J. KUYS, ESQUIRE, Accounting Officer.
• JOHN SPYKER, ESQUIRE, Sub-Accountant.

Messenger.

• Mr. JOHN W. COSKEY.

Deputy-Inspectors of Schools.
Schedule.

1. A grant not exceeding, £200 per annum will be made in aid of the salary of a professor or lecturer in any of the Departments of Literature, Science, Law, and Medicine, if the Government is satisfied that such a professorship or lectureship is one that ought to be so aided, and that the college or institution with which such professorship or lectureship is connected, is so situated and conducted as to afford facilities to youth of all classes for the prosecution of higher or professional studies, and for qualifying themselves for the examinations prescribed, or to be prescribed, by the University of the Cape of Good Hope, for degrees in the faculties of Arts, Law, and Medicine.

2. The Government shall satisfy itself from time to time as to the arrangements made for the discharge of the duties attached to each such professorship or lectureship.

3. The appointment of each professor or lecturer, the rate of fee to be paid by students, and the time and place of delivery of lectures, shall be subject to the approval of the Government.

4. In every college or institution with which any professorship or lectureship is connected, students shall be at liberty to attend the classes of the professor or lecturer without being resident students in such college or institution, and such students not being residents, shall not be compelled to be present at any religious ceremony, or to receive religious instruction in any such college or institution.

5. The authorities of the college or institution to which the professorship or lectureship aided by Government is attached, shall cause to be furnished to the Government such reports and returns as may from time to time be required.

Preliminary Arrangements Required by the Government.

1. The College or Institution to which Professorships are proposed to be attached shall be so conducted that the Higher or professorial Department may be distinct from the Lower or school Department.

2. The lowest standard of admission to the Higher or professorial Department shall be the competency of the students by age and proficiency to enter at once upon the subjects for the matriculation of the University.

3. There shall be a prospect of a reasonable attendance of students on the classes of each Professor.

4. Professors in the faculty of arts shall be engaged, as a rule, not less than four hours daily in the duties of their respective professorships.

5. The amount of local contribution towards the salary of a Professor shall be fair and reasonable, and shall, as a rule, be equivalent to the Government grant.

6. Suitable class-rooms and appliances shall be provided.

Abstract of the Schedule to the Education Act, No. 13, 1865, and Supplementary Conditions of Aid.

ORDER A.—UNDENOMINATIONAL PUBLIC SCHOOLS.
Class I.—Grants in Aid and Course of Instruction.

1. Each Division shall be allowed a sum not exceeding £200 per annum, in aid of the salaries of two teachers of a public school of the first class, to be erected in the chief town of the division, if the Government shall be satisfied that such chief town is one that ought to be provided with such a school; a guarantee being furnished by the managers of the school, to the satisfaction of the Government, that for a period of three years, with this aid, the salaries to such two teachers shall be at least £250 per annum to the principal, and £150 per annum to the assistant, and that these salaries shall be duly paid.

2. Where the standard of instruction and the number of scholars in daily attendance appear to the Superintendent-General of Education to require the services of additional assistant teachers, a grant, not exceeding £75 per annum in aid of the salary of each assistant teacher, will be made by the Government, on a guarantee being furnished by the managers of the school that with this aid the salary of such assistant shall be at least £150 per annum and shall be duly paid; provided that in schools attended by both boys and girls one female teacher, whether principal or assistant, shall be employed whenever circumstances permit.

3. The subjects of instruction in a school of the first class shall include reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, and descriptive geography, in the primary or elementary course; and also the Greek and Latin languages, English literature, history, elementary mathematics, and the elements of physical science, in the secondary or superior course.

4. The instruction during the ordinary school hours shall be given through the medium of the English language.

Class 2.—Grants in Aid and Course of Instruction.

1. Each town or village, not being the chief town of the division, or each chief town of a division in which a public school of the first class cannot be established, shall be allowed a sum in aid of the salary of a teacher to an amount ranging from £50 to £75 per annum, a guarantee being furnished by the managers of the school, to the satisfaction of Government, that for three years their annual contribution towards the teacher's salary shall be at least equivalent to the grant in aid.

2. Where the standard of instruction and the numbers of scholars in daily attendance appear to the Superintendent-General of Education to require the services of assistant teachers, a grant not exceeding £30 per annum, in aid of the salary of each assistant teacher, will be made by the Government, on a guarantee being furnished by the managers of the school that with this aid the salary of such assistant be at least £60 per annum, and shall be duly paid; provided that in schools attended both by boys and girls one female teacher, whether principal or assistant, shall be employed whenever circumstances permit.

3. The subjects of instruction in a school of the second class shall include reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, and descriptive geography, in the primary or elementary course; and also the rudiments of the Latin language, plane geometry, and elementary algebra.

4. The instruction during the ordinary school hours shall be given through the medium of the English language.

Class 3.—Grants in Aid and Course of Instruction.

1. Schools, not in towns or villages, at eligible stations among the agricultural population, approved by the Government, shall be allowed a sum of £30 per annum in aid of the salary of the teacher, on a guarantee being furnished by the managers, to the satisfaction of the Government, that for three years their annual contribution towards the teacher's salary shall be at least equivalent to the grant in aid. In districts where the distance of farms from each other prevents the assembling of the scholars at one central locality, a grant not exceeding £45 per annum will be made towards the salary of the teacher having charge of two school stations; the grant being made on the same conditions as before named, and the number of scholars at the two stations being not less than that required by Government in other cases before granting aid, and school being kept at each station for such time as the Superintendent-General of Education shall approve; only one such itinerant teacher, however, shall be aided in a field-cornetcy.

2. Where the number of scholars in daily attendance appears to the Superintendent-General of Education to require the services of assistant teachers, a grant not exceeding £15 per annum, in aid of the salary of each assistant teacher, will be made by the Government, on a guarantee being furnished by the managers of the school that with this aid the salary of such assistant shall be at least £30 per annum, and shall be duly paid; provided that in schools attended by both boys and girls one female teacher, whether principal or assistant, shall be employed whenever circumstances permit.
3. The course of instruction in third-class schools shall include, at least, reading, writing, and elementary arithmetic.
4. The instruction during the ordinary school hours shall, as far as practicable, be given through the medium of the English language, within twelve months after the first establishment of the school.

**Girls' Schools.**

**Class 1.—Grants in Aid and Course of Instruction.**

1. The grant in aid of the salary of the principal teacher in a girls' school of the first class shall be £75 per annum; a guarantee being furnished by the managers of the school, to the satisfaction of the Government, that for three years their annual contribution towards the principal teacher's salary shall be at least equivalent to the grant in aid, and shall be duly paid.

2. Provision must be made in a girls' school of the first class for superior instruction in the English language and literature, history, geography, arithmetic; and in domestic economy, as far as may be practicable.

3. Where the standard of instruction and the number of scholars in daily attendance appear to require the services of assistant teachers, a grant not exceeding £50 per annum in aid of the salary of each assistant teacher will be made by the Government, on a guarantee being furnished by the managers of the school that with this aid the salary of such Assistant teacher shall be at least £100 per annum, and shall be duly paid.

**Class 2.—Grants in Aid and Course of Instruction.**

1. The grant in aid of the salary of the principal teacher in a girls, school of the second class shall be £50 per annum; a guarantee being furnished by the managers of the school, to the satisfaction of the Government, that for three years their annual contribution towards the principal teacher's salary shall be at least equivalent to the grant in aid, and shall be duly paid.

2. Provision must be made in a girls' school of the second class for instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic, outlines of history and geography, and plain needlework.

3. Where the number of scholars in daily attendance appears to require the services of assistant teachers, a grant not exceeding £30 per annum in aid of the salary of each assistant teacher will be made by the Government, on a guarantee being furnished by the managers of the school that with this aid the salary of such assistant shall be at least £60 per annum, and shall be duly paid.

**Religious Instruction.**

The managers of the school may provide for the religious instruction of the scholars at an hour set apart by them for that purpose, in addition to the ordinary school hours; but no scholars shall be compelled to attend at that hour for religious instruction, without the consent of their parents or guardians.

The ordinary school hours are to be computed at not less than two hours in the forenoon and two hours in the afternoon.

**Free Scholars.**

1. The Governor shall have the right to appoint in each school of the first-class one free scholar in respect of every £20 of the annual amount allowed from the public revenue in aid of such school; such appointments to be restricted to scholars who are unable from circumstances to pay the necessary school fees.

2. The Governor shall have the right to appoint in each school of the second class one free scholar for every £10 of the annual amount allowed out of the public revenue to such school; such appointments to be restricted to scholars who are unable from circumstances to pay the necessary school fees.

3. The Governor shall have the right to appoint in each school of the third class five free scholars; such appointments to be restricted to scholars who are unable from circumstances to pay the necessary school fees.

**Preparatory Schools.**
1. To encourage the formation of preparatory schools in connection with, and subsidiary to, undenominational schools in towns and villages, a grant, not exceeding £30 per annum, in aid of the salary of a qualified teacher of each department of a preparatory school, will be made by the Government, on a guarantee being furnished by the managers of the undenominational public school that with this aid the salary of such teacher shall be at least £60 per annum, and shall be duly paid.

Management of Undenominational Public Schools.

1. The names of the managers shall in every case be submitted to the Government for approval before any grant is made; and the Government shall satisfy itself with the arrangements proposed for the management and maintenance of the school. The names and credentials of the teachers nominated by the managers, the rate of school-fee, and all further regulations, shall be subject to the approval of the Government.

2. The managers shall provide and keep in repair the necessary accommodation for the school and teachers,—namely, a school-room, with suitable offices attached, and proper school furniture, together with a residence for the principal teacher, or an annual allowance in lieu thereof, being one-fifth at least of the salary.

3. No new grant, or renewal or augmentation of a grant, shall take place until the Superintendent-General of Education is satisfied that suitable out-offices, and, in addition, a suitable recreation ground, have been provided, and that the school can efficiently provide for the wants of the locality.

4. The school shall be under the management and control of the local managers, but shall be subject to inspection by the Superintendent-General of Education, or his deputy duly appointed by the Governor, who shall have the right of entering the school at any time during school hours, of examining into the state of the buildings, and the school furniture, of ascertaining the progress of the children under instruction, and of enquiring generally into the efficiency of the school in regard to the locality in which it is placed, and of calling for such returns as he may require, in order to obtain satisfactory information on these subjects.

5. Any municipal board or divisional council, which shall raise the necessary amount, and comply with the other conditions upon which aid is proposed to be given to undenominational public schools, shall be the managers of the school or schools which they shall so establish, or they may appoint other managers if they deem fit; such other managers, however, to be subject to approval by the Governor; and such schools to be subject to all the regulations which may be imposed upon the other public schools aided from the public funds.

Order B.—Mission Schools.

1. Aid is granted to mission schools in eligible districts or localities previously approved by the Government, as well within as out of towns and villages, in order to provide for the education of those portions of the population who are wholly unable of themselves to found schools.

2. The classification of mission schools is as follows:
   • Where there is a series of schools, infant, juvenile, and industrial, the annual allowance shall be £75.
   • Where the children form only one school the annual allowance shall be £30.
   • To schools at out-stations, the annual allowance shall be £15.

3. No portion of the Government grant shall be appropriated otherwise than to the support of the teacher or teachers of the school, for the performance of their duty as teachers.

4. Before any new grant or renewal or augmentation of any grant is made, the Superintendent-General of Education shall be satisfied that proper arrangements are made for the maintenance and management of the school, and that the local income of the school, with the grant in aid, can efficiently provide for the secular instruction of the children of the locality in which the school is placed.

5. The schools shall be under the management and control of the churches or missionary bodies with which they are connected, but shall be subject to inspection by the Superintendent-General of Education, or his deputy duly appointed by the Governor, who shall have the right of entering the school at any time during school hours, of examining into the state of the buildings and the school furniture, of ascertaining the progress of the children under instruction, and enquiring generally into the efficiency of the school in regard to the district or locality in which it is placed, and of calling for such returns as he may require, in order to obtain satisfactory information on these subjects.

6. Suitable school buildings, furniture, and offices, and a recreation ground, must be provided, to the satisfaction of the Government.
7. The ordinary school hours are to be computed at not less than two hours in the forenoon and two hours in the afternoon; and the secular instruction given during the school hours shall include, at least, reading, writing, and elementary arithmetic.

8. No scholars shall be compelled to attend for religious instruction without the consent of their parents or guardians.

9 The Governor shall have the right to appoint, in each mission school, five free scholars; such appointments to be restricted to scholars who are unable from circumstances to pay the necessary school fees.

10. The instruction during the ordinary school hours shall, as far as practicable, be given through the medium of the English language.

Order C.—Border Department.—Aborigines.

1. To place the means of getting instruction in the ordinary branches of elementary knowledge within the reach of the native youth, at certain eligible stations approved by His Excellency the Governor; and to promote the suitable industrial training, both of the male and female scholars, are the general objects to which Government aid shall be appropriated.

2. Where school is kept for not less than four hours daily by a duly qualified teacher, assisted by another qualified teacher, and the average daily attendance is not less than one hundred, a fixed annual allowance will be made in aid of salaries, not exceeding £100 for the first teacher, £40 for the assistant teacher, and £10 for the female superintending the needle-work of the girls.

3. Where school is kept for not less than four hours daily by a teacher qualified to give instruction in English as well as in the native language, and the average daily attendance is not less than fifty, a fixed annual allowance will be made in aid of salaries; not exceeding £40 for the teacher, and £10 for the female superintending the needlework of the girls. Where the teacher is capable of giving instruction only in the native language, a fixed annual allowance will be made in aid of his salary, not exceeding £20, provided the average daily attendance is not less than twenty-five.

4. To encourage native youth to become skilled workmen, an allowance of £15 per annum, maintenance money, will be made to males who, after one year's probation, shall have entered into a definite engagement with the authorities of the institution with which they are connected, for a further period not exceeding four years nor less than two years, as apprentices to one of the following trades: carpentry, wagonmaking, blacksmith's work, tailoring, shoemaking, printing, and bookbinding. This amount will also be allowed during the probationary year.

5. To encourage the female portion of the native youth to become habituated to and skilled in the performance of the duties of domestic civilized life, an allowance of £10 per annum, maintenance money, will be made to females who, after three months' probation, shall have entered into a definite engagement with the authorities of the institution, for a further period, not exceeding two years, nor less than one year, as apprentices to household work.

6. It shall be incumbent on the authorities to provide suitable elementary education, either morning or evening, for all apprentices.

7. The number of those who can be received as apprentices being limited, it is desirable to bring other of the native youth under the influences of the missionary's home, as much as possible, by enabling them to reside in the institution, for the purpose of being educated. For this object an allowance of £10 to £12 per annum (the exact amount being determined by the locality) will be made towards the maintenance of native boarders actually resident within the institution, and having, besides the ordinary school work, some industrial occupation, such as of field or garden labour, or special training for pupil-teachers.

8. Boarders and apprentices may be considered as forming part of the required average of daily attendance.

9. These institutions and schools shall be subject to inspection by the Superintendent-General of Education, or his deputy duly appointed by the Governor, and shall furnish such reports, from time to time, as the Superintendent-General of Education may require, to enable him to judge of the state of each institution and school, and to ascertain how far each fulfils the object for which it is aided by the Government.

Supplementary Regulations. Order C. Aborigines.

1. To train native youths more effectually in the practical knowledge of trades, an annual allowance not
exceeding £120 will be given in aid of the salary of a qualified trade-teacher in such of the departments of carpentry, wagon-making, smiths'-work, and leather-work, as may, with the consent of the Government, be attached to a native industrial institution; provided that no allowance shall be given, as a rule, for more than two trade-departments in the same institution, nor for any trade-department which is attended by less than fifteen resident native youths on probation before apprenticeship, or ten resident natives under definite engagement with the authorities of the institution as apprentices in the trade-department for which an allowance is made.

2. An allowance not exceeding £30 will be given in aid of the out fit of tools, fittings, and materials for trade-departments which may, with the consent of the Government, be attached to a native industrial institution.

3. An annual allowance not exceeding £50 will be given in aid of the expenses of an industrial department or trade-class attached, with the consent of the Government, to a native industrial institution not in receipt of any allowance under the foregoing sections, I and 2, or to a native day-school, provided that the industrial department or trade-class is daily attended by a satisfactory number of young persons of suitable age.

Order D.—District Boarding-Schools Among the Agricultural Population.

1. Before any grant is made, the Superintendent-General of Education shall satisfy himself that the district is one that requires the agency of a boarding-school, and that the locality where the school is to be placed is suitable for the purpose.

2. The managers, the teachers, the rates of charge for the instruction and maintenance of scholars, the course of instruction, and all the arrangements of the institution shall be subject to the approval of the Super-intendent-General of Education, and the institution shall be open at all times to the inspection of the Superintendent-General of Education, or his deputy, duly appointed by the Governor.

3. The grants from the funds administered by the Superintendent-General of Education shall be appropriated exclusively to the following objects:—the part payment of the teachers and superintendents of the boarding departments, the training of the scholars in industrial habits, and the part maintenance of those scholars whose circumstances require such assistance towards their education.

4. The annual grants to a boarding-school for boys shall not exceed £100 towards the salary of the principal teacher, £50 towards the salary of the assistant teacher, and £6 capitation allowance towards the maintenance of each boy boarded and lodged and educated in the institution, whose home is situated not less than six miles from the undenominational public school of any town or village, and whose circumstances require such assistance towards his education.

5. The annual grants to a boarding-school for girls shall not exceed £50 towards the salary of the principal teacher, £30 towards the salary of the assistant teacher, £10 towards the industrial department, and £6 capitation allowance towards the maintenance of each girl boarded and lodged and educated in the institution, whose home is situated not less than six miles from the undenominational public school of any town or village, and whose circumstances require such assistance towards her education.

6. Each grant towards the salary of a teacher, or assistant teacher, or of a superintendent of a boarding department, shall be supplemented by an equivalent amount from the managers of the institution.

7. The managers of a district boarding-school shall provide day-school instruction for the children resident in the locality.

8. The managers of a district boarding-school shall furnish from time to time such returns and reports as are required by the Superintendent-General of Education, and shall submit to him annually a complete report of the management of the institution, with a statement of its revenue and expenditure, and the accounts of the institution shall be subject to audit annually by the Superintendent-General of Education, or his deputy duly appointed by the Governor.

9. Where sufficient provision already exists in the locality for day-school instruction, a boarding department, either for boys or for girls, may be formed in connection with the day-school; the annual grants to such a boarding department being restricted to a sum not exceeding £50 towards the salary of the superintendent, an equivalent amount being provided by the managers, and to a capitation allowance of £6 towards the maintenance of each boy or girl boarded and lodged and educated, whose home is situated not less than six miles from the undenominational public school of any town or village, and whose circumstances require such assistance towards his or her education.

Supplementary Regulations, Order D.—District
Boarding Schools Among the Agricultural Population.

1. To encourage the industrial training of young persons, resident in district boarding-schools among the agricultural population, and in boarding departments connected with the undenominational public schools, a sum not exceeding £50 per annum will be allowed in aid of the expenses of such industrial departments or trade-classes as shall be open with the consent of the Government, provided that no allowance shall be given for any industrial department or trade-class which is not daily attended by a satisfactory number of young persons of suitable age.

Regulations regarding Pupil Teachers.

1. Candidates for the office of pupil teacher, whether male or female, shall be not less than thirteen years of age.
2. Candidates shall satisfy the Superintendent-General of Education of their character and qualifications.
3. Candidates, when approved, shall be attached to some school, in which the arrangements and appliances appear to the Superintendent-General of Education to offer facilities for the proper training of young persons in schools management.
4. Pupil teachers on admission shall receive an allowance not exceeding £12 per annum, which allowance, after the completion of one year's satisfactory service, shall be augmented to £18 per annum; and this shall continue to be the annual allowance during the rest of their time of service.
5. The term of service of a pupil teacher, shall, as a rule, be three years, but may be extended to five years, subject to the approval of Government.
6. The engagement shall be considered to be between the pupil teachers and the managers of the school in which they are trained, and shall be made, in writing, for such a term of service, and in such a manner as are approved by the Government.
7. In any case where the managers do not conduct a school in a manner satisfactory to the Government, and under fit and competent teachers approved by the Superintendent-General of Education, it shall be the duty of the Superintendent-General of Education, with the consent of the Government, to discontinue all allowances for pupil teachers in such a school, after having given not less than three months' notice thereof to the managers of such school.
8. The principal teacher of a school to which pupil teachers are attached shall give to the pupil teachers special instruction during not less than four hours weekly, with a view of preparing them to pass the examination for the elementary teacher's certificate.
9. For every pupil teacher who obtains the elementary teacher's certificate, an allowance of £10 shall be given to the principal teacher; and this allowance shall be augmented to £15 in each case where the pupil teacher obtains the certificate with honours; provided that the Superintendent-General of Education is satisfied that such principal teacher has actually given to the pupil teacher the special instruction required.

By-Laws and Regulations of the Department.

I.—Daily Attendance.

1. As a fundamental condition of aid, it is required that in all schools a fair daily attendance be maintained.
2. In a public school, and in each department for which a separate grant is made, a minimum daily attendance of at least twenty to thirty children is required to be maintained.
3. In a mission school, and in each department for which a separate grant is made, a daily attendance of at least thirty to forty children is required to be maintained, except at outstations, where a daily attendance of at least fifteen to twenty is required.
4. In every mission school enjoying the full grant of £75 per annum, it is required that there be a fit and qualified teacher for a separate infant school, and two fit and qualified teachers for the juvenile school, of whom one shall superintend the girls' sewing-classes, and shall assist at all other times in the general business
II. Nomination of Managers.

Instructions regarding the Nomination of Managers of Undenominational Public Schools.

The following Memorandum of Instructions, applicable to all cases where municipal boards or divisional councils do not exercise the privilege of becoming, or of appointing managers, is published for general information:

- For the purpose of establishing an undenominational public school or for the nomination of managers of an undenominational public school, a meeting of householders within the limits of the division, or town, or village, or field-cornetcy, as the case may be, should be convened.
- A notice of at least three weeks should be given of such a meeting by a printed or written notice, affixed to some place of public resort within the limits above mentioned.
- As soon as it shall have been resolved by a majority of votes to establish an undenominational public school, or to nominate new managers, as the case may be, all householders who are willing to subscribe a guarantee for the payment of the local expenses of the school (including half-salary of teacher, house-allowance, and rent of school-room, as required by Education Act, No. 13, 1865) should be invited to subscribe their names, with the amount of their respective guarantees.
- The list of guarantors being completed, the meeting should be invited to elect from the guarantors a board of managers, not less than five in number, to hold office for three years.
- The chairman who shall have presided at such a meeting should, as soon as may be, transmit the names of the managers thus elected, together with a copy of the proceedings of the meeting, to the Superintendent-General of Education, Cape Town.
- The managers (as soon as their names shall have been approved by Government according to law, must proceed to sign the necessary forms of guarantee required by the Government, and must nominate their teachers and frame school-regulations.
- The managers should also frame rules for the conducting of their own meetings periodically, and for the keeping of proper records of their proceedings.
- The managers should call together the whole body of guarantors once in every year, by a notice affixed as aforesaid, and submit to them a complete statement of the financial affairs of the school.
- When a vacancy occurs in the board of managers by insolvency, or death, or removal from the district, the guarantors should be called together by the chairman of the board to nominate another member to fill the vacancy.

III. School Requisites.

On forwarding to the Education Office a list of the articles required, the managers or correspondent of the school must undertake the payment of half the amount, and must furnish plain instructions how and to whom the parcels are to be forwarded.

An order for a supply of school requisites can be issued to a school only once in the same year.

The Superintendent-General of Education will exercise his discretion in apportioning the rate of Government aid, should the funds placed at his disposal from time to time be inadequate to meet the local remittance by an equivalent sum; and in declining to forward such publications as do not appear to him to be suited to the wants of the school.

Managers will be at liberty to sell the articles, thus supplied, to the teacher and to the scholars at the usual retail price, or at any lower price which they may fix upon.

Cases, carriage, and insurance are charged to the managers of schools.

IV. School Registers.

Explanations.

I. Annual Returns.
The number of children on the books is intended to include all children whose names have been on the books at any period during the year.

The number of children learning . . . is to include all who have been learning . . during the year.

II. Quarterly Returns.

The number of children on the books is intended to include all children whose names have been on the books at any time during the quarter.

The present ordinary attendance is to be estimated from the number in average daily attendance during the month in which the return is made.

III; Admission and Withdrawal.

If any child has been absent from school during the whole week inquiry should be made of the parents; and if they express their intention to discontinue the child's attendance, the child should be considered as withdrawn.

No name, under any circumstances, of a child who has not been in actual attendance during a period of three months, is to be retained on the register.

After such an interval of three months, or after a formal withdrawal, a child must be entered afresh if he should return to the school.

V. Issue of Grants.

Grants are paid quarterly, in March, June, September, and December, and notices of changes affecting the issue of the quarterly grants must reach the Education Office before the middle of the second month of each quarter.

Declaration.

To be made quarterly, before a Magistrate or Justice of the Peace, by Teachers and Assistant-Teachers of Undenominational Public Schools and District Boarding-Schools.

I,______, teacher of the Undenominational public school or of the Boarding-School at______, do hereby solemnly and sincerely declare that I have actually and bonâ fide received to my own use, and for the discharge of my duties as public teacher, the sum of______, being the Government grant in aid of my salary for the period of______months, viz, from______to______, and the sum of______, being the share of the stipulated salary due to me from the managers of the Undenominational public school or of the Boarding-School at______for the same period of______months; and that I have enjoyed the free use of a residence provided by the managers [or], that I have actually and bonâ fide received, in lieu of a free residence, the sum of______, being house allowance for the same period of______months; and I make this solemn declaration conscientiously believing the same to be true, and by virtue of the Ordinance No. 6, 1845, intituled "An Ordinance for substituting Declarations in the place of Certain Oaths, and for the suppresion of Voluntary and extra-judicial Oaths and Affidavits."

______, Teacher.
Declared before me,
Date ‘______.
To be forwarded to the Education Office before the middle of the succeeding quarter.

Preliminary Application for Aid.

Application for aid to any School must be accompanied by full information on the following points:—

• The name and exact situation of the proposed school station.
• The number of children of a school-going age (from 4 to 15 years) who live within a mile of the school-station.
• The number of children in actual attendance, if the school is already open; or, the number that will probably attend.
• Whether any other aided school is situated in the neighbourhood?—If so, why these children cannot avail themselves of that school?
• What grant is applied for?
• What local income is proposed to be given to the teacher or teachers? What school-fee is to be charged?
• The names and credentials of the teachers to be employed; and certificates of their competency to conduct the secular instruction of the school in the English language, or in the Native language.
• The dimensions of the proposed school-rooms, how floored and furnished? Whether provided with necessary out-offices; also with recreation ground; extent of accommodation for written exercises; ditto for infant lessons.
• Who are proposed as the managers of the school?

Form of Nomination.

Undenominational Public Schools.

We, the committee duly appointed for the management of the Undenominational public school of the______class at______transmit herewith a guarantee, for a period of three years, commencing from______that a sum at least equivalent to the Government grant, viz.:______, shall be paid annually to the teacher, as the local contribution towards h______salary, together with a free residence, or an annual allowance of in I eu thereof; and we submit the credentials of the competency and fitness for the office of teacher of M______, who has been duly nominated by us, together with the rate of school-fee and other regulations proposed for the management of the school, requesting that His Excellency the Governor may be pleased to confirm the appointment of M______as teacher, and to approve the proposed regulations. And we hereby accept, and undertake to conduct the school according to the conditions on which aid is granted by the Government in support of Undenominational public schools, as set forth in the Schedule to the Education Act, 1865.

Papers transmitted herewith:
1. Guarantee.
2. Credentials.
3. Regulations proposed by the Managers.
   _____Secretary.
   _____Treasurer.
Date 1______

Form of Guarantee.

We, the Managers of the______class Undenominational public school, at______division of______, hereby guarantee and undertake to pay to the teacher, duly nominated by us and approved by the Government, the sum of £______sterling per annum, and £______for house allowance' for a period of-years, commencing from______of______18; it being understood that the Government will allow a sum of______per annum in aid of the salary of said teacher for the same period, in accordance with Act No. 13, 1865.

Managers.
Dated

Agreement Between the Manager and the Pupil Teacher of the School.

This indenture, made and entered into between______in his capacity as manager of the_____school, of the one part, and______a minor, age______years, assisted by______(father or guardian) of the other part:—

Witnesseth:—That the said party of the other part of h own free will and with the consent and approbation of______(father or guardian) of the said______as appears by h__being a party to these presents, doth put, place, and bind h______as a pupil teacher to the said party of the one part in his capacity as such manager, or the manager for the time being, for a period of______years, reckoned from______and to end and be completed
on the______

And the said party of the other part doth hereby covenant, promise, and agree, that during all the aforesaid period______shall and will faithfully, diligently, and honestly serve______the said party of the one part, in his capacity as such manager, or the manager for the time being, and obey and perform all the lawful commands of the said party of the one part, in his capacity as such manager, and of those who may be placed in authority under him, and will not absent______from the service of the said party of the one part, in his capacity as manager, during the said term, without his leave first had and obtained; and also that_____will in all matters and things whatsoever during the said term demean and behave_____as a good, true, and faithful pupil teacher ought to do, and shall and will prepare to undergo the examination proscribed by the Government for the certificate of qualification as an elementary teacher.

And the said party of the one part, in his capacity as such manager, in consideration of the services so to be performed by the said party of the other part, doth covenant, promise, and agree, that he and his successor in office will, well and truly, pay or cause to be paid unto the said party of the other part the sum of______during the first year of agreement, and______during the remainder of the said term, such payment to be made______, and doth further engage that_____shall and will teach and instruct, or cause to be taught and instructed, the said party of the other part in the duties of a pupil teacher, with the view of_____obtaining the Government certificate of qualification as an elementary teacher.

For the due performance whereof the said parties do hereby bind themselves each to the other.

Dated at______this______day of______18

Manager (or Chairman of Committee of Managers).
Pupil Teacher.
Father or Guardian.
Witnesses:

Examination for Teachers' Certificates.

The arrangements for holding the annual Examination of Teachers, Normal College students, and generally of candidates, of either sex, for employment as teachers in connection with the Department of Public Education, are as follows:—

A. Elementary or Third-Class Certificate.

I. Candidates for this certificate, which qualifies the holder for the charge of an undenominational school of the 3rd class, or of an ordinary mission or native school, will be examined in:—

• The English Language; Reading, Dictation, Grammar.
• Arithmetic; including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions, Practice, Proportion and Simple Interest.
• Descriptive and Physical Geography.
• Handwriting.
• School Management.

II. Candidates may also present themselves for examination in one, but only one, of the five following languages:—

• Dutch, German, French.
• Kafir, Seso (specially required of native teachers).

III. Those who distinguish themselves in the examination will have the words "with honours" marked on their certificates.

IV. The next examination will be held in Cape Town, and at other centres, in September, 1880; and candidates are required to send in their names, with age and testimony to good character, before the 1st August next, to the Superintendent-General of Education, Cape Town.

V. The candidates must be at least sixteen years of age.

VI. The possession of an elementary teacher's certificate, or of some higher and duly recognised certificate, is indispensable to those seeking employment in schools connected with this department.

VII. Special arrangements will be made for holding the Examination in other places, besides Cape Town, if timely notice is given, and there is a sufficient number of candidates at any one place.

B. Middle-Class Certificate.
I. Candidates for this certificate, which qualifies the holder for the charge of a public school (boys') of the second class or of a public school (girls'), of the first class; or for an assistant teachership in a public school (boys' of the first class, will be examined in:—

- English—Reading, Grammar and Analysis, and Composition.
- Elementary Mathematics; Arithmetic, with Mensuration, as far as the measurement of plane rectilineal figures; and the practical use of Logarithms; Algebra, to quadratic equations, inclusive; Geometry, the Books I to IV inclusive, with simple deductions.
- Latin—Grammatical Exercises; translation of passages from ordinary Latin Works read in schools; and the rendering of English passages into Latin.
- Penmanship and Free-hand Drawing.
- School Management—Theory and Practice.

II. (a) Candidates are required: (1) to teach a class in the presence of examiner; (2) to answer questions in writing on school organization, and on the methods of teaching—reading, spelling, writing, geography, and history; (3) to write notes of lessons on common objects, &c.

(b.) Candidates who are not already teachers in connection with the department, must produce satisfactory evidence of having gone through a definite course of practical school training.

III. Candidates are at liberty to present themselves for examination in the following additional subjects:

- Dutch, or French, or German (one).
- Outlines of Chemistry or Elementary Physics.
- Music.

IV. In English, candidates should thoroughly study Milton, Book I, with Macaulay's Essay on Milton; and Shakespeare, Henry VIII; in Latin, Æneid, Book IX, and Cæsar de Bello Gallico, Book I.

V. The examination will be both oral and written, and accuracy in spelling and composition is highly valued. The work done by candidates is expected to be methodically arranged, clearly expressed, and neatly written; and although no separate paper is set for geography and the history of the British Empire, the exercises in English composition and the examination in method will indirectly test the candidate's knowledge of these subjects.

VI. Those who distinguish themselves in the examination will have the words "with honours" marked on their certificates; and holders of the certificates with honours, provided that they have gone through the prescribed course in a Normal College will, after three years' satisfactory service, be accepted as qualified for the post of principal of a first-class school; and notice to that effect will be endorsed on the certificate.

VII. The examination for this certificate will be held only in Cape Town, in December, 1880; and candidates are required to send in their names, with evidence of age and training, and testimony to good character, before the 1st October, to the Superintendent-General of Education, Cape Town.

VIII. Candidates must be at least eighteen years of age.

IX. This examination is open to Normal College Students of either sex at the close of their second year's course.

C.

Certificates of competency as elementary teachers will be granted without examination, upon the special report and recommendation of the Deputy-Inspector, to teachers who satisfy the following conditions:—

- They must (a) be thirty years of age; and (b) have given satisfaction as teachers of Schools in connection with this department for at least five years; and (c) produce satisfactory testimony of good character.
- The Deputy-Inspector must report (a) that they are efficient teachers and their Schools are in every respect satisfactory; and (b) that not less than fifteen per cent, of the scholars presented at the last examination passed in the third or some higher standard.

D. Registered Teachers.

Teachers who hold no certificate from this department, but have obtained other recognised certificates, or academic distinctions or degrees) can have their qualifications registered by sending the original documents to this office for examination.

Special Notice to Candidates.

The foregoing examinations are for those who purpose to devote themselves to teaching; and the
Superintendent-General of Education reserves to himself the right of refusing candidates who do not intend to follow teaching as their profession.

**Examination for Certificates of Proficiency in Elementary Subjects of Instruction.**

1. The University Council is prepared to undertake periodical examinations of boys and girls who are candidates for certificates of proficiency in elementary subjects of instruction, and to issue certificates to such as reach a standard prescribed by the University.

2. The examinations will take place in the chief towns of the colony, and at other convenient centres where satisfactory arrangements can be made.

3. Teachers and others interested in education must, at each centre, constitute a local committee of supervision, to provide the necessary accommodation, and make all other local arrangements for the examination.

4. The University Council will appoint commissioners to be charged with the personal superintendence of all candidates throughout the examination, and to be responsible for the integrity of the work done during the examination.

5. The answers of the candidates will be scaled up by the commissioners, who will forward them at once to the Registrar of the University.

6. The local committee must defray all the expenses incurred at the place of the examination.

7. The University will defray all expenses incurred in printing the examination papers, examining the answers of the candidates, and issuing certificates. For this purpose a fee of 7s. 6d shall be paid to the University by each candidate. The local committee must collect the fees, and transmit the amount to the Registrar.

8. The University Council will appoint examiners to value the answers of the candidates, and to arrange the names of successful ones in two classes.

9. The Registrar will issue a certificate to all candidates who have passed the prescribed examination.

10. Candidates, whether boys or girls, shall be under sixteen years of age on the 1st of January preceding the examination.

11. Candidates shall satisfy the examiners or their proficiency in the following subjects of examination:—
   - **The English Language:**—Including writing Passages from Dictation, Parsing of Words, Etymology, Analysis of Sentences, and English Composition.
   - **Arithmetic:**—Including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions, Practice, Proportion and Simple Interest.
   - **Handwriting.**
   - **Outlines of the History of England, and of South Africa.**
   - **Outlines of Geography, Descriptive and Physical.**

12. The commissioners will be charged with the duty of dictating the prescribed passages.

13. Certificates of age must be furnished to the local committee, and the commissioners will have to certify to the University Council that the certificate in each case is satisfactory.

14. The examinations shall take place simultaneously throughout the colony about the early part of April in each year.

15. Candidates who have obtained the certificate in the 2nd class, and are not beyond the prescribed age, may compete at a subsequent examination for a certificate in the 1st class; but their names will not appear in the lists, unless they have reached the standard of merit entitling them to the first-class certificate.

16. The fee of 7s. 6d. must be paid by all candidates presenting themselves for re-examination.

**School Examination for Honours.**

1. Candidates for honours must have passed the elementary examination in the first class.

2. The examination for honours shall be considered as a supplementary one to the elementary examination, and shall be held immediately after that examination.

3. Boys who are candidates for honours must be under sixteen years of age on the first of January of the year in which they present themselves for the honours examination.

4. Girls who are candidates for honours must be under eighteen years of age on the first of January of the year in which they present themselves for the honours examination.
5. The honours examination will include the following subjects:—

**Group I.—Literature.**
- Latin.
- English Language and Literature.
- French.
- German or Dutch.

**Group II.—Science.**
- Arithmetic and Algebra.
- Geometry.
- Outlines of Inorganic Chemistry.
- The Elements of Physics, or Physical Geography, with the Outlines of any one of the following subjects:—Mineralogy, Botany, Zoology, Geology.

6. A candidate is at liberty to select any three subjects in each group, and must select two at least. A candidate may choose only one of the subjects marked (4) in each group.

7. No candidate shall pass the examination who does not show a competent knowledge of at least two subjects in each of the groups.

8. The examination shall be conducted in the following order:
   - Morning, 9—12, Latin.
   - Afternoon, 1.30—4.30, English.
   - Morning, 9—12, French.
   - Afternoon, 1.30—4.30, German or Dutch.
   - Morning, 9—12, Arithmetic and Algebra.
   - Afternoon, 4.30, Geometry.
   - Morning, 9—12, Outlines of Chemistry.
   - Afternoon, 1.30—4.30, the Elements of Physics or Physical Geography.

9. The following particulars of the foregoing examination are intended to guide candidates:
   - **Latin.**—An author, or portion of an author, usually read in schools, to be notified from time to time by the Council. The paper will contain passages from the author prescribed, and also other passages, to be translated into English; and English sentences to be translated into Latin. The paper is intended to test accuracy of knowledge, and therefore considerable value will be attached to grammatical questions. The subject in 1880 will be Virgil, *Æneid*, Book V.
   - **English.**—Composition, Analysis, and the grammatical structure of the Language. Outlines of the History of English Literature.
   - **French, German, or Dutch.**—The paper will contain Passages for translation into English, and English Phrases and Sentences for translation into the Language chosen; and also grammatical questions.
   - **Arithmetic and Algebra**—The candidate will be expected to have a thorough knowledge of Arithmetic (excluding the use of logarithms), and a knowledge of Algebra as far as, and including, simple equations and the solution of questions producing simple equations.
   - **Geometry.**—The paper will consist of questions on the 1st book of Euclid, and of simple deductions.
   - **Chemistry.**—An ordinary text book, such as Roscoe's *Lessons in Elementary Chemistry*, will sufficiently indicate the range of the examination.
   - **Physics.**—The candidate may select either of the two following subjects:—
     - Light, heat, electricity and magnetism, as treated in Balfour Stewart's *Lessons in Elementary Physics*. Hydrostatics, mechanics, hydraulics and pneumatics, as treated in Comstock and Hoblyn's *Natural Philosophy*, from the beginning to page 92.
     - **Physical Geography.**—Any ordinary text book, such as Geikie's *Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography*, will sufficiently indicate the range of the examination.
   - **Mineralogy.**—The elements of the science, as treated in Rutley's *Mineralogy* (Murby's "Science and Art Department" series of text books).
   - **Botany.**—The elements of the science, as treated in Gray's *Lessons in Botany* or Oliver's *Lessons in Elementary Botany*.
   - **Zoology.**—The examination will embrace certain portions of the subject, to be specified from year to year. The subject of examination in 1880 will be "The Vertebrate Animals," as treated in the introduction and chapters xxiii to xxxii, inclusive, of Nicholson's *Advanced Text Book of Zoology* (London, 1870).
• **Geology.**—The examination will embrace certain portions of the subject, to be specified from year to year. The subject of examination in 1880 will be those portions of the science treated in chapters i to vii, inclusive, and chapters xxii to xxxvi inclusive, of Lyell's *Student's Elements of Geology*.

10. Candidates for honours must send in their names to the Registrar, with a list of the subjects in which they wish to be examined, on or before the first of December preceding the examination.

11. The local arrangements for this examination must be made by a local committee, in the manner prescribed by the regulations for the elementary school examination.

12. The fee for the honours examinations shall be ten shillings. Candidates who fail to pass the examination, or who do not present themselves at the examination for which they have entered their names, must pay the fee again before they can be admitted to a subsequent examination.

13. Candidates may enter their names for the elementary examination and for the honours examination, in one and the same year; but no candidate, whether boy or girl, may so enter whose age exceeds sixteen years on the 1st of January in that year. Such candidates must pay the fee for each examination.

14. The names of successful candidates will be arranged in order of merit.

15. The Registrar will issue a certificate to all candidates who have passed the examination, and the certificate will specify the subjects in which the candidate has passed.

16. The first examination will be held in April, 1880.

17. This examination shall be known as the "School Examination for Honours."

All communications on the subject of these examinations are to be addressed to the Registrar of the University, University Chambers, Cape Town.

In order to prevent misunderstanding and disappointment, the attention of all who are interested in these examinations is directed to the following:

• All applications from local committees for the appointment of centres of examination must be sent to the Registrar early in February.

• The Registrar will not communicate with, or receive fees from, any candidate directly. All payments are to be made and information obtained through the secretary of the local committee.

• The names of candidates, with the amount of their fees, must be sent to the Registrar on or before the 1st December, 1879, for the Honours Examination, or the 1st March, 1880, for the Elementary Examination.

### Periods of Vacation in Schools Connected with the Department of Public Education.

- Schools re-open Monday, 12th January; break up Thursday, 25th March.
- Schools re-open Monday, 5th April; break up Thursday, 24th June.
- Schools re-open Monday, 19th July; break up Thursday, 23rd September.
- Schools re-open Monday, 4th October; break up Thursday, 23rd December.

The occasional holidays are Ascension day, Whit-Monday, the Queen's Birthday, and every Saturday.

The Standards of Attainments, under which the Deputy Inspectors of Schools are instructed to classify Scholars in Elementary Schools, after inspection and examination, are published for the information of Teachers of Schools in connection with this Department; so that they may group the children as nearly as possible in accordance with the requirements of each.

Langham Dale, Superintendent-General of Education.

**Note.**—The Deputy-Inspectors report specially on the higher subjects of Instruction.

### Handwriting And English.

**Handwriting.**

*These Exercises will be collected, when they are finished, by the presiding Examiner or Commissioner.*

**COPY,** in your best handwriting, the following passage:—

Dr. Fritsch, in his admirable work on the Ethnology of the Natives of South Africa, estimates the number of the Hottentots in the days of Van Riebeck at 150,000. Now, according to the recent census returns, there are in the Cape Colony 81,000; in Great Namaqualand about 15,000; and a few hundreds in Griqualands West and East.
ENGLISH.

1. Write down the passage which will be dictated by the Examiner or Commissioner.
2. Choose one of the following subjects, and write a short essay upon it:—

How to spend a wet day.
The use of Railways.
Speaking the truth.

3. Explain the following terms—Alphabet, syllable, monosyllable, orthography.
   "When words are written down, the spelling of the words should shew us how the words ought to be
   pronounced." Shew that this rule is often broken, by spelling the following words as they are
   pronounced:—are, cough, debt, feign, great, hair, heir, key, laugh, might, plough, quay, reign, sweat, tough,
treat, weigh, whey, yacht, yolk.

4. Define common, proper, and abstract Nouns, and classify the words in italics in the following passages,
   adding short explanatory notes, to justify your classifications, where you think them necessary:—
   • Thackeray lectured upon the Georges.
   • When Music, heavenly maid, was young, While yet in early Greece she sung.
   • The Smiths are a widely spread family; go where you will among the Germanic nations, you are sure to
     meet a Smith,
   • In 1811 Miss Austen published her novel, "Sense and Sensibility."
   • King Alfred allowed only eight hours a day for eating, sleeping, and exercise.
   • Patience! No worm, no Socrates, no patient Griselda, no Job could endure this torture without writhing.

5. Define an Adjective: and divide adjectives into classes, giving examples of each class.
   "In English we often use (a) words that are nouns as adjectives, and (b) words that are adjectives as nouns."
   Shew the truth of these statements from the following passages, pointing out distinctly, in each case, which is
   used for which:—
   • The sentinel stars set their watch in the sky.
   • The village green was crowded with men from the neighbouring cavalry barracks,
   • Her arms along the deep proudly shone.
   • The rich fled from their stone houses, and the blacks from their mud huts, and huddled together in the
     open, looked anxiously for the morning light.

6. Define Prepositions and Conjunctions, and give, distinctly, all the examples of each that you can find in
   the following passages:—
   • My days among the dead are past,
     Around me I behold,
     Where'er these casual eyes are cast,
     The mighty minds of old.
   • They stole all the oranges but two, but, as they were getting over the wall, they dropped five or six.
   • If I were you, I would wait until to-morrow, or at least until this afternoon's post is come in.

7. Parse fully every word in the following sentences, adding notes to explain anything remarkable in the
   constructions:—
   • Oliver Cromwell was styled the Protector.
   • She gave me the book which she had promised me,
   • He has run his race, and now he is sleeping the sleep of the just.
   Also parse the words in italics in this passage:—
   "Back! Back! The back of your cart is too broad to get in here. Bach it at once, and go round the back
   way."

8. Analyse the following passages:—

They say there is a garden fair
That's haunted by the dove,
Where love of gold doth ne'er eclipse
The golden light of love.

He bargained with two ruffians strong,
Which were of furious mood,
That they should take these children young,
And slay them in a wood
He told his wife an artful tale,—
He would the children send
To be brought up in fair London
With one that was his friend.

9. "The principal basis of the English language is the Anglo-Saxon element. Of 38,000 principal words, it is reckoned that about 28,000 spring from this source."—MORELL.

As in a comprehensive English dictionary there are about 100,000 words, point out the principal sources from which we have borrowed the rest of our words, and mention any historical events that have led to such borrowing.

Arithmetic.

*Candidates must give the working of each question in full, and not merely the answer.*

1. DEFINE the following terms:—Numeration, Notation, Product, Quotient, Greatest Common Measure, Least Common Multiple, Improper Fraction, Decimal, Interest.

   Express by numbers
   • (a) a thousand million.
   • (a) ten million two thousand and thirty-five.

   Then add and multiply these two numbers together, and subtract the smaller of them from the greater.

2. A man determines to spend 5s. 6½d. a day from the 1st of January, 1879. How much will he save in 5 years, if his yearly salary be £120?

3. Simplify

   (a) $\frac{3}{2} + \frac{41}{3} + 5 \frac{1}{6} + \frac{3}{4} \frac{2}{3} \frac{5}{8} \frac{3}{2} \frac{5}{8} \frac{3}{2} \frac{5}{8} \frac{3}{2} \frac{5}{8}$

   (b) $\frac{3}{1} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{6} \frac{1}{6}$

4. A school is composed of three divisions. There are $\frac{1}{2}$ 2/5ths of the whole number of pupils in the first division; 1/5 in the second: the remainder, eighty in number, are in the third. How many pupils are there altogether?

5. Reduce 21/3 shillings to the decimal of half a guinea.

   Divide .014616 by 7.2, and 400.4 by .0572.

6. Subtract .03 from .03, and divide the result by .102.

7. A room is 15 ft. long, 10 ft. broad, 9 ft. 9 in. high: find the expense of painting the walls and ceiling at 9d. per square yard.

8. 1100 men make 10 miles of railroad in 3 months: how long will it take 2750 men to make 75 miles?

9. Find, by practice only, the value of

   • 1032 articles at £1. 11s. 5½d. each.
   • 6 tons 7 cwt. 2 qrs. 17 lbs. at £3. 10s. 7d. per cwt.

10. What will £360 amount to in 4 years and 2 months, at £3. 6s. 8d. per cent. per annum, simple interest? In what time will a sum of money double itself at the above rate?
Candidates are required to keep the answers in English History distinct from those in Colonial History, and to enclose each set in a separate envelope.

1. Give some account of the Roman invasions of Britain, and especially of the conquests of Agricola. Mention the provinces into which the island was divided by the Romans. When, and for what reason, were the Roman legions withdrawn from Britain?
2. From what parts of Europe did the Teutonic invaders of Britain come? Give a short sketch of their gradual spread over the island. About what time were they finally united under one sovereign?
3. Explain the meaning and origin of the last syllable in each of the following names: Oak-ham, Nant-wich, Ever-ton, Hampstead, Whit-by, Aln-wick, Aylesford, Roxburgh, Sussex, Miln-thorpe.
4. Give some account of
5. Trace the descent of Henry IV. from Henry III.: of James I. from Henry VII., and of Queen Victoria from George I.
6. Enumerate, with dates, the sovereigns of England during the 16th and 18th centuries: and in connection with each reign mention one leading event, and one eminent person.

**Colonial History.**

1. Trace the course of events at the Cape of Good Hope during the rule of the Dutch East India Company. Give a short account of the first capitulation.
2. Assign dates to the following events:
   - Abolition of slavery.
   - Discovery of diamonds.
   - Annexation of the Transvaal.
   - Annexation of Natal.
   - Establishment of the Free Press.
   - Sand River Convention.
   - Battle of Blaauwberg.
   - War of the Axe.
   - Meeting of the First Parliament.
3. Give the date of the abandonment of the Orange River Sovereignty, and mention the events which led to it.
4. Give a brief account of the Anti-convict agitation.
5. State concisely what you know of the following persons and events:
   - Governor Janssens.
   - Commissary De Mist.
   - P. Retief.
   - Hintza.
   - Langalibalele.
   - Murder of the Landdrost Stockenstrom.
   - Battle of Boomplaats.
   - Thomas Pringle.

**Geography, Descriptive and Physical.**

**Descriptive Geography.**

Candidates are to keep the answers in Descriptive Geography distinct from those in Physical Geography, and to enclose each set in a separate envelope.

1. Trace the course of the Thames from its rise to its mouth: mentioning the counties through which it flows, and 20 towns in the district drained by it or its tributaries.
2. Mention the foreign possessions of Britain, arranging them under the heads: European, Asiatic, African, American.
3. Name all the capital cities of Europe, and give the position of each.
4. Shew the situation of the following; and if you can mark on a sketch map the position of such of them as are in Europe:—
5. Name the harbours and the principal mountain ranges of South Africa.

**Physical Geography.**

1. What is meant by the terms ecliptic, tropics, longitude, antipodes, polar axis?
   Give some simple proofs to shew that the general form of the earth is spherical.
2. Explain how and why an insular differs from a continental climate.
3. What is a river-basin? Describe the river system of the Indian Ocean.
4. Mention the directions and limits of the trade winds of the Atlantic Ocean. Explain how these winds are caused.
5. Define the terms indigenous, exotic, representative species, and habitat, as applied in Physical Geography.
   What are the main conditions affecting the distribution of vegetable life on the earth?
   Mention some of the plants and animals characteristic of the tropics.

**Examination of Candidates for the Elementary Teacher's Certificate.**

**September, 1879.**

**Arithmetie.**

(Candidates must show all the working of these questions).

1. Multiply six hundred and fifty thousand one hundred and twenty three by five thousand and eighty-nine; prove the result by division.
2. Reduce:
   - 25½ guineas to sixpences.
   - 5000 poles to acres.
   - 560 miles to inches.
   - 156256 oz. to tons.
3. Define the terms:
- dividend
- factor
- multiple
- measure
- interest

4. Reduce each of these fractions to its lowest terms:
- \( \frac{2}{3} \), \( \frac{4}{2} \), \( \frac{7}{3} \)
- \( \frac{1}{1} \), \( \frac{0}{4} \), \( \frac{6}{17} \), \( \frac{8}{3} \), \( \frac{1}{7} \), \( \frac{0}{1} \)
- \( \frac{3}{3} \), \( \frac{4}{5} \), \( \frac{4}{5} \), \( \frac{4}{6} \)

5. Simplify:
(a) \( 4\frac{1}{2} - 2\frac{1}{4} \) 
(b) \( 6 + 1 \) 
(c) \( 6 - 1\frac{1}{6} \) 
- \( 10 \) 
- \( 8\frac{9}{14} \)

6. Find, by practice, the cost of 16 oz. 6 dwts. 17 grs. at £13 10s. 6d. per oz.

7. Reduce:
- 4s. 7½d. to the decimal of 20s.
- 2 qrs. 21 lbs. to the decimal of 1 ton.

8. Multiply 23.156 by 1.25, and by 12.5; prove the results by division.

9. Find the simple interest and amount of £235 10s. 6d. for 5 years 5 months, at 5¼ per cent.

10. What sum of money must be invested at 6 per cent. to produce a return of £125?

11. If 20 men can reap a field in 24 days, in how many days will 30 men reap it?

12. How many bushels of wheat at 3/7 of £1½ a bushel will pay for 15 muids of oats at 5/6 of 2 guineas a muid?

(NOTE, 1 Muid = 3 bushels).

**SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.**

1. Write down the four Standards of Attainments in Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, Geography, and Grammar, under which you would arrange children for inspection.

2. There are 20 children in a class: show how you would keep a register of their attendance, the names being called twice daily. (A sheet of this size to be used.)

3. The four daily attendances being respectively 22.5, 21.6, 24.5 and 23.7; what must the daily attendance of the fifth day be to give a weekly average attendance of 23?

4. Draw a plan (on a sheet of paper of this size) of a school-room required for about 50 children, showing the best arrangement and position of desks, scats, windows, &c.

5. Write notes of oral lessons on: Eagle, barometer, locust, rice, pen, salt.

6. Explain the advantage of oral teaching in connection with illustrations on the black board.

7. "The punishment should be adapted, as far as possible, to the nature of the fault." Illustrate the above quotation.

8. Which do you consider the best method of teaching Grammar and English Composition? Give your reasons.

9. How would you explain to children the nature of fractions?

10. What are the advantages of the study of Arithmetic?

11. Illustrate, as to a class of children, the following:

Eyes and no eyes.
Make hay while the sun shines.
A stitch in time saves nine.

12. What practical experience have you had in teaching?

13. Do you intend to become a teacher?

**ENGLISH.**

1. Write down the parts of speech, giving the definition of each, and numerous examples,

2. Decline the following:
- I, thou, he, she, who,

3. Explain the following terms and give several examples: inflexion, case, gender, number, tense, conjugation, auxiliary, prefix, affix.

4. Distinguish between a transitive and intransitive verb; and give two sentences illustrating the use of each kind of verb.

5. Point out the distinction between a phrase and a sentence, giving examples.
6. Make corrections where you think them necessary in the following, and give your reason for each correction:

- James and Charles run home from school.
- The man speaks well and wise; but he acted foolish and thoughtless.
- Who did you come with?
- Which did he say?
- Were it true?
- That's her.
- It's me.

7. Write a description of any place that you are acquainted with; or write the life of some distinguished man or woman.

8. Parse every word in the following:

- Slowly and sadly we la d him down.
- Tell me not in mournful numbers that life is but an empty dream.

9. Analyse passages (a) and (b) in question 8.

10. Show that you understand the proper use of the following words: bow, bough, e'er, air, hair, heir, hungry, greedy, lie, lay, remind, remember, seen, scene, political, politic, honourable, honorary, intelligent, intelligible.

11. Write the passages to dictation.

12. Read the passage selected by the Examiner.

**GEOGRAPHY (Descriptive and Physical).**

1. Explain the following:

- strait, isthmus, gulf, peninsula, lake, island, cape, bay, mountain, table-land, valley; and give examples.

2. Give the position of the following mountain-ranges; and say what countries, if any, they separate:

- Pyrenees, Caucasus, Alps, Himalaya, Nieuwveld, Alleghany, Apennines, Ural.

3. Say what you mean by the bed, banks, basin of a river.

4. Trace the courses of five important European rivers.

5. Where are the following:

- Ganges, Orange, Nile, Amazon, Mississippi.

6. Name the position of these islands, and give a few particulars about each:

- Iceland, Malta, Corsica, Ceylon, Sumatra, St. Helena, Mauritus, Newfoundland, Cyprus, Madagascar, Elba, Java, Jamaica.

7. Give the situation of the following places which are associated with important events in British History, naming the events connected with each:

- Londonderry, Trafalgar, Waterloo, Blenheim, Rorke's Drift, Cape Town, Copenhagen, Sebastopol.

8. Name, and state the noteworthy features of the capitals of the following countries:

- Ireland, Germany, France, England, Russia, Scotland, New South Wales, Austria, Bengal, Turkey, Transvaal, United States, Egypt, Cape Colony, Holland.

9. Suppose you were to start in the Steamer Melrose from Table Bay on a voyage to Natal, and to stop at every port on the way, at what places could you stop?

10. Draw an outline map, illustrating your answer.

11. What are the uses of railways and canals? Name some with which you are familiar.

12. What do you understand by the climate of a country? Name the causes which operate on climate.

**DUTCH (Optional Subject).**

I. Translate into English:

- "Het jachthuis zelf was eenvoudig en slechts van hout getimmerd; doch bevatte ruimte genoeg om des noods een tijdelijke huisvesting aan den Graaf en aan zijn meest verhevene gasten te verschaffen; terwijl eenige kleinere gebouwen, welke dieper in 't bosch en minder in 't gezicht gelegen waren, de jagers van minderen rang konden bergen, en tot stalling dienden voor paarden en honden. Geene gracht noch muur verdedigde het hoofdgebouw, 't welk dan ook niets aanbood, dat een vijand in de verzoeking had kunnen brengen om er een aanval op te beproeven, daar het, als van den weg af gelegen, geen punt opfeverde, dat de moeite waardig was om versterkt te worden, en bovendien geen anderen buit verschaffen kon dan de weinige meubelen, waarmede het voorzien was."
— "De menschen gaan naar buiten om de zorgen te vergeten; ze willen adem scheppen en gelukkig zijn. De meesten wandelen met bloemen in d hand, versche ruikers, vooral van seringen. Gij, burgers cener bedompte, drukke stad, ontvlucht uwe benauw-de huizen en straten op naar't open veld, dat schittert van de klaverbloemen.

1. Write down all the nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and verbs in A.
2. Give the gender of the nouns in A and B, and the rules (if any) for the gender.
3. Select all the regular verbs in A and B.
4. Give the positive of best, ergst, meest and minst.
5. State the difference between:
   - beenen and beenderen;
   - bladen and bladeren.
   - dekens and dekenen;
   - kleeden and kleederen;
   - vaders and varderen;
   - wortels and wortelen.
5. Parse the passage in B beginning with "Gij Burgers" and ending in " klaverbloemen."

II. Translate into Dutch:
The strength of the lion is enormous. The virtue of the citizens is the safety of the state. In winter the days are shorter than the nights. The soldiers carried ladders with them, that they might easily enter the city. The stag praised his branching horns, but found fault with the excessive slenderness of his legs.

FRENCH (Optional Subject).

I. Translate into English:
• Christophe Colomb, le plus célèbre des navigateurs modernes, naquit l'an 1441 dans un village près de Gênes. Après avoir fait quelques voyages sur mer, il goûta la marine et étudia la géographie. Persuadé que la terre est ronde, il croyait aussi fermement qu'il y avait des pays habitables dans l'autre hémisphère; et plusieurs observations le fortifiaient dans ce sentiment. Le maître d'un navire portugais ayant un jour couru fort loin dans la mer Atlantique, avait pêché une pièce de bois artistement travaillée; et cette pièce avait été amenée par les vents d'ouest, et probablement d'une terre habité. On avait aussi trouvé de temps en temps sur les côtes occidentales des îles Açorcs des arbres d'une espèce jusqu'alors inconnue, et qui y avaient été poussés par les mêmes vents. Un jour la mer avait jeté sur ces côtes les cadavres de deux hommes, qui ne ressemblaient ni aux Européens, ni aux habitants d'Asie, ou d'Afrique.
• J'acceptai la proposition du docteur, dans l'espérance que je pourrais, sous un si savant maître, me rendre illustre dans la médecine. Il me mena chez lui sur-le-champ, pour m'installer dans l'emploi qu'il me destinait; et cet emploi consistait à écrire le nom et la demeure des malades qui l'envoyaient chercher pendant qu'il était en ville. Il y avait pour cet effet au logis un registre, dans lequel une vieille servante qu'il avait pour tout domestique, marquait les adresses; mais outre qu'elle ne savait point l'orthographe, elle écrivait si mal, qu'on ne pouvait le plus souvent déchiffrer son écriture. Il me chargea du soin de tenir ce livre, qu'on pouvait justement appeler un registre mortuaire, puisque les gens dont je prenais les noms, mouraient presque tous.
2. Write down the forms for the present infinitive mood of:
   - naquit, inconnue, goûta, croyait, couru, résolut, pourrais, etait, savait, pouvait.
4. Give the plural forms of:
   - chapeau, bras, œil, travail, chou, père.
4. Write clown the feminine forms (singular) of:
   - le, ce, quel, tout, premier, mauvais, bon, beau, blanc, sujet.
5. Write out at full length the conjugations of:
   - aimer and faire.
6. Translate into French:
   - I shall see you on Sunday.
   - My sister's piano is better than that of your daughter.
   - You have two brothers, and I have four.
   - Whose house is this?
   - Your little cousin, whom we much like, will dine with us tomorrow.
   - A merchant had lost a purse; a carpenter found it and carried it home.

GERMAN (Optional Subject).
I. Translate into English:

• Bewährter Diener! Redlich Herz! Tritt näher!
  Mein Leiden hast du, meinen Schmerz getheilt,
  So theil' auch jetzt das Glück der Glücklichen.
  Verprändet hab' ich deiner treuen Brust
  Mein schmerzlich süsses, heiliges Geheimniss.
Der Augenblick ist da, we es ans Licht
  Des Tages soll hervorgezogen werden.
  Zu lange schon erstickt' ich der Natur
  Gewalt'ge Regung, weil noch über mich
  Ein fremder Wille herrisch waltete.
  Jetzt darf sich ihre Stimme frei erheben,
  Noch heute soll dies Herz befriedigt seyn,
  Und dieses Haus, das lang verödet war,
  Versammle Alles, was mir theuer ist.

So lenke denn die altersschweren Tritte
  Nach jenem wohlbekannten Kloster hin,
  Das einen theuren Schatz mir aufbewahrt.
  Du warst es, treue Seele, der ihn mir
  Dorthin geflüchtet hat auf bessre Tage,
  Den traur'gen Dienst der Traurigen erzeigend.
  Du bringe fröhlich jetzt der Glucklichen
  Das theure Pfand zurück!
  (Man hört in der Ferne blasen).

O, eile, eile
  Und lass die Freude deinen Schritt verjüngen!
  Ich höre kriegerischer Horner Schall,
  Der meiner Söhne Einzug mir verkündigt.
  (Diego geht ab. Die Musik lässt sich noch von einer entgegengesetzten Seite immer näher und näher bören).

Erregt ist ganz Messina—Horch! ein Strom
  Verwormer Stimmen wältzt sich brausend her—
  Sie sind's! Das Herz der Mutter, mächtig schlagend,
  Empfindet ihrer Nähe Kraft and Zug.
  Sic sind's! O meine Kinder, meine Kinder!
  (Sie eilt hinaus).

Die Braut von Messina.
• Decline together, in the singular and plural:
  mein heiliges Geheimniss,
  einen theuren Schatz,
  diener treuen Brust,
  das theure Pfand,
  kriegerischer Hörner.
• Write out the present, imperfect, and future ind. of gehen, empfinden, erheben.
• Give rules for the comparison of adjectives, and write down ten which are irregular in comparison.
• Gotthold Ephraim Lessing wurde zu Kamenz am 22 January 1829, als der älteste von zehn Söhnen des
Diaconus und spätem Pastor Primarius der Stadt, Johann Gottfried Lessing, geboren. Johann Gottfried Lessing war neben seinem Predigtamt zugleich ein gelehrter Theologe. Er hatte ferner neben den beiden klassischen Sprachen nicht nur die orientalischen gründlich studirt, sondern sich auch, was seinem Sohne besonders zu Gute kam, die Kenntniss der französischen und der Englischen in einem ungewöhnlichen Grade angeeignet. Von diesem Vater empfing Lessing das Interesse an der Theologie das ihn sein ganzes Leben hindurch begleitet hat. Seine Mutter war die Tochter des Pastor Primarius von Kamenz, in dessen Stelle Lessing's Vater später aufrückte. So stammte also Gotthold Ephraim von beiden Seiten aus einer theologischen und geistlichen Familie, und dieser Abstammung entsprach auch die erste Erziehung die der ungewöhnlich begabte Knabe empfing. Er ward zum Beten angehalten, und erhielt den ersten mündlichen Unterricht von seinem Vater durch Lesen in Bibel und Katechismus.

- Parse the words angeeignet, stammte, empfing, erhielt, giving the principal parts of each.
- Give examples of adjectives used as adverbs, and infinitives used as substantives.
- Give the German for:
  - one-and-a-half; many a time; they say the war is over; five thousand two hundred and thirty-nine.

II. Translate into German:

- Mahomed was born in the great Asiatic Peninsula (Halbinsel) called Arabia, some twenty years after the Roman Emperor Justinian. His father's name was Abdalla; the place of his birth was Mecca. His father died when the lad was only two months old, and left nothing but five camels and one old female slave. In his sixth year his old grandfather, and in his ninth his uncle, Abu-Taleb, adopted (zu sich nehmen) him. Both kept him well employed, and the latter took him as his companion (use mitnehmen) on his business journeys which he was accustomed to undertake in the district of Damascus. Afterwards he came to know the men and manners of distant lands, and made himself acquainted with the Mosaic and the Christian religion.

KAFIR (Optional Subject).

Translate into English (A):


- Uteke u-Mshumayeli, umeleninake ukuba bunje ubeme okubo? Ipcndulc yati kungokuba—andazi apo ndingasinga kona. Ummikeke umpeto wolusu lwugusha (we-parchment) kwakubalwe kuwo ngapakati lamazwi, "Balekani umsindo ozayo."


Translate into English and parse the part printed in italics:

- (B) Kuhle ntonina akuha lomfana ekudlile konke ahenako? Qata indlala, ingeyakudelwa nalandlala kuba kutivva apa yayindala enzima; elalizwe abeye kulo lomfana libelisiti kakkade libe namaxesha endlala eshushu etshutshisayo. Ipangclelene lendala ke nokupela kwemphela yake, kuhle izinto ezimbi ngaxesha nye, zabanakala ngamini nye izinto abengazanga azibone. Amashwa kakade yinto eyenza isipango ukufika kwayo; kupclc impahla yake, kwapela ukudla nasebantwini abesazana nabo. Nakuba ibiko kakade lendala kkvellilizwe cbcngekayiqondi yena, ibimpahlile ngenza zonke engayiboni yena kuba ebese nenkomo. Babequ'uka abantungama cala onke engenalufifi yena lokuba babulawwa yindlala, ebese nezinto yena ezigxotayo kuye inxwaleko enjalo, ebesanele yilemefuyo yake, isamq'uba. Elibele nje yena
The King and the Prisoners.

There was once a Prince who now and then paid a visit to the chief prison in the land over which he ruled. One day he saw in the prison-yard five prisoners, with chains on their wrists, going to their work. He made them halt before him, and then asked them, one by one, how they came to be in prison.

The first man said that he had done no wrong, but that the chief witness against him had told a lie.

The second said that the Judge who had put him in prison had a spite against him.

The third said that he had been found guilty through a mistake.

The fourth said that he had been taken for another man.

For these reasons they all begged the prince to pardon them.

But he turned to the fifth man, and said, "And why are you here?"

"Alas!" he replied, "I stole a purse and dare not ask your pardon."

"Then," said the prince, "you are not fit to live with such honest men as these, who say that they have done no wrong!"

Turning to the jailer, he said, "Take off this man's chains and send him away. He has not added to his crime the sin of telling a lie."

Dates of Examinations, 1880.

School Examination begins Tuesday, 5th April.

Note.—Local committees must send names of candidates, with fees, to the Registrar of the University, Cape Town, on or before 1st March. Examination for Elementary Teacher's Certificate begins Tuesday, 21st September.

Note.—Candidates must send their certificates of age and conduct to the Superintendent-General of Education, Cape Town, before 1st August.

Examination for Middle Class Teacher's Certificate begins Tuesday, 14th December.

Note.—Candidates must send their certificates of age, training, and conduct to the Superintendent-General of Education, Cape Town, before 1st October.

Addendum.

Middle Class Teachers' Examination, December, 1880.

The Special subjects are:—

- Shakespeare.—Macbeth.
- Milton.—Comus, L'Allegro, and II Penseroso.
- Macaulay.—Essay on Hallam's Constitutional History
- Herbert Spencer, on Education.