THE

ENGLISH WOMAN'S JOURNAL.

PUBLISHED MONTHLY.

VOL. VI. November 1, 1860. No. 33.

XXIII.—SPECIAL MEETINGS AT GLASGOW AND EDINBURGH, WITH REFERENCE TO THE INDUSTRIAL EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN.

THE Annual Meeting of the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science, which took place at Glasgow during the week of the 24th ultimo, is pronounced on all hands to be the most successful yet held. The Association has succeeded in gaining the public ear, and is fast attracting to itself an amount of public interest which bids fair to swell its list of associates and members to colossal proportions, and to extend the field it has opened for the public discussion of important social problems to dimensions unthought of by its originators.

The Association has been charged with merely adding to the already overwhelming "talk, talk" of the day; and it is fairly open to the danger of encouraging much idle and useless discussion, and of fostering the vanity of would-be-reformers and real pedagogues. But this is a matter completely within the control of the Council, and it is one to which careful consideration should be given. There were a few papers read in some sections of the late meeting which seemed to serve the single purpose of clearing the benches, and which could result in nothing satisfactory to reader or listener.

The press has so fully chronicled the proceedings of the Association from their opening to their close, that we feel ourselves exonerated from repeating general details here. There is, however, one feature which more particularly comes under our province, and the social value of which it is not easy to overrate, that is, the admission of women as associates and members on equal terms with the men, even to taking part in the closing dinner, instead of watching the men "feed" from the gallery, which is ordinarily supposed to be the limit of female capability and enjoyment upon such festive occasions. The sexes here find their right place, side by side with each other, and we hail this as the commencement of the breaking down of that unnatural barrier between them which, separating the interests of men and women, acts in a thousand pernicious ways on the moral health and well-being of the community.

Nor is it only as spectators and listeners that the ranks of the Association are thus thrown open to women. Every woman member who has anything to say worth hearing has an equal chance of being listened to with any man member; and we are bound to bear our testimony that this "innovation," as we have heard it called, is in every way satisfactory in its results. Through the whole week women members thronged the sections, showing by their intelligent and interested attention that the subjects discussed were not foreign to their minds and thoughts, while those who took part in the proceedings met with a courteous and deferential hearing from numerous and mixed audiences.

In the department of "Punishment and Reform," and again in that of "Education," Miss Carpenter took a prominent part, her long and highly successful devotion to these most important branches of social economy rendering her one of the most valued and valuable contributors to their statistics.

Mrs. Bodichon and Miss Jessie Boucherett had papers on middle class education for girls*, and Miss L. Hope contributed another on the same subject, with special reference to Scotland. These papers were listened to with great interest and attention, and elicited considerable discussion and encomium, proving that the necessity of a more practical education for girls of the middle classes has taken deep hold of the public mind.

Miss Powers and Miss Bernard had papers in the Public Health department "On the Diffusion of Sanitary Knowledge," and "On the Improvement of Nurses in Country Districts."

Section B. of Social Economy was devoted to the industrial employment of women. It is to this section, and to two special meetings which grew out of it, that we would call the attention of our readers.

The section opened with a few prefatory remarks from the chairman, Sir John Stewart Forbes, after which Miss M. M. Hays read the following report of the Society for the Employment of Women.

REPORT OF THE SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN.

"As this is the first formal report issued by the Society for the Employment of Women, the Committee have thought it desirable briefly to state its origin and objects before proceeding to give an account of its past efforts and indicate its aims for the future.

"Nearly two years ago a few ladies, feeling deeply the helpless and necessitous condition of the great number of women obliged to resort to non-domestic industry as a means of subsistence, consulted together as to the best way in which they might bring social position and influence to their aid.

* We give the paper by Mrs. Bodichon in the current number, that by Miss Boucherett will be given in the Journal for December.

"They resolved on the formation of a society which should have for its object the opening up of new employments to women, and their more extensive admission into those branches of business already open to them.

"The Committee found that they were dealing with a question which more or less affected one-half the female population of the country. While truly anxious to secure new openings for female industry, they felt that a great responsibility rested upon them in the choice of occupations fitted for the physical strength and suited to the general powers of women. They resolved therefore to proceed by means of experiment. The advocates of extreme opinions might advance the theory that all professions and trades ought at once to be thrown open to both sexes, on equal terms. But with theory they resolved to have nothing to do. There is a great crowd of women dependent on work; the two points of the case were—what can *they* do? what can *we* do for them? Another preliminary question arose, at what point in the social scale is this wedge of experiment to be inserted? and after due deliberation they felt that they must endeavor to begin somewhere in the lower ranks of the middle class. For highly educated women we could for a time do nothing; women of no education could do nothing for us; that is to say, we could open up no new channels for the labor of the former, and our experiments would have failed owing to the inefficiency of the latter. But we felt convinced that in whatever direction we made an opening, the pressure on all ranks of working women would be lessened: the low class governess would become the first class tradeswoman, and the poor sempstress would find her services better paid as her more intelligent or favored companions were withdrawn from competition in starvation to competition in skill.

"Printing was suggested as a suitable employment for women, and on inquiry we found that several experiments on a small scale had been tried in various places, and with sufficient success to tempt to further effort in the same direction. From personal trial several members of the Committee found that composing could easily be accomplished by girls, while they decided that the heavier parts of the business must remain in the hands of men. The Committee felt that to make any business self-supporting, to make it a fair money speculation, capital was required, and an amount of superintendence and management which they knew it was impossible for a Committee to give. A well-known friend of the cause offered to embark a certain amount of capital in starting a printing office, in which women only were to be employed. The Committee selected and apprenticed to the office five girls, at a premium of £10 each. This was all the money help the Society could afford to give; they were justly afraid of incurring responsibility in the matter, but on that responsibility being assumed by others, the Society brought all its influence to bear, in order to promote the success of the undertaking.

"The Committee would acknowledge the great assistance rendered by Lord Shaftesbury and others, on behalf of the Victoria Press, whose success is mainly due to the influence of the Society. We must not omit to mention that our late able and energetic secretary is the manager of the office, and has now sixteen girls under her judicious care, who have attained a considerable degree of efficiency. They now print the ENGLISH WOMAN'S JOURNAL, a monthly periodical devoted to the interests of women.

"A still lighter and more suitable employment has been found in law-copying; and the Committee undertook the responsibility of opening a law stationer's office in Portugal Street, Lincoln's Inn. Ten female clerks are employed in this office, having learnt the simpler parts of the business in a few weeks in a manner satisfactory to their employers. The necessity of a paid superintendent, with all the other expenses of a pretty large establishment, have trenched largely on the funds of the Society. A lady who has taken a most prominent part in the movement has offered to advance £200 if our present superintendent will undertake to conduct the business and work it for her own profit and that of the clerks. The Committee agreed that this offer be accepted, and have referred it to the managing committee to arrange the details.

"The Committee consider that by this means the funds of the Society will be set free for other purposes, and that it is their province to open up new branches of business, leaving them to be conducted by others in the ordinary way of trade. The law clerks have done a very fair amount of business during the time they have been at work, but further capital is required for its extension and support, and the Committee think it will be on a more satisfactory footing as a private enterprise.

"The Committee were desirous of extending the employment of women as book-keepers and cashiers in shops. They found that the great obstacle to their progress in this direction was the ignorance of women of the higher branches of arithmetic; and resolved to open book-keeping classes, in which the daughters of tradesmen might be qualified for clerks and cashiers, and the higher branches of book-keeping. One of the ladies of the Committee undertook to establish, at her own risk, a middle class school, and the Committee agreed to give her a grant of £40, on condition that morning and evening classes for book-keeping were established in connexion with her school.

"The school has a certificated teacher, but as it has been so short a time in operation, the Committee are not prepared to state the result of this experiment.

"With regard to the future course of action to be adopted by the Society, the Committee have to suggest the desirability of finding an outlet for the emigration of a class of educated women.

"The number who might take advantage of an opening of this kind would at first be comparatively limited; but the inquiries made

by the Committee prove that such an outlet exists, while it is rendered unavailable by the want of the necessary agencies. The Committee would be glad to avail themselves of any opportunity for the furtherance of a middle class female emigration. The following statement affords testimony to the desirability of taking advantage of the opening thus afforded.

"DISPARITY OF THE SEXES IN VICTORIA.—Some remarkable facts respecting the disparity of sexes in this colony are disclosed in the census of 1857. Sir Henry Barkly, the Governor, in noticing these facts, says in a despatch:—'It now appears that though considerable improvement in this respect took place between 1854 and 1857, yet that the effective disproportion at the latter period was far more serious than would be deducible from the fact of there being 163 males to every 100 females in the entire population. Since tabling the portion of it above the age of twenty years, there were no less than 217 males to that number, the proportions below that age being pretty nearly equal. There were 88,355 unmarried men of twenty years of age and upwards to 12,545 unmarried women of corresponding ages; or, to raise the age of marriage for men to twenty-one, and lower it to fifteen for women, there was still an excess of 61,859 bachelors, not too add 5,112 widowers. Even this comparison, however, fails to convey a full sense of the evil as it affects the goldfields, where it appears that the percentage of unmarried men is, to that to be found in the seaport towns, as 61 to 39; or, to state the case in another form, where the bachelors are to the spinsters in the proportion of more than 20 to 1. There are, moreover, 8,096 married men, chiefly in the mining districts, whose wives are not in the colony. It has been alleged, during the agitation of the land question, that this state of things is attributable to the difficulty of buying small allotments suited to agricultural purposes (for the miner's right itself sanctions a certain area for residence), but this idea is not borne out by the figures, which manifest an extraordinary disposition on the part of the gold-diggers, despite the unsettled nature of their pursuits, to enter into matrimony. This may be judged from the fact that only 9 per cent. of the women on the goldfields above twenty are unmarried; while in Great Britain the proportion who marry under that age is only $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. 30 per cent. of the girls between fifteen and twenty are here married.'

"The Committee also recommend that the attention of the Society should be directed to securing the employment of women in such light and suitable occupations as hair dressing and hair working; and as far as possible in every trade by which the requirements of ladies are supplied.

"In conclusion, the Committee are able to say, that however far their efforts may have fallen short of any expectations which may have been formed, however little they may have been able to accomplish of the great task which lay before them, they have succeeded

far beyond their anticipations in securing the adherence of public opinion in favor of the cause, and this it appears to them is no small matter. It is on public opinion that the matter mainly rests, for it is the public and not the Society that must find employment for women. All that can be done by a Society is to act as pioneer, to make experiments, to inaugurate efforts. The rest remains to be accomplished by the real impetus of the movement: namely, its necessity, its justice, and its expediency, acting through the ordinary economic laws, with which mere benevolent interference is temporary and futile."

* * * * * * *

The reading of the report was followed by Miss Parkes's paper, "A Year's Experience in Woman's Work," and a paper by Miss Emily Faithfull on the "Victoria Press," both of which were given in the last number of the Journal. Some discussion then arose upon the question of training readers for the press, a branch of the business which we would gladly see in the hands of educated women, and which is peculiarly suited to them. Carried on in a room appropriated to the purpose, and usually occupied by the reader only, there is nothing to jar upon the feelings of the most fastidious, while the work is light and amply remunerative. A good reader for the press, conversant with English only, readily obtains an engagement at two guineas a week, while the knowledge of French, German, and Italian, adds considerably to the market value of his services. The discussion had regard to the amount of practical knowledge of printing necessary to make a good reader, not to the fitness of the employment for women, concerning which the feeling was unanimous. The employment of women as sellers of railway tickets, clerks and cashiers, was warmly supported, and Mr. Duncan M'Laren (late Lord Provost of Edinburgh) stated that about three years ago young women were introduced with great success into the business with which he is connected, and that at the present time there are thirteen young women employed selling in important departments.

Mr. Campbell Smith said he should like to see ladies following the example of Miss Elizabeth Blackwell, and becoming doctors. He thought that science and morality would alike be served by the general introduction of women as practitioners for their own sex.

Mr. Hastings, after an indignant and manly protest against certain gross and anonymous attacks upon the movement and its promoters, said, he had urged upon the Social Science Association Council to support and defend the principles of these ladies. He was glad to say the Association had taken the matter up, and in a little time and in a quiet way it would be seen that they really were acting in earnest. He advocated the emigration of females to our colonies, where the disproportion of the sexes is frightful. The public might safely support the movement, and it was in excellent and most judicious hands.

The PRESIDENT expressed his appreciation of the principle embodied in the employment of female labor, and his gratification that the Association had energetically taken up the subject. He had to state that the discussion must now cease, as the whole question was to be renewed to-morrow at a special meeting in a separate section.

Miss LOUISA TWINING read a paper on "Workhouse Inmates." Twenty-five years' experience of the poor law, and recent statistics of pauperism, had shown that there were many practical points upon which improvements could be made. The labors of Jonas Hanway in improving the English workhouse were adverted to. Previous to 1760 the mortality in workhouses was positively frightful. Prisons were often more comfortable than workhouses. The nurses had frequently no qualification but that of physical strength —had no knowledge of the art of nursing—and became intoxicated whenever they could get drink. The paper urged the necessity of improvement in nurses, more regular and careful superintendence by official medical men, &c.

Miss TWINING read also a paper by Miss Cobbe on "Destitute Incurables in Workhouses." The paper detailed the painful position of incurables in workhouses, and suggested a greater amount of kindness and comfort. Of the 80,000 who will this year die in England of consumption, dropsy, and cancer, there are tens of thousands wearing away the last minutes of their agonies in the workhouse. The comforts proposed, though trifling, would greatly alleviate suffering.

Mr. DUNCAN M'LAREN believed if women were taken into all and every one of our public institutions it would be better for all. Having had considerable experience in public institutions, hospitals, &c., he was struck with the want of administrative and superintending women. He thought that in every workhouse there should be a female committee, the same as the existing committee of management, and that all the female servants should be appointed and supervised by ladies. Were their duties carefully defined, he trusted so much to the tact of women, that he was sure that in one year they would do as much good as a governor could do in seven. He thought the public were under a deep debt of gratitude to Miss Twining and the ladies who were associated with her. He should like to see committees appointed by the Legislature.

Dr. GILLAN thought there was a heroism about the ladies who had come forward to defend and explain such subjects. There should not only be practical nurses, but sympathizing ladies to superintend them. Who would grudge a halfpenny in the pound of assessment to make workhouse inmates comfortable? Humanity, justice, and Christianity called for this. After listening to the papers of the ladies who had spoken, he did not think the subject could be neglected in a Christian land. He trusted the suggestion of Mr. M'Laren would receive the attention of the Legislature.

SPECIAL MEETING IN GLASGOW.

This special meeting took place in the Greek class-room of the College at ten A.M., Saturday, the 29th ultimo, and was called with a view to establish a local committee in Glasgow for the advancement of the employment of women. In the absence of Sir David Brewster, who was detained at the meeting of the Council, Professor Pillans presided.

Miss PARKES said that the reason of this meeting being called was that the ladies of Glasgow might be made acquainted with the objects of the London Society for promoting the means of employing females, so that their sympathies might be excited to aid in establishing a similar institution in Glasgow. She then entered into various details of what had been done, and what it was intended to do, and concluded by urging the formation of a Society in Glasgow, in connexion with the parent Society of London.

The necessity of local committees was immediately exemplified in a statement made by Dr. Begg, in the course of an able speech urging the formation of a committee, to the effect that he doubted if law-engrossing was in Scotland a business worth the attention of women—as a much larger number of legal papers and documents being printed in Scotland than in England, the field of employment is smaller, and the engrossing is usually done by the clerks of the respective offices.

Miss PARKES said a gentleman had told her the day before, that a considerable sum of money was lying idle in Glasgow which had been subscribed for the industrial education of young women.

Mr. J. A. HUTCHISON, fine art teacher in the High School of Glasgow, said they were not in Glasgow behind their friends in England in promoting a movement for the industrial employment of women. The first steps for that purpose taken in England were in 1858; but in our own city in 1857 money was collected for a similar object. During the course of that year, when a number of extensive failures occurred, from £3000 to £4000 was collected for the benefit of young women who were then thrown out of employment. It was suggested that a number of them might be employed at work to which they had not hitherto had access. Subscription sheets were prepared, and the movement was liberally responded to. It was seen that sufficient funds might be got for the purpose; and to aid in the work, he had offered to give lessons gratuitously to prepare young women to engage in mercantile and other employments. The movement was prevented from succeeding simply because they could not get accommodation for its operations in Glasgow. Attempts had since been made to get committees of ladies and gentlemen formed. He had tried to bring the ladies out in the matter; and if the movement was to succeed at all with us, now was the time to form a committee. He again offered to give free lessons to 300 or 400 young women.

It was then resolved to take the names of any ladies and gentlemen present who were willing to form themselves into a Committee.

Mr. W. GUILD, one of the local secretaries to the National Association of Social Science, kindly officiated.

The Rev. Mr. CROSSKEY then moved the appointment of Mr. Robert Blackie and Mr. Hutchison as Secretaries of the Committee.

The motion was unanimously agreed to.

The Rev. Mr. OLDHAM thought several ladies might be trained by the society to undertake the office of assistants in various works of benevolence which the clergy and others in the city were engaged in carrying on. He would himself be willing to employ such a lady, and pay her for her labor. He thought it would be useful to have a central association in London with which the Glasgow Society could correspond.

The Hon. Mr. KINNAIRD said there was already such a central association in London, who would willingly communicate the fullest information of their operations.

The business then concluded.

SPECIAL MEETING IN EDINBURGH.

The success which attended the meeting at Glasgow induced the promoters to call a meeting at Edinburgh for the Wednesday following, with a view to organize a committee there. The meeting was held in the upper room of the Queen Street Hall, and although not publicly advertised, the hall was crowded by a highly respectable audience, chiefly composed of ladies.

Among those present were Miss Bessie Rayner Parkes, Miss Matilda M. Hays, Miss Emily Faithfull, Miss Isa Craig, Professor Pillans, Professor Blackie, Professor Balfour, Rev. Dr. Lee, Rev. Dr. Begg, Rev. Dr. George Johnston, Rev. Dr. Wylie, Rev. W. Pulsford, General Anderson, Colonel Walker, Mr. Duncan M'Laren, Mr. Hastings, General Secretary of the Social Science Association, Mr. Wylie Guild, of Glasgow, Mr. Thomas Knox, &c.

On the motion of Mr. Duncan M'Laren, Professor Pillans was called to the chair.

Miss PARKES said she thought it was very desirable that every one should know as much as possible what had been done in London in connexion with the employment of women, and she would therefore read her paper prepared for the meeting of the Social Science Congress at Glasgow, and which was entitled, "A Year's Experience in Woman's Work." At the conclusion of this paper Miss Emily Faithfull also read hers on "The Origin and Progress of the Victoria Press." In this paper, Miss Faithfull, it will be remembered, touches upon the objection that printing is an unhealthy occupation, and states that she believes the high rate of mortality known to exist among printers to arise in a great measure from removable evils.

The CHAIRMAN said that he might add, as a practical confirmation

of what had been stated with regard to the health of compositors, that he was the son of a father who was forty years employed in that very process as a journeyman compositor, and that he lived a very healthful life, and died at the mature age of eighty-six. (Applause.)

A discussion then ensued as to the danger of the movement, if successful, lowering wages. The gist of one side of the argument was in plain English this—all trades and professions are already overstocked—there are more workmen than there is work for them in the world—we won't have women coming among us as competitors, (if we can help it,) if any are to starve, let them starve, or become burdens upon the parish as heretofore.

Now, setting aside for the moment all political economical reasons, and granting that these opponents of the movement are right, we women do not mean any longer to starve if we can get work, or to swell the army of our able-bodied sisters in the workhouses of England, whose number at the present moment far exceeds 25,000. But we do *not* grant the position thus assumed, and for reasons to which we heartily invite the attention alike of friends and adversaries. There is a book, but little known in comparison to its incalculable value,—the "Industrial and Social Condition of Women"—in one chapter of which this very subject is disposed of, and the writer's views and opinions endorsed by John Stuart Mill. We wished the book had been with us at Edinburgh, but it was not, and we can only endeavor to promulgate now a chapter so important to all who either advocate or oppose the introduction of women into industrial employments.

"*Laws of Political Economy in their bearing on the increased Employment of Women.*

"§ 1.—It may be objected that the introduction of women into the higher branches of industry will, by increasing competition, injuriously tend to lower profits and emoluments. In answer to this objection, let it be considered in the first place, that the number added to the ranks of industrial labor will be but small. In the lower orders women have already a place in industrial employment, and such of these as will be enabled to rise to its higher branches will just relieve by as much the pressure of competition in the rank they have hitherto occupied. On the other hand, as statistics show, the number of the women of the middle ranks in a position to enter on industry—though of sufficient magnitude to exercise a beneficial influence on society—is and will always be small, when compared with the number of the other sex already engaged there; and though, as we have said, a change in the social position of a few will be instrumental in elevating the status and culture of the whole, the increase of competition in the superior ranks of industry will be but little felt; and, from the circumstances women are at present placed in, will be operated very gradually.

"But, secondly, the dreaded increase of competition will be of a kind essentially different from increase of competition in the labor market arising from ordinary causes. In the common case, such increase arises from an addition to the number of laborers—to the population of a country, either through births or through immigration; or it arises from a decrease in the capital available for the support of the laboring population. But, in the case contemplated, there will be no actual increase to the number of the

population, in the way operated through births or immigration; since women already form part of the population; nor will the capital of the country available for the maintenance of laborers be drawn on for the support of a greater number of individuals than it now supports.

"At present the wages capital of the country, directly or indirectly, supports *both sexes*, though one of these is only partially engaged in industry; and therefore, although the unattached female population were to enter at once on productive employment, the wages capital of the country could as well afford to support them as now. The real and only consequences would be—1. An increase of the productive power of the country; and, 2. A slight readjustment of wages.

"In proportion as the time of women, at present comparatively valueless, is applied to useful employment, there will be an increase in the productive power of the country; and one is at first apt to fancy that the enlarged power of supply would, perhaps, exceed the corresponding demand, that the increased number of laborers would reduce wages, that the increased competition for the higher employments of industry would lower the rate of remuneration. We have already in so far addressed ourselves to this supposition, by pointing out that although, by the admission of women to industry, the actual number of persons employed is slightly increased, nevertheless, the total number of persons to be supported by the aggregate wages earned is not increased; that there will be no glut of labor arising from the number of the laboring class exceeding the resources for their support, no competition of an over-crowded labor-market, as that term is commonly understood. But, as the employer now has for the same aggregate wages an increased productive power, would there not be an excess of production? Will not the market be overstocked with commodities, and a reaction be produced depressing the labor-market?

"We take leave on this point to quote from Mr. J. S. Mill:—

"'Because this phenomenon of over-supply, and consequent inconvenience or loss to the producer or dealer, may exist in the case of any one commodity whatever, many persons, including some distinguished political economists, have thought that it may exist with regard to all commodities; that there may be a general over-production of wealth: a supply of commodities, in the aggregate, surpassing the demand; and a consequent depressed condition of all classes of producers. . . .

"'When these writers speak of the supply of commodities as outrunning the demand, it is not clear which of the two elements of demand they have in view—the desire to possess or the means of purchase. . . .

"'First, let us suppose that the quantity of commodities produced is not greater than the community would be glad to consume; is it, in that case, possible that there should be an insufficient demand for all commodities, for want of the means of payment? Those who think so cannot have considered what it is which constitutes the means of payment for commodities. It is simply commodities. Each person's means of paying for the productions of other people, consists of those which he himself possesses. All sellers are inevitably and *ex vi termini* buyers. Could we suddenly double the productive powers of the country we should double the supply of commodities in every market; but we should by the same stroke double the purchasing power. . . .

"'But it may perhaps be supposed that it is not the ability to purchase, but the desire to possess, that falls short, and that the general produce of industry may be greater than the community desires to consume. . . .

"'Assume the most favorable hypothesis for the purpose, that of a limited community, every member of which possesses as much of necessaries and of all known luxuries as he desires, and since it is not conceivable that persons whose wants are completely satisfied would labor and economize to obtain what they did not desire, suppose that a foreigner arrives, and produces an additional quantity of something of which there was already enough.

Here, it would be said, is over-production: true, I reply; over-production of that particular article: the community wanted no more of that, but it wanted something. The old inhabitants indeed wanted nothing; but *did not the foreigner himself (now a part of the community) want something?* When he produced the superfluous article was he laboring without a motive? . . . The new comer brought with him into the country a demand for commodities equal to all that he could produce by his industry; and it was his business to see that the supply he brought should be suitable to that demand. . . . We saw before, that whoever brings additional commodities to the market brings an additional power of purchase. We now see that he brings also an additional desire to consume; *since, if he had not that desire, he would not have troubled himself to produce.* Neither of the elements of demand, therefore, can be wanting.'*

"The illustration given in the latter part of this quotation supposes the additional power of production to arise from the accession to the community of an additional member immigrating from a foreign country. But the principle illustrated is equally applicable to the case of an increase in the productive power of the native members of the community, and may be shortly expressed in this general proposition: That whoever brings commodities to market does so not for the sake of getting rid of these, but for the sake of obtaining, in return for them, the means of purchasing other commodities for himself; in other words, he brings with him a desire to purchase exactly commensurate with his desire to sell.

"Hence, though the accession of women to the higher branches of industry were instrumental in increasing production to an extent far greater than can really be expected of it, no injury could flow from such a source; but, on the contrary, all the benefit arising from increased resources, evoked by means of the same wages capital; in other words, a cheapening of commodities. The present cheapness of many of the articles of commerce is attributable in great measure to the admission into industry of the women of the working ranks, a change which by so much increased the productive power of that large section of society. An increase in productive power presents us also with the means of shortening the hours of labor, and so increasing the comfort and culture of the community. If the wages capital of to-day, by supporting the whole population, enables three-fourths of that population to produce a certain quantity of commodities, each individual working twelve hours a day; the same capital will enable four-fifths of the same population to produce the same amount of commodities, each individual working a smaller number of hours per day. It is to be noticed, however, that on this supposition the commodities would not be cheapened; because, although there is an increase in productive power, the increased power would be exercised not in producing a greater aggregate of commodities, but in producing the same aggregate in less time. But, whether applied to the effect of cheapening commodities, or applied to the effect of shortening the hours of labor, there is in either case an advantage to the community; and it is very much in the power of each individual to select from the two advantages according to his taste. In these remarks we have used terms more commonly applied to the working ranks alone, but the principles involved are applicable to all ranks productively employed.

"§ 2.—But, secondly, although by the admission of the female sex to industry, wages as a whole would not be reduced, a slight readjustment must take place. The industrial income at present received by man has adjusted itself to a standard according to which he is socially, if not legally, bound to maintain women of his family that have no nearer dependence. Should women be enabled to earn an independent livelihood, the percentage of remuneration hitherto destined for their support would be withdrawn from man, or would tend to be so. But the percentage so withdrawn would be

---

"* Mill's Political Economy, book iii. chap. xiv.

small; and at all events the loss would be proportionally *less* than the burden of which men are relieved: for, theoretically speaking, as the percentage destined for the support of such dependents was necessarily distributed to all men indiscriminately, whether they had dependent relatives or not, it was inadequate to meet the real burden borne by such as had the burden of those dependents.

"Nor is there any ground to fear that, in the slight readjustment referred to, the scale of remuneration earned by heads of families will be prejudiced. It is they more especially that will be relieved of some of the burdens that now press on them so heavily; their relations in life are more extensive than those of the young or the unmarried; they are more liable, therefore, to have their kindness and humanity taxed, not causelessly, but from the necessitous condition of many connected with them; and hence to them the relief will be the greatest; above all, their families will at the proper time of life be able to do something for themselves. These men, therefore, can well afford to abate a small percentage from their earnings in consideration of the advantage gained by themselves, and by those hitherto dependent on them. That the abatement will be very small is proved by acts observable with respect to the working classes; where, although woman is admitted to independent industry, wages still adjust themselves to a scale enabling the working man to maintain his wife and family. It is so even in classes where a standard of living is scarcely to be found; much more then will it be realized where social opinion and habitual self-respect unite in securing such a desideratum."

Dr. LEE said he had felt very great gratification at witnessing this movement for the employment of women; for it had been a crotchet of his for a great many years, and we were always gratified to see other people take up our crotchets—they began then to look to us a little more reasonable. There were certain laws which regulated all things in society, as well as in the physical world, and he thought the object which they should have in view was to give these laws fair play; not to control them by any means, but to allow them to have fair play. And he thought the laws regulating the demand for male and female labor at present had not fair play; that there were fashions and feelings which had crept into our modern society which did not give to female labor that fair play to which it was entitled; that women were excluded from a great number of employments, not because either they were physically or intellectually unfit for them, but simply because it was not the fashion. He thought, in short, that the employment of male and female labor was deranged, and that this Society should attempt to set it right. Thus, for example, they had women in the field doing men's work. He submitted that the deterioration and immorality which they were now called to lament among their country people was considerably connected with that mal-arrangement—with that employment of women in offices which men ought to perform. On the other hand, they had whole classes of employment in the hands of men which ought to be in the hands of women. He always felt astonished, and somewhat shocked, at seeing ribbons and bonnets, and other articles of female attire, exhibited by males. They ought in all propriety, and for many reasons he need not state, to be in the hands of women. Then,

again, any man who was acquainted with the state of society among us must be aware that in the middle classes of society women had not fair play. The daughters of the higher part of the middle and the lower part of the more wealthy classes had, in fact, no recognised position or work in the world, except as mothers of families and managers of households. What were their daughters to do? Why, they were made for something else than to play the piano, and sketch, and other things of that sort, which were excellent as an embellishment and ornament of life, but which were not to be made—and could not be made without deteriorating the person—virtually the business of life. He was told himself by a very intelligent lady, now married, that she knew a considerable number of young ladies who were so dissatisfied with want of employment, feeling themselves not wheels in the great social machine, that they could hardly exaggerate their misery, for to a conscientious and enlightened mind, nothing, next to actual criminality, is so depressing and so painful as to feel that one is in the world of no use—that having faculties, and desiring to use those faculties, one has no sphere for their operations. Another thing which had been very properly alluded to in Miss Parkes's paper was, that in this country the proportion of the sexes was deranged perpetually, and on a great scale, by emigration. Our young men emigrate in hundreds and in thousands, but our women are left behind; and if not the Government, individuals must do something to redress this derangement also. They knew that men and women came into the world in due proportions, and if the men are taken away, why, society was deranged, and some means must be taken to check that derangement. There were many other spheres of intellectual labor than those to which reference had been made in the papers read in which women might be properly employed. He had never been able to know why female patients—why females, when they were sick, should not be attended by female doctors. It appeared to him that some important ends would be subserved by women being accustomed to attend women as medical officers. He thought it was more natural—he submitted it was more delicate—and if they were educated as they ought to be, and as they might be, and as some few of them were, he thought it would be more natural and more beneficial for both parties, and for society in general. There was no subject connected with Social Science which he believed to be more important than this, and he hoped all of them would do what little they could to assist those benevolent and enlightened ladies in pushing forward this great object.

Dr. Begg very heartily concurred in all Dr. Lee had said.

Mr. Duncan M'Laren, after a few sensible words on the discussion which had taken place concerning the lowering of wages, said that he would mention, that in addition to the thirteen women employed in his business, as stated at Glasgow, their chief clerk was a lady, who took all the money, made all the payments, balanced

all the books, just as well as any man could possibly do. (Applause.) There was no difficulty in getting women to do the work, the difficulty was in overcoming a prejudice, and getting people to believe that the work could be as well done by women.

The meeting closed by the Rev. W. Pulsford taking down the names of several ladies and gentlemen who were willing to form themselves into a committee, to co-operate with the London Society, in Edinburgh.

* * * * * *

The proposition to form local committees in Glasgow and Edinburgh having been so heartily responded to, we may trust that in many other towns of Great Britain and Ireland there may be found ladies and gentlemen willing to co-operate for so important an object. We must therefore repeat, that to all such, information and assistance will be most gladly afforded by the London Committee upon application to the Secretary of the Society, 19, Langham Place, W.

XXIV.—FRUITS IN THEIR SEASON.

II.—GRAPE GATHERINGS.

WHETHER our first parents in Paradise sat under the shade of their own vine as well as of their own fig-tree, or whether they were spared a second fructal temptation by being left in ignorance of charms so powerfully seductive, we do not know; but if not antediluvian, it seems at any rate to have been the first plant that flourished in the rich mud left by the retiring Noachian deluge, and to have proved to the patriarch and his family a very "tree of the knowledge of good and evil," even as it has been since to myriads of his descendants. That it was a blessing which might readily become a bane may have been the cause that among the Jews it ranked below those trees whose produce could be less easily abused; for in the earliest of fables we find Jotham representing the sovereignty of the woods as being offered to the olive and to the fig-tree before application was made to the vine to assume the arboreal crown. But the etymology of the name it now bears, derived from the Celtic *gwyd, tree,* whence was borrowed (the Celts dropping the g in pronunciation) the Latin *vitis,* Spanish *vid,* French *vigne,* and English *vine,* shows that when our forefathers became its sponsors, they gave it a rank with regard to other plants analogous to that which was assigned to the Scriptures with regard to other writings, the vine being *the* tree, even as the Bible was *the* book. Wherever it was found among the Gentile nations of antiquity, its introduction was always traced to a divinity; and whether the chubby Bacchus of the Greeks be really identical or not with the awful Osiris of the Egyptians, in this point at least their history

agrees, that each was represented as being the first vine grower of his country. Humboldt, who affirms that the vine is not a native of Europe, says that it grows wild in Asia Minor, and is generally considered to be indigenous to Persia, whence it is thought to have been taken to Egypt, Greece, and Sicily, and from the latter place to have reached the other European countries. "Why did Bacchus go to India?" asks Dr. Sickler, the great German authority on ancient fruit-culture. "Not, assuredly," he replies, "to take the vine thither, for it was there already, but rather to fetch it thence, to spread it in other lands. This India was, however, not the Hindostan of our day, but the lands on the shores of the Caspian probably including Persia." Some believe that it was introduced into Britain by the Romans; but according to others it was first brought hither by the Phœnicians, who have also the credit of having transplanted it from Palestine to the islands of the Mediterranean. By whatever means it may have come, when once here the gift was by no means neglected; and long before French fashions "came over with the Conqueror," home-made wine shared with ale, mead, and cider, the honor of being one of our national drinks, for the earliest English chronicles make mention of English vineyards. Gloucester was famous for them, and one is known to have existed in the thirteenth century on that spot now sacred to the Court Circular, the "Slopes" of Windsor. Thus, Jean Vigne, since looked on so jealously as a foreign rival, was then competing in friendly strife side by side with his compatriot John Barleycorn, for the suffrages of their mutual countrymen.

Vine culture continued to flourish in Britain until about the time of the Reformation; but when the decline of the feudal system caused more attention to be directed to corn husbandry, and the introduction of the hop did so much for the improvement and preservation of malt liquor, little time or thought was left for grape-gardens; while, in tracing the cause of their decline, something too may doubtless be attributed to the loss of monkish care which we may well believe had been ungrudgingly bestowed on so rich a source of monkish solace. Surrey was at one time famous for its Champagne, Sussex for its Burgundy, and at Arundel Castle, in the latter county, so lately as in 1763, there were sixty pipes of native wine in the cellars of the Duke of Norfolk. The rebuilding our obsolete wine-presses has every now and then been urged by some enthusiastic supporter of the claims of a British Bacchus, and the author of a Treatise on Vineyards, dedicated to the Duke of Chandos, in 1727, sets forth strongly the practicability of such a proceeding, and exhorts that nobleman to set an example by beginning the experiment; but the appeal had little effect. In later days it has found an advocate in Professor Martyn, who has suggested that any disadvantages of climate may be overcome by training the vines near the ground, as is done in the North of France, a system which increases the size of the berries, as well as promotes their earlier

ripening. Whether for wine making or to serve for humbler uses, it would certainly be well were more general attention paid to the open-air cultivation of a plant which, however it may require greenhouse pampering to secure its full perfection, may yet be made to attain no slight degree of excellence at the cost of a little care and trouble. Many a wall now bare and unsightly might be turned into an object of beauty and a source of pleasure and profit were it taken advantage of and dedicated to the vine, for properly prepared soils and judicious pruning are the chief requisites for the production of good grapes; and it is owing to the general ignorance on these points, rather than to ungenial climate, that this fruit so rarely ripens in the open air in England. "One of the principal causes of grapes not ripening well on open walls in this country," says the eminent grape-grower, Clement Hoare, "is the great depth of *mould* in which the roots of vines are suffered to run; which, enticing them to penetrate in search of food below the influence of the sun's rays, supplies them with too great a quantity of moisture; vegetation is thereby carried on till late in the summer, in consequence of which the ripening process does not commence till the declination of the sun becomes too rapid to afford a sufficiency of heat to perfect the fruit." The simple remedy is a supply of dry materials, such as broken bricks, bones, &c., to the soil, by means of which the roots are also enabled to obtain air, which is as requisite to them as earth, and gain too the room necessary for the discharge of excrementitious matter. The importance of this subject in an economical point of view may be judged by the declaration of Mr. Hoare, that "it is not too much to assert that the surface of the walls of every cottage of a medium size, which is applicable to the training of vines, is capable of producing annually as many grapes as would be worth half the amount of its rental." Thus the English vine might become as serviceable to the cottager as the Irish pig, while it would certainly be a more agreeable adjunct to a dwelling.

Whatever were the virtues of our vintage in the olden time, its excellence, so far as temperature was concerned, was solely owing to the unassisted kindliness of our much reviled climate, for it was not until the beginning of the last century that grapes were fostered by artificial heat, and fifty years more elapsed before they were cultivated under glass.

A vineyard once planted requires indeed constant care, but rarely needs renewal, for the plants are said to improve in quality until they are fifty years old, and many are found in full bearing in France and Italy which have at least not deteriorated during a lapse of three centuries, while Pliny mentions one patriarchal vine which had attained even double that age. They should not begin to bear until the stem close to the ground is three inches in circumference, which it will probably be in the course of four or five years after planting, and five pounds of fruit will then be a sufficient crop not to overtask the powers of the young plant, the calculations of

the best growers allowing afterwards an increase of five pounds more produce for each half inch expansion of the stem. The size which the trunk eventually attains is sometimes very considerable, amounting in one instance in England to four feet in circumference, while the spread of the branches seems almost unlimited. The giant vine at Cumberland Lodge, Windsor, and its Brobdingnagian parent at Hampton Court, each cover a space of about 147 square yards, and would extend much farther were they allowed to do so, their produce amounting respectively to about a ton weight of fruit annually, in the form of above 2000 bunches, representing a money value of upwards of £400. On one occasion George III. having been greatly pleased with the performers at Drury Lane Theatre, gave orders that 100 dozen bunches of grapes should be cut off for them from the Hampton Court vine, if so many could be found upon it, when not only was the munificent donation at once forwarded as desired, but with it also a message from the gardener, that he could still cut off as many more without stripping the tree.

Too valuable for its living products ever to be destroyed for the sake of its mere substance, yet the wood is capable of being turned to good account whenever it does fall into the hands of the carpenter, being both beautiful and extremely durable; for though Ezekiel speaks of it contemptuously as "meet for no work," and only fit for fuel, classic authors tell of statues and temple columns formed from it, and Evelyn records in his "Sylva" that the great doors of the Cathedral of Ravenna were in his day discovered to be made of vine planks, some of which were twelve feet long and fifteen inches broad.

In spring, when the sap rises, the circulation of the vine is so active, even to its very extremities, that great care has to be taken to have all the pruning over before the vernal warmth calls forth this flow in its veins, or every part touched with the knife would pour out a vital stream, and the vine would actually "bleed" to death. This notable sappiness reaches its fullest extent in a variety called the Caribean Vine, a native of Jamaica, which is of so dropsical a constitution that from a shoot a yard long may be drained nearly a pint of clear tasteless water, a provision of nature which has sometimes saved the life of thirst-stricken wanderers in the woods. Fed by such a flow of liquid life, the little rounded buds which have been lying all the winter wrapt in down so close as to look like mere little excrescences on the pale brown bark of the branches, begin rapidly to expand and shoot forth into sprays of tender green; one leaf from each articulation of the many jointed twigs, and mostly a waving tendril too, to bear it company, these being, according to Carpenter, developed from supernumerary flower-stalks; and it is said that curious experimentalists have sometimes succeeded in transmuting them into fruitful bunches of grapes, by cutting the branch immediately above them. Soon after appears the blossom, little bunches of tiny five petaled five anthered flowerets,

of pale yellowish-green, so similar in color to the leaves, and so hidden among them, as to be scarcely discernible without close inspection. The insignificance of their appearance has furnished Krummacher with not the least beautiful of his "Parables," when he represents the haughty self-sufficient youth Adoniah as led by the prophet into a vineyard in spring and shown how humble is the forerunner of the noblest of fruits, that he may learn of the vine in the blossoming of his youth; "and Adoniah took all these words of Samuel to heart, and went on henceforth with a still soft spirit." The flowers have the reputation of being odorous, but the perfume is not very perceptible except in an American variety called the "Sweet Scented," which grows by river sides in some parts of the United States, and the blossoms of which exhale an exquisite fragrance resembling that of mignonette. But ere long these humble blossoms disappear, the berries which take their place swell larger and larger, until the little diverging stalklets on which they grow, together with the central stem whence they proceed, are altogether hidden by the clustering mass; finally the color changes as they ripen, till the vine achieves its full glory. And a glorious object it is! Whether in the pole-supported plant of Germany, but a few feet high, the short thick stock grown in Spain, or the scrubby bush to which it is dwarfed in France, there is much of beauty manifested in the elegant form of the triply pointed deeply serrated leaf with its strongly marked network of veins, so dear to ornamentalists in all ages; in the wild freedom of its curving tendrils; and above all, in its shapely and rich-tinted fruit, varying from clear chrysophras green to semi-lucent amber, or rich bloom-clouded purple, like violets seen through mist, each particular berry blending into one fair cluster, that "bunch of grapes" with which Titian loved to illustrate a *perfect* composition, every part completely finished in itself, yet not obtruding as a part, but only contributing its share to the completeness of the whole. How graceful too are their growth and the positions which their loose suspension on many stalks permits them to assume! I remember once seeing a cluster which had thrown itself over a large gourd with such lightness and freedom as to recall in a moment to my mind the attitude of Ariadne on the panther; and prompt almost a conviction that Dannecker must have been indebted to such a source for the suggestion of the exquisite pose of that figure. But it is in Greece or in Italy that the vine is seen in perfection; where with all its other charms is combined that of a display of its natural mode of growth, and "wedded" to the elm or poplar it is left free to wreath itself as it will round the supporting trunk to which it clings, and fling its light festoons in wild luxuriance from bough to bough. With no dusky rootlets like those which bear something of earthliness into the loftiest aspirings of the ivy; with no tenacious suckers like the virginia creeper, adhering with a gripe to the surface it climbs, but only twining its slender tendrils with firm yet gentle clasp round the

object it embraces, the fertile loving vine stands forth the truest, fairest type of womanhood. Well might the Psalmist make it his metaphor when he recounts among the chief joys of him whom God hath blessed, "Thy wife shall be like the fruitful vine by the sides of thine house." And how was its typical significance deepened when chosen to shadow forth Him in whom, as the representative of perfect humanity, the woman was blended with the man, and who, appropriating it as His own special symbol, declared, in words that have left an aureole of glory around it for ever, "I am the true Vine."

But to dissect our plant botanically will be an easier task than to attempt to analyze it æsthetically. The grape is a true berry, a mass of juicy pulp enclosed in a skin and containing loosely floating seeds, which, according to the most correct principles of vegetation, should be five in number, one for each anther of the flower, but as vegetables, like more highly organized beings, do not always act up to their principles, one or two at least usually remain abortive; an arrangement of dame Nature's which however is rather satisfactory than otherwise, especially at Christmas tide, when the three or four which she usually does mature are found quite sufficiently troublesome to those whose department it is to "stone" the raisins. In pity perhaps to busy plum-pudding preparers a few varieties are left quite seedless, and Theophrastus in his antique wisdom sagely informs us how we might secure any sort becoming so, by simply extracting the pith, with a proper instrument of horn or bone, from a twig, as far as it is to be set in the ground, then lightly binding it round and setting it in moist earth to grow and bring forth a pipless progeny; "For," saith he, "if you rob the vine-branch of the pith, whereof the stones are gendered, you may secure grapes without stones." Another prank of the wonder-loving ancients is set forth by Florentinus and Diophanes, who assert that if an olive-branch be drawn through a hole bored in the stem of a vine, the plants will grow together and produce a fruit partaking of the nature of both; the latter adding, that in the orchard of Marius Maximus he had both seen and tasted fruit of this kind, called Eleo-staphylus, or the Olive-grape, and which was reputed to be common in Africa. As it is, the vine in Italy furnishes oil as well as wine, a kind being extracted from the pips which is reckoned superior to any other sort, either for eating or burning, as it has no odour and burns without smoke. In the form of raisins the vine furnishes no unimportant item of commerce, our imports, reckoned in 1855, amounted to about 8000 tons annually, paying a duty of £160,000, besides about 6000 tons of currants, the dried miniature grapes of the Greek islands. The Valentia raisins, according to Laborde, are dipped in a ley made of ashes of vine branches and rosemary, to which a little slaked lime is added, and then spread on the rocks to dry, while those of Malaga are simply dried in the sun without any preparation. Another traveller says that the ordinary method of cure is to cut the stalks of the bunches half through when the grapes are almost

ripe, the sun candying them when thus suspended, and the separation being completed as soon as they are dry.

But it is by no means absolutely necessary that the fruit should be dried before it can travel to us, for the rapid transit afforded by steam permits us to receive upwards of £10,000 worth of fresh foreign grapes during the season, brought over packed in sawdust. Various means may be resorted to when it is wished to preserve them for any length of time; the classical mode was to suspend them in jars of wine; the Americans prefer to imbed them in cotton wadding; among ourselves they are usually hung upon a line in a dry room. Some invert the bunches, hanging the stalk end downwards, since the berries then do not rest upon each other; and the favorite plan of one fruit-grower was to cut off a portion of the stem along with the bunch (which in any case promotes the preservation of the fruit) and insert the part below the grapes into a bottle of water, which was occasionally changed. Others content themselves with sealing each end of that portion of the branch to which the fruit is attached.

Tusser, in 1560, speaks only of two kinds of grapes grown in England, the white and the red, but so much have varieties multiplied since then that a list made by Thompson in 1842 enumerates ninety-nine kinds, and by the present time above a dozen more have been added, while in foreign countries they are numbered by hundreds, though practically there is but one *species* grown in Europe. It is testified however by Loudon, that in Britain we have not only the best varieties, but that we grow the fruit to a larger size and of a higher flavor than anywhere else in the world, owing to the unremitting attention devoted by our gardeners to the soil and culture of their vines, and to the perfection with which we regulate artificial climate. He adds that the Chasselas, or Muscadine, is almost the only eating grape known in the Paris fruit-market. The name of this variety is not derived, as might be supposed, from the musky flavor which distinguishes them, but from the berries being particularly attractive to flies (*muscæ*), a reason which caused the Romans to name them *vitis apiaria*. The Muscadine Royal, the Chasselas *par excellence* of the French, is largely grown near Fontainebleau, and is known in Covent Garden by the name of its native place.

That English-grown kind which, as Mr. M'Intosh says, is "the best of all black grapes, and deservedly the most popular," is the Black Hamburgh, which owes its name to having been introduced into this country from Hamburgh in 1724, though it came originally from Franckenthal on the Rhine, and is known all over the Continent as the Franckenthal grape. When in perfection, the skin of the berries is quite black, covered with a thick bloom, but it will sometimes appear brown or red, even on a vine which has hitherto borne fruit of the most approved tint, this deterioration being a sure symptom of something wrong in the soil or temperature of the vinery.

The size of the berries is more an object with English fruit-growers than the size of the bunches, but these sometimes attain enormous magnitude, one having been exhibited some years ago which weighed 19½ lb., and when transmitted by its noble owner as a present to a friend at a distance, was carried, suspended to a pole, on the shoulders of two men, in the style of the spy-borne cluster of Eshcol. The latter are supposed to have been of the kind now grown on Mount Libanus, where the vines creep along the surface of the ground, and bear grapes as large as plums. In Madeira too there is a dessert grape the clusters of which often weigh twenty pounds.

For the purpose of wine-making, however, the small berries are the best, since the strength and flavor of the liquor depends, as in cider, more upon the skin and seeds than on the pulp of the fruit, and the austere kinds too are preferred to those which are more pleasant to eat. Plucked from the parent plant and beaten, pressed, or trodden, the vintage grapes submit to a process which seems like destruction, in order that they may rise again like martyrs, in a more glorious form. One kind alone, the muscatel of the warm south, is exempted from the violence to which all its congeners are exposed, and suffered gently to weep itself to wine, the bunches, bursting with ripeness, being merely laid down till the pressure of their own weight produces the droppings of which the wine is made, which thence, in Spain, bears the name of *lagrima*.

Many as are the varieties of the grape cultivated in different parts of Europe, they may all be considered as of one species, the *vinifera*; but, once across the Atlantic, we are beyond the dominion of Bacchus, and though certainly *a* vine abounds in America, it is no longer *the* vine, the sacred plant of the son of Semele. This wild climber, peculiar to America, has, as Humboldt says, given rise to the general error that the "*vinifera*" is common to the two continents, whereas in truth the *Vitis vulpina* of America is of another and far lower caste, a very pariah of vines, indelibly tainted with a flavor which can only be described as "foxy." But though the foxes have thus "spoiled the vineyards" in a manner unthought of by Theocritus, the plants if not sweet are at least strong, and are often found on the banks of the Ohio with a stem three feet in circumference and branches 200 feet long; but the best varieties of its fruit are anything but agreeable to a British palate, and though both a red and a white wine have been made from it, said rather to resemble Moselle, even in this state, unfortunately, it still retains the brand of the "brush." Both the fruit and the leaves, which are but very slightly lobed, are much larger than those of the European vine, and it is therefore sometimes grown in England for ornamental purposes, though little esteemed otherwise. One of the best writers on such subjects in America, however, remarks that the vines there "are generally but one remove from a wild state, accidentally improved varieties that have sprung up in woods and fields from wild vines;" therefore, as

increasing attention is being paid to their culture, vineries under glass are becoming frequent, and vineyards are established in some of the wilder States, there is room for our Transatlantic cousins to hope that the rosy god may yet smile upon them, and eventually crown their bowl with a native nectar free from vulpine or any other offensive taint.

In some parts of South America (as in Chili and Mexico) wine has been made for years past with very fair success; we have daily proof of the rapid improvement taking place in the quality and quantity produced in the British possessions in Africa; and it is now nearly ten years since a sample was received in London of wine from Australia, of such a quality as to promise that whenever the colonists there may be able and willing to turn their attention to its manufacture, there will be little reason to fear that the climate will offer any obstacle to their success. We of this quarter of the globe need not therefore be under any apprehension of sharing the fate of ancient Rome, or dread the invasion of some Brennus of the New World, attracted from his own grapeless land by the charms of our vines, and determined no longer to leave us in undisturbed possession of such a luxury. There is every prospect too that as the reign of the vine extends, the grape will more widely attain its highest glorification, in being dedicated to the noble service of the winepress; for this after all is the grand use of the vine, and that to which all its other uses are by comparison merely incidental and unimportant. Other fruits may please the palate as well, but this is serving a mere material purpose; it is the proud prerogative of the kingly grape to minister to the mind, and though it is true it does not stand quite alone in this, yet it is its lofty distinction to reign supreme over every other substance to which a portion of this power is permitted. Let sensuality and intemperance pervert it as they will, it is in itself a good and not an evil, and was given by the source of all good to "cheer the heart of man" and gladden his spirit. It is too true that the gift has often been abused, so much so that legislators have sometimes attempted wholly to interdict it; and it is said that the grape has once or twice been entirely rooted out of the land of China by imperial decree; indeed, tradition records that one celestial despot, finding the heavy tax he had laid upon wine insufficient to restrain his subjects from using it to excess, ordered a lake to be filled with the tempting fluid, and then forced 3000 of its votaries to plunge headlong into it. Nature however cannot be permanently thwarted, and it has mostly been found that where the vine has been banished something worse has taken its place, besides which, much of the evil that is commonly attributed to wine may really be traced to other sources. In the words of Cyrus Redding, one of the highest authorities on such a subject; "There are few individuals comparatively among the intemperate who can lay the fault upon wine in this country, if the pure juice of the grape be understood by that term. It is the produce of the still mingled with wine that operates the

mischief when wine is concerned at all;" a statement confirmed by the fact that the wine-growing countries are the least intemperate. A moderate quantity of pure wine, unadulterated by distilled spirit, is in most countries found beneficial to mankind, and it may be remembered that it is against "mixed wine" and those who "*mingled* strong drink" that Scriptural denunciations are levelled, the Hebrews having early resorted to beverages more intoxicating than simple grape juice. It is related of the great Akbar, that being once in need of good gunners, he sent for some from an English vessel then in one of his ports, when the men being required to prove their ability by shooting at a mark, one of them purposely misdirected his aim, and then turning to the Emperor apologized for his unskilfulness by stating that his having been long debarred from wine had injured his sight, but that if the monarch would only order wine to be brought for him, he would make a display that would astonish him. A cup was accordingly brought, which the man quaffed, and then immediately sent his shot into the very centre of the mark, whereupon Akbar ordered it to be recorded that "wine was as necessary to Europeans as water to fish, and to deprive them of it was to rob them of the greatest comfort of their lives," and thenceforth gave permission to foreigners to cultivate vineyards in his dominions.

In enumerating the honors paid to the vine we must not forget that it afforded one of the earliest offerings to the Deity, for "bread and wine" were brought forth to Abraham by Melchizedek, "the priest of the most High God." Consecrated too to the most sacred rite of the religion of Jesus, it has thus been made to us a link between heaven and earth; and though we look not with the heathen or the Mussulman to an actual quaffing of grape juice as part of the bliss of eternity, yet every Christian must feel that there is something hallowed in the symbol which reminds him of his future hope to drink hereafter "new wine in his Father's kingdom."

XXV.—MIDDLE CLASS SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS.

A PAPER READ AT THE MEETING OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE PROMOTION OF SOCIAL SCIENCE, GLASGOW, 1860.

It is very easy to find fault with our National and British Schools, and with our whole system of Government aid to education; and also with the vast body of masters and mistresses sent out all over the country from the great training schools and colleges supported by public funds; and it is not difficult to say, with much apparent truth, that these crammed and certificated ladies and gentlemen are not giving a very good practical education to the working people of England. Perhaps the very first observation you make is that they

do not keep in view the very end of education, the very point to be aimed at—to teach the children to help themselves,—to help themselves to think rightly, and to carry their right thoughts into right action; to make rational beings with good habits. You will perhaps say that for the most part these masters and mistresses only strive to pour out the learning so lately poured into themselves. You have, no doubt, visited National Schools, and have laughed at the answers given by the children to your questions, showing the utter want of any instruction in the art of thinking; of which want the reply lately made by a pupil may be taken as a specimen. I stopped a child in the midst of a chapter in the Bible as she gabbled "and His coming was foretold by the prophets." "Who were the prophets?" I asked. The girl stared me in the face and said, "What father makes in his shop." And another girl, after naming glibly all the countries in Europe, confessed that she did not believe in their existence! Indeed, a very little examination will prove that children do not *believe* in half they are taught. But although it is easy to find fault with the education England is giving her people, fault-finding and criticism are useless without the exercise of comparison. We must not take the ideal instead of the possible and the practicable as our test—and when we find fault with National and British Schools, do we compare them with others? Not often, I believe. How many of those who visit and criticise these establishments have ever thought of examining *what the education is which the mass of the people provide for themselves?* I speak of those who can provide for themselves; the class who can afford to pay more than 2*d.* a week.

I believe it to be inferior in every respect to the education given in the National and British Schools. I do not think any advocate of the voluntary system can deny the fact.

The little cheap private day-schools, academies, institutes, and "collegiate establishments for young ladies and gentlemen," have proverbially a low character, unknown as such regions are to the higher classes, and would, we believe, have a still lower character if they were known. They are often conducted by incompetent broken-down tradespeople, who, failing in gaining a livelihood in a good trade, take in despair to what is justly considered (in consequence of the competition of the schools assisted by Government) as a very bad business.

I speak generally of the schools charging from 6*d.* a week to 15*s.* a quarter, opened for the children of small shopkeepers and mechanics who are too rich or too "genteel" to go to the National Schools. Such academies abound in the cheap quarters of all towns, and are usually held in small private houses, only manifesting their scholastic character by a brass plate or a large board, and only maintaining it by pretentious ignorance. I have good reason to believe that the education given in these places for 6*d.* and 1*s.* a week is inferior to the twopenny education given in the popular schools. It is very difficult to investigate this matter, but I wish to draw special atten-

tion to the subject, so that it may be inquired into by all who have the opportunity. The number of these schools is enormous, and their influence on the future welfare of England very considerable; so that it is well worth while to know something about what passes within them. Does the Government aid to the National Schools injuriously affect these schools? What is the education and training of the mistresses? What education is usually given? What books and apparatus are used? &c. These and other questions should be inquired into, but it is exceedingly difficult to visit such establishments: they are *private*, and I have found the mistresses exceedingly jealous of inspection, most unwilling to show a stranger (and quite naturally) anything of the school books, or to answer any questions. The first school of this class which I visited was in a large country village, to which the small farmers and shopkeepers sent their daughters. It was considered a most respectable and superior establishment; the lady principal boasted of having an accomplished Indian lady to teach languages and music; I went with a farmer's daughter, who was an old pupil, and whose extraordinary deficiency in reading and writing at the age of thirteen quite excited my curiosity. The lady principal was a poor sickly creature utterly unfit for anything, but who had been obliged to do something for a livelihood. She had a certain kind of flabby ladylike manner which quite awed my blunt honest farmer friends. The school was conducted on the most old fashioned system; the books were out of date, and the children were taught after this fashion, that there were four elements, earth, air, fire, and water! The Indian lady, the boast of the establishment, was a negress, a dashing ignorant American, who thought the most important part of her duty was to teach deportment and the small manners and vanities supposed to transmute the little female clod-hoppers into *elegant* young ladies.

Other schools which I visited proved as bad; and of the many of which I have received reports from trustworthy persons, few have been much better. The teachers have little knowledge, and no idea that there is a difficult art called teaching which must be *learnt.*

Mistresses of such schools have often told me they *were not used to work,—were ladies, and quite unfit for this sort of thing!*

We have heard of harshness and the indulgence of tyranny unchecked by any supervision or any public inspection; cases of extreme atrocity are fresh in the minds of all. In one day I heard of two cases of blows being given for mistakes in reading; and I am convinced that these ignorant, disappointed, and soured teachers oftener act harshly and misuse their despotic power than is at all supposed. Despotic power over children, without a parent's natural and restraining affection, is a dangerous thing.

Parents sometimes send their children to National and British Schools, often having tried private schools and found them fail; we have often questioned children from these schools, and generally found them terribly ignorant.

One of the greatest evils is the insufficient room and ventilation; to make these cheap schools pay it is necessary to cram the children as close as possible, and the rooms of a common small dwelling-house are not fit or healthy for a school. This is a very serious consideration; for children cannot learn in an impure atmosphere, the vitiated air makes them feverish or drowsy, cross or stupid. A chemist in a small street in London being asked where he sent his children, said, "Oh! to the pious old girl next door." On examining the school in question, it was found that the mistress had been the teacher of a National School, but gave it up because the work was too hard (she said), and started a school charging three times as much—6*d.* a week, and extra for grammar and other things. It was curious to see the inefficient or incapable teacher raising her price because of her inefficiency or incapacity! She professed to teach anything the pupils wanted to learn, her house was crammed with disorderly children, and the emanations from so many bodies was anything but pleasant.

In country towns we have known families of sisters left destitute, and starting private schools without any training at all, and charging 6*d.*, 9*d.*, and 1*s.* a week, honestly confessing that their instruction was not so good as that of the monitors in a common National School.*

This class just above the laboring one which touches it, influences the latter more than the higher branches can do, and it is a very sure and sound way of helping the lower classes, to educate those who are richer than themselves, but in immediate contact with them. To give good sense and refinement to this class would indeed be a great boon. If we could make these women high-minded, intelligent, and simple in their tastes, instead of leaving them to be brought up to vanity, false ideas of what is lady-like, and every shallow showy accomplishment, it would indeed be a blessing! At present, their contact with those above them is just of that external character which causes them to imitate their dress, and the vanities and follies of those they call real ladies. Although they touch the lowest, they aim at pushing their way into the upper classes, and, judging by the past history of English society, they will inevitably accomplish their aim. It is, therefore, of vital importance to educate them rightly and highly.

I will now take for granted (though everyone who is interested in this subject ought to prove it for himself by inspection), that the existing schools for the middle class are bad, and worse than those assisted by Government. The difficult question then arises, how to provide better.

* If any lady will take the trouble to learn something of her tradespeoples' daughters, she will probably find that they are not receiving so good an education as the workmen she employs. The gardener's daughter will probably write, read, and sum better than the grocer's or butcher's children, and is probably receiving a more practical and solid education than the class a grade above for less than half the price.

Several of those mentioned by the Rev. J. S. Howson in his paper read before this Association last year have been, he says, successful. The Birkbeck Schools established by Mr. William Ellis, admirably supply the want as far as they go. But they are not specially for girls. Others have been founded by committees and by private efforts with more or less success. But there is no organized effort, no society devoted to this purpose, and not the particular attention turned to the subject which it deserves.

These schools do not so much want money given towards their foundation, as the thought and experience of competent people.

The next question is, ought these schools to be self-supporting?

The self-supporting principle is very admirable, and it is desirable to make as many of these schools self-supporting as possible. A very admirable principle, but why should it be especially applied to girls?

Magnificent colleges and schools, beautiful architectural buildings, costing thousands and thousands of pounds, rich endowments, all over England, have been bestowed by past generations as gifts to the boys of the higher and middle class, and they are not the less independent, and not a whit pauperised.

Neither Christ Church, Eton, nor Oxford are supposed to degrade those who are educated by them, yet they are in a great measure charities! Too much will not be given to girls, and we are not afraid to urge that some foundation schools, some noble halls and beautiful gardens, be bestowed on them also. Giving education, the very means of self-help, is the safest way of being charitable. Charity is a gracious thing, but we must give with judgment. The more freely knowledge is diffused the better, and no narrow view should prevent us from giving good gifts to all with whom we come in contact.

I believe that educated ladies who have the will, the intellect, and the money wherewith to help their fellow-creatures, cannot begin a better work than by interesting themselves in the education of the girls of the middle class; girls who certainly ought to be sensibly and practically brought up, as they are destined to as hard trials as either their richer or poorer sisters; if these girls could see that ladies above them had solid knowledge, as well as superficial accomplishments, it would do them an immense good,—example is always better than precept.

The rich do much harm in giving advice; they understand little of the true wants and sympathies of the recipients. When the givers are vastly higher in station, it is much easier to make the poor into servile beggars and canting hypocrites than to do any solid good. The same danger does not apply to assistance rendered to the middle class. They are very independent, and though they will willingly accept help, they cannot endure patronage.

Now a great power is wasted in the quantity of time and knowledge which rich young English women have on their hands. I

cannot help thinking that it might be organized, and usefully employed. A vast number draw well from nature, a greater number still are good musicians and good French scholars—why should not this teaching power be used for the benefit of the public? If some of the ladies who are wearied with study—seeing no point for their efforts—would club together their talents, and make a sort of joint stock company, some subscribing money, some lessons in various branches, they could themselves establish these better sort of schools. In fact, we want an application of the volunteer movement; but a trained mistress, always in the school, would be absolutely necessary.

Good schools for 6*d.* a week will not pay, but 1*s.* a week from 150 children can be made to pay expenses without profit. Probably schools charging £1 a quarter could be made to pay a profit.

It is very desirable that a society should be formed for the establishment of such schools in connexion with such an institution as the Queen's College, and that paid or volunteer teachers should procure certificates, and the schools established might avow themselves in connexion with some well-known and authorized academy. Some Journal should also be open to the monthly reports of such schools (the ENGLISH WOMAN'S JOURNAL for instance) and opportunities be given for the interchange of questions and comparisons by meetings of teachers at stated times. Publicity of every sort should be afforded for the exertions and various experiments of these societies of ladies, not only for their own improvement, but also to give parents a fair opportunity of understanding the comparative advantages of different schools. These should also be open to inspection, at least on certain fixed days. The attention of the wealthy and charitable should likewise be drawn to the importance of endowing a certain number of day-schools for girls, to correspond to the grammar schools so richly endowed for boys.

Again, every effort should be made by the friends of education to raise the standard of the mistresses, and to give them opportunities of steady improvement, and some public recognition of their efficiency. It is desirable to extend simultaneously all the agencies at work for the better education both of teachers and pupils, and nothing would more promote it than the opening to them of "the University Examinations of Students who are not Members of the University." At Cambridge there is an examination every year for students who are not more than sixteen years of age, and another for students who are not more than eighteen years of age. The subjects of examination are English Language, including reading aloud, spelling, dictation, &c., history, geography, the Latin, French, and German languages, arithmetic, mathematics, natural philosophy, &c. The students who pass the examinations will receive certificates.

"After each examination the names of the students who pass with credit will be placed alphabetically in three honor classes,

and the names of those who pass to the satisfaction of the examiners, yet not so as to deserve honors, will be placed alphabetically in a separate class. Marks of distinction will be attached to the name of any candidate who may specially distinguish himself in any particular parts of the examination. After the name of every student will be added his place of residence, the school (if any) from which he comes to attend the examination, and the name of his schoolmaster."

Such is the system pursued at Cambridge, the extension of which to female teachers would prove a great guarantee to the parents of pupils. I have looked over the Examination Papers for 1859-60, and do not think that they need in any way be changed if women were included among the students. There need be no terrible publicity to shock and frighten the female candidate, for we read that "an examination will be held in any place where it can be ascertained that there will be thirty candidates for examination."

I will now proceed to make a few remarks on the sort of education which would be really valuable to the middle class, and at the same time attractive to them. In the first place, it is very desirable to adopt the method of teaching in classes by means of object-lessons, which is habitually pursued in National Schools. The apparatus and the museum are essential to good teaching. To acquire a string of names by heart, with no ideas or with wrong ideas attached to those names, does not increase a child's real knowledge. To do this you must place the actual object before the child's eyes whenever possible. In girls' schools this is rarely thought of; I remember a London girl in a "boarding-school for young ladies" who had repeated the word *hay* for twelve or thirteen years, in prose, poetry, and conversation, and who had a vague idea that hay was composed of leaves of trees mixed with bits of stick; yet this was a very accomplished girl who could play well on the piano. It is worth while to follow in our minds the consequences of a false idea of hay, that we may feel the utility of *real knowledge*. How very much she lost by her ignorance, misunderstanding the beauty and meaning of every passage in the Bible about grass; knowing nothing of mowing, and ignorant of the meaning of the word scythe! Vague incorrectness of thought about natural objects is very common in the minds of girls, who have, generally, fewer opportunities than boys possess of absolute contact with the earth and the water. Real knowledge develops not only the observation, but the imagination and the poetical faculties; while, on the other hand, nothing so much takes away from the solidity and intensity of a character as the habit of using *words* without knowing the *things* they signify. It breeds intellectual and moral unfaithfulness. Schoolmistresses so little understand this very evident law in education, that they expect their girls to feel an interest in poetry full of similes about things they have never seen, and to learn hard tasks in natural science without

witnessing experiments or handling specimens. How many lessons are given on the chief products of the countries of Europe, and how few products are ever shown in young ladies' schools. Professor Brodie would not teach chemistry to young men unless he could show them substances and solutions, yet children are expected to learn, and punished for not learning, on a system too stupid, too obsolete to be applied to young men.

All who have heard Mr. Shieles' admirable object-lessons at the Peckham Birkbeck Schools, will readily understand what a difference this method of teaching makes to the pupils in exciting their interest, and bringing out the powers they delight to exercise. In addition to the usual branches of education, and to these object-lessons, drawing should also be taught with great care to all the children, and taught from nature as well as from copies. It is easier to teach drawing than writing, if the lesson be made interesting and really beautiful; and delicate drawings can be executed by mere children, of leaves, of bits of architecture, of vases, &c., and copies be made from engravings of more complicated things. Pupils of twelve or thirteen should be able, after two years' instruction, to draw the branch of a tree with its leaves, so as to give pleasure to the beholder.

The drawing lesson can be elevated into a lesson on art, and the beauties of form in antique vases and statues can be pointed out, and plants, flowers, and fruits be brought in illustration, aided by fine etchings.

Singing from notes and in parts must enter into the course of instruction; children always delight in joining together to sing, and very soon enjoy the best music. French lessons will distinguish the scholars in these schools from those who pay only twopence a week in National Schools, and must be taught not only because it is useful to know the language of our neighbors, but also because it is extremely desirable that children should know that there are other names for things besides those they use themselves, and because English grammar is best acquired in connexion with that of another language. Moreover, not only is a great saving of time thus effected, but a strong desire to learn French exists in the middle class, which must be taken into account.

In addition to arithmetic, girls should be taught to make out bills, to keep accounts, and to understand book-keeping. From the very first they should be taught how to apply their arithmetical knowledge, and it is of the greatest importance to teach girls to know when and how to set about calculation. Most girls (and all we say is true of boys, *cæteris paribus*) are pushed forward into rules which they have not the remotest idea how to apply to real life, and which they probably do not believe to be of any practical use. For instance, not long ago I dictated this question to a class of girls in a highly esteemed school: "If you earn a penny a day, how much will you earn in a year?" "Oh! that is too easy!" cried the children;—yet not half gave the right answer, and one of

them wrote ·9 (*decimal point nine!*). Yet most of these children were very far advanced in the arithmetic book. A clever teacher, with a quick original mind, will turn all lessons to practical account, and finding out what will be the probable future of her pupils, prepare them for it and keep it before their minds.

While the essential duties of these future women as mothers, house-keepers, and governors of families must always be kept in view before and beyond every other object, the fact that most of the girls will probably have to work during some years for their own livelihood must not be lost sight of. The advantages and disadvantages of the different employments for women ought to be laid before the elder pupils, and the principles of social and political economy taught to them. They should above all be taught the vast resources of our colonies, and fitted to be emigrants by giving them independent habits, quickness to help themselves in emergencies, and an intimate acquaintance with the countries they may visit. The history of our colonies, their geography, and products, should be familiar to them; then there would be no danger of girls refusing, as I have known many do, to leave England, fearing everything of which they know nothing. I have known numerous instances of brothers and husbands departing alone for Australia, the Cape, and America, because their sisters and wives drew back with horror from daring the utterly unknown. The daughter of a nursery gardener, about thirty years of age, told me tremblingly that she had consented to go with her family to Australia, "but how she was to get through the earth to the other side, where she understood Australia to be, she did not in the least know." This is only to be equalled by a schoolmistress who wrote to me that she actually did pass through three regions to arrive at the Cape of Good Hope—the region of ice, the region of fire, and the region of wind!

In these middle class schools for girls, no public exhibitions, or prizes, or displays, should be encouraged. If any public examinations are thought necessary, they should be very cautiously conducted, as such examinations are generally productive of more moral mischief than intellectual good. No schools should be entirely closed to the public. It is a good plan to examine the children by dictated written questions as well as by vocal questions; and these written questions and answers should be kept and compared at stated intervals; in this manner progress in writing, spelling, and general neatness can be tested, as well as the proficiency of the children in special branches of knowledge. A clever teacher will make of these dictations a very useful lesson, and also a thorough test of the general intelligence of the pupils. These questions should cover a wide field of thought and observation, and care should be taken to make the children sometimes answer by means of drawing plans and forms from memory.

I will conclude by reiterating the main points of this paper.

1stly. That it is desirable to investigate the education which the girls of the middle class are receiving.

2ndly. That the establishment of schools at 6*d.* or 1*s.* a week is much needed, which schools must be assisted by charitable efforts.

3rdly. That schools at a higher rate, say 15*s.* or £1 a quarter, might be made to pay a profit.

4thly. That the Queen's College, and similar London Societies, should encourage and continue to correspond with such schools.

5thly. That they should be open to inspection.

6thly. That reports of the various exertions and experiments should be published in some periodical.

BARBARA SMITH BODICHON.

XXVI.—A COMFORTER.

WILL she come to me, little Effie—
  Will she come in my arms to rest,
And nestle her head on my shoulder,
  While the sun goes down in the west?

I and Effie will sit together,
  All alone in this great arm-chair:—
Is it silly to mind it, darling,
  When life is so hard to bear?

No one comforts me like my Effie,
  Just I think that she does not try—
Only looks with a wistful wonder,
  Why grown people should ever cry;

While her little soft arms close tighter
  Round my neck in their clinging hold:—
Well—I must not cry on your hair, dear,
  For my tears might tarnish the gold.

I am tired of trying to read, dear;
  It is worse to talk and seem gay:
There are some kinds of sorrow, Effie,
  It is useless to thrust away.

Ah, advice may be wise, my darling,
  But one always knows it before;
And the reasoning down one's sorrow
  Seems to make one suffer the more.

But my Effie won't reason, will she?
  Or endeavor to understand;
Only holds up her mouth to kiss me,
  As she strokes my face with her hand.

If you break your plaything yourself, dear,
Don't you cry for it all the same?
I don't think it is such a comfort,
One has only oneself to blame.

People say things cannot be helped, dear,
But then that is the reason why;
For if things could be helped or altered,
One would never sit down to cry:

They say, too, that tears are quite useless,
To undo, amend, or restore,—
When I think *how* useless, my Effie,
Then my tears only fall the more.

All to-day I struggled against it,
But that does not make sorrow cease,
And now, dear, it is such a blessing
To be able to cry in peace.

Though wise people would call that folly,
And remonstrate with grave surprise;
We won't mind what they say, my Effie,
We never professed to be wise.

But my comforter knows a lesson,
Wiser, truer than all the rest,
That to help and to heal a sorrow,
Love and silence are always best.

Well—who is my comforter?—tell me?
Effie smiles, but she will not speak,
Or look up through the long curled lashes
That are shading her rosy cheek.

Is she thinking of talking fishes,
The blue bird, or magical tree?—
Perhaps I am thinking, my darling,
Of something that never can be.

You long—don't you, dear?—for the genii
Who were slaves of lamps and of rings;
And I—I am sometimes afraid, dear,
I want as impossible things.

But hark! there is Nurse calling Effie!
It is bedtime, so run away;
And I must go back, or the others
Will be wondering why I stay.

So good night to my darling Effie;
Keep happy, sweetheart, and grow wise:—
There's one kiss for her golden tresses
And two for her sleepy eyes.

A. A. P.

XXVII.—CHANCE ENCOUNTERS.

Do you ever speculate on the character and position of the people with whom you come daily and hourly into contact, for a minute only, and then part from, never perhaps to meet again in life, or, if meeting, certainly never to recognise them? The railway passengers; the people in steamers, omnibuses, waiting at shops to be served, &c. If you go about much alone, you will find an endless interest in the little traits which sometimes reveal so much; the chance words, or sometimes only looks, which would pass unobserved by ninety-nine people out of a hundred. I am the hundredth; and I will tell you why. Matters of deeper personal interest absorb me too much to be able to think about them when I must of necessity keep a watch upon exterior things. If I opened the great volume of my own autobiography, the probability is very great that, carried away by the subject, I might walk straight past the place of my appointment, or find myself drawn up at Islington when I had meant to be on the alert, and alight at Tottenham Court Road. My life would not be worth a day's purchase if I once allowed myself the (truly) dangerous luxury of thinking very deeply when crossings had to be passed and mail carts to be avoided. No; the other plan suits me best. The little chance stories that I read, or fancy I read, endless in variety, and flitting by of themselves, so that I have not even to turn the page, but fresh characters appear uncalled for, and pass away in their turn, one effacing another, and then all swept utterly away when my walk or journey concludes, and I become an actor again instead of a mere spectator. Many hours have I passed in a succession of these harmless speculations; and scarcely one do I remember five minutes after! But I will tell you of a few which chance, more than any special interest above others, seems to have fixed on my mind. I was in an omnibus the other day going from Islington into the City, at about mid-day, when the rush of "bankers' clerks" and "commercial gentlemen" is over, and when it is too late for parties going to London Bridge to take the rail for a day in the country. Business is begun; the tide will set back at five or so; and the holiday people will return still later, with sleepy children and large bunches of sweetbrier and wall-flowers. The omnibus therefore was nearly empty when it stopped to take up two passengers. First, a little, shrivelled old woman, very feeble and very tottering, scarcely able to mount the step but for her companion's help. The other, her daughter apparently, followed more briskly, and after placing the old woman in one corner, seated herself opposite. I saw what it must be: the old woman—evidently the inhabitant of an almshouse or some charitable institution—was brought out for the day by her daughter. Poor old creature! it was pitiable to see the look of childish pleasure, amounting almost to imbecility, and something scared and startled

about her which told to me, and I think to her daughter, that charity might feed and lodge her, even provide her coals and candles, and yet not afford her other than harsh treatment. She shrunk back as a passenger got out, as if she was accustomed to be afraid of people. Her dress—a uniform of some kind—was coarse and very worn; yet, from the way she smoothed it down with her trembling hand, it must have been her best or "Sunday suit." Very thin were her hands, very sickly her face; and the bright black eyes, that now seemed dancing with delight, served to make it look more thin and wan. The daughter was comfortably dressed; in tawdry bad taste, but still good material. She must be, I thought, the wife of a shopkeeper tolerably well to do. He will not let her have her mother to live with her, though! But what struck me was the expression of the woman's face; a very commonplace, plain face it was, and yet it interested me from showing so very clearly what passed in her mind. While the old woman gazed eagerly from one window to another, attracted by the noise and show, the daughter looked at her fixedly; at her miserable clothes; at her shaking hands; at her sickly appearance, till the tears rose in her eyes, her lips quivered, and I could not tell if it were self-reproach at having allowed it, or only indignation at the unkind treatment which she perhaps more than suspected. She changed her countenance, however, instantly to smile and nod at the old woman whenever she caught her eye, and to point out now and then any fine carriage or showy shop we passed; and then the smile went off into the wistful, pained, sorrowful expression. Now and then the old woman would hold out her hand, and she would take and shake it, and echo her cracked silly laugh, and most tenderly she relieved her of a bag she held, and folded her shawl better round her.

Will you smile, and say it is only a contributor to this Journal who would have seen in these two faces anything to remind them of the "woman question"? You may smile if you will; but I confess that I went on to think how hard a position it was, and yet how common, for a woman to be herself surrounded by comfort, and yet not to have the right or the power, either through her own exertions or her own self-denial, to give help to those who had even as strong and as dear a claim on her as in this case. No; I doubt if she would even be considered justified in economizing on her own dress so as to help her mother, unless with the express permission of her husband. It would be her "duty" to live in ease and plenty, and she must not rob her family or her home of one hour of labor or one shilling of money. Neither belong to her. She is only a woman!

Railway stations, places of embarkation, and such points of departure, ought to be very favorite places of mine, for there one may study human nature at one's ease, and guess at adventures by the dozen: there lookers on are forgotten, and the most steady and impertinent of starers has no power to unclasp the clinging hands

that are so soon to separate for a long parting, or to check the tears that flow for once unrestrained by any care as to what "people may think." There one may watch the sorrow of those who are to stay, with what, in those who are to go, is often only a nervous, fidgetty desire to be off, which is made still more awkward by an anxious constrained wish to seem sufficiently concerned, and not to fail at the last. And oh! what a difference there is between the sigh of relief with which the traveller settles him or herself to a book or a newspaper, and the lingering weary way in which those left behind pass through the now deserted passages to return to their empty home.

But the very fact of all this being so patent makes one feel as if it was half treacherous and wholly ill-bred to notice more than one can help of what passes; and therefore it is, I suppose, that I have had fewer histories revealed to me in such places than in others which seemed less likely scenes of adventure.

I remember once, though, witnessing a parting which, in spite of many commonplace and a few ridiculous elements, touched me inexpressibly.

It was years and years ago, in the Place Notre Dame des Victories, whence diligences used to start before railways existed; from whence they may still go, for aught I know. The diligence was piled up, and most of the passengers were seated, when I saw a countrywoman taking leave of an ugly, vulgar, stupid looking fellow.

It is difficult to look rustic and a snob at the same time, but he managed to combine the two. He was, I think, rather tipsy, and evidently utterly unfeeling; cutting noisy jokes with some comrades who had come to see him off, and occasionally vouchsafing a half patronizing, half jocular piece of consolation to the woman; and oh! in what an agony of despair she was! She held his hand, and leaned against his shoulder, or, when he turned away, against the wall, and covered her face with her apron. Her hard-working sunburnt hands and her worn face, with more lines in it than I fancy her age warranted, told me of struggling days and toiling nights to earn money for this wretched fellow to spend at the cabaret; and now, after all, some prospect of better pay in the country had arisen, and he was going, and, if anything, I suspect was rather pleased to be freed from the silent reproach of her loving and laborious presence.

"What fools women are!" I said to myself—and not for the first time in my life—as I looked at him and wondered by what mysterious process, known only to women, she had surrounded this wretched, stupid brute with a halo that transformed him into a hero—no, into something more than a hero to her,—into the one aim and object of her existence. At last I saw her lead him aside, and drawing something from her pocket, place it in his hand. He had the grace to hesitate a moment—only a moment though—and rewarded her by a few words which brought a bright delighted look over her poor face, swollen as it was with crying. I guessed what it must be.

She had given him doubtless all, more than she could reasonably spare, and had reluctantly kept some tiny sum for her own immediate necessities; and now her heart had failed her, it would procure him some additional comfort or pleasure, and he must have that too —and he took it.

I believe when he at last extricated himself from her clinging, unreasoning hold, and climbed up to his seat, that I felt ten times more than he did; and as we creaked, and swung, and jolted on our long dusty journey, if pitying thoughts were sent back to that poor miserable woman, they were from me most certainly, and not from the noisy wretch who was boasting, shouting, and swearing, till he fell into a stupid, tipsy sleep. Poor thing! If unspoken thoughts and wishes can be transmitted, I trust mine reached her; and I hope sincerely too, that she deluded herself into thinking they came from him, and took heart and comfort accordingly.

But if the more educated classes conceal their feelings better, when these do pierce through the ordinary conventional exterior it is perhaps more terrible to see, and generally reveals more complicated and conflicting sufferings.

I remember once coming up to town by the Great Western Railway; a gentleman and his wife entered the carriage at some small station, and travelled about twenty miles with me. I gathered that they had been visiting friends (it was near Christmas time, I remember) and were returning to their own country place.

I saw—or I thought I saw—a whole story revealed in the two faces, aided by the few commonplace sentences which were exchanged during the short journey. Judge if I was over fanciful or not when I tell you what I saw, and heard, and imagined. They had been brought to the station by their hostess and some other guests; and crushed into the few moments during which the travellers took their seats was a noisy, merry farewell, mixed with some reproaches for the visit having been curtailed.

I had come from Bristol an hour before, taken the pith out of my *Times*, and so was at leisure to look up, and as usual began to speculate. The husband was middle-aged; looked gentlemanlike, good natured, and shrewd. The wife was some years younger; interesting rather than actually handsome; and though one does not remember complicated details of toilette, I am sure hers was singularly well chosen and elegant. I have an impression only of some rich grey material and delicate muslins and laces, which had a particularly soft effect, and seemed to suit the tall slight figure and the pale refined face I was looking at. A face, however, that, as the train began to move, gradually lost the formal and rather affected smile which had accompanied her farewell; lost, not the smile only, but its look of calm quiet dignity, and changed into an expression of despair: the same look which succeeds any great nervous effort, and seeing the crisis over, knows the necessity and the power of control are gone together.

I remember she had a few deep crimson roses in her hand, and they seemed to quiver with every throb of pain, with every short quick breath that parted her lips, with every nervous contraction of her hand, which grasped them with unconscious tenacity.

"What was it?" I thought.

As her husband carefully arranged a railway wrapper over her feet, adjusted the window, and unfolding his crackling newspaper, took up a comfortable position, he remarked to her that their hosts were very sorry to let them go.

"Very kind, I am sure," he went on to say; "very kind, and so anxious to keep us; for my part I would as soon have stayed a day or two longer, only you seemed to think we had better return home, so of course I seconded your refusal. But it seemed almost a pity —when you had met old friends too so unexpectedly, after so many years' absence—however, you seemed to think we must leave."

"Yes, yes," she murmured, with a strange nervous vehemence beyond the words; "yes, we must leave—better, much better to go home."

Almost as she spoke he became absorbed in his newspaper, and she—in what? In watching the landscape which flew past us—or the distant Wiltshire hills—or the grey winter sky with its driving clouds? Or, as I could not help thinking, in dreaming of the old friends—who were they?—she had met so unexpectedly—of the past which they had once filled—of the few days in which they had met again—or of the calm quiet home to which it was "better to return," and the even, tranquil future which awaited her? Why had they separated so long ago? Ah, that was not easy to guess. Why was it better to go home now? that was easier to fathom perhaps.

Well, I thought, there are bitter struggles going on, heroic resolutions made—hard, very hard moments gone through, even under the smooth, conventional, even life of a prosperous domestic family.

I turned anxiously to the gentleman; I had fancied he looked shrewd and clever, but, if so, how came he to be so unobservant? Yes, there was no doubt of either fact; and, as he caught my eye, he courteously made an observation or two upon the leading article, which he presumed I had also been studying, which confirmed my impression that he was a sharp, acute man. A question of some piece of mysterious foreign policy was just engaging the attention of the press, and had been worn threadbare with suppositions; and yet he made an entirely new suggestion, based on some minute turn which even the most critical opposition newspaper had overlooked. I forget now how far future events justified him; but right or wrong, it was the remark of a quick, observant intellect.

Why, then, did he not remark what even I saw? Why? Is it not of daily, hourly occurrence that the shrewd and the far-sighted never unveil the thinly-clouded mysteries that lie at their feet? Never see the little coil getting more and more entangled which

they hold in their very hands? So it is, and so it always will be. And as I thought and thought of these two people, he became again absorbed in his paper, and she drifted far, farther away, past happy islands, whose sight brought a flush of remembered joy on her face—through perilous storms where there had been a struggle for life and death, and on, on, over a wide, dreary, dark sea that would one day—but how far off that day seemed—reach to a golden haven of rest and peace. At last the slackening of the train roused us all, and a carriage and servants were waiting my fellow-travellers at the small station where they alighted. I do not think she had even noticed me at all, and he with the merest passing observation; and yet I had felt alternately indignant with his obtuseness, then thankful for it, and guessed at his character, his past and his future, while my heart had ached for her with a pity which, it may be, no other had even dreamed she was needing.

One of my cousins is very fond of loitering over her purchases, and to accompany her on a "shopping" expedition would be weary work for me if I had not the resource of watching and speculating on the neighboring purchasers at the counter. I saw a young lady once in a shop choosing her wedding dress, whose face, with its stern, controlled look of hopeless resignation, told me a good deal. I remember the delight with which her hard, worldly mother expatiated on the richness of the silk and discussed the merits and width of the flounces. By what series of petty persecutions or unfair persuasion had the poor girl been driven to this marriage, I wondered. I never had a stronger desire in my life to speak to a stranger, for I felt as if one word would nerve her even then, and give her strength to extricate herself, and there was no lack of power in her face. It is as well I did not, perhaps, or I might have been given in charge as drunk, or sent home in the tender care of the shopman, as crazy.

What strange alternations of hope and fear I have seen in people waiting for their letters at a country post-office!

How I have heard women, whose trembling voice and flushing face showed how much they hoped and feared, assure a companion that it was "almost impossible they could hear to-day; they did not expect it." A subtle feminine superstition that to say so gives them a better chance; or, perhaps, a slender thread thrown across the disappointment, if it does come; as they can then say—"I did not expect to hear. I said beforehand it was unlikely." And yet the gruff manner and affected unconcern of men has sometimes struck me even more painfully.

I used to fetch my letters once from a north country town regularly on Saturdays. I got there as soon as the box opened, and there, waiting week after week, was an old farmer. I remember the voice in which he asked, "Any letter for me from America yet?" and the eager eyes with which he watched the slow, stupid youth, who deliberately turned over the bundle, and told him there was

none. I know I got so interested for him that once when I caught sight of an American stamped letter, I felt as eager and excited at the chance of its being for him as if I knew why he cared.

I guessed though. I used to fancy at first he had a daughter out there, and feared she was ill or dead; but there was a hurt, mortified look, which would have been bitter if it had not been so very sad, and which decided me at last that it was some good-for-nothing boy sent out as a last chance to America, and whose not writing was rather a proof that he was wanting nothing and caring nothing, than that he was either distressed or ill. Poor old man! the tramp of his hobnailed shoes and the jovial tune that he always whistled as he walked away grew to have a pitiful sound to me. I wonder whether that letter ever came, or whether he comes for it still and never finds it.

"The posts are very uncertain. Letters are always being lost," I once heard a girl say to her friend.

Heaven forgive her for telling such a lie! I not only excused her, but I know I longed to add my testimony to hers, and endorse her assertion, when I saw the heart-broken face of the one who turned away, and looked as if on that letter rested everything in life.

I once lived in a house in London, at a corner which was a favorite place of appointment. You would fancy that there could be little enough romance in meetings between the smart servants out for a holiday and the snobbish looking individuals who are about to escort them to Highbury Barn or Cremorne Gardens. But I can tell you that at that very corner I have seen faces of terrible anxiety and agonized despair, which would have melted the stalls into tears, and sent the dress circle home in hysterics. I have seen glimpses of real tragic plots which would make the most heartrending of three volumed novels, only they would be universally blamed as improbable. Ah! they rise up before me now; all the strangers unconscious of my interest, often of my presence. And if I may sometimes have guessed wrongly, and given more sympathy perhaps than was needed, I know that now and then, for all who care to notice and observe, there are rents in the thick conventional cloud which, in this country especially, hides so jealously all deep emotions either of joy or pain. I doubt whether in any one day we may not, if we choose, amid the daily tramp and traffic of the streets, and the dull monotonous clang of the outer working world, see many pathetic glimpses of inner life, hear many an unspoken word, and give to many unconscious hearts a thought of loving sympathy and compassion.

Will it do them any good? Perhaps not.

I think, at any rate, it will do ourselves no harm.

A.

XXVIII.—A WEEK IN SCOTLAND.

You need not be afraid, dear reader, I am not going to treat of the employment of women—my friends the editors are sure to inform you fully on that subject;—but the archways of Glasgow College and the *Lion-couchant* of Edinburgh waver before my eyes; there is a savor of Finnen haddocks and a flavor of whisky in my nostrils; in my ears there is an echo of the soft *burr* of Scott and Burns; and I wish—to express my feelings.

I have seen a great many newspaper reports, abridgments, analyses, and extracts of papers, statistics as numerous as the grains of sand wherewith Thomas of Eildoun set the de'il to work to make ropes. I have seen the President's address and the Vice-Presidents' addresses, and read the thanks and compliments which everybody showered on everybody from Monday the 24th to Saturday the 29th. But I have seen no account of the real outward aspect of that many-headed thing called the *Association*, which shows a disposition to increase like those fabled dragon's teeth, from each of whom sprang "seven armed men."

Imagine that on a certain day in September deponent goes to Euston Square at the unwonted hour of nine in the morning, and accosting a railway official says, "I understand you are charging reduced fares to Glasgow, on account of the *Association?*" The official stares with an air of stolid amazement, and replies shortly and decisively, "*What* Association?" *Sic transit gloria mundi!* by which I here mean to imply, that half the glories of the world of Social Science (all, in fact, who did not travel by King's Cross and the North British), lords and commoners, physicians and barristers, clergymen and literati, gentlemen innumerable and not a few ladies, had travelled up to Glasgow by those very rails within a few previous days, and the man who sold them their tickets was perfectly oblivious of the cause of their gregarious flight. Did he think that a sudden rage for bannocks and porridge had seized some hundreds of Londoners simultaneously? or had the drought in the City been so excessive that people were going for a change to a town proverbially one of the wettest in the kingdom? I felt quite put down; the importance of my errand shrunk woefully in my imagination, while the official rejoined dryly, "We give excursion tickets and a month's leave of absence." Such were the inglorious terms on which I was compelled to pay my fare. Under the pretence of "excursion" I was allowed to pay £3 10*s.* for a ticket marked Glasgow, with the privilege of sleeping at Carlisle.

I settled my goods in a carriage and went to buy a newspaper, when, whom should I meet on the platform but a wandering Vice-President, bound like myself for Glasgow College. This Vice-President bears a name famous in one class of English reforms; but I shall not divulge it; it made me, however, anticipate with less dreariness the endless miles to be traversed that day, for the fur-

ther solace whereof I bought a *Dispatch*, which I diligently studied for the first hour, with the intention to post the same from Carlisle to a friend whose continental sympathies possess the extraordinary merit of originality, inasmuch as he does *not* sympathise with Garibaldi! (For my part I find him quite refreshing—meaning, not Garibaldi, but my dissonant friend.) But I am bound to declare that I found the *Dispatch* of the 22nd of September so horribly democratic, so exceedingly vicious on everything and everybody connected with "the days that are no more," that I actually concluded my friend would take it as a personal insult, and determined not to send it to him.

Having comforted myself with this cheerful and peaceable and Christian literature as far as Rugby, I found we had left the main line of commerce, and were diverging far to the right, amidst the green pastures of Tamworth and Lichfield. What a fair flat England it is! How warm and snug she looks as we roll from village to village, from one little red brick town to another. It was at Tamworth that our last great statesman loved to dwell: though it was *not* at Drayton Manor that "Sir Robert" was brought home to die. It was at Lichfield that Dr. Johnson first saw the light: his father kept a bookseller's shop, as every one very well knows; but everybody may not remember "Mrs. Elizabeth Blaney," who followed Michael Johnson from Teak, in Staffordshire, where he served his apprenticeship, took lodgings opposite his house, and, in the language of those days, "indulged her hopeless flame." Michael Johnson, full of a "generous humanity," hearing of her plight, went across and "offered to marry her;" but "*it was too late, her vital power was exhausted,*" she died, and was buried in Lichfield Cathedral, with this affecting epitaph—

HERE LIES THE BODY OF
MRS. ELIZABETH BLANEY, A STRANGER:
SHE DEPARTED THIS LIFE
20TH OF SEPTEMBER, 1694.

Oh traveller! journeying rapidly by express over the obliterated counties whose very names are unmarked on a railway map, remember that every town has yet its history, and every hamlet its romance!

It was at Rugely, small and quiet, with a square church tower, that Palmer ran his ill career; at Stafford he was tried, and toward Stafford the eyes and ears of all the kingdom turned. It is quiet enough to-day. It was perhaps owing to some subtle unrecognised association that the Vice-President here roused himself, and began discoursing on the death rate of different localities, and the wonderful powers conferred by modern sanitary science of calculating the effects of certain remedies. Said the Vice-President, "If I had plenary powers, I would *contract* to diminish the death rate of certain localities in a given time by so much per cent. My drains and my paving, and my building and my ventilating, would tell on the

amount of sickness and death with the certainty of a law." What has become of the Angel of Death, with sword uplifted? what of the genius with torch reversed, in whom the ancients believed? Modern science hedges him into a narrow track,—snatches the children from under his grasp,—gives up the old man of three score and ten to the inevitable destroyer, but casts a shield of protection over man and matron, youth and maid, and is willing to "contract" that the scythe of the mower shall be too blunt to cut down the grass of the field.

This singular discourse and these lively reflections were cut short by the entrance of a—Dutchman, who took his seat at Wigan, and was likewise bound for the Association. Alas! he was far from resembling the typical Dutchman of our picture-books. He was not a bit like Mynheer van Dunk, who never got drunk, though he "sipped brandy and water daily." He was neither red, nor round, nor very short; and he spoke very good English. He had been sent over by some "parties connected with insurance," and he entered into discourse with the Vice-President on the bad sanitary condition of the canals at Rotterdam. He was much excited about the Cumberland mountains, and disappointed when we told him they were hardly visible from the railway; but we showed him the lovely grey vision of Morecambe Bay, looming softly in the twilight, like an artist's study in neutral tints, and that was the last we saw of the face of nature. Twilight deepened and darkened, and we rolled from Lancaster up to Kendal Junction, and thence to Penrith. It was pitch dark when we snorted and whistled with weary throbbing heads into the great station of "merrie Carlisle."

The next morning saw us driven forth again by the unresting spirit of Social Science, past Gretna, where folks go to get married no more; past Solway Firth, which always reminds one of the sands o' Dee; past Locherbie where lingers an echo of the dance-music amidst which his stolen bride was vaulted into the saddle by young Lochinvar, then right through the heart of Scottish hills, till ugly chimneys loom, and fierce fires belch out by daylight, looking ghastly in the sun, and buildings thicken, and smoke gets blacker, and the atmosphere decidedly objectionable, and we stop to have our tickets taken, and finally tumble out more dead than alive on to the platform at Glasgow.

But there is no rest for the scientific;—they must look for lodgings:—and where on earth are they to find them in this wilderness of brick and mortar? We—meaning myself and a companion, whom I had picked up at Carlisle—set our luggage on to a cab, and drive to the "Office of the Association," of which the address has been printed into our brains for some weeks past. But there is no one at the "Office," which is a merchant's private counter, and we are told that all letters, addresses, lodgings, acquaintances, General Secretary included, are to be left and found at the "Reception Room." Off again to the Reception Room, a huge apartment in the Trades'

Hall, where are numerous counters with tickets, prospectuses, and addresses;—we inquire breathlessly for the General Secretary; the General Secretary is not there, but at the College. Off again to the College, trunks and all; into the heart of old Glasgow, across a main street, through a black old archway, into a black old quadrangle, up a grand flight of black old stairs, past a black old door, into a very black old room, wainscoted from ceiling to floor, and the best part of four hundred years old, and there is the General Secretary in a state of distraction, amidst a dozen talking luminaries of Social Science, and piles of MSS., which are always disappearing when wanted, and turning up when superfluous; and to that amiable functionary and personal friend we helplessly stagger, demanding—lodgings.

The General Secretary immediately gets more distracted than ever, and says, "You should go to the Reception Room." We helplessly reply, "We have just come from there." So a Glasgow gentleman takes pity on our affliction, dismounts the trunks, and hunts up a messenger, who presently appears, an immense tall Scotchman with light curly hair and a good-natured face, and a blue badge of Social Science round his arm, and he takes us in tow, and gives us a printed list of lodgings, and strides on in advance, with much the air of Ben Lomond trotting out Hampstead and Highgate Hill on a pedestrian excursion.

We desire to be near the College; the College being for the nonce the centre of existence in Glasgow, and it is decided that we are to try South Mecklenburgh Street, where apparently are several lodgings to let; names and prices being affixed. Now South Mecklenburgh Street (that's *not* the name, so you need not look for it on the map at the back of your old ticket) is as nearly perpendicular as anything I ever saw of the nature of a street. We are accustomed in London to think Holborn Hill a respectable acclivity, and some of the houses in Clerkenwell tolerable specimens of an incline; but South Mecklenburgh Street, Glasgow, is so steep that cabs and horses have a tendency to go skirting round a quarter of a mile, and descend upon it from the top, (in as much as a quadruped by firmly planting his fore-feet down hill has a better chance of standing steady than if all the weight hung (figuratively) on his tail,) and when brought to a standstill they invariably do so in a long slant across the street, on some instinctive principle of mechanical safety, or else double up in various acute angles, forty-five degrees and under.

But I am anticipating;—we are yet looking out for lodgings, and our tall Scotchman plunges into a high doorway at the bottom of the incline, and presently emerges informing us that Mrs. Macgilivray has not "let." We enter, and follow him under an arched passage right through the house into a court at the back, flanked by two round towers, such as you might see at Cawdor Castle. In each is a staircase, and at the top of the one on the left lives Mrs. Macgilivray, professing to let a sitting-room and two beds. We enter the sitting-room, large and very gloomy; Mrs. M. throws open a cupboard door,

and there before our astonished eyes is a bed made up apparently on a cupboard shelf, wherein, if one slept, one would certainly be devoured by the rats, or else get locked up like Ginevra, and never be heard of again. Our stout Saxon hearts quail, and we run down the turret stair considerably faster than we came up, assuring our tall guide with the blue badge of Social Science that "It won't do at all." We refer to the next on our list—same street—Mrs. Macdonald—but her rooms are let. Finally we stop at ninety-three, written down as Mrs. Mackenzie's. Into ninety-three we go: up one flight of stairs,—Mr. Forbes; up two flights of stairs,—Mrs. Ramsay; up three flights of stairs,—Mr. Stewart;—good gracious, where does this lady live?—up four flights of (stone) stairs—and a neat brass plate announces Mrs. Mackenzie at last. Now do not think, dear reader, that I am going to lay bare the sacred hospitalities of an honest Scotch hearth. Too well I know that the Lares and Penates of every home watch the portals with finger on the lips; suffice it that at the first sight of Mrs. Mackenzie and her sweet little daughter we closed at once; forgot the four flights of stone stairs, and the steep flags of South Mecklenburgh Street, and settled in, trunks and all (how they got up, the brawny shoulders of the Scotch cabman only knows) and forthwith sent our names with the above address to the "list of members" published every day for the comfort and curiosity of visitors to the Association.

And now that I have brought you so far, dear reader, I feel a certain hesitation as to what shall be said—what left unsaid—I need not describe the "President's Address," delivered in the evening at the City Hall, where the white-haired President sketched the triumphs of the year, and enunciated the claims of 1861 with the same accents which had addressed the sires and grandsires of that very assemblage in the city of Glasgow *sixty years ago*.

Do you want to know what an Association looks like on the outside? I will try and describe it.

In the heart of old Glasgow city, where the irregular streets are mercifully left to the caprice of antiquity, not far from the cathedral which Knox preserved, when Melrose and Dunfermline were laid bare to the winds of heaven, stands Glasgow College. It is more than four hundred years old, and owes its origin to one of the popes. It is curiously black and sombre, and there is not a straight line about it. The wall seems to stand crooked with the street, and the grand old tower stands crooked to the rest of the building; it reminds one of the palace of the Doges at Venice, whose specific beauty, according to Ruskin, consists in its utter want of rule and line. The College has turrets in the corners of the quadrangle—turrets with peaked tops like a witch's cap; and the staircase, on which fabulous beasts mount guard, is of massive stone, and winds from the Fore-Hall over the main entrance down into the quadrangle—again like the Doges' palace. A splendid room is this Fore-Hall, dark and paneled; the floor is polished, and at the head of the long table

is an ancient chair, with an hour-glass let into its crests, as if to warn him who sits therein not to hold forth too prosily. But this Fore-Hall was unused during the busy week, save by a few loungers or letter-writers, who made their way in for the sake of the peace and quiet not to be found elsewhere. For some reason it is considered as sacred to Learning and her councils, and nothing so modern as Social Science can be admitted. Whenever I entered that room I bethought me of the Scottish lords of Queen Mary's time; on such a scene would they have played their parts, and hatched conspiracies guarded by the dagger and the sword.

Where, then, were the "Sections" held? In the class-rooms of the College, where the students are wont to assemble in pursuit of materia medica, philosophy, or Greek. Public Health settled itself comfortably in the Greek Class-room, and there held forth for four days in the most cheerful manner on small-pox, scarlet-fever, and consumption, on the influence of tobacco smoking, and the prevention of accidents. Galen and Hippocrates must have been very much astonished, if their ghosts lingered on the Greek benches, to hear of the astonishing recipes come up since their time; and Mercury, the god of thieving and medicine combined, might have stolen the last new dodges in the healing art, to practise on Olympus, if he paid proper attention to information collected on the banks of the Clyde, unless, indeed, the exceeding multiplicity of the truths unfolded *gratis* destroyed his desire for acquisition.

Education abode in the Common Hall, the largest of all the rooms, and there Sir James Kay Shuttleworth guided the discussion in his own excellent and sympathetic style. But Punishment and Reformation were obliged to cross the street, and set up their tent in a large class-room out of the College itself, agreeing as best they might. Here it was that Miss Carpenter read to a densely crowded audience, and Dr. Guthrie poured out the most eloquent and humorous speech, by all accounts, delivered during the week. Jurisprudence found shelter within the main building, and was vigorously attended by lawyers. And, lastly, Social Economy, divided into three sections, talked away more vigorously than all the others on every subject under the sun. Here it was that the trades' unions waxed warm indeed, and taxation levied its due. Here it was that papers which appeared to have lost their way out of other departments, strayed and stumbled, and were taken in. Here it was also, I believe, that a certain mysterious subject called "General Average" grew and flourished. I did not hear it; I do not know in the least what it means; I only know that every now and then an inquiry being made for Mr. Brown, it was whispered, "He is in at *General Average*," and I used to speculate what on earth it could mean. An average in money, population, cloth, or bacon, is an idea into which I can enter—but what in the world is a *General* Average? I remember inextricable sums in the arithmetic book about emptying gallons into so many quart pots, and wretched nightmares of the relations

existing between a mile and an inch; but I always understood that troy weight was in quite another category, and that the one would by no means divide by the other, nor produce any multiple of the same. No! not even on the famous principle that if poker, tongs, and shovel cost 5*s*., what will the coals come to?

I shall feel personally and exceedingly obliged if any gentleman will write a letter in the next Open Council, and inform the lady readers of this Journal what General Average does mean—provided the subject can be *reduced to terms*.

Now any body with the smallest sense of humor, and the largest share of unconcern for the feelings of their neighbors, might draw delightful pictures of the human race on Social Science bent. There is one element of fun to nine elements of wisdom in these meetings;—and the presence of numerous ladies adds a certain warmth and humanity to the scene. Immense is the excitement felt to hear the half dozen who actually read, and immense is the courtesy bestowed upon them. When Miss Carpenter's soft distinct tones are to be heard, the room, large or small, is sure to be packed with listeners, wedged together like "herrings in a barrel;" a vulgar simile, but very expressive. Then the ladies of the chief local families are all there, and they give grand dinner parties, and dress with sumptuous magnificence, and invite the strangers to their large houses, fitted up with a luxurious cost which Manchester can rival but cannot surpass. All Glasgow turned out in the evening to the great public *soirées*, and feasted the entire Association with tea and coffee, wine and ices, till I was reminded of those gardens in the old fairy-tales where sweetmeats grew upon the trees, and the rivers flowed champagne.

But the final burst of hospitable feeling was displayed at the closing meeting in the Common Hall on the Saturday. *Epitaphs* were nothing to it. Everybody had his portrait drawn and held up to the admiring gaze of hundreds. The President was universally allowed to be (what no one can well deny him) the first man of the age;—the Vice-Presidents had honored the city of Glasgow by their presence to a degree which well-nigh choked the said city with gratitude. They replied that the city was second only in attractions to the Islands of the Blest, and of considerably greater commercial importance. The Association coughed and stamped and cheered at the Principal of the College for giving them houseroom;—and the Reverend Principal replied, that the College would thenceforth be perfumed with Social Science as with attar of roses (or something to the same effect). The only person, who may be said to have received no thanks was Pope Nicholas, who built the College, and one of the Vice-Presidents, who got into a slight hobble in his speech, and with consummate tact brought himself up sharp on the Reformation, at which Glasgow and the Association united, and stamped and cheered louder than ever.

And then, the gay and busy assemblage broke up, and melted

away by some sudden magic, oozing back into a thousand homes.—Glasgow gathered itself into Sabbath-eve stillness; the General Secretary went off to the mountains, accompanied by an instalment of each Department. Rumor reported that they were all seen on the Monday drinking whisky toddy in the Highlands, but I cannot believe such an incredible tale.

The writer of this sketch lingered two days on the deserted scene, and went to hear a noble sermon by Dr. Norman MacLeod, who told his congregation that after all, the Social Science of which they had been hearing so much, was but one growth of Christianity;—without which the five Departments might lay their heads together in vain.

XXIX.—THE OPINIONS OF JOHN STUART MILL.

PART II.—CO-OPERATION.

NEAR the close of our last article the reader will find, upon reference, a passage upon the advantages of co-operation; and a recent discussion on this subject which took place at the meeting of the Social Science Association, has caused me to think that a complete analysis of that passage may be more useful to our readers than prolonged extracts bearing on different points of social economy.

John Stuart Mill stands pre-eminent among political economists as the apostle of co-operation; and his scientific reputation was perhaps slightly damaged in former years by the suffrage he bestowed on an idea little in favor with "hard-headed men;" yet it has gradually risen even to a greater height through the very standpoint which he assumed in regard to this question; and the *principle*, as it is now allowed to be, having fought its way year by year, amidst many failures and some disgraces, may be considered fairly established. The only point yet mooted is the extent to which it can be carried out by the actual men of this work-a-day world.

Believing that co-operation may be made peculiarly useful to women, I intend to begin at the beginning, and to state in the simplest words what it is—taking for granted that my readers have not studied political economy.

Co-operation, in the commercial sense, implies an application of the joint stock principle: that the money with which a concern—say a grocer's shop, or a tailor's business, or even a factory—is carried on, has been clubbed together by different people, who appoint a manager and share the profits. This is what we usually mean by co-operation in trade, and it is not true and real unless the shares are actually shares *owned* by different hands. For instance; if a committee of benevolent people set to work to benefit any class of sufferers, or to improve the condition of any class of artisans, and if this committee collect subscriptions and distribute relief, or even

if it organizes self-supporting plans, it is still not a *co-operative* body in the trade sense of the word.

There must be a joint stock, a common fund, clubbed together yet nominally divided, and actually divisible; just as A, B, C, and D, might own a great cask of wine, so many quarts to each. And this common fund may be used or divided in various ways; the shares may be equal or unequal, the government of the different parts of the concern may be federal or strictly democratic; and so on. Only it is necessary that there shall be shares, and proportionate profits, and that in some way the concern shall be self-governed.

Self-government is the root of the idea, for which reason Mr. Mill says, "*the peculiar characteristic, in short, of civilized beings is the capacity of co-operation.*"

And this refers to all moral as well as to all commercial co-operation. The savage cannot co-operate in a sphere higher than that of the yelling war-dance. The submissive hordes of Eastern despotisms were ranged in ranks under one master, but they did not co-here in mutual activity. There are two conditions under which men associate firmly; the influence of intellectual ideas and moral feelings, such as swayed the Greek communities and the Roman republic; and of *religion*, which fuses the will of many into One.

Even in Pagan nations these combined secular and religious influences have sufficed to create vigorous social life. But the triumph of co-operation in its more extended moral sense was reserved for Christianity to declare. The commerce of Christian Europe,—of Venice, of Florence, of Holland, showed it in the middle ages in a secular form; the countless pious orders for conversion, for teaching, and for solace, showed it in a religious aspect. In our own Church every day sees some fresh attempt at active combination; and the Methodist "class meetings" express the same need.

It is not without design that I refer to the more strictly moral and religious meaning of the word, because it lies at the basis of the commercial one. Before people can take shares in a coal-mine, appoint a manager, and divide the profits, they must be able to trust each other and the man whom they appoint; they must agree on the principles of trade, and keep their tempers one towards the other. It is therefore easy to see that when civil peace is established, and trade principles are pretty much the same in every town, and merchants and traders find their transactions can go on from year to year in peace and quietness, they will naturally begin to think whether they cannot apply the principle of united action to greater profit.

"*Accordingly, there is no more certain incident of the progressive change taking place in society, than the continual growth of the principle and practice of co-operation.*"

Without entering too deeply into the history of the question, we will consider the reasons which first turned the minds of speculative

men in this direction: the first of which is the immense importance now attaching to the production of wealth. It is quite a modern idea, at least in its modern sense. Of course individuals at all times liked riches; plenty to eat, to drink, and to spend; but if they failed to acquire them they acquiesced more quietly than they do now. Commerce ran more in a groove: there was a commercial class, and there were commercial cities *par excellence*. Every city is now commercial, or struggling to become so. The modern idea of capital was formerly pretty much confined to Jews and Lombards, and burghers of the middle class. Now, every gentleman considers how he may best lay his out to advantage.

But what is the result of money thus rolling over and over, and accumulating like a snowball at every revolution? There is immensely more gold, also more meat and drink and clothes; and yet somehow the distribution among the increased population is not quite satisfactory; since Mr. Fawcett says in *Macmillan's Magazine* for October, that the laborer has not as much to eat and drink as he had in the reign of Henry VIII. The money and the food must lie somewhere *in drifts;* and as neither the aristocracy of rank nor the aristocracy of trade can eat and drink and wear more than a limited amount in a year, it behoves us to seek some method of spreading the necessaries of life over a larger class. When we begin to investigate causes, it appears that one great power underlies all modern trade—the power of capital. Plenty of capital, absolute security for that capital, and rapid contrivances to make that capital turn round and double itself at every turn, these are the Articles of Trade.

Now mark the result: the man with capital is not merely a *double* man, but a *tenfold* man: he is not merely a man and money, but a moneyed man. His power has increased in a geometrical ratio. If you want the proof, it lies in this, that a man with £100,000 can use up the labor of say five thousand of his fellow-creatures, paying *them* a fraction of what he gets *himself.*

Yet what is to be done? His advantage is perfectly fair. He saved his money, and his money has made him equal to ten men. He has made a huge lever, and of course he can lift immense weights. If he chooses to buy up the Highlands and turn off the cottars, you can hardly interfere with him under the present laws of property; and if he takes a freak and shuts up his mill, the workmen must go to the union. Of course it is very unlikely that he will do anything very unreasonable. He has his interests and also his character to consult; and it is possible that he is one of the best of men, and that he and his family are doing all they can for the comfort and instruction of the workpeople. All I wish to point out is, that he actually does possess an enormous power; that thousands of his fellow-creatures are in his hand; and that, in the words of a French thinker, *les barons de la Feodalité* are only replaced by *les barons de l'Industrie.*

What then can be done to balance this new power? It may be said that in a free country all men are free to save and take an even chance of becoming capitalists. It is true that they are so far on an equality; yet would it not be far better if, instead of having, as now, an equal chance of standing on a summit, all honest and industrious men could calculate on a more even remuneration, and be raised to a higher level?

This problem has engaged the attention of many acute intellects and benevolent hearts during this century, and they seem to be agreed on one point, namely—that any return to production on a small scale is become impossible. "A people," observes Mr. Mill, "who have once adopted the large system of production, either in manufactures or in agriculture, are not likely to recede from it; nor, when population is kept in due proportion to the means of support, is there any sufficient reason why they should. Labor is unquestionably more productive on the system of large industrial enterprises: the produce, if not greater absolutely, is greater in proportion to the labor employed: the same number of persons can be supported equally well with less toil and greater leisure; which will be wholly an advantage as soon as civilization and improvement have so far advanced that what is a benefit to the whole shall be a benefit to each individual composing it. The problem is, to obtain the efficiency and economy of production on a large scale, without dividing the producers into two parties with hostile interests, employers and employed, the many who do the work being mere servants under the command of the one who supplies the funds, and having no interest of their own in the enterprise, except to fulfil their contract and earn their wages."

The joint stock principle is capable of solving this problem, and is now rapidly becoming recognised by all classes of trades. But its battles have been most severe, partly on account of its apparently democratic tendency, partly because it early became mixed up with moral and social questions with which it has properly no necessary concern. It was successively associated in the public mind with the St. Simonians, the Fourierites, and the disciples of Robert Owen; the followers of the three systems of social philosophy, though they by no means agreed among themselves, all united in appreciating the value of co-operation in every department of life, and as their moral theories were strongly opposed both to religion and to common sense, a kindred slur attached itself to the principle of associated labor upon which their speculations reposed as a basis. Its inherent truth, however, gradually caused it to make way. Experiments were tried and found to answer; an application of it was made by a house-painter in Paris, a M. Leclaire, who published an account of his system of operation as early as 1842. Many other co-operative establishments have been formed during the last twenty years in Paris, and their commercial success has been signal, although being more or less worked by men who came

into prominence in 1848, they have succeeded *under the rose*,—and less has been heard about them than would otherwise have been the case.

But strange to say, it is in England, conservative England, that the great triumphs have been achieved, and that the joint stock *principle* has quietly invaded all parts of trade, while it is in England also that co-operation in the stricter sense has received its most striking development. In proof of the first assertion look at the joint stock companies now in vogue for every purpose, from the building of the Great Eastern to the supplying of the public with pure tea. Every railway company is joint stock, and joint stock banks are in every town. The late Limited Liability Act afforded a protection to companies which had long been granted in France, and enabled many to be started which it would otherwise have been impossible to attempt, since a dozen people will easily be found to risk £100 each, and *that only*, who would not risk their whole fortune on anything which they could not constantly inspect and efficiently control. Thus it is that Mr. Mill says, "*Associations of individuals voluntarily combining their small contributions, now perform works, both of an industrial and of many other characters, which no one person, or small number of persons, are rich enough to accomplish, or for the performance of which the few persons capable of accomplishing them were formerly enabled to exact the most inordinate remuneration.*" His further prediction, that "as wealth increases and business capacity improves, we may look forward to a great extension of establishments both for industrial and other purposes, formed by the collective contributions of large numbers," is in daily process of accomplishment; and I would now draw attention to the gradual growth among us of co-operative societies in the stricter sense of the word. The most signal success has been achieved by the Rochdale Mill, which formed the main subject of the late discussion at Glasgow. A description of this experiment, which rose from such small beginnings to so magnificent a result, is most fitly included in a short report of the morning's proceedings.

The third paper on the list was delivered as an address by Mr. H. Fawcett, the subject being—"How the Condition of the Laboring Classes may be raised by Co-operation." He commenced by quoting the opinion of Mr. Hallam, that the working man now-a-days is not in such a good position to maintain a family as he was formerly. Undoubtedly a painfully prominent fact in our present social condition is that our *laboring classes do not save*. Such being the case, the question naturally arises,—Can they be enabled and induced to save, and how? In his opinion that question was answered and the difficulty solved by the system of co-operation; and the object of an association like the present, and all who wish well to the working classes, should be to put before them the great advantage of such establishments as are now in prosperous existence in Rochdale and Leeds. Mr. Fawcett then went considerably into detail with

respect to the rise and progress of those thriving joint stock concerns. An important element in their history he would beg particularly to mention, viz., they were originally established, and since conducted solely and entirely, by the working men themselves, without either patronage or interference from any quarter whatever.

The paper following on the list, entitled "Co-operative Societies," by Dr. Watts, was read in his absence by Mr. Holmes. The subject being identical with the last, and time being short, Mr. Holmes gave but a *résumé* of the contents, from which I give the following extracts.

"In November, a month after the last meeting of the Association for the Promotion of Social Science, Mr. William Chambers startled his readers by his account of a visit to the Rochdale 'Co-operative Association.' A few facts extracted from that paper will be a fitting introduction to our subject:—'There were three shops belonging to the society—one on the right hand side in going down the street (Toad Lane), and two on the left—the concern having evidently outgrown its original dimensions, and been fain to get houseroom in any form near at hand. The right hand store was apparently the ancient and metropolitan centre of affairs, and besides the shop, which contained two counters, there were apartments upstairs appropriated to different purposes. The higher floor consisted of a room for Board meetings, which was lined with presses full of books, and of another apartment used as a reading-room. On the opposite side of the street one of the shops had the street floor occupied by a large table for the cutting up and sale of meat; above was a storeroom for flour and other articles, also an office, with desk and ledgers. The third shop was appropriated to the sale of materials for wearing apparel. The society dates from 1844. It originated in the efforts of a few weavers to better a condition which Chartism, strikes, communism, and other pretentious agencies, left pretty much as they found it. By dividing the town into districts, and appointing collectors, the committee of management combined to scrape together somewhere about £36. A third of the sum collected was spent on some absolutely necessary fixtures and shop apparatus, there being left about £24 wherewith to buy in a stock to begin business. They rented a shop at £10 per annum. The credit system, which had foundered all preceding attempts, was most resolutely avoided. All purchases, and all sales, were for ready money, or "brass," as it is called in Yorkshire; no matter what were the exigencies, or what the character of buyers, down they must lay the brass on the counter before an article could be removed. Originally the store was opened only at certain hours, but in 1851 it was opened all day, a regular superintendent and shopmen being appointed.

"'At the end of 1858 the Equitable Pioneers' Co-operative Society consisted of 1,950 members, and the funds amounted to £18,160 5*s.* 4*d.* The business done during the year was £71,689, and the

profit made, £6,284 17*s.* 4½*d.* The average weekly receipt was £1,600. We have to add a still more interesting fact. Two and a half per cent. off net profits were, by the constitution of the society, devoted to what are termed educational purposes; properly speaking, the support of the library and reading-room. The library now contains 3000 volumes of useful and entertaining literature; the tables of the reading-room are covered with papers, and the loan of books and the perusal of papers are alike free to the members.' Thus far, Mr. Chambers' recent inquiry fully confirms the accuracy of his account; but justice requires the statement that this society, like most of the attempts at co-operative stores and manufactories during the last twenty-five years, have originated amongst men who were formerly communists of the school of Robert Owen—who, undaunted by many failures, have retained their faith in the co-operative principle, until they have achieved success. The societies are the solid and practicable remnant of the teaching of Robert Owen, and are proof of the wisdom of attempting only such improvement at any time as society is fit for and can appreciate. Owen's proposed economical arrangements did not fit in; the required change was too great, and the result was failure. In June, 1844, says one of the most active members of the Rochdale Society, it was believed that no member could or would subscribe more than twopence per week per share; and when one offered to lay down 2*s.* 6*d.* and another 5*s.*, the offers caused great surprise, and some consternation was evident when an enthusiastic member offered to venture 20*s.* There are now seven other stores in Rochdale than those described by Mr. Chambers, and, reckoning the shops taken for the sale of flesh meat, drapery, tailoring, shoemaking, clogging, &c., there are sixteen separate establishments all connected with this one society. The number of members in June, 1860, was 3,100, and according to the quarterly statement then issued, the amount of business for this year will be £140,000, and the probable gains, after paying all expenses, will be £14,500. The Rochdale District Corn Mill Society, as stated by Mr. Chambers, was commenced in 1850, principally by the members of the original Co-operative Society. The first year or two involved them in a loss of £421; but, taking the quarter ending in June last as an average quarter, the business of the present year will amount to £120,000, and the gains to £10,000. In the quarter ending in June last the profits divided in the stores was 2*s.* 5*d.* in the pound; and in the flour mill 1*s.* 6*d.* in the pound. The library at the store is now increased to 4000 volumes, and about 200 newspapers and periodicals are taken weekly in the reading-room. The cost is about £400 per annum. In the grocery department the total cost of wages and management does not exceed 2¾*d.* in the pound, and if the tailoring, shoemaking, and clogging departments be included, the average cost of management for the whole is less than 2½ per cent. The society has also given donations to the dispensary, the deaf and dumb and blind asylums, and to the Manchester Infir-

mary, and has presented a handsome drinking fountain to the borough of Rochdale.

* * * * * * *

"A gentleman who has watched the progress of the Rochdale Societies from the commencement says :—'The alteration produced in the habits of the members is wonderful; men who were formerly of dissipated habits, women who were extravagant and troublesome to their husbands, have all been wonderfully improved; drunkenness is greatly diminished, and plenty and cheerfulness now reign in many houses where want and degradation were common.' As a proof of the class of men who are members of these societies, it may be stated that not more than 200 out of 3,100 occupy houses which confer a borough vote for a member of Parliament, and who, although intelligent and moral enough to appreciate, adopt, and manage large trading concerns, are yet shut out from any part in the business of the nation. The early history and struggles of one of these societies very fairly illustrates that of most of them. The Rawtenstall Industrial Society was commenced in 1850 by six working-men. They managed to save a few shillings each, and bought one load of meal or flour. They then rented a cottage as a store at 1*s.* 3*d.* per week, and met every evening to dispose of their goods. At the end of the first quarter they divided 1*s.* 6*d.* in the pound on purchases, after paying 5 per cent on capital. They were soon obliged to take larger premises. They now own the building used as a store, and have a paid-up capital of £3000, and number 387 members, and their business amounts to about £310 weekly, and they generally divide about 2*s.* in the pound quarterly on the purchases. A purchaser who is too poor to pay for a share is allowed to rank for profits on his purchases until the price of a share is realized. Alexander Redgrave, Inspector of Factories, in his report 30th April, 1860, referring to co-operative manufacturing concerns, says :—'Co-operative societies have multiplied greatly since the passing of the Limited Liability Act. They are composed generally of operatives. Each society has a capital of £10,000 and upwards, divided into shares of £5 and £10 each, with power to borrow in certain proportions to the capital subscribed; and the money borrowed is made up of small loans by operatives and persons of the like class.' Upon the establishment of joint stock companies under a limited liability, a man with £5 or £10 has been enabled to procure a high rate of interest (I am informed that one of these societies paid interest to the shareholders at the rate of 40 per cent. last year), and he has a voice at the general meetings in appointing the managers or directors of the property, and in the general regulation of the affairs of the society. Here, then, are strong inducements for a man to save a little. He has in his own town, and with a full knowledge of the whole concern, a paying investment for his savings. He has his share in the management, and his property in the society is recognised, and is disposable at its

market value. It will be most interesting to watch the progress of these co-operative establishments, and the part taken in them by the working classes, to whom a new field is open which may have most important consequences to their well-being and their independence of character.

* * * * * * *

"An examination of the report and balance-sheet of the Leeds Industrial Society, for the half-year ending December, 1859, shows that the business done amounted to £19,516, or about £750 per week, and the profit was £1,012, which, after paying the working expenses, allowed a distribution amongst the members of 2*s.* per sack on flour, 2*s.* 6*d.* in the pound on grocery, and 8*d.* per pound on clothing. The Leeds, Pudsey, &c., Society is just struggling into prosperity after a first year of loss, its balance-sheet for 1859 shows a profit of £360, and a prospect of great future success. There is a store in Manchester with three branches, and two others just opening. Its report for the quarter ending June, 1860, shows a business of £3,457, or about £266 per week. There are 600 members, and they have a news-room at the central and another at one of the branch stores. They divided, for the last quarter, 1*s.* 8*d.* in the pound, and carried a small balance forward. There is a second store in the Hulme township of Manchester turning over about £130 per week in a shop where an ordinary tradesman would think he did well if he took £20 per week. At this store also they divide quarterly about 1*s.* 6*d.* to 1*s.* 9*d.* in the pound. The practical result of these establishments appears, therefore, to be to enable the members to secure unadulterated food at the prices generally charged for the adulterated, and to give also from seven and a half to ten per cent. discount; in other words, they put the poorest man upon a par with the richest, so far as the purchase of food and clothing are concerned; they do for the articles of the workman's daily consumption what freehold land and building societies have done for land and houses, they sell by retail at wholesale prices; but they do also more than this, by offering 5 per cent. interest on £1 and upwards in the shape of shares, and giving a voice in the management of the concern, they stimulate to prudential investments, and they educate in self-government the most important as well as most numerous class of society; and the co-operative manufactories carry on this education by increasing the workman's interest in the quality of his productions, promoting a high sense of duty along with the feeling of independence arising from the fact that the man is working for the character of his own establishment, for his own ultimate competency as well as for present wages."

Having no more space for extracts from Mr. Watts' most valuable paper, I will just say that in the discussion which followed, I became strongly impressed with the applicability of the principle to female labor. A business managed on co-operative principles is deprived of half its strain. If twenty people club together to purchase

food or clothing wholesale, and agree to repurchase what they personally require at the ordinary retail price which they would pay in any other shop, it is evident that they create a business which will pay a profit besides employing a manager, clerks, &c., according to the scale on which it is established. I will conclude by summing up thus in a most practical manner: *If twenty ladies in any town would club together £5 a-piece, they might open a stationery shop, to which, if they gave all their own custom, they might secure a profit after employing a female manager, and if the business increased, female clerks also.*

B. R. P.

XXX.—NOTICES OF BOOKS.

The Physiology of Common Life. By George Henry Lewes. In Two vols. Blackwood and Sons.

It is the gift of Mr. Lewes to impart knowledge in so genial and pleasant a manner that the driest subjects become transformed beneath the magic of his pen. "Seaside Studies," with all its technical detail and philosophical minutiæ, is interesting as a romance, and "The Physiology of Common Life" tells us all about how we breathe, and eat, and drink, in so fascinating a manner that these necessities of our being, hitherto performed without a thought as to their why and wherefore, suddenly assume an interest which grows and grows with the skilful unfolding of the wonders by which we live, and move, and have our being. There are two ways of reviewing a book: one, by which the reviewer shows his own ingenuity and skill; the other, by which the author is allowed to speak for himself, and we shall, in this instance, choose the latter. No one can tell what he has to say so well as Mr. Lewes, and if his ventures in the new field of literature he has of late years entered upon be open to the charge that they are at times also ventures in the field of science, it is not here that we shall break a lance with him on the subject, or weigh with nicety the disputed points which he may or may not have settled upon sufficient evidence. For much that is highly instructive and valuable, we must refer the reader to the book itself; we extract a most useful and suggestive passage:—

The Digestive Process, with Reference to Every-day Life.

"V. *Causes of Indigestion.*—In unfolding the various stages of the digestive process, we have at the same time unfolded several of the causes which may disturb that process, and afflict human beings with a slight or terrible attack of Indigestion.

"It is certain that if the food be not well masticated and saturated with saliva, we must have the powerful gastric juice of a dog, or a lion, to compensate this deficiency; otherwise a larger proportion of the unchanged food will be transmitted to the intestines than they can well manage, or will lie like a load oppressing the stomach. The starch will descend in lumps, and although much of it will be dissolved by intestinal digestion, some will pass away undigested.

"If the secretion of Gastric Juice be languid, or if that fluid be not sufficiently acid, chymification will be laborious and painful. If the bile rise in the stomach, digestion will cease; if the secretion of bile be too scanty, the food will lie like a burden, and produce diarrhœa or sickness; and so on to the end of the chapter. Let there be only a little less acid, or a little more alkali, each of which depends on complex conditions, and Digestion, which to the young and healthy is as easy as it is delightful, becomes the source of misery.

"Ill-selected food is one source of these evils. . . . Want of fresh air and exercise is another source. The action of the liver is particularly affected by exercise; and all who suffer from biliousness should pay their fees to the livery stable and waterman, horse-exercise and rowing being incomparably the best of prescriptions. A walking excursion, especially in mountain districts, and with resolute avoidance of walking too much, will be of great service to the dyspeptic. It is important to bear in mind, moreover, that although sedentary habits are very injurious to the Digestion, they are less so than bad ventilation; those who sit long, and sit in bad air, are sure to suffer. We shall touch on this point in the chapter on RESPIRATION AND SUFFOCATION.

"The influence of the Nervous System is perhaps even more prominently manifested than that of any other cause of Indigestion. It is comparatively rare to meet with Indigestion among artisans, in spite of their ill-cooked food, their exposure to all weathers, and other hardships; and it is as rare to meet with good Digestion among the artisans of the brain, no matter how careful they may be in food and general habits. Protracted thought, concentrated effort in the directions of Philosophy, Science, or Art, almost always exact a terrible price. Nerve-tissue is inordinately expensive. But it is worthy of remark, that mere intellectual activity, when unaccompanied by agitating emotion, never seems to affect the Digestion, unless the effort be of an unusual intensity. Our passions are destroying flames. Anger, Ambition, Envy, Despair, Sorrow, and even sudden Joy, immediately disturb the digestion. A letter bringing bad news, the sight of anything which painfully affects us, a burst of temper, or an anxious care, will sometimes render the strongest of us incapable of digesting a meal. If the food be swallowed, it will not be digested, or digested only at a vast expense. And herein may be learned a lesson against a very common mistake committed by very sensible people. When a friend is overwhelmed with grief, we try to force him gently to take the food he obstinately refuses. 'Do try and eat a mouthful; it is necessary for your strength; you will fall ill.' Perhaps our entreaties succeed; he takes a little food 'as a support.' Error! the food will weaken, not strengthen him. In such cases Instinct may safely be relied on. When a man is hungry, he will eat. When he will not eat, he should be left in peace until hunger prompts. If in compliance with the entreaties of friends he takes a meal, it will do him harm rather than good. There are, indeed, people who think that to eat in times of sorrow is a proof of want of feeling, and that their appetite is a sign of disrespect; as if appetite were subject to the will. Such people must be reasoned with, and told that it is as foolish to refuse food when the appetite demands it, as to eat it when the system rebels against it.

"There is another direction in which the Nervous System influences Digestion, although it can only be briefly alluded to here. When we come to treat of nervous phenomena, we shall more particularly examine the nature of Reflex Action; at present it is enough to say, that certain parts of the organic mechanism are so intimately allied in action, that they are said to *sympathise* with each other. All parts of the alimentary canal sympathise. Whenever the saliva is profusely secreted, the gastric juice 'sympathises,' and is also secreted; and any irritation of the mucous membrane of the stomach increases the flow of saliva. This is a fact to be borne in mind, the more so as few persons seem thoroughly aware of it, although it serves as a simple indication of an irritated state of the stomach, which they might well note. In my own person I have frequent experience of it; and the presence of an

unusual flow of saliva is always a warning to me that the mucous membran of my stomach is affected. . . .

"The deduction from these facts is simple and important. All who are troubled with a deficiency of gastric juice should be careful to let their food be as full of *flavor* as possible. Tasteless food, by leaving the nerves of taste comparatively quiet, leaves the secretion of gastric juice proportionately feeble. Food which has a relish can be more easily digested. Every one knows that we can eat a variety of dishes with less labor in digestion, than a smaller quantity of one kind of food, simply because the variety of 'relish' makes the digestive process more active.

"It is, I conceive, from the same law of sympathetic action that smoking, after a meal, assists digestion. There has been much discussion respecting the injuriousness of smoking, ever since Tobacco was first discovered; but as Physiology was—and still is in most circles—little understood, a very considerable amount of nonsense has been, and continues to be, uttered on this question. It is a positive fact that the gastric secretion can at any time be produced by simply stimulating the salivary glands with tobacco; and, as before stated, whatever stimulates the secretion of saliva promotes that of the gastric juice. Smoking does this. A cigar *after* dinner is therefore to that extent beneficial. Not so *before* a meal.

"But the action of tobacco is not confined to this—it has other influences, some beneficial, some injurious; the amount of injury depends on the nature of the organism; and therein each person must judge for himself. There is only one caution which it is right to place before the reader. When tobacco is said to be not injurious, but beneficial, it must always be understood to mean tobacco in small quantities. Excess in tobacco is very injurious; so also is excess in alcohol; so also would be excess in mutton-chops. All excess is dangerous. All stimulants should be used sparingly. Yet the man who never thinks of exceeding his half a pint of wine, or pint of beer, daily, makes no scruple of smoking a dozen cigars. From my own experience, rendered vigilant as I am by a delicate digestion, and an easily disturbed organism, I can conscientiously say that two cigars daily, always taken after, and never before, the chief meals, have proved themselves to be decidedly beneficial in many directions; but I should no more think of increasing that quantity, than of increasing my daily quantity of coffee or beer. Other organisms could of course endure greater quantities. Each must determine the proper limit for himself, and having determined it, *abide* by it.

"Among the many slight causes of impaired digestion is to be reckoned the very general disregard to eating between meals. The powerful digestion of a growing boy makes light of all such irregularities; but to see adults, and often those by no means in robust health, eating muffins, buttered toast, or bread-and-butter, a couple of hours after a heavy dinner, is a distressing spectacle to the physiologist. It takes *at least four hours to digest a dinner;* during that period the stomach should be allowed repose. A little tea, or any other liquid, is beneficial rather than otherwise; but solid food is a mere encumbrance: there is no gastric juice ready to digest it; and if any reader, having at all a delicate digestion, will attend to his sensations after eating muffin, or toast, at tea, unless his dinner has had time to digest, he will need no sentences of explanation to convince him of the serious error prevalent in English families of making tea a light meal, quickly succeeding a substantial dinner.

"Regularity in the hours of eating is far from necessary; but regularity of *intervals* is of primary importance. It matters little at what hour you lunch or dine, provided you allow the proper intervals to elapse between breakfast and luncheon, and between luncheon and dinner. What are those intervals? This is a question each must settle for himself. Much depends on the amount eaten at each meal, much also on the rapidity with which each person digests. Less than four hours should never be allowed after a heavy meal of meat. Five hours is about the average for men in active work. But those

who dine late—at six or seven—never need food again until breakfast next day, unless they have been at the theatre; or dancing; or exerting themselves in Parliament; in which cases a light supper is requisite."

The chapter "On the Structure and Uses of our Blood," gives a death-blow to the numerous vendors of patent medicines for purifying the blood:—

"Many quacks seize on this notion, and in sublime ignorance of the nature of the blood they profess to purify, and of the means by which their drugs could possibly purify it, make fortunes out of the credulity of the public. I would warn my readers at the outset against this notion of 'purifying' their blood. . . . It rests on a misconception of the laws of Nutrition. Because the organs are nourished by materials drawn from the blood, and because, unless blood be duly supplied, the organs will decay, it has been supposed that the point of departure of Nutrition was in the blood itself, and that the blood formed the organs. It is not so. The organs are, many of them at least, in existence before blood appears; and even afterwards the process of Nutrition always consists in the assimilation of certain materials from the blood by the organs; not in the organization of this blood itself. In vain will you carry generous food to a sick stomach—it cannot digest the food; in vain will you carry young blood to old organs—they cannot draw their youth from it. The blood is always young, for it is always being renewed. The organs get daily older, and different. Between the blood of an infant, and the blood of a patriarch, no appreciable difference can be found; but how great is the difference between their organs! That which is true of old age, is likewise true of disease. The tissue which is in an unhealthy condition cannot be made healthy by bringing to it a 'purer' blood (were such obtainable); it can only be brought back to its healthy condition by the cessation of those causes which keep up the morbid action, and these are not in the blood."

The chemical composition of the blood is an attempt at precise analysis highly ingenious and suggestive. Mr. Lewes is fully alive to the difficulty of the attempt, and, while presenting an elaborate table "of the substances which form the *immediate* composition of every one thousand parts of human blood," he is careful to impress upon the minds of his readers, that "our present knowledge is only approximative—a rough estimate, and that is all." The elaborate details of this table are thus happily hit off:—

"At every moment of our lives there is something like ten pounds of Blood rushing along in one uninterrupted throbbing stream, from the heart through the great arteries, which branch and branch like the boughs of a tree, the vessels becoming smaller and smaller as they subdivide, till they are invisible to the naked eye, and are then called *capillaries* (hair-like vessels), although they are no more to be compared in size with hairs, than hairs are to be compared with cables. . . .

"In this ceaselessly-circulating stream forty or more different substances are hurried along: it carries gases, it carries salts, it carries metals—nay, it carries what may be called soaps. The iron, which it washes onwards, can be separated; and Prof. Bérard used to exhibit a lump of it in his lecture-room—so that one ingenious Frenchman was led to suggest that coins should be struck from the metal extracted from the blood of great men! Lest this statement should mislead the reader, I will add that the quantity of iron in the blood is extremely small; but as the quantity of blood is large, and is perpetually being renewed, it affords the chemist the means of extracting a lump of iron from it."

We could multiply extract upon extract from this charming and

instructive work, and feel at each that we were helping to disseminate the all-important knowledge of our own structure conveyed in the easiest and pleasantest manner possible. Never was it so necessary that we should understand something of our own organization as at the present time. It is a fast age, and the men and women of it are of necessity borne upon its rapid current. Never was humanity so heavily taxed and strained as now, and the inevitable wear and tear of the energies, physical and intellectual, renders it imperative that the economy of health, private and public, should receive our earnest attention and care. Many a man and woman falls a victim to ignorance or neglect of the most obvious conditions of his or her being—the suicides of throat-cutting, poison, and drowning, are not the only suicides of the age—every educated human being who knowingly or unknowingly violates the physical laws of his being, is more or less a suicide—in the first instance, because he sins against knowledge, and in the second, because the knowledge may be had for the asking, and the necessity of it is evolved from himself.

In nine hundred and ninety-nine cases out of a thousand it is not the work which injures or kills—the labor, whether of brain or hands, must be both inordinately severe and protracted which does either—ignorance or neglect, the one as criminal as the other in the waste of power and life entailed, is the fell destroyer, and we have before us at this moment instance upon instance of men and women dwindling and shrinking to their graves, "the victims of overwork," as they and their friends pathetically observe, while they are in fact the victims of their own folly, or want of self-knowledge. Mr. Lewes holds out a helping hand to all who will take it, and "The Physiology of Common Life" should be a standard book of reference in all families and schools, and with every individual who values health and would know the means which lead to it.

---

1. *Footpaths between Two Worlds, and other Poems*, by Patrick Scott.
2. *Poems*, by Thomas Ashe.
3. *Iö in Egypt, and other Poems*, by Richard Garnett. Bell and Daldy.
4. *Ionica*. Smith and Elder.

STERN and trenchant are modern poetical criticisms; and if a hundred years ago any young lady or gentleman who contrived to string sentimental commonplaces into jingling rhyme was hailed as a poet, we of the nineteenth century are perhaps a little too severe in our requirements. All books of verses are not poetry in its highest and truest meaning; but nevertheless, many of them reach the special point at which they have aimed; and while no judgment can be too hard, no condemnation too unsparing, of spasmodic and pretentious efforts at Miltonian grandeur or Byronic force, there are volumes after volumes of pleasant reading in verse which we are too apt to despise and forget, because they do not deserve to be placed on the shelf beside the great masters of the age. Blame a poor velvet

because it is not a rich fabric, and be satisfied only with the very richest; but do not blame a sarsenet or a calico because they are not and do not profess to be velvet.

We are not so illogical in other departments of art. We are content to read and be amused with the Semi-attached Couple, and do not dream of objecting to it because it is not to be compared with Adam Bede.

A bank of flowers by Miss Mutrie is not so great an achievement as a Holy Family by Raphael; and the Christy Minstrels' Mocking Bird is not equal to a Mass by Beethoven; but there are times for all things, and in poetry as in other spheres of imaginative creation, there are low grassy levels, where, when we are not in the mood for starry heights and mountain ranges, we may take many a pleasant morning ramble, or loiter away many a quiet twilight hour.

There is no denying, of course, the fact that the writing of verses and the faculty of rhyming has become comparatively an ordinary accomplishment, by the manner in which from our very earliest years we are accustomed to be nourished on poetry, and to have our moral aphorisms and our philosophical and historical information, as well as more sentimental experience, administered to us in verse of one quality or other. Merely smooth pleasant rhymes, therefore, do not make up the class of books to which we are now referring, but we think in all from which we are about to quote, and in very many others, there is something beyond this, showing a spark at all events of true poetry; and if so, should even the very tiniest spark be neglected or forgotten?

In America, as in England, there are many volumes of verse unknown to the general public, and yet well worth reading. Most of us are not likely to meet with the class of American poems we refer to, save in a newspaper extract; but we cannot believe that the one or two stray pieces known to the English public as written by Bayard Taylor, Stoddart, &c., are not taken from volumes where there are others as well worth reading as the following.

NOVEMBER.

The wild November comes at last
  Beneath a veil of rain;
The night wind blows its folds aside,
  Her face is full of pain.

The latest of her race, she takes
  The Autumn's vacant throne:
She has but one short moon to live,
  And she must live alone.

A barren realm of withered fields:
  Bleak woods of fallen leaves:
The palest morn that ever dawned:
  The dreariest of eves:

It is no wonder that she comes,
  Poor month! with tears of pain:
For what can one so hopeless do
  But weep and weep again!

R. H. Stoddart.

THE HELMET.

Where the standards waved the thickest,
And the tide of battle rolled,
Furiously he charged the foemen,
On his snow-white steed so bold;
But he wore no guarding helmet,
Only his long hair of gold!

"Turn and fly! thou rash young warrior,
Or this iron helmet wear."
"Nay! but I am armed already,
In the brightness of my hair,
For my mother kissed its tresses,
With the holy lips of prayer!"

R. H. STODDART.

THE PHANTOM.

Again I sit within the mansion,
In the old familiar seat;
And shade and sunshine chase each other
O'er the carpet at my feet.

But the sweetbrier's arms have wrestled upwards,
In the summers that are past,
And the willow trails its branches lower
Than when I saw them last.

They strive to shut the sunshine wholly
From out the haunted room;
To fill the house, that once was joyful,
With silence and with gloom.

And many kind remembered faces
Within the doorway come—
Voices that wake the sweeter music
Of one that now is dumb.

They sing, in tones as glad as ever,
The songs she loved to hear;
They braid the rose in summer garlands,
Whose flowers to her were dear.

And still, her footstep in the passage,
Her blushes at the door,
Her timid words of maiden welcome,
Come back to me once more.

And, all forgetful of my sorrow,
Unmindful of my pain,
I think she has but newly left me,
And soon will come again.

She stays without perhaps a moment,
To dress her dark brown hair;
I hear the rustle of her garments—
Her light step on the stair.

Oh, fluttering heart! control thy tumult,
Lest eyes profane should see
My cheeks betray the rush of rapture
Her coming brings to me!

She tarries long: but lo! a whisper
  Beyond the open door,
And gliding through the quiet sunshine
  A shadow on the floor.

Ah! 'tis the whispering pine that calls me,
  The vine whose shadow strays;
And my patient heart must still await her,
  Nor chide her long delays.

But my heart grows sick with weary waiting,
  As many a time before:
Her foot is ever at the threshold
  Yet never passes o'er.

BAYARD TAYLOR.

From "Iö in Egypt," by Richard Garnett, we give a pretty, pathetic specimen.

VIOLETS.

Cold blows the wind against the hill,
  And cold upon the plain;
I sit me by the bank, until
  The violets come again.

Here sat we when the grass was set,
  With violets shining through,
And leafing branches spread a net
  To hold a sky of blue.

The trumpet clamored from the plain,
  The cannon rent the sky;
I cried, Oh, love, come back again
  Before the violets die!

But they are dead upon the hill,
  And he upon the plain;
I sit me by the bank, until
  My violets come again.

Our extracts would run to too great length did we quote as we intended from a small volume of poems by Thomas Ashe. We must be satisfied to note that it contains quaint, pretty fancies, easily and musically told, and to give the following as a specimen:—

THE FETTERLESS SONG.

There is a little song
  That flutters over me,
Like a gay lark hung
  In the ether free,
Waiting to be sung
  With quaintest melody.

Faint and sweet and airy,
  And with cadence light,
Like to foot of fairy
  At the fall of night,
Or undulant white feather
  Doubting to alight.

It is wild and sweet,
  And for cage unfitted ;
It were all unmeet
  To give it wings wire-fretted,
Or e'en to chain its feet
  With words daisy-knitted.

Yet I would win it down
  From the airy skies,
With no gloomy frown,
  But with pleaded sighs ;
Sick my heart has grown
  With its melodies.

It will not drop to me
  Through the gold sunshine ;
It flits fair and free
  With the cloudlets fine ;
It cares not to be
  Shut in cage of mine.

In Ionica there is something of a still higher quality; and we can only suppose the classical conceit in the names of the poems have deterred the ordinary reader from seeking deeper, or this little book would be more widely known and praised. It is not, neither are any of the other volumes we have named, free from the accusation of being essentially in and of the modern school of writing, which now numbers so many—masters and pupils—all bearing more or less resemblance to each other, and cast, more or less perfectly, in the same mould. But as long as there is no special or obvious imitation of any one great poet, we have no inclination to complain; nor we think can those who from their very abundance lend,—or those who in reverent and loving imitation borrow,—not ideas or words, but manners and ways of thought and expression, be other than honored in their degree. We give one or two extracts from Ionica. The following would seem somewhat too philosophical in its content, did we not preface it by the explanation that it is addressed to pupil friends, who might on entering life be fairly expected to forget a youthful tie, while the master continued to feel an unfailing interest and affection in their future career.

REPARABO.

The world will rob me of my friends,
  For Time with her conspires ;
But they shall both to make amends
  Relight my slumbering fires.

For while my comrades pass away
  To bow and smirk and gloze,
Come others, for as short a stay ;
  And dear are these as those.

And who was this? they ask ; and then
  The loved and lost I praise :
"Like you they frolicked ; they are men ;
  Bless ye my later days."

Why fret? the hawks I trained are flown:
'Twas nature bade them range;
I could not keep their wings half-grown,
I could not bar the change.

With lattice opened wide I stand
To watch their eager flight:
With broken jesses in my hand
I muse on their delight.

Ah, oh! if one with sullied plume
Should droop in mid career,
My love makes signals:—"There is room,
Oh, bleeding wanderer, here."

XXXI.—OPEN COUNCIL.

(As these pages are intended for general discussion, the Editors do not hold themselves responsible for the opinions expressed.)

To the Editor of the English Woman's Journal.

FOLKESTONE, *October.*

MADAM,

On Wednesday evening, the 19th of September, Mrs. B. Inglis was advertised to give a lecture at the Working Men's Educational Union in this town, and her subject being "The Influence of Women on Society," I made a point of attending it.

A short notice of her lecture may perhaps interest some of the readers of your Journal.

I fully expected to hear some more or less familiar "preparation" of Mr. Buckle's celebrated lecture on the same subject; and was therefore most agreeably disappointed to find, that unlike that gentleman, Mrs. Inglis did *not* carefully avoid any allusion to women, concentrating her whole attention on their sons; and I was equally pleased to hear nothing whatever of the "inductive" and "deductive" theory, of which most of us are heartily tired, and which my first glance at the audience convinced me would have been decidedly too abstruse a view of the question to interest them. Not more than 100 persons, and with very few exceptions entirely of the working classes, had assembled when at eight o'clock Mrs. Inglis appeared on the platform, and for an hour and a half continued to rivet their attention by her impressive and ladylike manner, her clear and earnest reasoning, and her numerous lively illustrations and anecdotes.

She began by a very forcible explanation of what influence consists in, its power, its subtlety, and its universality, that willingly or unwillingly we must all exercise it, and all that rests with us is, whether we should use it for good or for evil.

She touched upon the various influences that surround life—the influence of rank, wealth, education, ignorance, and position. And here she deprecated the common use of this word, which limits it to certain prominent stations: whereas we are all *placed* where we are by Providence, and therefore have *a position* and its consequent influence. She referred to the action of matter on matter, which science assures us is so complex and unending, and bade us not the less acknowledge the equally sure and important action of soul on soul, mind on mind, and heart on heart; the power and duration of which we may not presume to limit. She then took up the special subject of the evening, the "Influence of Women,"—beginning by a very admir-

able description of what are a woman's peculiar characteristics and powers, and how important it is for herself and for humanity that her great influence should be rightly directed. Mrs. Inglis took some instances from history of the baneful power exercised by women, such as Catherine de Medici and others, contrasting it with the wise and beneficent influence of Isabella of Castile, who, without in any way departing from the most feminine virtues, had by courageously and consistently protecting the cause of truth and science, conferred incalculable benefits on her own and all future ages. After a passing tribute to the excellence of our own Sovereign, Mrs. Inglis went on to speak of the influence exercised by women as mothers, as wives, as mistresses, as servants, as teachers, as district visitors, as friends, &c., &c., illustrating her precepts by different anecdotes. Many useful hints were offered, many practical suggestions thrown out, and though obviously capable of enriching her lecture by allusions, quotations, and illustrations, which might have been a little beyond her audience, she wisely refrained from any mode of treating her subject except such as was likely to be clear, interesting, and useful to her hearers.

By a humorous reference to the faults generally attributed to women, and by a very severe denunciation of the present style of dress, Mrs. Inglis occasioned a good deal of laughter. But whether grave or gay, lively or severe, her remarks were invariably characterized by good sense and good taste; and the few references she made to the highest of all precepts, and the truest, because the deepest, of all motives, were equally earnest, simple, and impressive.

Altogether, the lecture was most creditable to the talent and sense of the lecturer; and the attention and intelligence with which her hearers listened and applauded, gave good promise of their reaping benefit from her valuable suggestions.

I was sorry to see one more instance of the difficulty of reaching that special rank of the middle class whom it would be most desirable to impress. The working classes were, as usual, ready to listen; but, as far as one could judge by the appearance of the audience, the tradespeople of the place had not (save in a few instances) responded to the invitation to hear what the influence of women was, and ought to be.

In conclusion, I can only heartily recommend any of your readers who have an opportunity of hearing Mrs. Inglis lecture, to avail themselves of it, and trusting that the subject may excuse my trespassing so largely on your space,

I am, Madam,
Your obedient servant,
E. E. R.

P.S.—Some of your readers may perhaps have had the pleasure of hearing Mrs. B. Inglis lecture upon the poetry of Mrs. Browning. I missed doing so myself, when the lecture was given at Willis's Rooms about a year and a half ago; but I was told, and can well believe, that it was not only characterized by a very true appreciation of her subject, and by refined and intelligent criticism, but that it was particularly remarkable as an exhibition of wonderful power of memory; poem after poem, quotation after quotation, being given, not only with great taste and an excellent delivery, but without any reference to the volumes themselves.

To the Editor of the English Woman's Journal.

MADAM,

My attention has lately been called to the great difficulty in obtaining women equal to the *real* duties of "nurse" to children in private families. I find that mothers whose social position renders it impossible for them to devote their entire time to the care and management of their children, are obliged to delegate this "highest duty of woman" to half-educated servants;

and this while hundreds of governesses are almost starving! Let these lay aside their (often only half acquired) accomplishments, and think a little while on the real education and management which a child requires; let them study the moral and physical wants of human nature in its infancy, and nobly aspire to supply these wants, and there will, I think, be no lack of employment for them. But a "lady governess" would say that this would lower her social position. Alas! in nine cases out of ten it would; yet surely amongst the higher and *second* classes of society (I say second because it seems to me there are *four* classes) there must be many intelligent mothers who would gladly join their voice to yours and endeavor to effect a change which would confer an inestimable benefit on themselves and their children, and provide employment for (next to needlewomen) the most suffering class of female workers.

The capacity of "nurse" is generally looked upon as somewhat a menial office; but there is really nothing to be done which a lady need object to who aspires to become one day a mother herself. I think the position of "nurse," viewed in its true light, ought to be an *honorable* one; its real duties well performed should entitle her, not only to the *respect*, but *affection*, of the mother; her position should be equal, if not superior, to the most accomplished governess. And let those whose education and *social position* do not entitle them to this high office, qualify themselves for "hospital nurses," or respectable upper servants. We entrust all else that we want done to those who can *best* perform the work, but the minds and hearts of our children are too often left to be trained and fashioned by ignorance.

Let those young women whose knowledge and talents do not insure them anything more than a situation as nursery governess, try to qualify themselves for the higher and more *complete* position of *nurse and governess*. I would ask them to brave all prejudices for a time, and be satisfied with the good work they are doing, and the certainty that their influence will sooner or later be felt and appreciated.

I remain, Madam, yours truly, M. D.

To the Editor of the English Woman's Journal.

MADAM,

The observations made by Z., in a letter which appeared in the September number of your Journal, respecting the condition, care, and maintenance of insane women, open a wide field of most interesting inquiry.

Much statistical information respecting the number, rank, age, and sex of the insane throughout the United Kingdom may be gathered from the Annual Report made by the Commissioners of Lunacy for England and Wales, for Scotland and for Ireland.

In the return for England and Wales, dated January 1, 1859, we find that the insane under the supervision of the Commissioners amounted to 22,911, of these 12,084 were women, thus distributed:—

	Private Patients.		Pauper Patients.	
In County and Borough Asylums	105	...	8,488	
In Hospitals	766	...	109	
In Metropolitan Licensed Houses	624	...	800	
In Provincial Licensed Houses	736	...	456	
	2,231	...	9,853	Pauper Patients
			2,231	Private Patients
Total			12,084	

To these must be added lunatics residing with relatives or in private houses, as well as insane paupers, and idiots maintained in unions and workhouses, or living at their own homes, amounting (women alone) to at least 5000 more.

The total number of the insane in Scotland on January 1, 1858, excluding

private single patients, was 5,748; of these 3,030 were women, thus distributed:—

In Public Asylums	1,154
In Private Asylums	415
In Poor-houses	487
In Private Houses	974
	3,030

At the moment, I am unable to give the returns for Ireland.

With respect to France my information is but limited. The order of "Les Sœurs Hospitalières," a division I believe of that of "St. Vincent de Paul," devote their attention to the insane in general, while "Les Frères de St. Jean" do the same for their own sex. From "Les Annales d'Hygiène Publique" comprehensive summaries of the state of lunacy in France may be obtained; and by direction of the Bureau of General Statistics, official returns are annually made. That for 1853 is before me. We find that at that date there existed in France 111 lunatic establishments—of these sixty-five were public, and forty-six private. Of the public Asylums twenty-six were ancient religious Houses, or Foundations, or *Hospices*, or *Quartiers des Hospices*, eleven being devoted to males, seventeen to females, the remaining eighty-three asylums to both sexes. On January 1, 1853, the total number of the insane, according to the official return, amounted to 23,795. But by the census of 1851 it was ascertained that above 24,000 individuals deprived of reason were living in private houses, which would give a total of above 45,000 insane, that is, 1 in every 796 inhabitants.

The 23,795 recognised lunatics of both sexes were thus distributed:—

In the Asylums of the State	10,839
In the *Quartiers des Hospices*	7,223
In Private Asylums	5,733
	23,795

Taking the average of 1000 admissions, 533 were males, 467 females; of 1000 cured or discharged, 535 were males, 465 females; and of 1000 deaths, 541 were males, 409 females. Consequently, from this we gather that in France men are somewhat more liable to insanity than women. The mean age for admission in this return is stated to be forty years; but from fifty to sixty, women appear to be more frequently attacked than men. In 1000 cases of either sex at the period named, the relative proportion would be 134 males to 167 females.

The latter part of Z.'s letter is particularly suggestive at the present moment. The attention of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on Lunatics, in 1859, was specially directed by Lord Shaftesbury to the urgent necessity of procuring a superior order of attendants on the insane. Were I not fearful of encroaching on your space I would copy the evidence verbatim. Suffice it to say, that it is supported by facts, and is as strong as words can make it. The present moment, when prejudice on so many vital yet controverted points is yielding to the dictates of common sense, appears to be particularly favorable to the development of some plan whereby this want, at least as regards female attendants, might be supplied. A portion of the Nightingale Fund is now devoted to the training of nurses to the sick in the wards of St. Thomas's Hospital. Could not a similar plan be pursued in respect to the insane, at Hanwell, or any other of our great public asylums? Say a training-school divided into two classes, for the educated and uneducated. The one to receive gentlewomen by birth, who desire to fit themselves by a thorough practical training to become superintendents of asylums; the other, to give to women in a humbler sphere the opportunity of duly qualifying themselves as attendants on the insane. To start a scheme like this,

funds would be required; eventually, it might be made self-supporting. Knowing from what small beginnings important results are obtained, I almost venture to offer my mite in the shape of a small annual subscription, could such a plan be practically organized. Many difficulties will present themselves, and unless this proposed *Training School* is based upon sound principles, and with the co-operation of some of our well-known philanthropists, both medical and individual, I do not see how any practical benefit would accrue either to the one or the other: to the insane, or to women whose personal inclination might lead them to find their sphere of usefulness and remuneration in devoting their energies to the conscientious care of this class of their afflicted fellow-creatures.

I remain, Madam,
Yours truly, Y. B. C.

To the Editor of the English Woman's Journal.

MADAM,

It was observed to me a short time ago by a friend, recently returned from the Continent, that there was a lucrative employment open to women of which it was a pity they did not avail themselves, viz., that of courier. Why should not a woman who is used to travelling and understands about passports, custom-houses, and foreign railroads, advertise herself as "companion and courier," or "courier and lady's maid," according to her position in life? I have at this moment an advertisement before me in which a widow lady who is used to travelling seeks a situation as companion to a lady, and states that she should prefer to go abroad; now how much more likely she would be to obtain her wish and to secure a high salary if she were to advertise as proposed above. Many unprotected, timid ladies are extremely afraid of their own couriers, and believe, whether justly or not, that they cheat them, and would gladly dispense with their services, if they were not still more afraid of being left, helpless and ignorant, to the mercy of innkeepers and railroad officials, and these would probably eagerly accept an offer from a "companion and courier" whose position as a lady would insure honesty, or from a "courier and lady's maid," whom, from being of her own sex, she would feel equal to control. Besides these timid ladies, there are many others who cannot afford to take a courier, but who would be very glad of a maid who understood foreign money, could read the foreign Bradshaw, make herself intelligible in two or three languages, and so relieve her mistress of the disagreeable business connected with travelling. Such a maid might ask very high wages, and yet be much cheaper than a courier.

Yours faithfully, J. B.

To the Editor of the English Woman's Journal.

MADAM,

Whilst on a visit lately, I heard it asserted that your Journal was not true to its name, because some of your articles were written by gentlemen.

Am I not right in having delivered my firm belief that from the first your desire has been strongly expressed that all men who heartily wish for the good and happiness of women in our social and domestic arrangements, should lend us their aid in every possible way, whether that may be by their pens or by their co-operation in the numerous philanthropic modes of action your Journal is constantly keeping before the public? I have ever held this to be amongst the foremost and most valuable of your principles, but if I am mistaken, please inform me.*

Yours, Madam,
Very truly, M.

October 22, 1860.

---

* Our correspondent is perfectly correct. We have from the first invited the co-operation both of men and women, the work we have in hand affecting alike the highest interests of both sexes. We gladly avail ourselves of this opportunity of acknowledging the very valuable assistance and encouragement we have received from gentlemen as well as ladies.—EDS. *E. W. J.*

XXXII.—PASSING EVENTS.

A GREAT battle, a great victory, and a great escape, mark the course of Italian events during the last month. The brilliant success of the patriot army at Volturno during the last days of September, was speedily followed by a danger so insidious and imminent, that at one time the cause of liberty in Italy, all for which her sons have of late so bravely fought and suffered, seemed about to be lost and turned against itself; Mazzinian influences had crept into the counsels of Garibaldi, striking terror into the hearts of all true lovers of liberty. The success and the escape are alike subjects for deep thankfulness. Naples and Sicily annexed to Piedmont strengthen the Italian kingdom beyond the chance of overthrow, while republicanism, difficult in a new country like America, is altogether impossible for an old and exhausted country, whose people have yet to learn the A, B, C, of self-government.

Rome and the Pope is as yet an unsolved question; but the movement of French troops to Viterbo and other places in the neighborhood of the Eternal City, and the advance of the Piedmontese army towards the Papal States, indicate the near approach of a crisis.

We are glad to see it recorded that the services of ladies in the hospitals of Palermo and Naples, are doing for the sick and wounded there what Florence Nightingale did for our sick and wounded in the Crimea. Madame Mario (late Jessie Meriton White), well known for her devotion to the cause of Italian liberty, has signally distinguished herself by her skill and unremitting zeal. The wounded of Palermo, as a token of their appreciation of these disinterested services, have presented her with a small gold medal, bearing on one side the inscription, "Alla Signora Mario, dai feriti di Garibaldi, Luglio 1, 1860." Honorable mention is also made of Miss Middleton; and the Countess della Torre, who is described as taking part in the field against the persecutors of her country, is spoken of "as indefatigable in the hospitals, where she does immense service." It is narrated of this lady, that encountering a party of flying soldiers, she drove them back with her sword, exclaiming, "Go back—you cowards!—go back—to conquer or to die!"

The Glasgow Meetings, and the adventures of the Prince of Wales and Prince Alfred, have furnished ample themes for home news. Whether following sport upon the Western prairies, playing ten-pins with Miss Jane, shooting a timber-slip in Ottawa, dancing at balls, or quietly evading the insults of American "rowdies," our young heir to the throne shows himself every inch a gentleman, one of whom both his illustrious mother and his country may well be proud. Glad as we all are to have her Gracious Majesty back among us, the safe return of the Prince of Wales from his long and distant travels will be even more gladly hailed.

Miss Mary Pilcher, who was for fifteen years connected as a teacher with the female classes of the Manchester Mechanics' Institution, during eight years of which she held the position of principal, and who has been compelled by ill-health to resign, was lately presented by the authorities of the Institution with a purse containing £80, and a copy of Wordsworth's poems.

Our artistic readers will be glad to learn, that whatever obstacles may have existed to the admission of women as students in the schools of the Royal Academy, are now removed. One lady is already drawing there as a Probationer, and it is to be hoped that by the time she becomes a student, others equally earnest in their professional studies will follow her example. The liberal spirit in which the Academicians at once allowed the claim of female students to share the advantages hitherto enjoyed by men only, and the courtesy which the solitary lady-probationer has met with, alike from masters and students, deserve the acknowledgment of all those who are striving in various ways to remove the difficulties with which professional women have to contend.

The art world has sustained a loss in the death of C. Chalon, R.A., portrait painter to Her Majesty.