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I.—THE CONDITION OF WORKING WOMEN IN ENGLAND AND FRANCE.

A PAPER READ AT THE MEETING OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR THE PROMOTION OF SOCIAL SCIENCE, HELD AT DUBLIN, AUGUST, 1861.

DURING the last two years we have seen a great public effort made towards relieving the difficulties of a special class of women—educated women who need a livelihood. And by dint of discussion the subject has been so thoroughly ventilated, and by dint of exertion so many plans have been tried with more or less success, that we may be fairly said to have attained to something like a reasonable hope of abolishing the evil in a due course of years, more particularly since public opinion is steadily directing itself to what is by far the truest remedy—a well-organized, widely-diffused, and persistent system of emigration.

Although, therefore, the necessity of action has not diminished, but still exists, and will do so for many years to come, we may consider the necessity for talking and writing in general terms about this particular class of the feminine community to be at an end. We must all work, but those who are willing to help, now know where and how to apply.

Leaving, therefore, this difficult and much-vexed question wholly on one side for the time, I ask you to consider with me one which is much wider—which may indeed be said to include the first, and which I believe to be the most important social question of modern times, inasmuch as turn where we will it meets the social reformer on every side—I mean the change which the last century has brought about in the condition of the working women of England and France. I couple the two countries together because they essentially represent all that is implied in modern civilization, its benefits and its evils, in an almost equal degree; for if England has in some respects an advantage in the race, be sure that France is pursuing with giant strides, and that her capitalists and her workpeople are fast becoming the duplicates of our own.

Every one agrees, to judge by the incessant reference to it in newspapers, that there is a certain phase of European life, peculiar to our generation and that of our fathers, which is so

distinctly marked that it is indeed modern civilization. Some years ago, when Charles Mackay's songs were popular in the streets, it was generally said to be the dawn of something quite new and splendid in the earth's history, the immediate herald of "the good time coming," but a strong reaction has taken place towards an appreciation of mediæval times; Mr. Ruskin, Mr. Froude, and a host of lesser men, have done battle for the Dark Ages, and it is now generally conceded that Venice, Florence, and Holland, possessed in their palmy days a very respectable civilization of their own.

Whether, however, it be a marked growth, or only a marked change, it is evident that our ways are not as their ways, and that an immense increase of products, and a striking uniformity in what we produce, together with a constantly extending diffusion of material and intellectual goods, are the characteristics of the age of steam. England and France show them in every department of their public and private life, and the treaty of commerce, when once it comes fairly into play, is destined to increase them greatly, by stimulating each country to enormous production of its own specialities, so that all France, unless it goes to bed by gaslight, will probably adopt Birmingham candlesticks, and our Queen's subjects will more than ever be ruled in their costume by the fiats of Lyons and Paris for the year.

Now the point to which I am coming is the *price* at which this great European change has been accomplished: the price which has been silently levied in every manufacturing town in both kingdoms, the great revolution which has been so little noticed amidst the noise of politics and the clash of war—the withdrawal of women from the life of the household, and the suction of them by hundreds of thousands within the vortex of industrial life.

Perhaps you will attach more importance to what I say if I observe, that I have only very gradually become aware that this tendency pervades all the social economy of our time. Figures alone do not always impress the imagination; so many women in the cotton trade, so many in the woollen, the mind loses its track among the *oughts*, just as the savage gets bewildered beyond his own ten digits. But in thinking of governesses, and why there seemed to be such an inexplicable amount of suffering in that class, I have been brought face to face with these wider and deeper questions, and have seen that their actual destitution, though specially the result of overflowing numbers, is but part of a general tendency on the part of modern civilization to cast on women the responsibility of being their own breadwinners, and to say to them with a thousand tongues, "If thou wilt not work, neither shalt thou eat."

Look at the present constitution of Lancashire life; suppose the American war hinders the supply of cotton to such an extent that, before we can reckon on supplies from our Indian Empire or elsewhere, the mill hands are thrown out of employ, *who* will be thrown out of employ? Who are at least a majority of the total

of the workpeople? Women and girls. You know what it is in Lancashire: those miles upon miles of dusky red dwellings, those acres of huge factories, those endless rows of spinning and weaving machines, each with its patient industrious female "hand." If a catastrophe falls on Yorkshire, and the chimneys of Bradford or Halifax cease to smoke, who are they that come upon the poor-rates or hunger at home? Women and girls. I was told in Manchester, by one of the most eminent and thoughtful women in England, that the outpouring of a mill in full work at the hour of dinner was such a torrent of living humanity that a lady could not walk against the stream: I was told the same thing at Bradford, by a female friend of my own. In both instances the quitting of the mill seemed to have struck their imaginations as a typical moment, and they spoke of it as something which once seen could not be forgotten.

At Nottingham and Leicester, which I have visited this spring, the women are so absorbed into the mills and warehouses that little is known of female destitution. In Birmingham, where vast numbers of women are employed in the lighter branches of the metal trade, they may be seen working in the button manufacture, in japanning, in pin and needle making. In Staffordshire they make nails, and unless you have seen them I cannot represent to your imagination the extraordinary figures they present—black with soot, muscular, brawny—undelightful to the last degree. In mines they are no longer allowed to work; but remember that they did work there not so long ago, taking with men an equal chance of fire-damp and drowning, even being sometimes harnessed to the carts if poor patient horses were too dear.

I read the other day of a whip makers' strike, which took place because women were being introduced into a branch of work for which men had hitherto been employed; but perhaps the most impressive thing which ever came to my immediate knowledge was the description in a small country paper of a factory strike, in which a prolonged irritation existed between the hands and the very excellent firm owning the works. There were letters and speeches to and fro; placards on the walls, and a liberal expenditure of forcible Saxon language. Now who were these hands "out on strike"? these people who made speeches, gathered together in angry knots at the corners of the streets?—Women!

After this, may I not say, that on no small body of ladies in London, on no committees or societies trying to struggle with the wants of the time, can rest the charge of unsexing women by advising them to follow new paths, away from household shelter and natural duties, when a mighty and all-pervading power, the power of trade, renders the workman's home empty of the housemother's presence for ten hours a day, and teaches English women the advantage of being "out on strike."

For it is clear, that, since modern society will have it so, women

must work: "weeping," which Mr. Kingsley regards as their appropriate employment, in fishing villages and elsewhere, being no longer to the purpose. I do not say that these myriads are, on the whole, ill paid, ill fed, sickly, or immoral; I only wish to point to the fact that they are actually working, and, for the most part, in non-domestic labor, a labor which cannot be carried on under a husband or a father's roof. And recognising this apparently hopeless necessity, I believe it to be just and advisable that printing and all such trades be fairly thrown open to them; for we have to do with hunger and thirst and cold; with an imperious need of meat and drink, and fire and clothing; and, moreover, as trade uses women up so freely whenever it finds them cheaper than men, they themselves have a just claim to the good along with the evil, and, being forced into industrial life, it is for them to choose, if possible, any work for which their tenderer, feebler, physical powers seem particularly adapted.

Let us now turn to France. It is two years since I was in Lyons, and with the introductions of M. Arles Dufours, one of the leading merchants and most enlightened economists of France, visited several of the *ateliers* (workshops) where not more than six women are employed in the silk-weaving, under a mistress, or where sometimes the family only work among themselves. The conditions of this manufacture are very peculiar, the silk being bought by the merchants and allotted to the weavers, who bring it to the warehouse in a finished state, so that there is a singular absence of the bustle of English trade; there is comparatively little speculation, and in many ways the work is conducted in a mode rendering it easy for the female workers.

Little by little there rises, however, a tendency to an industrial change. This subject is amply and eloquently discussed in those remarkable articles, from the pen of M. Jules Simon, which appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and which are now gathered into a volume entitled "*L'Ouvrière*," the workwoman. He believes that the greater production which steam power creates will gradually tempt the Lyonese merchants to turn into master manufacturers, destroying the *ateliers* and the family work in common. At the time of my visit I only heard of one establishment actually in work on a large scale, and that was some miles out of the town, and had been created chiefly on a religious and charitable basis, that is to say, the young female apprentices are bound for three years, and are under charge of a community of religious women; but M. Simon mentions three principal houses of this kind, and alludes to others. Adult workmen are also received, being bound for eighteen months. The moral advantages of the surveillance exercised over the girls is apparent in the fact that they are more readily sought in marriage by respectable workmen than girls apprenticed in Lyons; yet the gathering together of numbers is surely, in itself, to be regretted, as paving the way for the adoption of the same principle for the mere

sake of economical advantage. While families, however, eagerly seek the shelter for their daughters, the masters make no profits, because they are conducting business in a manner at variance with the habits of the surrounding trade; which instantly retrenches in an unfavorable season in a way which is impossible to a great establishment with an expensive plant.

The very same idea is being in this year of 1861 carried out in the French colony of Algiers for the first time. As I was an eye-witness of its commencement, in the month of January last, it may be of use for me to relate in what way—half-economical, half-charitable—the germ of a vast system of female industry may spring up. About three miles from the town of Algiers is a ravine of the most beautiful and romantic description, called from some local tradition *La Femme Sauvage.* It winds about among the steep hills, its sides clothed with the pine, the ilex, the olive, and with an underwood of infinite variety and loveliness. Wild flowers grow there in rich profusion, and under the bright blue sky of that almost tropical climate it seems as if anything so artificial and unnatural as our systems of industry could hardly exist for shame; yet in that very valley young female children are at this very moment, while I speak and you listen, winding silk for twelve clear hours a day!

The conditions of the case are as follows:—Considerably nearer the town is a large orphanage, containing about 400 children, under the care of the sisters of St. Vincent de Paul. Many of them are half-castes, others the poorest dregs as it were of the French population; and they are exactly the same material as in England or Ireland would be drifted into workhouses. Of course, in a place like Algiers, of limited colonial population and resources, it is no easy matter to find a profitable occupation for 400 orphan girls, and therefore when M. R——, (the very same gentleman who had organized M. B——'s factory near Lyons,) set up a silk-winding mill in *La Femme Sauvage,* the Algerine Government, which pays a considerable sum towards the support of the orphanage, were glad to apprentice thirty girls to M. R——, to be bound from the age of thirteen to that of twenty-one and to work, acording to the usual conditions of French industry, twelve hours a day. The work consisted of winding the raw silk from the cocoon, by hand, aided by a slight machinery, and then in another part of the factory spinning it by means of the ordinary apparatus into skeins of silk ready for the market of the Lyons weavers. Three Sisters of Charity accompanied the children, and were to superintend them at all times, in the dormitory, the dining-room, and on Sundays, their only day of recreation. When the thirty apprentices were duly trained, M. R—— was prepared to take seventy more, who were also to be accompanied by their devoted superintendents; so that if not at this moment, at all events before long, there will be 100 girls steadily training in that secluded valley, a thousand miles from here, the

forerunners of a social change which may gradually develop Algiers into a manufacturing country, and absorb the lives of an untold number of women. I attended the little fête of installation, when a high ecclesiastical dignitary of Algiers came to perform divine service at the little chapel on the premises; he was accompanied by several of the civic functionaries of the town, whose carriages stood in the ravine, making quite a festive bustle. The two partners were gay and smiling—indeed, I believe them to have been good men, delighted not merely with the business aspects but with the benevolent side of their scheme; the sisters were radiantly pleased with the prospects of their charges; the dormitories were airy and wholesome, the dining-room and kitchen clean and commodious. The hundred girls, after being taught a respectable trade and enjoying careful moral superintendence during their youthful years, would be free at twenty-one, and would probably find respectable marriages without difficulty. Things being as they are in this modern life of ours it was undoubtedly a good and kind scheme, well and carefully carried out; careful for the welfare of the children in this world and the next; and yet, perhaps, you will not wonder that I could not help thinking of those poor children at their eternal spinnings whenever in after spring days I walked over the wild hills and through the scented glens of Algiers; and that they brought home to me, from the vivid contrast of the untrammelled nature around me, what perhaps in Europe might never strike the heart with equal vividness, that our modern civilization is in some respects a very singular thing when the kind hearts of a great nation can best show their kindness to orphan girls by shutting them up to spin silk at a machine for twelve hours a day from the age of thirteen to that of twenty-one.

Eight years of youthful girlhood with the smallest possibility during that time of sewing, cooking, sweeping, dusting, and with neither play nor instruction except the little they can pick up on Sunday. What will they be like in the year 1869!

So much for silk at Lyons and Algiers; and remembering that at Lyons the mode of industry is as yet very favorable to women, let us see how matters stand in regard to cotton and woollen at Rouen and at Lille, where, as a rule, the system of large factories already prevails. Referring to M. Simon's book we find that he starts on the first page of his preface with stating that he has passed more than a year in visiting the principal centres of industry in France, and that whereas the workman was once an intelligent force, he is now only an intelligence directing a force—that of steam; and that the immediate consequence of the change has been to replace men by women, because women are cheaper, and can direct the steam force with equal efficiency. "A few years ago," says he, "we had very little mechanical weaving, and, so to speak, no spinning by machinery; now, France has definitely and gloriously taken her place among the countries of large production,"

(*la grande industrie.*) He speaks of the men gathered together in regiments of labor presenting a firm and serried face to the powers of the State, no longer needing a rallying cry of opposition, since they are in mutual intercourse for twelve hours a day. "And what," he asks, "shall we say of the women? Formerly isolated in their households, now herded together in manufactories. When Colbert, the Minister of Louis XIV., was seeking how to regenerate the agricultural and industrial resources of France, he wished to collect the women into workshops, foreseeing the pecuniary advantages of such a concentration, but even his all-powerful will failed to accomplish this end; and France, which loves to live under a system of rigid administration, makes an exception in favor of domestic life, and would fain feel itself independent within four walls. But that which Colbert failed to achieve, even with the help of Louis the Great, a far more powerful monarch has succeeded in bringing to pass. From the moment when steam appeared in the industrial world, the wheel, the spindle, and the distaff broke in the hand, and the spinsters and weavers, deprived of their ancient livelihood, fled to the shadow of the tall factory chimney." "The mothers," says M. Simon, "have left the hearth and the cradle, and the young girls and the little children themselves have run to offer their feeble arms; whole villages are silent, while huge brick buildings swallow up thousands of living humanity from dawn of day until twilight shades."

Need I say more, except to point out that when once any new social or industrial principle has, so to speak, fairly set in, the last remains of the old system stand their ground with extreme difficulty against the advancing tide, and that trades by which solitary workers can earn a sufficient livelihood are every day decreasing in value, or being swept off into *la grande industrie.* Sewing will assuredly all be wrought in factories before long; the silk work, which formerly stretched down the valley of the Rhone as far as Avignon, has gradually drawn up to Lyons, leaving the city of the Popes empty and desolate within its vast walls. At Dijon, M. Maitre has gathered up the leather work of that ancient capital into his admirably organized *ateliers,* where he employs two hundred men and one hundred women, and binds prayer-books and photographic albums and *porte-monnaies* enough to supply an immense retail trade in Paris. In England it is the same: we gather our people together and together, we cheapen and cheapen that which we produce. Did you ever, when children, play with quicksilver, and watch the tiny glittering balls attracted in larger and larger globules until they all rolled together into one? Such is the law of modern industry in England and France, and in all other countries according as they follow the lead of these two nations in the theoretic principles of life which lead to those results which are at once the triumph and the dark side of modern civilization.

Having thus pointed out the conditions under which so large a proportion of our national commercial prosperity is carried on, permit me to say a few words regarding the practical consequences and duties it entails. Nobody can doubt, that so vast a social change must be gradually inducing an equally great moral change, and that some of the consequences must be bad. I am careful to limit my expressions, because it must not be forgotten that I have not spoken to-day of the poor or of the degraded, but of the bulk of the factory workpeople of England and France, and of large classes in Scotland and Ireland, who earn their bread by respectable industry and are often the main support of their families. It is true, that I have heard and could tell grievous stories of the wild, half-savage state of the women and girls in some districts, in some factories, under some bad or careless masters; but that is not the side of things to which I wish to draw attention:—it is rather to the *inevitable* results of non-domestic labor for women and to the special duties it imposes on those of a higher class. In the first place, there are the obvious results of the absence of married women from their homes, an absence which I believe we may fairly state, should, in the majority of instances, be discouraged by every possible moral means, since the workman must be very wretched indeed before his wife's absence can be a source of real gain. Then there is the utter want of domestic teaching and training during the most important years of youth. How to help this is no easy matter, since, whatever we may do in regard to married women, we certainly cannot prevent girls from being employed in factories, nor, in the present state of civilization, provide other work for them if we could so prevent them; and lastly, there is what I believe to be the sure deterioration of health; we are as yet only in the second generation, but any one who has closely watched the effect of ten hours in England and twelve hours in France, of labor chiefly conducted in a standing posture amidst the noise and, in some cases, the necessary heat of factories, upon young growing girls, knows how the weakly ones are carried off by consumption, or any hereditary morbid tendency, and what the subtle nervous strain must be upon all.

Believe me, there is enough in the necessary, and what we have come to consider the natural, features of modern industry, to arouse the earnest conscientious attention of the wives and daughters of employers, and of all good women whom Providence has gifted with education and means. And the need is peculiar, and so must the help be. Except in some isolated cases we will hope and believe that it is not, strictly speaking, missionary work. It is not to teach the wholly uneducated, to reclaim the drunkard, to rouse the sinner; there is enough of that to be done in England and France, but it is not of that I am speaking. Help and teaching and friendliness are wanting for the respectable workwoman, such as have already been partly provided for the respectable workman. When Lord

Brougham, Dr. Birkbeck, and others, started the Mechanics' Institution, [illegible] classes, and lectures, and savings' banks, and co-operative societies were created, it was to help those who were willing and able to help themselves, if put in the way. The Christian ministers of all churches and persuasions have generally of late years entered with warmth into these secular plans for the advantage of their flocks; and it is just such an intelligent effort, carried out by earnest and intellectual women, which is required wherever numbers of their own sex are gathered together to labor. I do not mean that the plans should be identical, but that the level of effort and of sympathy should be the same. I would see every large factory sustained in its moral advancement by female teachers capable of entering into the moral and physical life of the people; I would see evening classes, co-operative societies, and mothers' meetings of an upper sort, vigorously set on foot. I would have the amusements of the younger people guided, restrained, and elevated; and those women of the middle classes who crave for more activity, yet do not feel that they possess the peculiar characteristics needed to visit the very poor, to nurse the very sick, or to reform the very degraded, remember that there is an immense, an inspiriting field of exertion, one demanding intellect, study, and sympathetic apprehension of the social forces now at work in England and France, which calls for their religious endeavor and intelligent will.

BESSIE R. PARKES.

II.—MARGARET BEAUFORT.

IT has been argued against those who, in these latter days of progress, have endeavored to raise the standard of woman's education, that our female ancestors were content with such knowledge as enabled them to use the needle, ply the distaff, and keep house thriftily. The life of Margaret Beaufort, Countess of Richmond and Derby, seems a strong refutation of such reasoning. In an age when the education of women was indeed at its lowest ebb, when it was told of Jane Shore as an extraordinary accomplishment that "she could read and write," the illustrious mother of Henry VII. shines as some brilliant star amidst the surrounding darkness of her sex: the foundress of two colleges, two university professorships, and a school for the instruction of youth, the friend of Erasmus, and the liberal patron of learning. Horace Walpole deemed her worthy to find a place in his catalogue of royal and noble authors; for her own pen was not idle, and we shall see how she left valuable contributions to the literature of that period. To her Caxton dedicated one of his first printed books, and published

another at her instigation. Gray, in his celebrated Ode to Music, exclaims as he welcomes her descendant, the Duke of Grafton, to the Chancellorship of Cambridge—

> "Foremost and leaning from her golden cloud
> The venerable Margaret see!"

But perhaps the best tribute to her memory was the simple yet heart-felt eulogium of the celebrated Bishop Fisher. "She had," he says, "in a manner all that was praisable in a woman. To God and His Church full obedient and tractable, searching His honor and pleasure full busily."

The Lady Margaret was only daughter and heiress of John Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, grandson of the famous John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster. He married Margaret Beauchamp, the rich and lovely widow of Sir Oliver St. John of Bletshoe, which lordship she brought her first husband as heiress of Sir John Beauchamp. In this old ancestral mansion of Bletshoe, Margaret Beaufort was born, in 1441.

The Duchess of Somerset watched over the infant years of her little daughter with tender solicitude, and the earnest piety of Margaret's mind was doubtless imbibed from that mother's teaching. But who were her preceptors in worldly learning we know not. As she was brought up with her half-brothers, John and Oliver St. John, there is every reason to suppose that she received instruction from their tutor, and so her education far surpassed that usually given to women in that age, and partook much more of what is deemed essential for the other sex. To check the growth of Wycliffe's opinions, it had been made penal to put children under private or lay teachers; so that the tutors in noblemen's families were usually the resident confessors, or some learned ecclesiastic from the neighborhood. However this may have been, it is very clear that no tuition of any kind was lost upon the Lady Margaret, for she could not only read and write well, which, as we have said before, was thought much of in those days, but she was also perfect mistress of French and "had some skill in Latin," sufficient to follow the Church services with perfect ease. In after life she was often heard to regret that she had not studied Latin more. But however deficient she considered her education to have been, her natural abilities were capable of surmounting any difficulty, whilst her ardour in the pursuit of knowledge supplied the rest. She was gifted with singular wisdom even as a child, a tenacious memory, and a ready wit. Her love of study must indeed have been great, for the literary works which she left behind her must have cost real hard labor, in those days when dictionaries, lexicons, and such like aids were unknown, or, even if they did exist, were out of her reach. Nor was she behindhand in the culture of feminine arts. There is in the present day a carpet in the possession of her descendants, with the arms and alliances of the

family worked by her hands, and King James I. whenever he was in the neighborhood of Bletshoe used to ask to see the specimens of her embroidery there preserved. She was skilled also in the art of medicine, and had so thoroughly studied the practical part of the science that in later life it is related she used to devote a portion of each day to tending the sick poor, curing their wounds and diseases.

Soon after the birth of Margaret, her parents removed to Kingston Lacy, in Dorsetshire, and inhabited the mansion which had been given to the family of John of Gaunt. Here the Duke of Somerset died, May, 1444, when his daughter was only three years old, and was buried in the Abbey Church of Wimborne. In after years Margaret founded and endowed a perpetual chantry to his memory and that of her mother, who lies entombed with him. She also erected a handsome monument of grey marble over their tomb, with their effigies in white alabaster lying hand in hand. After the duke's death, Margaret returned with her mother to Bletshoe, where the Duchess continued to live in great state. And now Margaret was looked upon as the richest heiress in the kingdom, for she not only became possessed of her father's estates, but she was also heir to considerable property on her mother's side. All this wealth attracted the notice of the ambitious Duke of Suffolk, the favorite minister of Henry VI. He obtained the wardship of the person and lands of the Lady Margaret, an office which in those days was very lucrative. Suffolk had his eye upon the rich estates of the heiress with a view to his own family aggrandizement, and she was scarcely nine years old when he sought her in marriage for his son and heir, John de la Pole. It does not, however, appear that he withdrew his ward from her mother's care, though when the latter married for the third time, Leo, Lord Wells, her removal to the vicinity of the Court brought her more within his power. But another suitor of yet nobler birth came on the scene. The King wooed her for his half-brother, Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond. In great perplexity as to which of the two she should choose, Margaret consulted an old gentlewoman whom she loved and confided in greatly. This friend considered it too responsible a decision to take upon herself, and recommended Margaret to seek the intercession of St. Nicholas, that she might be guided rightly in the matter. She followed this advice, and prayed so earnestly, the legend runs, that a solution to her difficulty was granted in a marvellous manner. One morning, whether sleeping or waking she could never tell, about four o'clock, she had a vision, in which a form appeared to her in episcopal robes, and naming Edmund Tudor, bade her take him for her husband. Bishop Fisher says, "I have heard her tell this story herself." She related the vision to her parents, who considered it conclusive, and she herself inclined towards the young earl. So when Margaret was fourteen they were married. Richmond's grandfather brother Jaspar was Earl of Pembroke, and it

young couple retired from Court to the Castle of Pembroke, and lived a life of peaceful seclusion in that impregnable fortress, whilst the waves of civil discord were surging around them and ready to break over the kingdom. On the 26th of July, 1456, she gave birth to her first and only child—that son who, after passing through every vicissitude and peril, was destined to be the centre of union for the two rival houses of York and Lancaster, and to bring to a final termination the civil wars of the Roses, which for sixty-three years had cost England some of her best and noblest blood.

But Providence had not marked out the Lady Margaret's destiny as one of continued peace or happiness. She was to learn early that

"Those we lean on most,
Fall into shadow, soonest lost."

Thus was her first taste of domestic joy quickly dashed with sorrow; and in her sixteenth year she was left a widow with her infant son, scarce five months old, to protect and rear amidst all the horrors of civil war which had just begun to rage. The Earl of Richmond was buried at Carmarthen, but was afterwards removed to St. David's, and Margaret wrote the inscription on his tomb: "Under this marble stone here inclosed resteth the bones of the noble Lord, Edmund Earl of Richmond, father and brother to kings; the which departed out of this world in the year of our Lord God 1456, the third day of the month of November; on whose soul Almighty Jesu have mercy. Amen."

When her little son was three years old, the widowed Countess took him to his great-uncle, Henry VI., who solemnly blessed him and, placing his hand upon the child's head, said: "This pretty boy will wear the garland in peace for which we so sinfully contend." It was a prophecy but little understood then by any of the listeners, to be realized only after many a struggle, many a hard-fought battle, many a hair-breadth escape. Could Margaret have foreseen all that her beloved child was to pass through ere that "garland" was worn in "peace," would she not have clasped him closer to her heart and fled with him far away to some mountain home where the strife and turmoil of the world, the contest for honor and power, would never have broken in upon their lives and torn her boy from her, by a long and cruel separation? But the All-wise All-good hid from her that anxious future; and whatever danger was revealed to her she braced up her soul to meet it with that courage and true nobility of mind which fervent piety taught her, and which, through the various phases of her eventful life, made her rise above its trials, its vexations, and its sorrows. Her eye was steadfastly fixed upon the end, and the intervening years which separated her from it were but as the road along which the pilgrim has to travel ere he reaches home. So she passed on her way, scattering sweet flowers of charity and noble deeds as she went along—flowers destined not to fade away with time but to blossom even in the centuries to come.

The great strife between the rival Houses of York and Lancaster had now begun, and fortune as yet favored the former. The little Earl of Richmond was therefore exposed to much danger, because of his Lancastrian descent. So likewise was his mother, but she thought not of herself. To the security of Pembroke Castle, therefore, she returned with her son; and when her mourning for the late earl had expired, she married Sir Henry Stafford, second son of the Duke of Buckingham. This was done probably to secure the protection of that powerful house for young Henry Tudor. His uncle Jaspar was one of the most active adherents to the Lancaster cause, and this was another reason why the Yorkists should look upon Margaret and her child with suspicious eyes. In the fastness of Pembroke Castle even they were not safe. The followers of the Duke of York were envious of the wealth and possessions which the young scion of Lancaster was enjoying in undisturbed peace, while they received but scanty remuneration for the services they rendered to York. Foremost amongst these was Sir William Herbert, Lord of Ragland, who was otherwise an honest upright man. He obtained a grant, ceding to him the Castle and Lordships of Pembroke, with its inmates, and was desired to take immediate possession. Thus the Lady Margaret found herself a prisoner with the young Earl, who was then five years old, in his uncle's own castle. But this captivity was sweetened to them. Lady Herbert was good and merciful; and far from presuming upon her right as jailor, to be unkind or severe to the little fellow, she allowed Henry to be brought up with her own children, and afforded him all the advantages of tutors and companions of his own age. Margaret's patience and fortitude never failed, and yet her trial must have been very great. She had not only anxiety for her son, but she must also have had to bear separation from her husband, for no mention is made of his sharing her captivity. To watch her boy, to teach him, to guide his mind, and train him up in those right and solid principles which Lord Bacon says he got "being bred under a devout mother"—this was her first, her daily care; nor were those hours when Henry was with the Herberts unemployed. It was probably during this time that she began her literary labors, for it is evident that these works were produced when she was in the prime and vigor of life, since they were amongst the earliest specimens of typography in this country. Wynkyn de Worde was her printer, the companion of Caxton, who dedicated his "Historye of Kynge Blandhardyne and Queen Eglantyne" to the Lady Margaret under the title of the Duchess of Somerset, which must have been given her only out of courtesy. It was probably the Lady Margaret's affection for literature which induced her mother-in-law, the Duchess of Buckingham, to bequeath her the following legacy in her last will: "To my daughter Richmond a book of English, being a legend of saints; a book of French, called Lucun; another book of French of the epistles and gospels, and a

primer with clasps of silver gilt covered with purple velvet." This was a considerable bequest in these days for a woman, when the sex were proverbially illiterate. Later on, there is a pretty anecdote recorded, which pictures the Lady Margaret as the patron of English literature. When the great master of printing was dead, and his brothers in the art met for the first time to consult as to their future, all sad and sorrowful, for their ruling spirit was no more, Wynkyn de Worde thus addressed them:—

"Companions, the good work will not stop."

"Wynkyn," said Richard Pynson, "who is to carry on the work?"

"I am ready," answered Wynkyn; and then he read what he had written at the end of Caxton's last work, the proofs of which lay uncorrected before them.

"God rest his soul!" was whispered all round.

"Companion," asks another of Wynkyn de Worde, "is not this a hazardous enterprise?"

"I have encouragement," Wynkyn replies; "*the Lady Margaret, his Highness' mother, gives me aid.* So droop not, fear not; we will carry on the work briskly in our good master's house. So fill the case." A shout mounted to the roof and rang round the building. Yes, Margaret gives aid. She has stepped in with her noble spirit, for while she lives, one of the noblest works ever introduced into England shall not die.

After the defeat of Edward IV. in 1470, Jaspar Tudor, who had been exiled with the Earl of Warwick, returned and made his way into Wales. There he still found the Countess of Richmond and her son prisoners in Pembroke Castle under the custody of Lady Herbert, then a widow. Jaspar took away the boy with him and placed him at Eton, where, during the brief triumph of the Red Rose, Henry was suffered to pursue his studies, whilst his mother remained in strict seclusion at Pembroke. During his sojourn at Eton the young Earl was again presented to Henry VI.; and the scene is thus recorded by Shakespeare:—

K. HENRY. My Lord of Somerset, what youth is that
For whom you seem to have so tender care?
SOMERSET. My liege, it is young Henry, Earl of Richmond.
K. HENRY. Come hither, England's hope. If secret powers
Suggest but truth to my divining thoughts,
This pretty lad will prove our country's bliss.
His looks are full of peaceful majesty,
His head by Nature framed to wear a crown,
His hand to wield a sceptre, and himself
Likely in time to bless a regal throne.
Make much of him, my lords; for this is he
Must help you more than you are hurt by me.

K. Henry VI., Act IV. Sc. 6.

But this peace did not last long. Edward landed in Yorkshire with a band of foreign mercenaries, and advanced towards

London. Jaspar, justly fearing the danger which threatened his nephew, removed him from Eton, and once more took him to his mother in Wales. The fatal battle of Tewkesbury drove Jaspar himself to his invincible fortress of Pembroke, but he was soon besieged there by a gentleman much attached to the House of York, called Morgan ap Thomas. The brother, however, David ap Thomas, was on the Lancaster side, and found means to enable the besieged to escape. They all fled to Tenby, and thence embarked for France. Tradition asserts that the Lady Margaret accompanied her son and Jaspar Tudor to France, but the annals of Brittany do not mention her. The elements were unpropitious to the fugitives, and, after being tossed about for some days, they escaped perishing by a miracle, and were cast upon the coast of Brittany. But the Duke of Brittany was Edward's ally, and information had been sent him from England which caused him to order the Earl of Richmond, with his uncle, to be arrested and consigned as prisoners to the castle of Vannes. If Margaret had indeed accompanied her beloved son, she was now obliged to part with him. But however this may be, it is certain that when once the long and anxious separation had begun, it was destined that for years her eyes should not be gladdened by the sight of him whom she calls "her dearest joy." She lived a life of the strictest seclusion and abstraction from all public affairs and divided her time between her different estates. Whilst at Torrington, in Devonshire, we find her performing one of those acts of generous kindliness which was her great characteristic. The Presbytery was situated far from the church, and the incumbent had a long distance to walk to his daily duty, so the Lady Margaret gave her own manor house and lands, which were close to the church, to be the residence of the priest and his successors. For eight long years Margaret pined to see her son, who was languishing in a foreign prison. She was allowed no communication with him except two or three stolen messages on either side. It was well for her that her mind was cast in a mould fitted to bear up against these trials. Her daily life gave testimony to the spirit within. There was no useless repining, no inert sadness, no vain rebellion against the decrees of Providence. Active, vigorous, and diligent, she rose every morning at five, continuing her devotions till ten o'clock, either alone or with her gentlewomen. Then came her dinner, her visits of charity and of piety, whilst the remainder of her time was spent in study. Humility was another great feature in her character. She used often to say, on condition that the Princes of Christendom would combine themselves to march against the Turks she would most willingly attend them, and be their laundress in the camp. In 1481, the Lady Margaret again became a widow; and Sir Henry Stafford left her sole executrix to his will, calling her "his entirely beloved wife." But little is known of him during his union with Margaret: he appears to have been of a domestic character and to have meddled little in the affairs of state or in surrounding events. And

now bereft of all those who had been the objects of her dearest affections, and once more left lonely in the world, her heart yearned for her exiled son, and her active mind began to turn towards the means by which she could obtain his return to England. Providence opened out the way to this. The Lady Margaret had scarcely ceased her mourning for Sir Henry Stafford, when she received proposals from Lord Stanley, who had been steward in Edward IV.'s household. She accepted him, and they were married. It was a singular union. Lord Stanley was a most devoted and faithful adherent to the house of York, whilst his bride was of the royal blood of Lancaster and mother to the Lancastrian heir to the throne. Stanley was a man of distinguished character and of great rectitude; nor was it till the hopes of the White Rose were crushed, when the two boy princes were massacred, that his heart entertained one thought unfaithful to the cause he had espoused. But Margaret chose wisely when she took this stanch adherent of York to be her husband. It was the best protection she could have had in the measures which were afterwards concerted for the restoration of her son. The Countess of Richmond, withdrawn from the seclusion in which she had hitherto lived, removed to the magnificent abode of Derby House. Court life now began, and we find her taking her place foremost amongst the noblewomen of the land. At the coronation of Richard III. she bore the train of Queen Anne, the highest office of honor in those days. How little did she then think that in two short years she should witness the same ceremonies repeated for her son, whom she now mourned in exile, and that the usurper should lie smitten by his hand! Both the Countess and Lord Stanley pleaded hard that the young Earl of Richmond might be allowed to return to England, but in vain. Richard, on the contrary, sent presents to the Duke of Brittany as a bribe to retain Henry prisoner. Lady Margaret was roused to desperation, and sought how she could take secret measures to procure his emancipation. The moment was propitious.

Hated and despised by the nation, Richard III. put a crowning point to his unpopularity by the murder of his innocent nephews in the Tower. It needed but this to make his own favorite and confidant turn against him; and Buckingham, who had been the principal instrument in placing him on the throne, now became the first instigator of the movement which should hurl him from it. Morton, Bishop of Ely, had been imprisoned for his steady adherence to the House of Lancaster, and was committed by Richard to the custody of Buckingham, in Brecknock Castle. In an evening *tête-à-tête* the duke disclosed to his prisoner his disgust and resentment against Richard. It was too good an opportunity for furthering the Lancastrian interest not to be improved by the bishop. He was not unsuccessful, but Buckingham swore him to secrecy as to what had passed between them. Soon afterwards, journeying from Bridgenorth to Worcester, the duke met the Countess of Richmond,

who had been visiting her estates in the midland counties. She prayed and besought him to make interest with the king for her son's return. It seems to have struck him for the first time that Henry of Richmond was, through his mother's descent, the rightful heir to the crown. His conversation with Morton had roused ambitious thoughts for himself, but now this encounter with the Lady Margaret suggested to him the first idea of placing Henry on the throne of England. Knowing, however, how powerful would be the opposition from the Yorkist faction, and a great majority of the English people, he proposed that in the event of Henry's return he should marry one of Edward the Fourth's daughters. To this Margaret willingly consented, and gave her promise to that effect. She had no conception that the idea of his being made king existed in the duke's mind, who kept his own counsel until he should have conferred again with Morton.

When he related his meeting with the Lady Margaret to the bishop, he opened his mind also about the scheme of placing Henry of Richmond on the throne, with the proviso that he should marry Elizabeth of York. It was agreed therefore between them that Reginald Bray, a confidential servant of the countess, should break the tidings to her and gain her consent. Margaret was overjoyed. She knew her son had full right to the English throne through her, a right she would never have dreamed of asserting for herself. She sent back Bray with her thanks and approbation, promising to gain over the Queen Dowager to their views. Dr. Lewis, her physician, who also attended the Queen, was her ambassador. The Queen was at Westminster, still mourning the death of her murdered sons, when Lewis found her and opened out the scheme. "You know very well, madam," he said, "that of the House of Lancaster the Earl of Richmond is next of blood which is living, and a lusty young bachelor, and to the house of York your daughters now are heirs; if you could agree and invent the means how to couple your eldest daughter with the young earl in matrimony, no doubt the usurper of the realm would be shortly deposed, and your heir again to her right restored." When the Queen heard this, "Lord," says the old chronicler, "how her spirits were raised, and how her heart leapt in her body for joy and gladness!" She bade Lewis instantly seek the Countess of Richmond and declare on her behalf, that all of King Edward's friends should take part with the young earl to put him on the throne. Lady Margaret had now good hopes of seeing her son not only restored to his country, but raised to the crown. She put Reginald Bray at the head of her party and bade him gain secretly all those nobles, knights, and gentlemen whom he knew to be well disposed towards their cause or disaffected to Richard. She also took Christopher Urswicke, "an honest and wise priest," into her counsels, and upon an oath of secrecy she opened her whole mind to him and sent him privately to Brittany to tell her son of the

movement made in his favor. She afterwards sent Hugh Conway with letters and money for his journey, bidding him use all speed and come to England, with wise foresight desiring him to land in Wales, where he would find plenty of aid and stanch friends. Henry, as may be supposed, was overjoyed. He communicated the whole plan to the Duke of Brittany, who of late had seemed favorably disposed towards him. The duke promised to help him, and faithfully kept his word.

Meanwhile, Henry's answer was no sooner known in England than it reached the ears of Richard, who sent for the Duke of Buckingham. But the latter returned for answer that he "owed no allegiance to such an inhuman butcher of his own flesh and blood." From this time preparations for war were made on both sides. Buckingham had a good force of Welshmen; Dorset, the Queen's brother, was raising men in Yorkshire; Guildford and Ramme were busy in Kent; whilst the Courtnays labored in Cornwall and Devon. Buckingham was a doomed man. In attempting to cross the Severn he found it unfordable from the recent heavy rains, and the Welshmen taking it as an ill omen deserted him. He was forced to hide himself at the house of a servant on whom he had lavished much kindness. The price set by Richard on the duke's head induced this man to betray his benefactor, and Buckingham was conveyed to Richard at Salisbury. But that prince, no longer remembering his former services and friendship, refused to hear or see him, and ordered that he should be beheaded in the public market-place without any trial.

On the 12th of October, 1484, Henry sailed with forty ships and five thousand Britons from France; but adverse winds dispersed the fleet that same evening, and Henry himself was driven upon the Cornish coast. He attempted to land, but an armed force opposed him, so he returned and landed on the Norman shores. All this time it was matter of wonder that the Lord Stanley should escape suspicion since the Lady Margaret was laboring in her son's cause. But though he convinced Richard of his own loyalty, a bill of attainder was passed against the Countess of Richmond. Lord Stanley pleaded for her with the King, promising to watch over her and prevent her communicating with her son. The chronicler relates that "she was kept in a secret place at home, without having any servant or company." The King also deprived her of her estates in favor of her husband, decreeing that they should descend to his heirs, or, in the event of his leaving no issue, revert to the crown. Margaret was now virtually a prisoner in her own home, and her ailor was her husband. It must have been an unpleasant and painful position for both; but her sweetness of character, and earnest piety, made her an example of patience and submission. There is not space in this brief sketch to trace the various vicissitudes through which Henry of Richmond passed ere the day came when the Red Rose was to triumph on Bosworth field. The

final blow was struck by Lord Stanley coming over to Henry with 3000 men.

Richard was dismayed to see the Stanleys opposed to him, the Earl of Northumberland inactive, and his men wavering. He chanced to espy Henry, and determined to win the day or perish in the attempt. Spurring his horse, and exclaiming, "Treason, treason!" he slew with his own hand Sir William Brandon, Henry's standard-bearer, struck another knight to the ground, and made a desperate blow at his rival. But numbers overpowered him; he was thrown from his horse and slain. In his fall the crown slipped from his head, and a soldier ran and hid it behind a hawthorn bush, where it was presently espied by Reginald Bray, who brought it to Lord Stanley. He placed it on the head of his son-in-law, saluting him as king; and the conqueror was instantly greeted with enthusiastic shouts of "Long live King Henry!" So ended the wars of the Roses, which for more than half a century had torn England in a thousand pieces; and immediately after the battle, Henry, as the worthy son of the "venerable Margaret," caused a *Te Deum* to be sung in presence of the whole army on the battle-field. It was not given to Margaret to hear that song of triumphant gratitude; she waited in trembling at Leicester for the result of the battle. Henry did not leave her long in suspense, but hastened thither, and there, after fourteen years of separation, she once more held to her heart the beloved son for whom she had suffered, prayed, struggled, and endured so much. He came not to *her* as a conqueror, not as one in whom she saw her own rights asserted, her possessions restored. To her he was but her son, her first-born, her only child; what matter that the crown of England should rest upon his brow, that all the glory of victory should attend him? She cared only to look upon his face and read there that her prayers had not been in vain, that the early lessons he had learned at her knee had not been forgotten, and that he came back to her good and innocent of heart as when she left him a fugitive on the Breton coast.

(To be continued.)

III.—THE INSTITUTIONS OF HOFWYL.

A MODEL FOR AN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM; WITH SOME REMARKS ON THE INFLUENCE EXERCISED BY DE FELLENBERG ON EUROPEAN CIVILIZATION. BY MRS. WM. FISON, AUTHOR OF "A SKETCH OF THE RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE," ETC. ETC.

In presenting the Institutions of Hofwyl as a model for an educational system, we do so with the full conviction that in no other country has so perfect a realization been ever offered of those views

and principles which we consider of vital importance in connexion with education.

It is more than fifty years since De Fellenberg commenced his labors, but England has as yet but imperfectly received the truths he taught; and we believe, at the present period, when education has become the great political and social question of the day, it is more important than ever that such views as the founder of Hofwyl spent a life in developing should be generally promulgated.

That which we most admire in the Institutions of De Fellenberg, and which was the source of all his strength and success, is the Christian basis on which he erected his superstructure. At a period when Europe was inundated with infidelity, when her learned men considered revelation at best but a myth, and openly avowed their pernicious principles, De Fellenberg boldly stood forth as the champion of Christianity. He traced the revolutionary excesses of his day to their right cause—viz. the disregard of revelation—and maintained the importance and necessity of the Holy Scriptures as the inspired guide of man and rule of his life. To use his own words, "We see in our own days that everything which parents, which nature, which conscience, and the observation of our own hearts can accomplish for the moral development of children, is inadequate." "Our own age," said this truly great man, "like others, has its moral evils to encounter—those of a corrupt and selfish heart, of a proud and conceited scepticism, of dangerous theories and innovations, and of awful and sweeping revolutions. The human mind has received a wondrous intellectual enlightenment, *mighty for good or for evil, with which our educators have not kept pace in their moral training.* A new race of educators is demanded, who shall base all their classical and natural knowledge upon that rock alone where the waves of ruin cannot reach it, the Rock of Ages—the rock of revelation as a system of practical morals based upon the rock of Christ and of God."

It will be seen in the sketch we now offer, that De Fellenberg's greatest anxiety was to insure, throughout all the Institutions of Hofwyl, that religious and moral influence which should tend to the formation of sound Christian principle, alike in the prince and the peasant. To this marked feature in his system, and its remarkable adaptation to the progress of the age, we wish particularly to direct attention.

This great man, who was destined to prove one of the regenerators of education in modern times, was born in 1771, at Berne. His father was of a high patrician family, eminent for virtue and patriotism, while his mother was the granddaughter of the celebrated Dutch admiral Van Tromp. To the early lessons and influence of this noble-hearted woman, we may ascribe, in a great measure, the formation of those principles which afterwards led De Fellenberg to devote his life to philanthropical objects. He records, in a sketch of his early days, the effect produced upon his mind by her maternal devotion and instructions.

At twelve years of age De Fellenberg saw Pestalozzi, who was twenty-five years older than himself, and who was one of the great pioneers in the educational movement of the present century.

A few years after this period De Fellenberg went with his mother on a visit to the château of Königsfelden, and near it chanced to be a house inhabited by insane persons. His youthful heart was affected with the sight of their wretched condition, and his mother, taking advantage of the sympathy displayed by her son, drew him aside to her chamber, and there made him take the most solemn vows to devote himself to the alleviation of human misery. She then knelt down beside him, and in the most fervent manner besought God to enable her son to fulfil the vow he had uttered. Surely, never was the prayer of a parent more fully answered than this was in after years! Nor, in tracing the favorable circumstances which assisted to develop in the young patrician sympathy for the degraded position of his fellow-creatures, ought we to omit the influence and example of his father. A discourse delivered by the elder De Fellenberg, as President of the Helvetic Society, upon the necessity of improving national education in Switzerland, deeply impressed him, and for a time his mind was wholly absorbed in the consideration of the subject. His father's anxiety for the welfare of his country deeply affected his mind, and was one of the means of determining his future career.

At this period, when his youthful companions were only thinking of amusement, Emanuel De Fellenberg was anxiously engaged in seeking out every method of fitting himself for the great work to which he felt himself called. To render himself independent of artificial wants, he endeavored to harden his constitution, giving up the delicate dishes of his father's table for the simplest fare.

At sixteen years of age, he, at his own request, left home, that he might better prepare himself to follow the example of his patriotic father in the service of his country. After studying for some time in different parts of Switzerland, under village pastors, he proceeded to the German Universities, where he resided for some years. His health was at last injured by his application to study, and being thus obliged to desist from it, he resumed his active investigation into the state of his country. Some years were spent in visiting different parts of it; he travelled with his knapsack on his back, generally on foot, resting in the farm-houses and villages, and often extending his journey into other parts of the Continent. His observations all tended to convince him that, with women as well as men, a well-conducted education was necessary to produce domestic happiness and public prosperity.

In 1795, the dangers threatened to Switzerland from the French Revolution led De Fellenberg to France, where he arrived after the fall of Robespierre. He returned to his own country fully alive to the dangers that threatened it, and immediately endeavored to excite his fellow-citizens to avoid them by sacrificing the exclusive

privileges of the patrician order, which had alienated the affections of the Swiss nation, and thus to regain their confidence by showing a noble zeal for the safety of their country. It was in vain; and the patriotic De Fellenberg could find but few to listen to him. In 1798, his fears were realized, and the French troops were sent to overthrow the Government. De Fellenberg raised and headed a band of soldiers to resist, but in vain. The city of Berne was taken, and, a price being set upon his head, he was obliged to fly into Germany. Ere long, being recalled by his country, he was sent on a mission to Paris, to remonstrate against the conduct of the French Republic. For a short period after his return home, he occupied a public station; but political life, and the disregard of high principles among the public men of the day, disgusted him. De Fellenberg saw plainly that the only resource for improving the condition of his own and other countries was to be found in early education. With Pestalozzi he had perceived the critical state of society, and the outbreak of the French Revolution had only strengthened the opinion that both had formed on this subject.

With a deep sense of the evils attending modern civilization, and their remedy in education, Pestalozzi had combated with success the idea that obedience was the legitimate offspring of ignorance; but the practical talent of this noble man was not equal to the genius with which he propounded those correct principles of education, which have now, through his writings, given an impulse felt through out the civilized world. One of his admirers justly observes that he seemed destined to educate ideas, not children.

To De Fellenberg was reserved the high honor of exhibiting what the German philosopher, Fichte, called the model of an Educational State. Uniting a comprehensive genius to an economic talent which enabled him to pay attention to every particular necessary to insure success, De Fellenberg was prepared for the grand development of his educational scheme.

It will be our aim on the present occasion to give a view rather of the principles upon which this great man acted, than to dwell upon the plans he pursued. The latter will be more fully developed in his life, which is now preparing for publication by the author of this paper.

Being possessed of ample means, he resolved to form on his own estate a model institution, which should embrace all classes of society, and should show what education, based on Christianity, could accomplish for the benefit of humanity. It is deeply interesting to trace the feelings with which De Fellenberg entered upon his philanthropical project. He had long arrived at one most important conclusion, viz. that the only solid foundation on which he could erect an educational structure that should stand the test of time, and the assaults of enemies, was the religion of the Bible.

We have spoken of the lessons drawn by De Fellenberg from the revolutionary spirit of the age in which he lived, and the one that

influenced his whole after-life was the necessity of an education entirely different from any that then prevailed in Europe, and which should comprehend the wants of every class of society, and should extend to the moral as well as the intellectual and physical nature of man. Penetrated with pity for the moral degradation of his countrymen, his words at this epoch were, "Born as I am one of the aristocracy of Switzerland, let me show myself worthy of pre-eminence by deserving it. I will place every distinction of rank, which is inconsistent with the welfare of my fellow-creatures, upon the altar of my country."

With these views De Fellenberg purchased the estate of Hofwyl, near Berne, where he hoped to carry out his disinterested plans for the good of others. About this time he married a Bernese lady (of the patrician family of Tcharner) who bore him twelve children, six of whom lived to become his devoted coadjutors.

The young wife entered warmly into her husband's philanthropic plans; and when he proposed to her that they should part with their jewels and plate, to devote the proceeds to founding a poor school, as the commencement of his work, she cheerfully consented, and thus, in the exercise of Christian self-denial, was laid the foundation-stone of those institutions which were afterwards to become celebrated throughout the world.

The estate of Hofwyl consisted at this time of about 200 acres of land, but was afterwards more than doubled in extent. De Fellenberg had an intense love for agriculture and great skill and invention in the mechanical art. It was his aim to improve the agriculture of his country at the same time that he carried out his educational ideas for all classes. At once he made his own estate an agricultural model for his countrymen. With powers of mind that enabled him to grasp all the bearings of a subject, he carried out in his system of agriculture the improvements which learned societies had achieved in England and the Continent during the last half-century; but his views differed most materially on one important point, for while the agriculturists of England were satisfied to improve their different species of cattle, and looked upon this as the culminating point in their system, De Fellenberg considered these improvements but as means to an end.

To rescue the laboring classes from moral degradation was one of the objects of his life; and considering that the reformation of destitute children would prove one of the surest tests of the correctness of his educational principles, he determined to make his first essay in education in an agricultural school. This was formed in the first instance of abandoned children taken from the neighborhood, and located with their master in the farm-house belonging to the estate. Soon, however, the success of this school led De Fellenberg, in 1807, to erect a large building as an agricultural institution which should receive a number of the children of the peasantry, besides those of the destitute class we have mentioned.

Pestalozzi had, in 1775, founded a school of this kind; and perhaps we shall be correct if we assign to him and to De Fellenberg the place of honor as the originators of the important movement which has lately excited general attention in England.

The idea of agricultural training developed in the schools of the Swiss reformers of education has been the foundation of most of the benevolent efforts which have since been made in many parts of Europe, in behalf of the neglected poor. De Fellenberg was so fortunate as to meet with an assistant who entered thoroughly into his enlarged and Christian views of education for the poorer classes. Wehrli, whose name is now so well known in connexion with this branch of the Institutions of Hofwyl, carried on the agricultural school with the greatest success, until he left it to undertake one of his own. In 1832 this school contained 100 boys; a portion of the parents paid the expense of their children's board, while those unable to do so were free to send their children without payment. Many of the latter, who were orphans or abandoned by their parents, found in Hofwyl a refuge and a home.

It may be asked what was the great instrument of government and discipline employed by De Fellenberg, from the commencement of his labors, and which proved so successful in this and every other Institution of Hofwyl? We answer, the high place he assigned to moral influence; and in this respect the Swiss philanthropist was far beyond his age, and affords an example we desire to see imitated in every public school, reformatory, and prison in our country. Those to whom he confided the immediate direction and moral training of pupils of every grade were persons who fully entered into his views, and possessed the high principles he desired to inculcate. This unity of action in moral training the founder of Hofwyl considered of the highest importance, thus the professors who attended the Institution for the higher classes did not necessarily reside with their pupils; but if De Fellenberg had reason to think they did not agree with him in this important particular, they resided in a separate building, only going to the high school to give lessons as to a private family.

It was De Fellenberg's opinion that not only should the pupils be preserved, as much as possible, from corrupt example and influence, but that they should also be surrounded with such as would continually stimulate to good. The pupils of Hofwyl were constantly under the eye of their educators, who thus had an opportunity of becoming acquainted with their individual character, and of inspiring them with that faith and love which De Fellenberg considered as essential to moral government and training. To use his own words, "The educator should be like the Saviour, the child's best friend, and not his tyrant."

No reward, medal, or prize was given at Hofwyl, nor, on the other hand, were humiliating punishments inflicted. Everything that might tend to foster the pride, envy, and selfishness of the

human being was excluded from De Fellenberg's system, and the pupil was taught to seek his reward in the approval of conscience, and the approbation of his teachers. The spirit of the founder pervaded all the Institutions of Hofwyl, and to each individual who came under his influence, from the prince to the peasant, this illustrious man extended a Christian and parental care. Recognising the dignity of man as man, his whole system was based upon religion and the all-powerful law of kindness.

The youth who had hitherto lived without sympathy found himself, on his arrival at Hofwyl, in the presence of a noble-hearted and superior being, who, high in rank and fortune, and from his personal character commanding the utmost veneration and esteem, yet showed by all his actions that the pupil's individual good was a subject of interest and anxiety to him, for it was at all times the aim of De Fellenberg to give a minute attention to the individuality of each youth, and an adaptation of the means most fitted to ensure a happy development of mind and body.

The vigilant and parental superintendence we have described, and the retired situation of Hofwyl, were important means of securing the results at which its founder aimed; but these might have failed had they not been accompanied by a system of constant occupation. "Industry," he sometimes said, "is the great moralizer of man."

In his agricultural school, by the exercise of this system, De Fellenberg had succeeded in obtaining the high moral tone he considered of such vital importance; and by a discriminating use and modification of the same means he was rewarded with similar results in the high school. Be it remembered, that with De Fellenberg the acquisition of knowledge was made secondary to that of firm religious principle and a good healthy constitution of body.

In establishing an institution for the higher classes in juxtaposition with that of the peasantry, the founder of Hofwyl had in view the benefits which would arise to both classes of society. The son of the prince was here taught that as God has made of one blood all the nations of the earth, so the soul of the peasant is of equal value in His sight with that of his more favored brother. He learnt to estimate aright the character and virtues of the poor, and labor became ennobled in his sight when he beheld the mutual relation between the employer and the employed, and the dependence of all classes upon each other for prosperity and happiness.

De Fellenberg was well aware of the danger to be apprehended from a separation of sympathies and interests in the social relations of different classes of society, and from this sprung his anxiety to avert a growing evil in the gymnasia and public schools of Europe, and prove that the danger might be averted by an improved educational system, based on the principles of Christianity.

When considering the circumstances under which De Fellenberg commenced the realization of his enlarged views, we must bear in

mind that, in some very material points, his position differed from almost all who have preceded or succeeded him. Unfettered by prejudice, and unbiassed by interest, he stood on a vantage ground which few have possessed. With a fortune which, owing to his superior management became an important element in his success, and a generosity which led him to despise the mercantile spirit of profit upon his pupils, he considered, from the commencement of his work, that he was engaged in solving an important problem intimately connected with the happiness of the human race. The experience he had acquired in his repeated travels throughout Europe was now brought to bear upon his new institution.

Apart from the defect in moral influence, another serious evil existed in the schools for the higher classes; and De Fellenberg's position enabled him to effect a reform in the method of instruction, so opposed to existing prejudices in England, that it would have entailed ruin on any one who had attempted to carry out such a plan in this country.

While De Fellenberg's first object in education was to implant Christian principles and form the character of his pupils, all his plans of instruction were based on the wants of the individual, and the existing state of society. Instead of condemning his pupils in the high school to toil on in the track prescribed in past ages, his comprehensive mind formed a plan which, while it made classics of due importance, did not ignore, as has been too often done in our English schools, the instruction suited to the progress of the age. As De Fellenberg contemplated the completion of the education of his pupils, he took every means to insure the highest amount of intellectual culture compatible with the objects he had in view.

Persons were constantly employed by him in seeking out suitable professors to carry out his plans. Others travelled at his expense through different countries of Europe, to report upon new and improved methods of education, and thus the services of men of the highest order were secured, while the institution in every respect kept pace with the progress of the age.

We believe we are indebted to a noble lord (distinguished for his exertions in the cause of national education) for the first information that reached England with regard to these model institutions. In 1818 Lord Brougham went to Hofwyl, having heard of its fame; and being anxious to transfer to his own country some of its important benefits, he resided there for some weeks, in order to examine the working of the system. His reports to the Educational Committee led to many English boys of good family being placed under the care of De Fellenberg. When Lord Brougham was at Hofwyl, he found the high school consisting of fifty or sixty pupils, among whom were seven or eight German princes. There were about twenty professors, with salaries of from two to three thousand a year.

The great success which had attended the high school determined

De Fellenberg now to establish the connecting link between that and the agricultural institution, and an intermediate school, designed for the children of the middle classes, was erected. The building, diet, and furniture of the pupils were all in accordance with the customs and habits of their class in Switzerland. The children received an education suitable to their position—less intellectual and more laborious than that given in the high school.

An Industrial Institution was also formed for poor girls, and was conducted by De Fellenberg's eldest daughter, who gave herself up with devotedness to this labor of love.

But this great philanthropist did not stop here in his work. He was anxious to provide for the schools of his country, and formed a Normal Institution, opening classes for schoolmasters; these were at one time attended by one hundred young men.

We will now take a rapid glance at the Institutions of Hofwyl, as the realization of De Fellenberg's grand educational idea.

1. An Agricultural School, combining the reformatory of the present day with education for the poor but honest peasant.

2. The High Scientific School, for the children of wealthy parents.

3. The Intermediate Institution, for the middle class of tradesmen and small farmers.

4. An Industrial School for girls, where they were trained to household work.

5. A Normal School, for training masters for the agricultural schools.

6. A Summer School, for the instruction of village schoolmasters.

7. A Model Farm, on which was carried out the most approved methods of cultivation. A small part of this farm was set apart as an experimental portion.

8. Expensive workshops, for manufacturing agricultural implements either for private or public use. A workshop for the manufacture of model machines was included.

Let us now view the Institutions of Hofwyl in their influence upon European civilization. Dr. Scheidler, Professor at Zena, has given to the world his opinion of the educational system of De Fellenberg, in a work he calls "The Vital Question of European Civilization." "In every respect," he writes, "the Institutions of Hofwyl appear to answer the demands of the day. They point out in a powerful, true, and practical manner, the radical cure for the corruptions of modern civilization. They do not present us with imaginary proposals, but with substantial and accumulated facts, which have been tested by the experience of many years. They contain a whole consisting of many parts, every one of which maintains its own proper and specific relation to the rest."

Sir James Kay Shuttleworth visited Hofwyl at the period of its greatest prosperity, and has expressed his deep sense of its importance; but at the time when he and Lord Brougham wrote,

public attention was not sufficiently aroused to the subject of education for the principles of De Fellenberg to be fully understood, and only partial results were the direct consequence; though we apprehend it would be found that these efforts to spread De Fellenberg's enlarged views have had indirectly a most important share in the educational progress of the present day. We believe the first practical attempt to realize De Fellenberg's views in England was made by Lady Byron, on her own estate, in agricultural schools for the poor.

We must not suppose that though England, with one or two noble exceptions, was so long in rendering justice to the Institutions of Hofwyl, that other countries were slow in appreciating their merits.

Two successive kings of Wurtemburg visited De Fellenberg, and subsequently institutions on the model of Hofwyl were formed in Wurtemburg. The crown princes of Austria, Russia, Denmark, Bavaria, and the Grand Duke of Weimar, were among the illustrious persons who visited Hofwyl; while the Great Alexander of Russia was so attached to the views of the Swiss philanthropist, that, had he lived, it was his intention to have formed in Russia model institutions combining all that was found in Hofwyl.

All ambassadors to Switzerland were required to send reports of this educational state, and some countries sent special ambassadors to examine into the system pursued.

Institutions of a similar character were formed in other countries, and it would be difficult to say to what civilized country directly or indirectly the influence of De Fellenberg has not extended, for boys of every European state were placed there; while the report of an American clergyman, who devoted two years to an examination of Hofwyl and its institutions, led to many young Americans being placed with the Swiss educationist. In 1831 De Fellenberg made a most disinterested offer to the Bernese Government, to sell the entire Institutions of Hofwyl at a sacrifice of £12,000. A year's trial was to be given, during which the institutions were to be managed as a national concern. This generous offer was refused, and De Fellenberg then endeavored to find some one to succeed him.

Illness suddenly arrested the career of this illustrious man; a cold caught from riding into Berne on a wet day turned to bronchitis, from the effects of which he never recovered. With calmness he awaited his last hour, assuring his family that he was in the enjoyment of peace with God, and that they need not therefore be anxious about him. He died at one in the morning, on the 21st November, 1844, being in his seventy-fourth year.

As soon as day broke the Protestant clergyman of Hofwyl, Mr. Gerlach, announced his death to the establishment, and led them into the chapel. After prayer, Mr. Gerlach informed the inmates of Hofwyl that the last wish of De Fellenberg, relative to the

schools, was, that they should be carried on by his sons in the same spirit in which he had begun his great work.

Various circumstances contributed after a time to the cessation of the Institutions of Hofwyl. They no longer exist as an educational model for Europe and the civilized world, but not the less did their great founder fulfil his exalted mission to enlighten and to bless.

In the reformatories and industrial schools of the present day we recognise his influence, and we believe the time will come when his views on education for the upper classes will also be adopted, and when our public schools shall be regulated and pervaded by a moral influence and by religious training similar to that which the great founder of Hofwyl cherished as the most important element of educational success.

For the information contained in this paper the author is indebted to "Letters from Hofwyl," a valuable work on the institutions of De Fellenberg, a German work on Hofwyl, and her own personal acquaintance with the family of De Fellenberg.

IV.—THE VICTOR.

WRITTEN AFTER THE FIRE IN WHICH JAMES BRAIDWOOD LOST HIS LIFE.

"Be thou faithful unto death, and I will give thee a crown of life."

In life's daily path of duty God hath heroes true and tried,
Faithful as the holy martyrs who amid the flames have died;
Brave, devoted, generous, noble, with a truer, higher aim,
Than the warriors laurel-crowned, and written in the rolls of fame;
These have their reward, but 'tis not the bright "crown of life" they claim.

God's true heroes walk amongst us—oft, alas! we know it not,
And, with careless feet, pass over many a consecrated spot,
Hallowed by a life's devotion to life's duties great and small,
Knowing there is no distinction in His sight who guideth all,
From the glorious stars' vast orbits, to the humble sparrow's fall.

But at times our eyes are opened to heroic presence near,
Bearing life without a murmur, meeting death without a fear;
Glimpses of what this life may be, to our spirits then are given,
Rising ever higher, higher, as the hero-soul hath striven,
Till we see the patriarch's ladder reaching from the earth to heaven.

One such hero from our presence hath but lately passed away;
When the summons came it found him working while 'twas called "to-day;"
Faithful to his post of duty, danger, death, alike he braved,
All uncounted here the numbers his devoted arm hath saved,
And his name upon the nation's heart is evermore engraved.

Suddenly Death's angel met him in his duty's daily path,
When the fierce flames raged around him, furious in their fiery wrath;
Roaring like the ocean's thunder, while the river rolled in flame,
Mocking at man's puny efforts, on the fiery horror came;—
Then he fell, but dying, left us an imperishable name.

Thrilled the great heart of the nation with Death's hand upon its chords,
With a burst of love and sorrow far too deep for spoken words;
Solemnly the gathered myriads stand bareheaded in the street,
As with mute, but heartfelt reverence, they the sleeping hero greet;
For when Death rides with the victor, silence is the homage meet.

Let no crown of shining laurel rest upon this hero's grave,
That, the blood-stained warrior's guerdon, not *his* meed who died to save;
Honored by the great and noble, from the cottage to the throne,
Leaving us a bright example of life's duty bravely done,
He hath passed the golden portals, and the "Crown of Life" hath won.

E. B. P.

V.—LES FEUILLES DE SAULE.

L'AIR était pur; un dernier jour d'automne
En nous quittant arrachait la couronne
Au front des bois;
Et je voyais, d'une marche suivie,
Fuir le soleil, la saison et ma vie,
Tout à la fois.

Près d'un vieux tronc, appuyée en silence,
Je repoussais l'importune présence
Des jours mauvais;
Sur l'onde froide, ou l'herbe encor fleurie;
Tombait sans bruit quelque feuille flétrie,
Et je rêvais!—

Au saule antique incliné sur ma tête
Ma main enlève, indolente et distraite,
Un vert rameau;
Puis j'effeuillai sa dépouille légère,
Suivant des yeux sa course passagère
Sur le ruisseau.

De mes ennuis jeu bizarre et futile!
J'interrogeais chaque débris fragile
Sur l'avenir;
Voyons, disais-je à la feuille entraînée,
Ce qu'à ton sort ma fortune enchaînée
Va devenir.

Un seul instant je l'avais vue à peine,
Comme un esquif que la vague promène,
Voguer en paix :
Soudain le flot la rejette au rivage ;
Ce léger choc décida son naufrage.—
Je l'attendais !—

Je fie à l'onde une feuille nouvelle,
Cherchant le sort que pour mon luth fidèle
J'osai prévoir ;
Mais vainement j'espérais un miracle,
Un vent rapide emporta mon oracle
Et mon espoir.

Sur cette rive où ma fortune expire,
Où mon talent sur l'aile du zéphire
S'est envolé,
Vais-je exposer sur l'élément perfide
Un vœu plus cher ?—Non, non, ma main timide
A reculé.

Mon faible cœur, en blâmant sa faiblesse,
Ne put bannir une sombre tristesse,
Un vague effroi :
Un cœur malade est crédule aux présages ;
Ils amassaient de menaçans nuages
Autour de moi.

Le vert rameau de mes mains glisse à terre :
Je m'éloignai pensive et solitaire,
Non sans effort :
Et dans la nuit mes songes fantastiques,
Autour du saule aux feuilles prophétiques
Erraient encor !

AMABLE TASTU.

VI.—ALGERINE NOTES.

PART I.—ALGERINE ANIMALS.

THE WILD BOAR.

WHEN I landed at Algiers, in April, 1836, the whole European population numbered fourteen thousand souls, of whom seven thousand inhabited Algiers and the neighborhood, and the remainder Bona and Oran. Colonists had settled not only within the walls of Bona and Oran, but for some few miles around Algiers. The country retained its native character and abounded with game of every kind. Partridges, hares, and rabbits, lived in the very forti-

fications of Algiers. At dusk, numerous bands of jackals called each other together and went to devour the offal of the slaughter-houses near the gates. In the houses there were innumerable rats, mice, bats, and, instead of cats, snakes, which preyed upon these vermin.

Now and then I spent a night in walking in the deep ravines and on the hills to hear the cries of the various beasts; once a week I usually hunted with a party of Europeans and Arabs.

The wild boar was our principal game. Wild boars being reputed impure, and their flesh prohibited by the Koran, they had multiplied immensely. The Arabs had not killed any of them. A farmer of my acquaintance in 1839, near the Harach river, killed seventy by lurking in ambush in one potato field. To poachers this was a very profitable employment, as each wild boar sold for twenty or twenty-five shillings. For us, we hunted in broad day and in the open field. Our favorite ground was the plain of Staoueli, where the convent of Trappists now stands; and more than once seven or eight heads fell under our hands in a single day.

Some of our Arabs could discover the boar by scenting it. When the animal stood fast in its lair they addressed it in some such manner as this: "Go out, ugly beast! Art thou afraid of our dogs? Behold this coward! Why dost thou rest here, idle creature, when the day is so fine? Run away! Dost thou believe that I do not see thee? Ho! carrion, son of carrion! ho! Jew, son of a Jew! run away, run away." While addressing him thus, they cast stones at him; the dogs barked furiously, but entered the bush very cautiously. The beast once out of his lair, was easily put an end to by a gun-shot or by Goudzel, one of our dogs. This dog and his deeds must be described, both being of a very African character. He was a strong, high, slender, Saharian greyhound: the most capricious of the whole canine race. He would never follow any one who had not a gun. When out hunting, he returned home if no game was found. The menace of a blow, or a word said in an angry tone, caused him often to take his departure: as long as the wild boar was in his lair, he seemed indifferent, but as soon as it took to flight, Goudzel immediately sprang in pursuit, always choosing the shortest way. Rushing at his adversary he struck at its flank, then seizing it by the ear he jumped nimbly over the back of the boar, overthrew it and held it fast till a huntsman could come up and give the death-blow. If the wild boar rose, the greyhound again began the same play with such astonishing dexterity and perseverance that a boar rarely escaped. If the boar, instead of flying, turned on his enemy, the dog jumped over him and, seizing him near the tail, dragged him backwards. How this dog became so skilful was the wonder of all huntsmen. It is probable that when young he had seized a wild boar by the thin end of the ear, and the beast by a side shock had rent its own ear in the teeth of the dog, and instantly had struck it with its tusks. This happens often to the apprentice dogs. When

they are experienced they strive to bite the boar close to the head where the ear is thicker. Our dog hunted for pleasure, and never ate the interior or other parts of the body when we made the quarry.

Some Arabian horses enjoy the boar hunt. I rode one which joyfully attacked the wild boar, striking it with its fore-feet, and smelling it when it was dead. The quarry is sometimes dangerous. One of us had his hands covered with black spots a few hours after cutting up a wild boar. A strong cauterisation with nitrate of silver prevented the growth of a carbuncle, but he was very ill for nearly a month. I knew of two men killed by wild boars; also a most beautiful Arabian horse worth more than £100, and many dogs, especially those from Europe or of European breed. In August, 1836, near the Maison Carré, a man who had been a matador in Spain and was then a butcher in Algiers, heard that a large wild boar had taken refuge in a bush. He alighted from his horse, and, with a cavalry sabre in his hand, entered the bush, saying to the bystanders, "I have often fought furious Spanish bulls, and I am not afraid of a wild boar!" He had scarcely entered, when he cried loudly, and the animal was seen running peacefully away. They came to rescue him, but he was dead; the crural vein and artery being entirely cut by the tusks of the boar. Another hunter lying in ambush had, near the Harach river, wounded a wild boar which suddenly charged him. He lay flat on his face, notwithstanding which the beast ploughed, so to speak, with his tusks the whole length of his back from his legs to his neck, and injured him seriously in many other parts by his bites. He died several weeks after from the suppuration of the wounds.

The wild boar which ripped up the belly of the horse above-mentioned had been fired at without injury by M. Pigeard. At first it passed near the horse, and then sat down twenty paces behind, appearing to reflect some time; and then creeping towards the animal when the rider, being engaged in loading his gun, did not remark it, plunged its tusks into its belly and quietly made off. This was certainly a wilful revenge.

The Arabs hunt the boar on horseback with spears or javelins. The Europeans much prefer to hunt them with guns. Some endowed with great self-possession wait till the animal is near and then shoot it. The Baron Franclieu did even more than this. Sometimes when charged by a wild boar he knelt down, and, holding forward a large hunting-knife, he let the animal rush on the point and pierce itself. This is a very unsafe way of encountering such a beast, for the cutlass may slide on its neck, and sometimes the animal, although pierced through, is able to strike with its tusks. In April, 1844, I was bitten on my knee and flung several paces by a she wild boar, which I had attacked with a cutlass in a bush. Had the animal been a male probably I should have shared the fate of the matador. If you wish to fight with a hunting-knife, let it be where you can move, but never run such a risk in a bush, for there you are struck

and thrown down headlong without so much as seeing your adversary. Few animals can cope with the wild boar in a bush. The lions when they are old and have experience do not enter the lair of a wild boar; they spring on it when it is out. The Arabs related to us several fights in which lions were slain by wild boars and found dead in the lair. Some of our hunters only escaped from death-wounds by happy chances. In 1842, near Babaly, Mr. Haristoy fired his double-barrelled gun at a wild boar without effect. The beast while springing on him received a shot from another hunter, in spite of which he rushed on and rolled over with his victim, covering him with blood. When Mr. Haristoy extricated himself he was astonished to find himself without a wound, although bathed in the blood of the animal. The last gun-shot fired had broken the interior jaw, and rendered the tusks perfectly harmless. Mr. C—— was attacked by a wounded and furious wild boar. He loaded his gun, his dog rushed boldly at the beast and received a tusk stroke, but continued to fight bravely till his master, having loaded, shot down the enemy which would certainly have killed him if it had not been for the dog. Alas! the faithful friend, a fine Danish pointer, died under the corpse of the boar, regretted by us all, and bitterly wept over by its grateful master.

Another time the same Mr. C——, having his gun unloaded, thrust the barrel into the mouth of the wild boar, who pushed back several paces, and they both fell together into a ravine. Here the wild boar left him. Perhaps his fall of twelve feet or more had shaken his resolution of revenge.

Wild boars taken young are as tamable as dogs. They show a great deal of intelligence and will, and defend persons who have reared them. An officer of the French army had a wild boar which followed him everywhere. One day, in a street of Oran, he had a quarrel with a Jew and struck him with a cane. Suddenly the boar rushed at the Jew and bit him very severely in the leg. They like to play with other animals. In the first years of the conquest, I often saw in the neighborhood of Algiers tame boars amusing themselves by playing at being hunted by dogs, then after a long run returning home together to the town, the best friends in the world. If you examine the development of the brain of the boar, you will perceive that it is one of the most intelligent of all quadrupeds, and possesses a great many qualities which make it fit for social life.

THE LIONS.

Lions were never very numerous in the neighborhood of Algiers; they came sometimes into the plain of the Metidja when a hard frost drove them down from the mountains. They seldom committed depredations upon cattle, and I do not remember any man ever being devoured by them. In the other provinces they are still numerous, though every year the number diminishes. Since the

invention of the rifle and conical bullet they can be hunted without any very great danger.

Many errors exist concerning the lion; the truth is, it is not more generous or more courageous than any other carnivorous animal. It is dull and drowsy, and only kills when obliged either for food or to teach its young to hunt, or in self-defence. It never even slays to have a reserve of food as do some animals of the canine kind; the lion only kills for its present necessities.

In 1839 a Spaniard, one of my hunting companions, fell in suddenly with a lion near Oulydada. He was accompanied by two large Spanish greyhounds who, as well as himself, had never seen a lion before; instinctively he fired his double-barrelled gun, loaded only with small shot. The whole took effect in the flank of the lion, who, looking at the dogs which assaulted him at either side, rushed now against one, now against the other, believing he had been wounded by them, and took no notice of the man who stood directly before his eyes and who had time to withdraw and call off his dogs, which were unhurt. The natives know this dullness. When they wish to be rid of a lion without peril, they divide themselves into two parties on opposite sides; one party fires and remains motionless, and while the lion is looking at them the other party fires, and often several volleys are discharged in this manner before the lion is able to decide either on an attack or a retreat.

In 1844 I made a medical examination of an Arab who had had the following adventure:—He fired at and wounded an old lion without being seen, but the lion approaching the place where he was, he threw his gun on the ground, leaned his back against a tree, closed his eyes, and remained motionless and breathless. The lion approached the tree, smelt the gun, put his paw on the left shoulder of the Arab, shook him several times, smelt him and left him without other injuries than those of his claws—he did not understand that it was a living man. Some days after, the Arab killed the lion, and in consequence enjoyed a great fame among his countrymen.

Mr. Landman, a Catholic priest, being director of the Orphan Asylum at Mezelzamat in 1852, was informed that a lion had attacked his oxen while they were working in a neighboring field. He was then on horseback, and, galloping to the spot, placed himself before the oxen at some yards from the lion, staring at him and remaining motionless. During two or three minutes the lion rose again and again, and lay down on the ground, opened his mouth, erected his mane, and looked at the man; then, feeling itself vanquished in this duel of eyes, retreated roaring. Mr. Landman, who related me the fact, added, he had refused to have it killed by poison or by the gun, because it had proved generous towards his person and his oxen, but in the lion's conduct there was no generosity. He did not kill the oxen because he was not hungry. He retreated before the looks of Mr. Landman because the priest, wearing a long

black cassock and a large brimmed hat, was to him an unknown enemy. Very often lions are found lying near a man or an ox watching without harming them. The explanation is, they are not hungry and wait for an appetite; that is all their so-called generosity.

Lions are tamable. I have seen more than twenty in Algeria which might be considered domestic animals, yet it is dangerous to trust too much in them. Sooner or later their bloody instincts are suddenly awakened, and then they become savage. In 1840 a lioness at Algiers having always shown a good temper was left free in a yard. She played with dogs, men, or children; one day she caught a pigeon with her paw and swallowed it. A boy of twelve years some moments after came near her. She seized him, placed him under her paws, and began to lick him with a countenance indicating that she was on the point of devouring him. Some bystanders cried to the boy, "Do not stir; feign to be dead!" Other persons called to the soldiers who fed her and they rescued the boy. From this time the lioness was enclosed in a cage.

Some years ago a Marabout (an Islamite saint) exhibited at Algiers a tame lion tied with a ribbon; he pretended to be respected by the wild beast on account of his saintship, and he received numerous gifts from the Mussulmans in consequence. Some weeks after, we heard he had been killed and devoured by his disciple, while passing through a forest.

General Marey, at Medea, had for some years a beautiful lion which had been reared with a ram. They lay down and played together, and when the ram was wearied with play he butted the lion. The horses who were accustomed to be in the same stable were good friends with him. The lion was three or four years old and had never shown any signs of ferocity, but it came to pass that one morning the lion uttered a dreadful roar, without any apparent notice, and springing on the ram strangled it and began to devour it. The soldiers of the stable came, but the lion menaced them, and they were forced to leave him to devour his victim. Being satiated, he was quiet for some hours after, but General Marey, fearing new accidents, ordered him to be enclosed in a cage, and gave him to Charles Albert, King of Piedmont.

THE HYÆNA.

The hyæna of Algeria and the whole of Barbary belongs to the striped variety. Its character is a mixture of cowardice and courage. Sometimes it allows itself to be bound and drawn out of its den without resistance, but often, if it meets a man, instead of retreating it marches resolutely against him. Its food consists of roots and dead bodies; it is very fond of donkeys, goats, and sheep; it is tamable and as capable of attachment as a dog, notwithstanding its ugly and malevolent aspect. Old hyænas often become blind, and some-

times they lose all their teeth, or suffer from anchylosis, so that they die of hunger.

The jackals dislike the hyæna; they tease it constantly during its nocturnal wanderings, bands of them preceding and others following it with loud cries. At Hussein Dey in 1837, at forty yards from an inhabited house, a young girl was playing with a small dog when a hyæna came out from a hedge and, without heeding the cries of a gardener and the stones which were flung at him, lifted up the dog from the lap of the girl.

During several years a large old hyæna was accustomed to enter the Christian cemetery near the *Hôpital du Dey* and endeavor to drag the corpses out of the graves. It went also into the stables and yards of the Boudjarea and St. Eugène, stealing sometimes a goat, sometimes a young donkey. It was feared in the whole neighborhood, for it was as audacious as cunning, avoiding the snares and fearlessly rushing at the dogs or men who attacked it.

In 1842, a soldier blew his brains out and fell into a brook, below the ancient English Consulate at St. Eugène. A gendarme was sent to watch the corpse at night. The next morning, when I went with the justice to make the examination of the corpse, I found a body without a head. "What is become of the head?" I asked of the gendarme. "The hyæna has taken it," said he. "In vain I threw stones at it; it returned again and again, and at last carried off the head. Having but a single cartridge I did not dare to shoot it, for fear of only wounding it and rendering it more furious." After eating the head, the hyæna strove to drag away the body, but the gendarme prevented it by pulling the corpse by the feet; and I remarked on examination, numerous steps of a hyæna on the ground. Some parts of the brain scattered about, and the marks of teeth on the neck and on the collar of the soldier's frock coat, proved that the gendarme related the truth. I do not know what is become of this hyæna. Some years ago it was met now and then near St. Eugène.

B., *M.D.*

(To be continued.)

VII.—WOMEN COMPOSITORS.

A PAPER READ AT THE MEETING OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR THE PROMOTION OF SOCIAL SCIENCE, HELD AT DUBLIN, AUGUST, 1861.

After the meeting in Glasgow, last September, a considerable controversy arose respecting the facts contained in my Paper relative to the establishment of the Victoria Press for the employment of women compositors.

It was once again urged that printing by women was an impossibility: that the business requires the application of a mechanical mind, and that the female mind is not mechanical; that it is a fatiguing, unhealthy trade, and that women, being physically weaker than men, would sooner sink under this fatigue and labor; and to these objections an opinion was added, which it is the principal object of this Paper to controvert, namely, that the result of the introduction of women into the printing trade will be the reduction of the present rate of wages.

With reference to the observations respecting the arduous nature of printing, I am quite willing to admit that it is a trade requiring a great deal of physical and mental labor. But with regard to the second objection, I can only say, that either the female mind is mechanical, or that printing does not require a mechanical mind—for that women *can* print there is no doubt; and I think every one will accept as a sufficient proof of this, the fact that the *Transactions* of this Association at Glasgow is among the volumes printed by the women compositors at the Victoria Press. Let this fact speak for itself, together with another equally important—namely, that the Victoria Press is already self-supporting, which is as much as can generally be said of any business scarcely eighteen months old, and far more than could have been expected of a thoroughly new experiment, conducted by one who had only visited a printing office on two occasions before the opening of the Victoria Press, and who had therefore to buy experience at every step; for although such experience is the most available, it is not the least costly.

The argument that the wages of men will be reduced by the introduction of women into the business, was also urged against the introduction of machinery, a far more powerful invader of man's labor than women's hands, but this has fallen before the test of experience. It must be remembered, as is well argued by the author of the "Industrial and Social Condition of Women," that the dreaded increase of competition is of a kind essentially different from the increase of competition in the labor market arising from ordinary causes—such increase commonly arising from an increased population, either by birth or immigration, or a decrease in the capital available for the laboring population. But in the case we are contemplating this will not occur, since women already form part of the population. Nor will the wages capital be drawn on for the maintenance of a greater number of individuals than it now supports. The real and only consequences will be, an increase of the productive power of the country, and a slight re-adjustment of wages; and while heads of families will be relieved of some of the burdens that now press on them so heavily, there is no ground for the fear that the scale of remuneration earned by them will be really injured—the percentage withdrawn will be so small, that the loss will be proportionably less than the burden from which they will be relieved, for as the percentage destined for the sup-

port of such dependents is necessarily distributed to all men indiscriminately, whether their relations in life require it or not, it is inadequate to meet the real burden borne by such as have these said dependents.

It has been asserted that the "key note to the employment of women is cheap labor!"—that while the professed cry is to open a new and remunerative field for the employment of women, the real object is to lessen the cost of production.

It is not necessary to give this statement, so far as the printing is concerned, any further denial than that which is found in the fact that the wages paid to the compositors at the Victoria Press are according to the men's recognised scale. The women work together in companies, with "a clicker" to each companionship, and they write their bills on the same principle and are paid at the same rate as in men's offices.

At present the Victoria Press is laboring under the disadvantage of having no women of the standing of journeymen; the compositors have to serve an apprenticeship of four years, during which they receive apprentices' wages, which, though not large, are still good compared to the wages women receive in most industrial employments. These wages differ according to the amount of work done. When signing the indentures of one of my first apprentices, her father, who is himself a journeyman printer, suggested to me that instead of fixing a weekly salary the apprentices should be paid by the piece, two-thirds of their earnings, according to the Compositors' Scale, (English prices,) which is indeed higher payment than that of boy apprentices, as they seldom receive two-thirds until the sixth or seventh year of their apprenticeship, whereas it is paid at the Victoria Press after the first six months, during which time no remuneration is given, but a premium of ten pounds required for the instruction received. I think this system more effective than that of an established weekly wage; it is more likely to stimulate exertion, and to make each apprentice feel that she earns more or less according to her attention and industry. It is not correct to suppose that printing simply requires a fair education, sufficient knowledge of manuscript and punctuation, and that all else is simple manipulation.

The difference between a good printer and a bad one, is rather in the quality of mind and the care applied to the work, than in the knowledge of the work itself. Take the case of two apprentices, employed from the same date, working at the same frame, and with an equally good knowledge of the business; one will earn eighteen shillings a week and the other only ten shillings. The former applies mind to her work, the latter acts as a mere machine, and expends as much time in correcting proofs as the other takes in doing the work well at once. But for every consideration it is necessary that the work should be commenced early; neither man nor woman will make much of an accidental occupation, taken up to

fill a few blank years, or resorted to in the full maturity of life, without previous use or training, on the pressure of necessity alone. And those women who become printers, or enter upon any of the mechanical trades, must have the determination to make that sacrifice which alone can ensure the faithful discharge of their work. It is impossible to afford help to those who only consent to maintain themselves when youth is over, and who commence by considering it a matter of injustice and unfair dealing that the work they cannot do is not offered at once to their uninstructed hands. I cannot insist too strongly upon this—every day's experience at the Victoria Press enforces on my mind the absolute necessity of an early training, and habits of precision and punctuality—from the want of it I receive useless applications from the daughters of officers, clergymen, and solicitors, gentlewomen who have been tenderly nurtured in the belief that they will never have any occasion to work for daily bread, but who from the death of their father, or some unforeseen calamity, are plunged into utter destitution, at an age when it is difficult, I had almost said impossible, to acquire new habits of life, and which leaves them no time to learn a business which shall support them. Thus, life's heaviest burdens fall on the weakest shoulders, and, by man's short-sighted and mistaken kindness, bereavements are rendered tenfold more disastrous than they would otherwise have been. The proposal that fathers, who are unable to make some settled provision for their daughters, should train them as they train their sons, to some useful employment, is still received as startling and novel—it runs counter to a thousand prejudices, yet it bears the stamp of sound common sense, and it is at least in accordance with the spirit of Christianity. We have all at some time or other pitied men who, brought up to no business, are suddenly deprived of their fortunes, and obliged to work for their living—we have speculated on the result of their struggles, and if success has followed their efforts, we have pronounced the case exceptional. Is it then a marvel that the general want of training among women meets us as one of the greatest difficulties in each branch of the new employments opening for them? The irreparable mischief caused by it, and the conviction that it is only the exceptional case in either sex which masters the position, determined me on receiving no apprentice to the printing business after eighteen years of age. Boys begin the business very young, and if women are to become compositors it must be under the same conditions.

Still, in spite of all the difficulties we have encountered, I can report a steady and most encouraging progress—the Victoria Press can now execute at least twice the amount of work it was able to accomplish at the time of the Association's last Meeting. We have undertaken a weekly newspaper, the *Friend of the People*, and a quarterly, the *Law Magazine;* we have printed an appeal case for the House of Lords, and have had a considerable amount of Chancery printing, together with sermons and pamphlets from all parts of

the kingdom—and I have recently secured the valuable co-operation of a partner in Miss Hays, who has long worked in the movement as one of the Editors of THE ENGLISH WOMAN'S JOURNAL and as an active member of the Committee of Management of the Society for Promoting the Employment of Women. We are now engaged in bringing out a volume under Her Majesty's sanction as a specimen of the perfection to which women's printing can be brought. The initial letters are being designed by Miss Crowe, the Secretary to the Society before mentioned, and are being cut by one of the Society's pupils. The volume will be edited by Miss Adelaide Procter, and will be one of considerable literary merit; the leading writers of the day, such as Tennyson, Kingsley, Thackeray, Anthony and Tom Trollope, Mrs. Norton, the Author of "Paul Ferrol," Miss Muloch, Barry Cornwall, Dean Milman, Coventry Patmore, Mrs. Gaskell, Miss Jewsbury, Monckton Milnes, Owen Meredith, Gerald Massey, Mrs. Grote, and, since my arrival in Dublin, I am grateful to be able to add the name of Lord Carlisle, and many others, have given us original contributions, and with kind and cordial expressions of interest have encouraged us with good wishes for our permanent success in a work the importance of which it is scarcely possible to over-estimate.

EMILY FAITHFULL.

VIII.—FRUITS IN THEIR SEASON.

XI.—THE PEACH.

ITALY rejoices in its vine, Greece in its fig-tree, England glories in its "home-made" gooseberry, and indeed almost every country of Europe has some fruit, either native or adopted, for which it is specially famous; while on other continents, Arabia blesses Allah for the date-palm, as a more than sufficient compensation for every other deficiency, and South America claims the supreme honor of having supplied the world with pine-apples. But what, then, is left for the other and "better half"—the New World—to wreathe round the staff of its star-spangled banner? and wherewith shall the country which "flogs creation" scourge us into a sense of her superiority in "fruit notions" as well as in all else beneath the sun? An answer is not lacking, for Pomona has vindicated her impartiality in bestowing upon the "States" one of her choicest gifts; and though not native to their soil it has proved so good a foster-mother to the fruit, that the peach is now in America what the orange has become in Spain or the Azores, at once the commonest and the best of its fruits.

A true child of the sun, the origin of the peach is distinctly traced through its ancient title, "Apple of Persia," to that land of

the far East—a derivation the memory of which is still preserved in its botanical name *Persica*, the generic prefix being the same as the Almond, *Amygdalus*. An old tradition asserted that being originally of a poisonous nature, causing dreadful tortures to any who ate it, it was sent from Persia to Egypt with the malicious view of injuring the inhabitants of that country, who it was supposed would be tempted by the beauty of the new introduction to partake of what would prove to them a fatal banquet—a wicked design which was unexpectedly frustrated by the beneficent Egyptian soil working so wondrous a change in the plant that its produce, gathered there, proved as harmless as delicious. In reference to this, Dr. Sickler considers that the peach might have been at least unwholesome in Media, and have become good and salubrious as it gained increased pulpiness when transferred to the rich alluvial soil of Egypt; and our own Knight suggests as the most probable solution of the bane having thus become a blessing that the Median fruit spoken of might have been really an almond, the flesh of which contains a considerable quantity of prussic acid, and is to this day held to be poisonous in some parts of the Continent, but which, transplanted to Egypt, might have become modified into a true peach; indeed, he characterizes the latter fruit as neither more nor less than an improved or fleshy almond, or rather "an almond swollen and become pulpy," considering that "nut," as it is popularly reckoned, to be really to the peach what the crab is to the apple, and the sloe to the plum. This theory he justified by an experiment in hybridization, which resulted in an almond-tree fecundated by the pollen of peach blossoms, producing a fruit which combined the flesh of the latter with the kernel of the former. Du Hamel, too, speaks of an *amandière-pêcher*, the fruit of which mostly splits at the furrow, while on the tree, as does the almond-husk, the flesh being sometimes quite worthless, sometimes very tolerable, and the kernel differing little from an almond; and that some such effect was known even to the ancients, though wrongly attributed by them to grafting, may be gathered from the statement of Pliny, that "the plum-tree grafted on the nut exhibits what we may call a piece of impudence quite its own, for it produces a fruit which has all the appearance of the parent stock together with the juice of the adopted fruit, and in consequence of its being thus compounded of both, it is known by the name of *nuci-pruna*, or "nut-plum." Columella adopts the story of a poisonous gift treacherously conveyed to Egypt, alluding in his ancient treatise on the garden to

> "Apples which most barbarous Persia sent
> With native poison arm'd, (as Fame relates,)
> Though now they've lost their power to kill, and yield
> Ambrosian juice, and have forgot to hurt;
> But of their country still retain the name,"

though some ancient writers affirm that this legend referred not to the "*persica*," but the "*persa*," a very different fruit, not identified with

any now known; and other learned authors assert that the peach was really first planted at Memphis, and assuredly with no bad motive, by Perseus, on which account Alexander chose it afterwards as the tree that should supply crowns to the victors in the games instituted in that city in honor of his dragon-slaying ancestor. In the days of Pliny it had only been lately, (during the reign of the Emperor Claudius,) and with considerable difficulty, brought into Italy; and he records that in the island of Rhodes, the first resting-place it found on its way from Egypt, it remained perfectly barren: nor does it seem that it could have been very plentiful in Rome, considering the price obtained for it, for, being a special favorite with invalids, and having the reputation of being a particularly harmless fruit, it was sold sometimes at the rate of thirty sesterces (about five shillings) apiece, a price beyond that of any other fruit, although, too, it was of so perishable a nature that when once plucked it could never be kept longer than a couple of days, so that by that time, as the writer remarks, "sold it must be, fetch what it may." Soyer assigns a yet higher price, and says that the ancient Romans sometimes gave as much for their peaches as £11. 13*s.* 4*d.* a dozen, or 18*s.* 9*d.* each!

There is no authentic record of the introduction of the peach into England, though it was probably brought from Italy in 1524, together with the apricot, by Wolf, the gardener to Henry VIII., for it is mentioned in the lists of fruits growing in this country, as enumerated by Tusser in 1557; they seem to have become not uncommon articles of diet by 1562, for Dr. Bulleyn, in his "Boke of Simples," thinks it expedient to warn his readers that they are only good when "eaten of an empty stomach, as it is the counsayle of Galen who sayeth if they be eate after meate they corrupt both themselves and the meates lately eaten." Gerard, who mentions several varieties, names a new use for the tree, recommending the leaves boiled in milk to destroy worms in children—a prescription which is still considered to be efficacious though it needs to be followed with great care, since an overdose may have the effect of destroying not only the worms but the children as well; an effect which has also occasionally resulted from the use of a syrup made from the flowers as a purgative for children, though it is said that this has only occurred when the flowers had been imprudently gathered from trees which had been grafted on almond stocks, the blossoms in this case partaking of the nature of the stock and their virtues being accordingly changed. A safer use for the leaves is to infuse them in white brandy, which thus, when sweetened with sugar candy, makes a fine cordial similar in flavor to noyeau. They also serve to distinguish the different varieties of the plant, and the history of the discovery of their being available for this purpose affords great encouragement to the general cultivation of habits of observation. It appears that some means of ascertaining what kind of peach would be produced without waiting for its actual

appearance had long been desired, when M. Desprez, a judge at Alençon, came to Paris in 1810 as deputy to the legislative corps, and, being a lover of nature, spent much of his leisure in the Imperial nursery-grounds at the Luxembourg, in the study of fruit-trees and of peaches in particular. Looking often very attentively at the leaves, he was struck one day with the glands or little red protuberances which many of them have on the edges of their petioles, or on their first serrations, and which no one had yet observed; and on carefully studying their form found that some peach-trees never had any, others had them always in a regular globular form, and in others again they were invariably of an irregular or kidney-shape. He mentioned this to Messrs. Porteau and Turpin, the learned editors of the new and enlarged edition of Du Hamel, who also beginning to study them soon found that he was quite correct in his observations, and owning with shame that they who had spent their lives in studying fruit-trees had never noticed these glands until pointed out to them by the legal amateur, acknowledged them to be an infallible mode of distinguishing varieties, most valuable as it could be referred to at almost any season, and adopted therefore in all subsequent works, even in England, peaches being now always divided into kinds without glands on the leaves, and with globular or reniform glands. The fruits, accordingly as they part from or adhere to the stone, are divided into free-stones (*pêches*) and cling-stones (*pavies.*) The tree flowers very early in the spring, and its pink rosaceous blossoms, with numerous red anthers surrounding a single pistil, even when they escape the blighting east wind which is England's vernal bane, and which too often prematurely withers them, soon drop off, leaving the ovary to mature into a large fleshy *drupe* covered with a thick velvet-like skin, and containing an oval stone irregularly furrowed with numerous corrugations, within which is a kernel strongly impregnated with hydrocyanic or prussic acid. The flesh of this drupe is so juicy that it is found when ripe to contain eighty per cent. of water. The fruit varies in size from the "Monstrous Pavy of Pomponne," which often measures fourteen inches in circumference, to the dwarfs grown in France on tiny trees about a foot high, which are placed in pots upon the dessert-table to display their eight or ten peaches, each about two inches in diameter, which, however, are mere curiosities, being too bitter to be eaten. As regards abundant produce in favorable seasons, the peach may rival any tree in the teeming condition of its branches, of which a notable example was afforded in 1816, when thirty-two trees in the garden of Wortley Hall, most of which had been planted in 1801, brought forth an aggregate of no less than 15,184 peaches and nectarines. The tree is popularly supposed to be particularly short-lived, but this is probably an opinion imported from France, where the custom of grafting the peach upon almond stocks induces a premature decay, so that they rarely survive their twentieth year; for, grown as seedlings, or

grafted on their own kind, they continue with good management to remain healthy and fruitful at least as long as the ordinary span of a human life, while preaching, too, an eloquent lesson to humanity in the fact that not only do trees of from forty to sixty years old bear good crops when younger ones are found failing, but the fruit of these veterans is also of finer flavor than that produced by the rising generation. In England they always require the protection of a wall, but it was Mr. Knight's opinion that in successive generations the tree might be so hardened and naturalized to our climate as to be grown successfully in its proper form as a standard. That gentleman devoted much attention to this subject, and originated many of the numerous varieties now grown, by planting dwarf-trees in large pots, and, when the flowers were in full perfection, impregnating the pistil of one blossom with the pollen from another: only three peaches were allowed to mature upon each tree, the stones of which were then sown the next year, and new and fine kinds thus obtained.

In France peaches are more plentiful than with us, but even there they usually require to be grown against walls; and though the soft melting sorts thrive admirably near Paris, the firm-fleshed varieties, though they attain fine flavor, never completely ripen. The best are grown at Montreuil, where a large part of the population devote themselves exclusively to this branch of fruit culture.

In Sierra Leone the peach is reckoned one of the most valuable of the fruits grown there; at the Cape it is abundant and cheap; and we may hope that by this time it is fast spreading over the interior of Africa, not only adding an innocent luxury to the scanty fare of the natives, but quickening them to desire improvement by displaying itself as in every sense one of the fruits of civilization, and calling forth the kindly emotions in reminding them of the disinterested benevolence of the white brother to whom they owe it, the peach having been introduced in 1822 by the enlightened and beneficent traveller Burchell. In this gentleman's interesting account of South Africa, he mentions having distributed peach-stones on several occasions; and particularly when taking leave of the chief of the Bachepins, to whom he presented a quart bagful, advising him to send a few to each of his subordinate chieftains; assuring him that they had been brought for no other purpose than to benefit the Bachepin nation by introducing into their country a fruit superior to anything they had ever yet known, a few berries being their only spontaneous growths, and gourds or melons the only cultivated ones; and impressing on him their value by telling him that when once grown they would continue year after year, without further trouble, to produce abundance of large fruit of very fine flavor. Judging that it would be the best pleader of its own cause, the kind-hearted traveller endeavored, as a further inducement to his savage friend to take care of the future trees, to give him a

foretaste of their fruit, and accordingly, having a few dried peaches among the stores of his waggon, prepared them to the best of his ability by softening them in water and adding a little sugar and salt of lemons to revive somewhat of the faded flavor, and then set this "dainty dish" before the chief, whose appreciation of the foreign novelty was soon shown not only in the strong approval he expressed, but also in the fact that, contrary to his usual custom when in public, of offering some portion of what he partook of to those who sat by him, on this occasion the wild potentate consumed the whole himself, except one small piece which he gave to his uncle—a picture which affords a strange reflex, in ruder colors, of our Charles II. handing to Evelyn a morsel of the first king-pine brought to England.

But of all the countries of the Old World, it is in China that this fruit reaches the highest perfection in open orchards; and the peaches of Pekin, double the size of European ones, are considered the finest in the world. Nor is the superiority of these celestial growths simply of a material nature, for a spiritual significance also attaches to them, undreamt of as regards the wall-fruit grown by earthly-minded barbarians, the peach-tree, according to Downing, seeming to hold very much the same place in ancient Chinese writings that the tree of knowledge does in the Hebrew Scriptures, or the golden apples of Hesperides in the classic mythology; and it is said that traditions are preserved in early Chinese books, both of a Peach-tree of Life, which bore only once in a thousand years, but the fruit of which when eaten conferred immortality; and of a Peach-tree of Knowledge, which had existed in remote ages on a mountain guarded by a hundred demons, and "whose mortal taste brought death" to those who partook of its produce. Whatever may be thought of these gatherings in the field of fancy, it would seem to be a fact that the ordinary fruit (for no sucker of those divinely-gifted trees survives in these degenerate days) is looked on rather as a food than as an occasional luxury, for "Tao-yuen," translated "a peach-tree and a spring," is a common by-word in China to express philosophical retirement, a saying derived from the history of one of their sages who sought solitude in a desert, and found enough to satisfy all the wants of nature in these two sources of nourishment, the only ones it afforded. Considering the large per centage of water shown in the analysis of the ripe fruit, a carping Diogenes might even then perhaps have called the spring a luxurious superfluity.

But however abundant peaches may be in China, there is no country in the world where they are grown in such quantity as in the United States, while, as regards quality, those of America surpass all except the Chinese. In the eastern States some artificial aid is generally required, but in many parts they grow almost spontaneously; and in New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland, thousands of acres are devoted to this crop to supply New York and Phila-

delphia. Extreme plenty causing fastidiousness, in seasons of abundance whole sloop-loads of this fruit, of second quality or slightly decayed, may be seen thrown into the North river in a single morning. The market price of those which are considered worthy of being sold varies from fifty cents to four dollars a bushel, according to the season and the abundance of the crops—when universally plentiful, the accruing profits are very small, when but partially so, often very large—but as they grow on lands too light to afford good crops of almost any other kind, the investment can never be a very bad one. Many growers in New Jersey have, therefore, orchards of from ten to twenty thousand trees, and in the course of a good season send out about that number of bushels of fruit from such of the trees as are in bearing. Mr. Downing, however, has no doubt that eventually the valleys of the Ohio and Mississippi will be the grand peach-growing districts of the United States, since with an equally favorable climate that part of the country possesses a much finer soil, and the flavor of its peaches is unusually rich and delicious. This enthusiastic champion of the chosen fruit of his native land boldly throws down the gauntlet, offering to maintain its peerless beauty against all rivals, but, convinced that to praise the American peach would be at least as superflous an undertaking as "to gild refined gold, or paint the lily," he proposes to stop the mouth of any one who may presume to question its excellence by presenting him with one of his best growth—"a soft answer" indeed, which might "well turn away wrath," but the prospect of which would be rather calculated to tempt a provocation of the discussion, for the sake of incurring the termination of it by so melting an argument.

Besides the immense quantities consumed while fresh, peach-pie being as common fare in an American farm-house as apple-dumpling in an English one, the fruit is also largely used during the winter in a dried state, being prepared either on a small domestic scale by being placed in ovens after the withdrawal of the bread, or, when for sale, in small drying-houses heated by a stove and fitted with drawers formed of laths with spaces between to allow the air to circulate; in these the fruit is placed, skin downwards, being left unpeeled though cut in halves in order to extract the stone. After being left thus for a short time, the drying process is complete; and in the South a still simpler one is adopted, the fruit being merely laid on boards and dried in the sun after dipping them first while whole, a basketful at a time, for a few minutes in boiling water.

The peach was introduced into America by the early settlers, somewhere about 1680, and before long was grown everywhere south of forty-eight degrees latitude literally without cultivation, it being only necessary to plant a stone and in the course of a few years abundance of fruit was obtained, the supply continuing for a long future. This is still the case in the Far West, and indeed in

all parts the peach is more easily propagated than any other fruit-tree, the stones buried in heaps in the autumn being taken up in spring, cracked, and the kernels set in rows in prepared soil, wherever they are intended to grow. In the course of the same spring they vegetate, soon grow three or four feet high, and may be budded the following September. In two years from that time, if left undisturbed, they will usually bear a small crop, and by the next season an abundant one. In the older States, however, within the last thirty or forty years two great evils have appeared to obstruct the former smooth course of the fruit-grower, in the shape of two diseases of different degrees of injuriousness, but the combined influence of which has vastly diminished the natural term of the peach-tree's life and the value of peach-orchards. One of these is caused by the peach-borer, a moth which, during the period from June to October, deposits its eggs in the soft bark at the base of the trunk; from the egg soon emerges a small white grub, which spends its life, while attaining the mature size of three-quarters of an inch in length, in devouring the whole circle of bark just below the surface of the ground. The only further service a tree thus fatally "ringed" can afford to any living creature, is to serve as a shelter to its destroyer, who, after passing the winter within it, emerges again from the chrysalis in June to repeat the same round of mischief on other trees, unless the simple but efficacious remedy, or rather preservative, have been adopted, of keeping lime round every plant in the orchard. This seems to act simply as a protective covering, for ashes are found equally effectual; but lime is mostly used as being also the best fertilizer of the tree.

Far more fatal because less understood is the "Yellows," a malady which affects the peach-tree exclusively, and seems also to be peculiar to America; which makes its first attacks upon the best varieties; propagates itself both by the seed and by grafting; and is also contagious, spreading gradually but certainly, from tree to tree, and from orchard to orchard, through whole districts. The contagious characteristic is much doubted in theory, since there is nothing analogous to it in the whole range of the vegetable kingdom, but being proved practically true, has to be taken for granted so far as acting upon it is concerned, for only where every vestige of the infected trees has been utterly destroyed has the plague been stayed and the health of the remainder been preserved. Perfectly unknown for at least a century after the introduction of the fruit, it was about the year 1800 that it first appeared, in the neighborhood of Philadelphia, the symptoms consisting first in the growth of slender shoots bearing diminutive yellow or colorless leaves, and then in the premature ripening of the fruit before it had attained more than half or a quarter of its natural size, the skin, too, being marked with dark unsightly spots. Slowly extending its ravages it did not become general until after the close of the late war—a trying period, since, in that time of

scarcity, orchard soils were more than ever impoverished by the practice of sowing corn between the rows of trees, and the grand cause of the peach-disease is supposed to be the exhaustion of the land by excessive and unintermittent cropping. It has at least been found impossible to trace it to any external cause whatever; and as it is well known that the hardier apple-tree requires a year to recover its strength after having borne a very full crop, while the great natural luxuriance of the peach induces it to begin forming new fruit buds even while its branches are still laden with the harvest of the current year, it is only reasonable that the latter should require a larger supply of nutriment in order to enable it to maintain such extraordinary activity; and therefore its becoming enfeebled when left wholly to itself, unpruned and unmanured, is no more than might have been expected. The disease is being still further spread and perpetuated by the extreme carelessness of the growers as to the seeds from which new plants are to be obtained, for thousands of bushels of the fruit annually exposed for sale in the markets are now seen at once to bear the fatal-plague spots on their skin which brand them unmistakably as the offspring of diseased trees, yet their stones are continually re-sown, though this practice only insures a yet further dissemination of the malady. Its injurious effects are not confined to impairing the size and quality of the fruit, but are also manifested in the premature decay of the tree itself, now proverbially short-lived; whereas in lands far less favorable in point of climate, but where art has lent its kindly aid to the peach, its existence has been prolonged beyond even the term which Nature seemed to have assigned to it, for while the American peach, left to itself, never lives beyond twenty or thirty years, accounts have been laid before the French Horticultural Society of peach-trees upwards of sixty years old, (and of one in particular, which was nearly a centenarian and had a trunk measuring two and a half feet round,) all of which were still in full health and vigour, an effect attributed to their having been subjected to annual pruning. Future peach prosperity in America is therefore considered to depend on the observance of three requirements—the extirpation of every diseased plant, the sowing of none but healthy stones, and the yearly pruning of all new trees; and it would certainly be worth while to comply with harder conditions than these, rather than forego the advantages afforded by Nature in so well adapting the climate to this fruit that our best sorts when taken there become still better, whereas their first-rate ones if transplanted here prove but of very inferior quality.

In the Southern and Western States, where imperfect means of communication prevent the surplus of the farmers' orchards being sent to regular markets, it is disposed of by being converted into peach-brandy, hundreds of barrels being sometimes supplied from the produce of a single orchard; while the refuse of the stills is employed to fatten hogs, a fact which probably gave rise to the following

error in an English horticultural work, which Mr. Downing quotes that his compatriots may share his amusement at learning from this author that "the Americans usually eat the clingstones, while they reserve the free-stones for feeding the pigs," while in fact, not to mention lesser magnates, the noble "late red rare-ripe," one of the very finest of all American peaches, belongs to this very tribe of "free-stones" thus summarily consigned to the wash-trough.

The color of the peach varies from dark reddish-violet, through many shades of crimson, green, or yellow, to the snow peach, a variety of American origin, and which is all over of a clear beautiful white. It is more usual, however, for "the side that's next to the sun" to wear a ruddier tint than the more shaded cheek. In form there is no very great diversity, though some peaches (in particular, *Persica mammillata*) have very decided lemon-like nipples at one end; some show slight remains of the style at their extremity, and others have the furrow extending all round their circumference. The most curious departure which is seen from the normal figure is that displayed by the flat peach of China, which rather resembles a Normandy pippin in shape, the centre being so compressed as to leave nothing there but the stone covered on each side by the skin, the fleshy part surrounding it like a ring. It has been grown in England and proved of very good flavor; the tree, too, having the advantage of our kinds in being almost an evergreen, and continuing to grow throughout mild winters.

The double-blossomed peach, which Parkinson, in 1629, says "hath not been seen or known long before the writing hereof," occasionally seen here, is very common in America, and is one of the most beautiful flowering trees grown either in this country or in that. The blossoms, which are three times the size of those of the ordinary peach, and which grow very thickly upon the branches, are of a lovely rose color, and nearly double, like a ranunculus. They are succeeded by a small fruit which, however, is not of much value.

The most important variety of the peach, however, is that known by the name of the Nectarine, (*Persica lœvis,*) a title derived from the "nectar" of the Olympian divinities. The poet Thomson distinguishes "the ruddy fragrant nectarine" from the "downy peach;" but it was some time before it attained the distinction of a separate name, for though the former is always smaller, and has a perfectly smooth and wax-like skin, instead of the velvet coat worn by the latter, besides being gifted with a special piquancy of taste, partaking more of the flavor of the kernel, yet the trees on which they grow are so alike in habit and appearance, that the difference can scarcely be told. It is found in Northern India under the name of the *moondla aroo,* or smooth peach, but it does not perfectly ripen there, and it is not known whence it was introduced, though probably from Cabul. Nectarines are often found

growing on peach-trees, and even sometimes on the same branch with peaches, and it is now believed that they are only an accidental variety of the peach, usually, though not invariably, to be perpetuated by sowing their seeds. The finest known is the Boston nectarine, produced originally from a peach-stone; the parent tree was destroyed when in full fruit by some mischievous boys, but its seeds produced descendants which now afford the largest and most beautiful fruit of the kind in America: and when some years back a drawing of one, measuring $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches in circumference, was sent to the London Horticultural Society, no one would believe that it could be correct, until a few years after Mr. Knight exhibited some equally fine specimens which he had grown here from its seed.

The leaves of the peach are used in the Greek islands to dye silk green: and the color called "rose-pink" is extracted from the wood of the tree. The fruit is noted rather for its passive than its active virtues, for while Pliny, after mentioning that it is more wholesome than the plum, bursts into the exclamation, "Indeed, what fruit is there that is more wholesome as an aliment than this!" yet no very special power over the human frame has been attributed to it; and notwithstanding its wholesomeness it may become very injurious should its charms tempt the eater to excess. It did the world good service once, indeed, through this very characteristic; and having had the honor of ridding England of a tyrant, deserves quite as well to be held in grateful remembrance by the patriotic as did the "little gentleman in black velvet" to be immortalized in the toasts of the Jacobites; for it was due to no poison in the fruit, but simply because with jaded body and irritated mind he "ate gluttonously of peaches," at his last meal in Swineshead Abbey, that King John closed so abruptly his inglorious career. A great love of this fruit has, however, by no means been confined to mere voluptuaries, but is specially associated with more than one man of genius. Göethe records in the memorials of his youth, how, after all the terrors his father held over him had failed to control his childish fear of going to sleep alone in the dark, his mother's soothing promise of an unlimited peach-feast on the morrow proved a sufficiently strong incitement to conquer himself at night in order that he might not lose the promised reward in the morning. The best remembered portrait, too, which his biographers have given of the poet of Indolence is that which represents him as lounging about the Leasowes with his hands in his pockets, and languidly lifting his head to bite off the sunny side of a growing peach as it hung upon the wall. Less dainty, because more greedy, Johnson, who demanded quantity as well as quality to appease his luxuriousness, was so fond of this fruit that though, as Boswell says, "he would eat seven or eight large peaches of a morning before breakfast began, and treated them with proportionate attention after dinner again, yet I have heard him protest that he never had quite as much as he wished of wall-fruit, except once in his life." There

are many thousands who might make the same complaint, and who have had far less alleviation of it, for the present state of its culture in England makes the peach almost exclusively a luxury confined to the wealthy. It is but few, therefore, who are likely to be practically concerned with the information that the fruit should not be plucked until it is so fully ripe that it will fall into the hand at the slightest touch, and that the flavor is best developed when it is gathered some time before it is required, and left for a few hours in a cool place before being eaten; for to the majority of the population the only hope that can be held out of ever being able to partake plentifully of peaches, involves nothing less than an emigration across the Atlantic.

IX.—NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE PROMOTION OF SOCIAL SCIENCE.

THE fourth annual meeting of this valuable Association took place during the past month, in Dublin, and was very numerously attended. The King's Room of the Mansion House, in which the opening meeting was held, on the evening of Wednesday, August 14th, is described by a local paper as "filled to repletion by one of the most brilliant and distinguished audiences that ever assembled in this metropolis, the assembly numbering nearly two thousand ladies and gentlemen."

Lord BROUGHAM, as President, opened the proceedings with a long and eloquent speech, noting first the progress which Social Science has made during the last year, and its present state and prospects. He then touched upon the principal subjects to be considered, dwelling at considerable length upon the satisfactory results of the Criminal and Reformatory Department, and upon the introduction into manufacturing districts of the Co-operative System, "The establishment of unions, by the working classes, for the purpose of sharing in the profits on the goods consumed or used by them, as well as of preventing adulteration of those goods, and for the purpose of carrying on branches of manufacture."

It appears that more than fifty manufacturing companies have been established since the last Social Science Congress, representing a capital of nearly £2,000,000, exclusive of the Manchester Cotton Company, (Limited,) whose capital is £1,000,000.

Jurisprudence, Education, Public Health, and the Industrial Employment of Women, each in turn claimed the attention of the learned and indefatigable President, with whose mental and physical powers alike time deals so leniently, that younger men may hope in vain to emulate the unwearied assiduity and extended range of

knowledge which mark Lord Brougham as one of the most strenuous and enlightened reformers of the age.

The courts of the various departments were well attended throughout the lengthened proceedings; but it is in the fifth department—Social Economy—which met at noon on Friday, August 16th, that our special interest centres. This department attracted so crowded an audience that it was with difficulty those who were to take part in the proceedings could make their way to the platform, and it was only upon the representation as to whom they were that a passage could be effected for them through the densely packed assemblage, which, we are glad to find, numbered a large proportion of ladies.

The Honorable Judge Longfield presided, and the first paper read was that by Miss Bessie Parkes, "On the Condition of the Working Women of England and France," which forms the first article of the present number.

Miss Emily Faithfull then read a paper, entitled "Women Compositors," which will also be found in our current pages.

Miss Parkes read the "Report of the Society for the Promotion of the Employment of Women," a paper drawn up by Miss Jane Crowe, the active and indefatigable Secretary to the Society, and which we shall have the pleasure of giving in our next number: after which Miss Faithfull read a paper, communicated by Miss Jessie Boucherett, on "Local Societies for Promoting the Employment of Women."

A paper by Mrs. Bayley, on the "Employment of Women," was then read by one of the secretaries. The result of many years' experience proved that before the wants of our homes could be supplied women's work should be very much lessened—in fact, women should be "keepers at home." The going out of women to work seemed to have arisen from necessity, but there was now an extended taste for it. This was a great mistake, and would be found productive of many evils, and the cause of ragged women and drunken husbands. It was calculated that five millions sterling was expended in England on washing, and that half that amount was annually spent in drink by laundresses. The labor of laundresses might be much reduced, for it was brutalising to the women engaged in the work, and washing machines should be generally introduced and worked by men. The going out of a woman to work was a waste of health, a waste of facility, a waste of life, and by all means ought to be prevented. The prevalence of total abstinence would prevent the necessity for women going out; the quantity of corn used for the purpose of distillation constantly keeps up the price of bread, and it was not the want of money that made the ragged homes.

Mr. Hastings had brought this question, he said, for the first time before the Association at Birmingham, and it was gratifying to him to find that year by year the question had gained in public

interest. He denied that any body of men had a right to exclude women from their employment because they fear that from the introduction of women their wages should be reduced. He did not think that would be the case, as was proved by the fact that Miss Faithfull paid women the same wages as men. He trusted the pressure of the Association, and the pressure of Parliament, would be brought to bear on Government, in order to induce them to make better provision for the emigration of females. The arguments used by Mrs. Bayley applied only to married women, whose first duty it was to attend to their homes and bring up their children as they should do; but he trusted there was no lady who would feel that the slightest reproach attached to unmarried women, because they industriously earned their bread rather than become a burthen on others.

Mr. JONES, of Glasgow, said in all the manufacturing towns women were largely employed, but as he understood the observations made, they referred to the introduction of women as skilled laborers. He thought the question should not be looked upon as one of antagonism between both sexes, for he did not think there was anything antagonistic between them. The question to be considered was—What effect female labor would have on the wages of men. Workmen, like others, do not desire to legislate for their trade in special cases like this. He did not think the tradesman would object to the matter by itself; but the question the printer, for instance, had to ask himself was—What would be the effect of female labor upon his wages? He felt assured that female labor would undoubtedly reduce the price of labor. Only one branch of the printing trade was fit for females—the book or general jobbing trade. The newspaper department was totally unfit for them. If, for instance, he put his wife into his own trade, and if she only earned what he could earn himself by keeping her at home, that would gain him nothing.

Mr. SMITH, of Edinburgh, advocated the employment of women, and contended that the fact of the reduction of wages was not an argument against women earning an honest livelihood. He sympathised strongly with those papers which recommended women to find employment wherever they could find it, and he recommended lady doctors.

Miss BESSIE PARKES said if gentlemen thought that the writers of the several papers did not see the difficulties which surrounded the question they were hardly fair towards them. In many cases men purchased the labor of women, and they never asked whether it was injurious to them or not. There was a large surplus of women, which, according to the *Times*, would fill three great towns in England, three in Scotland, and two in Ireland, therefore all she asked was that the question should be considered as one of very great importance. There was something wrong as regarded the position of women in England, as was the case in France, and no *doctrinaire* remedy would remove the evil.

Sir ROBERT KANE pointed out the manner in which females had proved themselves capable of attaining to excellence in all branches of knowledge.

Mrs. OVEREND read a paper "On Remunerative Employment for Educated Women." Miss PARKES another, by Maria S. Rye, on "The Emigration of Educated Women: its Necessity, Practicability, and Advantages."

The following is a list of the papers read or communicated by ladies during the meeting of the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science:—

IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.—Miss Mary Carpenter, "The Application of the Principles of Education to Schools for the Lower Classes of Society." Miss Twining, "Workhouse Education." Miss Corbett, "On the Advisability of introducing District Pauper Schools into Ireland."

IN THE DEPARTMENT OF PUNISHMENT AND REFORMATION.—Miss Hill, "On the Present Condition of Mettray." Mrs. ——, "On Dublin Female Penitent Asylums." Mrs. Fison, "The Responsibility of the Women of Great Britain with Relation to Intemperance." Miss Frances P. Cobbe, "The Preventive Mission at Bristol." Miss Mary Carpenter, "On Voluntary Effort, and its True Relation to Institutions aided or supported by Government."

IN THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC HEALTH.—Miss Florence Nightingale, "Hospital Statistics." Mrs. Brougham, "The Influence on Health of the Habits of the Irish People." Mrs. Fison, "Practical Sanitary Work in Town and Country." Miss Corbett, "The Turkish Bath as a Curative Agent in Scrofula and Insanity."

IN THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL ECONOMY.—Miss Bessie R. Parkes, "The Condition of the Working Women of England and France." Miss Jessie Boucherett, "Local Societies for Promoting the Employment of Women." Miss Jane Crowe, "Report of the Society for the Employment of Women." Mrs. A. Overend, "Remunerative Employment for Educated Women." Mrs. Bayley, "On the Employment of Women." Miss Emily Faithfull, "Women Compositors." Miss Maria S. Rye, "The Emigration of Educated Women: its Necessity, Practicability, and Advantages." Mrs. Jellicoe, "The Condition and Prospects of Girls employed in Manufactories in Dublin." Miss Mary Carpenter, "What shall we do with our Pauper Children?" Mrs. Woodlock and Mrs. Atkinson, "The Irish Poor in Workhouses." Miss Frances P. Cobbe, "The Sick in Workhouses." Mrs. Crawford, "Character of Working-Class Associations in England and Italy."

In another department, Miss P. Remond read a paper on "American Slavery, and its Influence in Great Britain."

We must now give our readers a Report, from the *Freeman's Journal*, of the

LADIES' MEETING FOR THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN.

A meeting of the ladies of Dublin, called by the Ladies' Reception Committee, on the subject of the employment of women, was held at half-past three o'clock, on Monday, August 19, in the Solicitors' Buildings. Lord Brougham was present during the proceedings. The body of the hall and the galleries were filled with ladies.

Mr. HASTINGS, General Secretary to the Social Science Association, said the object of the meeting was to form a committee in connexion with the society in England for promoting the employment of women. As it was thought right that a gentleman from Ireland should take the chair, they had asked the Rev. Dr. Lloyd to do so, and he had kindly consented (hear, hear.)

The chair was accordingly taken by the Rev. Dr. LLOYD, S.F., T.C.D.

The Rev. CHAIRMAN said the meeting had been called by the Ladies' Reception Committee for the purpose of giving an opportunity to those noble-minded and philanthropic ladies who had given so much of their time and talents to the great social question of the remunerative employment of educated women, of stating the result of their labors, and of soliciting the co-operation of the ladies of Dublin in the same object. The ladies would explain the views that guided them, and state the results of their labors.

Miss BESSIE PARKES then came forward, and was reeeived with applause. She said she had frequently been asked to tell what they had been doing in London, and what their objects were, and she thought the best plan was to begin at the beginning, and tell what had been their progress, even at the risk of telling what would be to many an old tale. It always appeared to her that the precursor of this movement concerning the employment of women was to be found in the Governesses' Benevolent Institution, established about sixteen years ago under very high patronage, and with a purely philanthropic object. It was some years before it began to work; but the man who commenced the enterprise and carried it out most successfully was the Rev. David Laing, who by his death left a blank which could not easily be filled up. After three or four years of early struggles the institution came to be under the patronage of the Queen, the Prince Consort, the Duchess of Kent, and other distinguished persons. There were a number of gentlemen on the board of management and a ladies' committee, who carried out many of the details. The objects of the society included temporary loans to governesses in distress, an annuity fund, and a provident fund, to the latter of which the subscriptions in the course of the year were so large as £16,000, which were paid into it by governesses; there were also a home for governesses while out of employment, a system of emigration, and an asylum for the aged—under the one head of "Governesses' Benevolent Institution." For the entrance into the asylum, and for the conferring of annuities, elections were held twice a year, and a small book was published containing a list of fifty candidates for each election. This list gave about ten lines to each applicant's case, and the frightful record there set forth of the destitution and desolation into which educated women fall was the most heartrending thing she had ever read in her life. When she first saw this list it occurred to her that there must be something wrong, when so many educated women could fall into such a condition (hear;) and the publication of this report appeared to her to be the cause of having anything done in reference to the condition of well-educated women. The first thing done was the publication of THE ENGLISH WOMAN'S JOURNAL, dealing with everything relating to the employment of women. Miss Jessie Boucherett being desirous of effecting the employment of ladies in shops, joined with the originators of THE ENGLISH

WOMAN'S JOURNAL, and the result was the organization of a society for the employment of women, of which Lord Shaftesbury was president, with a committee composed of twelve ladies and twelve gentlemen. Two employments were thought of, printing and law copying. The latter was firmly established, and it was a branch which should be capable of being carried out in many provincial towns (hear, hear.) Miss Boucherett established a school in which women should be taught book-keeping. The attendance at her special book-keeping classes averaged twenty-three, and several situations had been found for competent pupils. Several women were apprenticed to various pursuits; four to the hair-dressing trade, which was considered suitable for them, and some to dial painting. In the office which had been opened at Langham Place a register was kept, and there Miss Crowe, who sat there all day, was constantly receiving applications from women seeking something to do. They had been, on the whole, successful in finding employment for a great number. Some had been sent to the telegraph office, some to be trained as nurses; and they were always anxious to receive any information of employment being open for women, because the number of applicants seeking situations exceeded that of employers looking for persons to employ, and for this reason they desired to increase their country connexion, and to form local committees wherever they could (hear, hear.) The working of this register taught them how very deficient the bulk of women are in training for any kind of practical work. There is much difficulty accordingly in finding anything for them to do, and another difficulty is the large number of women who are in this condition. The last plan to which the society has devoted itself is the carrying out of some scheme by which educated women can be helped to emigrate. The desire is to form a reception committee to receive any ladies whom they send out, and to establish local committees in the different colonies to communicate with the central committee (hear, hear.) Her wish was to form a joint committee of ladies and gentlemen in Dublin, who would enter into correspondence with the central body (hear, hear.) It had been asked of her in Dublin, Was she sure she was not doing more harm than good, and was she not taking women out of the household? The paper which she had read showed that she was alive to the pernicious extent into which women were drawn by the operations of trade in England and France, particularly married women; but she wished to repeat that the result of their working had been to show that the effect of women's labor in this kingdom and France was to disorganize the condition of women to such an extent that in "the lower classes" they were worked excessively, the tendency being more and more to cast upon them the necessity of working for their bread, while in the middle classes there was a great deficiency of means by which they could obtain an honest livelihood, and an inferior training for such work. They had no particular or special remedy to apply to this particular class; all they wished for was that the subject should be thoroughly looked into, and it should be looked into by women as well as by men, as women were the best judges in a matter concerning the condition of their own sex (hear.) Miss Faithfull would tell the meeting about the Victoria Press, as she was the chief manager (applause.)

Miss EMILY FAITHFULL then came forward, and was received with applause. She entered into a statement of the circumstances under which she opened the Victoria Press, the system by which she worked out her idea of training girls to the printing business, and the success with which, so far, the experiment has been attended. The principal facts which the lady mentioned have already appeared in the paper read by her in the Social Economy section.

The CHAIRMAN—I am sure we all feel most thankful to Miss Parkes and Miss Faithfull for their very interesting statements (hear, hear, and applause.) If any lady present is desirous of making any observations or inquiry they will be happy to answer them.

Miss PARKES—Should any objections be entertained I should be very glad

if they were now stated. We have taken a good deal of trouble to place the meeting on such a footing as shall make it really conversational, and I should like to feel that we had raised some interest, and linked people to us in our work (hear, hear.)

Lord TALBOT DE MALAHIDE said that as nobody else had risen he would make a few remarks, not by any means objections (hear, hear.) He had listened to the statements made with the greatest possible attention, and fully sympathized and agreed with all that had been uttered. He trusted that the benevolent ladies who had taken up the subject would have the support they deserve in this country. If he knew anything of the hearts of the ladies of Dublin and of Ireland he knew this, that they were never backward in helping any object promoted to improve the condition of their sex or of their country (hear, and applause.) It was only necessary to have the present question put before them in a plain and practical manner in order to ensure their co-operation. Of all the questions which had been discussed not one was of greater importance or more deserving of support than the question of the employment of women. He would take a larger view of the subject than had been brought before the meeting. As was so well expressed by the ladies who had spoken, the extent to which women and children are employed is perfectly appalling. Married women and children are crammed into factories to the detriment of their health, and in many cases of their morals, a condition of things which betrays a most diseased and dangerous social state, and he could not but think that some means would be found in order to modify or correct it (hear, hear.) It was proved by statistical facts that owing to this system the population of many of those districts were actually becoming physically deteriorated. From the appearance as well as the habits of the people of parts of Lancashire and Yorkshire, it was plain that the race was descending in the social scale. He trusted that the great philanthropists of the day would, before long, take up this great question, and deal with it in a manner that would avoid setting class against class, and embittering the relationship of employer and workman, and would be of benefit to both (hear, hear.) Great as were the questions, they excited the interest and attention of thinking and benevolent persons in the present day. Great as was the interest felt in the factory question, in which Lord Shaftesbury and the noble lord now present (Lord Brougham) took so active a part, great as was the benefit that resulted from the successful carrying of it out, it sank into insignificance compared with the question he (Lord Talbot de Malahide) had alluded to. He admitted it was fraught with difficulties, and should be cautiously handled. He trusted it would not be said hereafter that the great invention of the day—the practical application of steam machinery to manufactures—while it advanced the wealth of the country, was the source of the deterioration of its people, (hear, hear,) but that means would be found to turn it to their benefit and interest. He knew no means so effectual, with that view, as establishing a factory in which the operations would be carried on successfully and satisfactorily without the employment of married women or children (hear, hear.) That was a scheme which he recommended to the great societies in the manufacturing counties, "the Co-operative Societies," which had done much to advance the condition of the persons of whom they were composed. This subject, he thought, was closely allied to that brought before the meeting. If they could produce that great change in the employment of labor they would have no difficulty in obtaining employment for all classes, which at present stood in great need of it (hear, hear.) The advantages of emigration had been well observed upon, and some change in the system seemed not only desirable but necessary (hear, hear.) He could not avoid giving full expression to his feelings and opinions on the subject introduced by the benevolent ladies who had addressed them, although his observations might not meet the concurrence of all present. Lady Talbot de Malahide had requested him to say that she felt deeply interested in the success of the movement, and that she would assist to promote it by every means in her power (hear, hear.)

Mr. ACKROYD desired, as a manufacturer, to say a few words in reference to some observations which had fallen from the noble lord. He was a large employer of labor, having between 3000 and 4000 persons in his employment. While he admitted that the remarks of the noble lord applied to the state of things which existed before the passing of the Factory Act, they should bear in mind the class of employment for which women were peculiarly adapted. He would mention the social appliances which he had brought to bear upon women and children. He had 1000 children in schools in connexion with his works—those from eight to thirteen years of age only worked half-time, and attended the schools, thus receiving industrial and scholastic teaching. The change from school to work was very much liked by the children. Evening classes were established for young women, needlework was taught, and cooking classes established, and music was not forgotten. Married women were seldom employed when their husbands were well off, but he considered that it would be productive of much evil if any act was passed preventing married women working in factories. Often, when the husband was ill, the family would be plunged in distress if it were not that the wife had an opportunity of earning money at a time when it was so much required. He could not sit down without bearing testimony to the zeal of Miss Parkes in the cause. For a short period he was in Parliament, and soon after his return that lady called on him, and so thoroughly enlisted him in the cause, that it had and would continue to have his warm sympathy and support (cheers.)

Lord TALBOT DE MALAHIDE explained that his observations referred to the state of some manufacturing districts only. If all manufactories were carried on as Mr. Ackroyd's and many others were, there would be no foundation for the remarks made, but there were some he feared in which the same principle was not adopted.

Lord BROUGHAM said—I beg leave to add a few words to what my friend Lord Talbot de Malahide has said. What has passed shows there might be some little controversy, but he could tell them that if all manufactories were carried on like his friend's, Mr. Ackroyd, there would be little or nothing to complain of, either as regarded married women or children; for nothing could be more healthy than their condition in all respects in that great establishment. There could be no difference, however, as to the advisability, in all respects, of encouraging and supporting the exertions, made so admirably and disinterestedly by Miss Parkes, Miss Faithfull, and others with whom they are connected, in finding out new lines of employment for females (applause.) There is no manner of doubt that the greatest possible service has been rendered by these ladies to that most important class of the community, upon whose well-being, both as to their comforts and morals, so many material interests of society depend (hear, hear.) I hope and trust that they will find encouragement and support in this country (hear, hear.) To say that Irishwomen are deficient in right feeling towards the less fortunate members of their own sex—to say that they have less feeling than Englishwomen and Scotchwomen—why you might as well say they are not handsome; and if any one had a doubt on this point the sight now before me would convince them (laughter and applause.)

Miss PARKES said that she had seen the experiment of placing a respectable well-educated superintendent—a sort of moral missionary—over the females in large industrial establishments worked with the greatest success.

Lord TALBOT DE MALAHIDE moved a resolution—"That this meeting, recognising the importance of the meeting, is willing to assist in forming a branch society in Dublin, in connexion with that of the London Society, for promoting the employment of women."

Lord BROUGHAM seconded the resolution.

Mr. F. W. BRADY, Q.C., said he was sure the benevolent ladies would find their exertions not unrewarded, and that a committee would be formed in Dublin to co-operate with the London committee (hear, hear.) He directed

their attention to THE ENGLISH WOMAN'S JOURNAL, which might be had at the door, and in which they would learn all that had been done by these ood ladies (hear, hear.)

Mr. HASTINGS said that they should never be deterred from doing what they considered right because some people said it couldn't be done, or that it was wrong to do it. When Miss Isa Craig was appointed to perform some duties in connexion with the Association, he was told it was impossible that a woman could fill such a position, and that it was improper that she should do so. He would not detain the meeting by detailing all the good she had done for the Association; but there was not a member of it who, after four years' experience, would not consider it one of the greatest calamities that could happen to it if she retired from her place (hear.)

Mr. TODD said it appeared to him that what they wanted in this country was not so much the means of employing females as to make it fashionable for females to take employment. As one deeply interested in Ireland, he would say, although he knew it was unpopular, he would say that it was not sufficiently fashionable amongst the female sex to take occupation (hear, hear.) Very few of the educated classes were disposed to enter into business, unless compelled to do so by unfortunate circumstances (hear, hear.) What they wanted was that the ladies should take an interest in training females to business habits. The education of the ladies of the middle classes required to be more practical. There was too much of what was called "accomplishments," and an absence of everything useful for the purposes of every-day life (hear, hear.) He would be most happy to do all in his power to co-operate with the ladies of Dublin in the good work in which the ladies of the Association were engaged.

Mr. MACFARLANE (who was indistinctly heard) said that for the last twenty-five years the Grangegorman Penitentiary had been under the management of a lady, and it had been most admirably conducted.

The resolution was put and carried.

Dr. HANCOCK moved that the marked thanks of the meeting be given to Miss Parkes and Miss Faithfull for attending and bringing the subject before them.

Mr. GIBSON seconded the resolution, which was carried by acclamation.

The proceedings then terminated.

We have dwelt at considerable length upon what took place at the recent Social Science meeting upon the question of the employment of women, both because we naturally presume the subject to be one of great interest to our readers, and because we are anxious to record in these pages the advance of the movement, which is nowhere so signally marked as at these meetings. The most indifferent person cannot fail to be struck by the steady and sure growth, not only of the practical working of the movement, but of its rise in public estimation.

The number and subjects of the various papers, contributed by ladies in the different sections of the recent meeting—received in all cases with respect, and in many looked upon as valuable contributions—conclusively show, that unfit as we must acknowledge the bulk of women to be, to take part at present in the higher and more responsible branches of employment, that unfitness arises, not from natural incapacity, but from want of that education and training which the few have known how to obtain for themselves, and are now anxiously desiring to impart to others.

These meetings of the Social Science Association are as yet the

only field open to women for public discussion; it is here they can best test the value of work done, and, aided by the experience of the past, return to their various labors, their hands strengthened, and their spirits cheered by the sympathy and co-operation of the best men and women who have been among their listeners.

X.—NOTICES OF BOOKS.

The Workwoman. *"L'Ouvrière."* Par Jules Simon. Paris: Hachette, et Cie., Rue Pierre Sarrazin, 14.

At a first glance one might deem a subject bearing this title most dull and unattractive, especially to the English reader. We shall, however, be enabled as we proceed, to demonstrate that the condition of the wives and children of the French working-classes closely resembles that of our own lower orders, and that the reflections on, and the suggestions for, ameliorating their present mode of life, contained in M. Simon's volume, are well calculated to afford valuable information to all English reformers and philanthropic workers. Perhaps the greatest praise we can bestow on our author is, to affirm that his opinions are just and moderate, untainted with the revolutionary heat so often rendering this class of books, not only useless, but highly injurious to that section of the community whose interests they are supposed to advance. M. Simon has divided his volume into four parts, all equally well written and well treated. Before specifying the subjects which are entered upon in each of these divisions, we must acquaint the reader with our author's object, which is to restore "family life" to the manufacturing populations of France.

This term, "family life," may need some little explanation at our hands; and as its non-existence is the evil condemned by M. Simon, we will briefly explain its meaning. In all the large manufacturing towns of England and France, it is the rule for husband, wife, and children to work through the day at the manufactory, merely returning at night to sleep under the same roof. The miseries arising from this system are most serious, and only by restoring a more natural mode of life to the working population can we hope to check the prevailing want and unhappiness. Husband, wife, and child being separated except for an hour or so in the evening, when all are fatigued by the long day's work, it may be said no home exists. Machinery has beyond doubt brought about this melancholy state of things, having offered inducements to women and children to spend their days in a factory. The mere fact of the wife being engaged all the day will easily convince the least thoughtful how pernicious is the system of out-door employment for married women. The children, without a mother's care, run to seed; the house becomes

dirty and uncomfortable; the husband, disgusted, seeks comfort elsewhere.

M. Simon first treats of the female workers in the silk manufactories; secondly, of their employment in spinning and weaving; thirdly, of the smaller various occupations in which they are engaged; while, lastly, he concludes with some chapters touching reforms proposed, and education. In France, as in this country, during the last fifty years, much has been accomplished by Government in improving mentally and physically the condition of the working-classes. Our author ably shows us how little real good can be effected until woman exercises in her proper sphere that influence which rightly she should exercise on the destiny of her husband and children. In place of increasing the weekly gain by toiling in the factory, she should resume her position as guardian of the household. Now, it is of common occurrence to find the home of the artisan abandoned for the day. If there are any young children, probably the services of some poor woman are engaged to watch over them; more often they are allowed to wander about hungry and uncared for. Growing up like weeds, it is not surprising that they should arrive at years of maturity with doubtful morals, steeped in a gross ignorance. On the mother vitally depends the welfare of the working-man and his successors. M. Simon, as we have remarked, has discovered the root of the evil to lie in the fact of the greedy manufactory absorbing the daily energies of women. Considerable time has been spent by the author in investigating the condition of the French working-classes, with a view more particularly of discovering the amount of labor accomplished by females and its various channels. When the whirlwind of the revolution had passed like a scourge over France, its effect was to liberate workmen from bondage by giving them equality before the law, and in suppressing the absolute power of the master. The statutes of 1833 released their minds from as heavy a yoke, in opening a way to knowledge by means of elementary schools and classes. As regards the manufacturing houses, much has been achieved to further the health and comfort of the *employés*. M. Simon aptly observes on this head, "That which was most noticeable in a manufactory thirty years ago was contempt for the *man*; now the reverse is the case, every attention being given to promoting his health." The ceilings are lofty, rooms well ventilated, the soil well drained, and spacious yards reserved for meals, whilst every precaution is taken to prevent accidents from the machinery. So much having been attained in the right direction, we might begin to congratulate ourselves on a visible amelioration, were we not compelled to pause in front of a dire obstacle, "*c'est la suppression de la vie de famille.*" When steam power received its first development, masters were not long in discovering that women working at reduced rates could better fulfil the duties of tending its iron arm. Women and children came in, men went

out. If we regard the actual work demanded from women in this position, we shall not find its nature revolting, although laborious. What we have to direct our attention to is the evil influence exerted on the home of the artisan by the regular daily absence of the wife. Furthermore, we must cast a glance at the mixed character of the women employed, and few of these workrooms exist without a "*mauvaise sujêt.*" Existence in such polluted atmospheres cannot but be baneful to the young mother, the mistress of the household. Any domestic theory she may have formed will not be benefited by the conversation heard during the long working hours of the day. Even supposing she escapes such danger, little can be effected towards preserving properly house and children in the few remaining evening hours. The husband returns fatigued, to find his room dirty, the fire dull, disorder rampant, and a wife almost a stranger to him. Nine cases out of ten, ill-tempered, he seeks the attractive cabaret, which thirsts to consume the hard-earned francs. It is impossible to disguise from ourselves the fact, that so long as the manufactory absorbs woman's labor, so long will family intercourse be broken up, and ruin pursue the home of the workman. How, then, is the magic wand of Reform to be applied? The wife is actuated to seek out-door work to increase the gain of her husband. The remark probably suggested to the reader's mind we beg to anticipate. "Is it necessary she should do so? Is not the gain of the husband sufficient? or surely the manufactory proprietors must under-pay their *employés.*" We refer such inquirers to M. Simon, who we imagine can throw some light on the matter. The substance of his paper tells us that proprietors cannot without direct loss raise their workmen's wages above the current rate. Moreover, did prudence and economy reign in the laboring classes, the weekly salary of the workman would be fully adequate to the maintenance of wife and family, excepting of course cases in which sickness or accident intervenes. We have now to make the melancholy statement that the laboring man frequently expends at the cabaret during Monday a fourth or more of his weekly gains. Here we may fairly institute a comparison between English workmen and their brothers on the other side of the Channel. Both suffer from this mania of periodical reckless waste; and not only does this remark apply to the poorer classes of the manufacturing towns, but equally to all working classes. Our watering-places afford a striking example of this reckless imprudence. During the season the boatmen realize more than enough to support themselves and their families during the winter. Few on the advent of the dead season, however, can boast of possessing the necessary funds to last through it; and recourse must then be had to the charity of the inhabitants. The only means at hand to correct this evil is the organization of savings' banks, (those about to be established by Government in this country will soon enable us to judge their corrective efficacy,) also the formation of clubs and societies affording support to mem-

bers when sick or unemployed. The influence so lately exerted by our trades'-unions detrimentally on the true interests of the British workman induces us to doubt their beneficial effects; we should be more desirous to witness the establishment of less powerful, but equally salutary societies. We ought not, we may observe, in discussing the improvidence of the poorer classes, to be too severe. In the ranks above them the same fault exists, though from the different circumstances it does not so often necessitate an equal amount of disaster and trouble: Emerson, in one of his latest and best essays, speaks of the common error of living close up to one's income. The yearly or weekly pay increases, the recipient without hesitation in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred increases his expenditure. The rainy day comes, exposing these unthoughtful ones to its dire chill. When we see how this error obtains in the higher classes, where we might suppose education to have dictated a little common prudence, our condemnation should be somewhat mitigated in surveying the laxity which prevails in the realms of poverty and ignorance. In the middle orders we occasionally come across professors of the admirable theory of regulating expenditure with a view to the future. The practice we are bound to add is rare and partial. Still, it is something to have the theory, which may act as a check; the poor man, on the other hand, ignores both the principle and its development. The charitable spirits who minister to the necessities of poverty could effect no little by enforcing this excellent doctrine on the objects of their compassion; we are morally certain of the good seed soon bearing fruit.

With the present forced absence of the wife from the workman's home, we can easily perceive how likely he is to go astray and, without knowledge of domestic happiness, to seek excitement and pleasure with loose companions. We know full well that, in many cases, men of this rank are often led away when such is not the case, but the danger is increased tenfold when the wife is occupied all day at the manufactory. M. Simon informs us that needlework is not nearly so lucrative and far more laborious an employment for women, else we should at once feel inclined to suggest its introduction to restore home work to those wives who *must* bring in their quota to the weekly gain. Since it is impossible to raise the wages of the workman, and thus cause the wife's return to home life, M. Simon concludes that all efforts should be directed to decrease, if possible, the evil, by limiting the hours of female labor, maintaining, when practicable, isolated employment, and above all decentralizing, where the interests of trade would be untouched, female occupation from unhealthy, densely populated towns to the open country. "We must not," says M. Simon, "renounce doing good because we cannot accomplish all we wish at once." We can assure our author that should his book be rightly read and estimated in France, as well as here, no little will have been effected in the right path. A gleam of sunshine will be thrown on charitable minds;

they will recognise that no permanent relief can be afforded to the poor unless "family life" be encouraged. "*Associations de Secours*," "*Caisses des Retraites*," and such societies, are likewise necessary; but the basis of happiness to the people, of productive force and prosperity to the country, is undoubtedly the existence of domestic life.

In treating of the silk manufactory at Lyons, our author states that more than one-third of the work is done by women—indeed, little is entrusted to men which can be handed over to the other sex. This does not arise from French masters being advocates of female labor, but rather from the advantages they derive from employment of women in certain branches of manufacture. One important point upon which M. Simon animadverts strongly, and we think justly, is the system of apprenticeship under which men and women serve. The great firms make it a custom to give out to smaller proprietors, or rather overseers, certain pieces of work. The overseers then engage the requisite number of hands, paying their services, however, at very reduced rates. An overseer in one large room or workshop often superintends three or four different *métiers*. The influence exercised by these men is most pernicious. They not only aid in the congregation of men and women indiscriminately together in stifling ill-ventilated apartments; but they seriously interfere with the interests of the *employés*, by appropriating a large proportion of their rightful gains. If these overseers were swept away, workmen and women could take work directly from large manufacturers, and, in addition to receiving the full price for their labor, be enabled to pursue their occupation in a great measure at home. It has been found from experience that women are unable to gain equal wages with men. Physically they cannot accomplish (with few exceptions) the manufacture of the larger pieces of silk. There is one thing which M. Simon speaks of with great satisfaction, viz. that at Lyons, women always have been paid for work performed in the same proportion as men. It is to be regretted that in England the same equity has not been observed, though perhaps of late years the public press may have been hastening a reform so much needed. It will be gratifying to all friends of the workman and workwoman when the motto of their employers is "*A chacun suivant ses œuvres*." At Lyons the principle embodied in those few words has been strictly and honorably carried out. Whilst on the subject of the *ateliers* and their occupants, M. Simon takes the opportunity to observe on the very active and important part the wife of the proprietor usually plays in business transactions. Writers on France have frequently remarked on this peculiarity among women of all classes in that country. M. Michelet, if we mistake not, in his "La Femme," rather severely upbraids the system by which women are compelled to labor most unnaturally in the open fields, exposed to the trying variations of temperature. As a convincing proof of the calamitous effects of such labor, he

quotes statistics showing the frightful mortality produced, especially in the northern districts, by consumption. In no land and among no people was it ever intended by the wise laws of nature that women should be subjected to work solely fit to be done by the hands of man. M. Michelet does not hesitate to accuse the majority of his countrymen of selfishness, and he traces with much truth and ingenuity the great mass of the evils troubling French society to this source.

To return, however, to the part which the wife of the *atelier* proprietor plays in all business transactions. In the first place she negotiates to obtain work, then actively engages in its construction, and finally carries it home to receive payment. We plainly see that our friend of the *atelier* is a true Frenchman. Although the malicious frequently take exception to the wife's course of action, hinting that too much familiarity often exists between manufacturers, their clerks, and the female representatives of the workshops, the jealousy of the husbands does not seem able to overcome their decided taste for relief from business minutia. We are inclined to coincide almost entirely in what M. Simon says on this head, that mostly these reports are merely mischievous calumnies wanting foundation. Both husband and wife in this class are exceedingly well-to-do, consequently, unless naturally viciously inclined, the wife is secured against dangers to which the less fortunate, especially among single women, are exposed. After dwelling on the superiority of the Lyons silk, M. Simon informs us that the reason why that city has continued in a position to supply the market with finer and better work, at current prices, is that labor has been disseminated in a great measure in the suburbs. As there exists now an evident tendency to centralize labor in the town, by workshops and large manufactories, not only does the interest of trade, but the greater happiness of the working population demand that this spreading error should be nipped in the bud. Where the manufactory is not, *there* is more morality; and when sedentary home work can be put into the hands of married women the interests of the husband, children, and home do not suffer. Could reform step in and, sweeping away the *atelier* system, restore the men and women now jointly engaged in the silk manufactory to the free atmosphere of the open country, trade would prosper, and domestic comfort return to the workman's home. The husband, says M. Simon, could then work in the field, (and it is well known that men gain twice the wages of women in agricultural labor,) whilst the wife could manage the weaving in-doors, the cheap rate of country living also materially aiding. As a matter of course, the *atelier* proprietors set their faces against such a beneficial movement, they being evident losers should it occur. In proposing to decentralize weaving from the great towns, and spread it throughout the country, we should remark that it is of the first importance that women alone should labor in the silk manufactories, for when men divide their time between field occupations and the loom the discovery has been

made that the material suffers in quality and fineness. At Crefeld, when some of the laborers employ the bad season in weaving, only work of a very inferior character is obtained from them; but at Crefeld the greater part of the weaving trade is held by women, and these succeed admirably. At Zurich likewise, women occupy five trades out of six. As M. Simon finally sums up: "*Le premier principe économique est d'appliquer tout producteur à l'ouvrage auquel il est propre.*"

We have already said that the *atelier* proprietors vigorously oppose any reform; but in the higher ranks—that is, among the great manufacturers—resistance is also made. But the opposition of the latter, based more on routine than anything else, cannot compare with the weight and magnitude of that of the former. Should the proposed reform take effect, they must sink into the ranks of simple workmen, and renounce the individual and collective importance of their present position. M. Simon exhibits sound sense in repudiating the idea of transferring men and women now actually employed in towns to a country life. The majority, through habit, have learnt to doat on the *cafés*, theatres, and other places of amusement, so temptingly near at hand. Accustomed to depend, not on themselves, but on the master of the *atelier*, they fail to welcome with pleasure domestic country life and with it a certain amount of responsibility. Reform must be effected by gradually lessening the number of *ateliers*, and increasing the orders to the country. Precedents exist to prove this much can easily be accomplished, as in Switzerland and Germany. Half of the manufactures of Viersen and Crefeld is the product of *home* labor, far from the great centres of population. At Lyons, in addition, certain houses have successfully adopted this system, and there is no reason why it should not become general. In fine, as a balance to foreign competition, recourse must be had either to isolated labor or machinery. "Now," says M. Simon, "if the former will enable our trade to keep ahead, and hinder silk manufacture from leaving France, we can have no object in an industrial point of view in renouncing it. When the morality, comfort, and happiness of the working population can go hand-in-hand with the prosperity of trade, it is wise as well as humane for those who have this power to combine the two." Surely this is sound as well as Christian reasoning.

Further, our author speaks of those institutions set on foot by charitable manufacturers and others of the towns which provide hired nurses and nurseries for the children when the mother is engaged all day. Such establishments owe their origin, undoubtedly, to motives of most praiseworthy benevolence. Unfortunately, their originators have overlooked the sacred duty, the unfathomable influence and power which a mother alone possesses over her child. The result of this system were it to become general would be fatally pernicious to the future working population. M. Simon graphically and reasonably shows this miserable, unnatural plan in ts true light; it, indeed, needs no exaggeration. To render, figu-

ratively speaking, the children of the poor a race of orphans in this nineteenth century is truly horrible. Certainly the remedies applied to cure the deep-laid evil of females working in the manufactory has been most partial and ineffectual. As an instance of this we might mention the institutions at Jujurieux, &c., species of wokring establishments for young women, constructed by some French philanthropist to screen the occupiers from the dangers of large towns. Here all the melancholy routine of a convent is observed, with the addition of a severe day's labor. The least tender hearts will feel compassion for the poor girls here incarcerated. Such houses of relief, and other systems *less severe*, may guarantee a better state of body. "*Mais l'âme souffre;*" and in those few words much sad truth is contained.

Not the least interesting sections of this volume are those treating of drunkenness and its fearful effects, as well on the body as on the working man and family.

In the chapter describing the lodgings of the working-classes we come across fearful pictures of misery. A very slight inspection in any of the large towns of the abodes of poverty reminds us that much yet remains to be done. To those who inhabit rooms well-ventilated and lighted, who enjoy a moderate share of creature comforts, it is a difficult matter to realize life in crowded underground cells, where the miserable occupiers, always hungry, either stew with heat or shiver with cold. Our readers of luxurious turn of mind will find M. Simon's pages act like a tonic; indeed, it does us all good to be made justly to appreciate our position in life. We should not omit to mention the very excellent account of the mode of life led by working women in the cities. The difficulties they have to contend against are indeed terrible; and by careful calculation our author shows that, with all economy, they are often on the brink of ruin and starvation. As a corrective to all these ills we have just touched on, M. Simon points to the creation of "family life;" and on the principle that union is strength advocates the combined joint exertions of man and woman.

Towards the close of this volume we have a chapter on the "powerlessness of direct remedies" treated in a masterly manner. How to struggle against the influence of manufactories which continue to enrol women and children? As this is the principal but not the sole cause of the destruction of the *vie de famille*, M. Simon briefly glances at and criticises the various schemes which have been from time to time advanced as likely to exert a retarding influence on this evil monopoly of woman's labor. One of these schemers appears to have arrived at the conclusion that the only and best mode of striking a blow is to open to women every possible source of employment, and in a list are specified the occupations, considerable in number, particularly suited to female laborers. We do not altogether endorse the opinion that women in this country have hardly any other chance of working but in the manufactory. We cannot see the objections to their gaining a living by

the very same occupations which M. Simon imagines alone fitted for French women.

In passing judgment on this the second remedy, M. Simon views it as merely palliative and superficial. The first remedy we have passed over as perfectly impracticable, its object being to limit female labor by law to certain specified trades. Our author is decidedly of opinion that by indirect means "family life" can be restored, and he goes on to explain how this must be brought about by the *workman*. He must be educated, and his physical, by means of his mental, condition be improved. A moral reform is wanting. As regards education after 1833, rapid progress was made; but yet France is far behind Prussia, Hanover, Saxony, and even Austria. On every occasion when the French Government has called on the working-classes to benefit by public instruction, thousands have come forward. It is difficult at all times for the Government of a country to organize such a system of education as will meet the requirements of the poorer classes, and M. Simon, in asking for more extended, more complete public instruction, forgets the existence of the despotic master of the Tuileries. The French emperor cannot yet afford to adopt a liberal policy, and he therefore cannot sanction such an educational reform as our author longs for. This may account in a measure for the preparation of works of instruction, destined for perusal by the lower ranks, being composed by men who write down to the level of their readers, not to raise their mental capacity too high. We most entirely agree with M. Simon in this view that by a genuine system of education the happiness and prosperity of the working-classes can alone be secured. He is, however, at times, almost carried away by his liberal feelings, and his love for the subject in hand, and omits taking into consideration the policy of the third Napoleon, which it may fairly be presumed will throw obstacles in the way of any movement tending to mentally benefit the lower orders.

M. Simon, in his volume, setting aside such slight defects as we have mentioned, has made a valuable contribution to French literature of a certain class. He doubtless intends his work for a guide to those members of the community who have the welfare of the working-classes, especially women, at heart. Like many other Frenchmen, our author may perceive symptoms that his countrymen will not for ever bow their necks under the yoke of imperialism; and when constitutional government once more appears, he may reliably hope for the beneficial tendency of his little book being felt. In taking leave of "*L'Ouvrière*," we can assure its author that no book has for a long time appeared in which purer sentiments, sounder advice, and more useful information have been combined. English readers the least interested in this important question will find matter of a most pleasing description, while the initiated or philanthropic cannot fail to benefit by the observations which apply in these pages equally to the English and French working-classes.

XI.—OPEN COUNCIL.

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

To the Editors of the English Woman's Journal.

LADIES, August 22nd, 1861.

May I ask for a little space in your valuable Journal to say a few words upon one of the many points into which the question of the employment of educated women is split? While thoroughly acknowledging that the *Times* of this morning is quite right in attributing many of the difficulties which surround this question to women themselves, who, while seeking employment, are often unwilling to accept its necessary conditions, I must beg to give an emphatic denial to one of the facts which they coolly assume as certain, and upon which they proceed to argue. I have not read Mrs. Overend's speech, and cannot therefore judge how far her proposal justifies the comments of the *Times*, but I trust they are based on a misapprehension of her meaning.

The *Times* says, there is a class of women seeking work and yet ashamed of labor; asking for remunerative employment and thinking it a disgrace to receive pay. Where are these women? I have never heard of such. But this I am quite sure of, if they do exist, they are not fit to be trusted with work, which they would assuredly do very ill; they are not fit to be trusted with the money for it, which they certainly would not know how to spend.

I have been thrown for some time among a variety of workers and would-be workers, ranging from the higher departments of labor down to the merest mechanical drudgery, and I am thankful to say, I never heard but of two instances where women seeking employment desired to conceal their name or the fact of their wanting work. On the contrary, I have seen with surprise and pleasure how universally the dignity of labor and independence has been acknowledged by all the women with whom I have conversed, even by those who, from lack of education and refinement, might naturally have been tainted with the notion that "work" was "low" and "ungenteel."

It is but just to give this testimony to the absence of one species of vulgar and foolish prejudice; and I may add, that so far from finding women in general alarmed at the prospect of taking any situation which might seem beneath the class in which they were born, I have been struck by their extreme willingness to do anything for which they were suited. I have seen ladies of good sense and good manners confessing that as they were not "accomplished" they must be satisfied with some mechanical work or manual occupation.

Where it has been a question of associating with those of a lower grade, I have very rarely indeed heard the objections which would have been perfectly fair and allowable. And when I have offered employment with an apology that it might be of a kind beneath the applicant, it has generally been thankfully accepted. "Is it fit for a *gentlewoman?* Is it employment a *lady* could take?" are questions I have never heard, save in one or two instances where the claim to either title was more than dubious.

There is no doubt that women have before their eyes an ideal "work," which is to be done at the time and in the way they please, which is to be untrammelled by hours, and unfettered by regulations, and which, after pursuing for a few years, is to yield a handsome independence on which they may retire; but the dream is slowly and surely giving place to the sterner and more prosaic reality, of perseverance, punctuality, order, and industry, through which a livelihood may be dearly bought; and God grant that among the many women ready and anxious to pay this price, one-half may obtain the opportunity of doing so.

The *Times* seems to doubt the number of women wanting employment:

we should be only too glad to admit the writer for one day to our office, and there he might see—not young ladies wishing to "eke out" their parents' income—but a crowd of educated women, in one stage or other of destitution, and with talents and energy which are lying idle for want of work. He would find that if he brought work or pay, neither would be rejected, and no go-between required to shield these ladies from the imputation of an independence which is to them not a disgraceful necessity, but an honorable and, in too many cases, an unattainable privilege.

There is an old story, that a certain lady of rank was reported to have become an authoress, and on some one expressing great astonishment at her having done anything so much beneath her station, they were comforted by the assurance that, though she had written books, *she had never made any money by them.* But such days are gone by, and I doubt if in the narrowest circle of the most vulgar exclusives of our most remote country town any idea of shame is now attached to a woman who earns her own living. If there be a set of this sort, however, I would suggest, not that a committee be formed to shield such vulgar pretention or pander to such diseased delicacy, but rather a mission to rouse a better state of feeling and to inculcate a little good sense and a little honor and intelligence among such women. Till I am forced to do so, however, I will not believe in their existence; and, in spite of a "leader" in the *Times*, and in spite of all that the writer of it may imagine, I will still venture to doubt his premises and to believe that it is an injustice to women to impute to them that special pettiness and folly which if it were general would surely have come before the Society for the Employment of Women. That it has not done so I can affirm, being, ladies,

A MEMBER OF THE COMMITTEE.

XII.—PASSING EVENTS.

SOCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL.

MARRIAGES.—Since 1838 the Registrar-General has kept a tolerably correct account of the marriages in England and Wales, and has told us not only what number is annually celebrated, but the proportion it bears to the whole population. As this subject is now of public interest, we shall quote some of his facts. In every 100,000 persons in 1860, 1,704 were married, or there were 852 marriages. In England and Wales the number of marriages was 170,305; but the proportionate number of persons married in 100,000 gives us a marriage-rate for the whole, and we need not trouble ourselves to inquire into the number of the population at different periods. This marriage rate in 1860—1,704 marriages in 100,000 of the people—was in excess of the average, 1,691, and therefore some surprise may at first be felt that complaints should now arise, and not before have arisen, that ladies cannot find husbands. Further inquiry clears up the mystery, and we notice that the complaints come from the upper classes at the West-end, while the greatest increase of marriage occurred in "the manufacturing districts of Lincolnshire and Yorkshire." At once a light breaks in on us. In 1860 our export trade, very large in 1859, increased still more. There was much prosperity in those districts; all classes were full of hope. The possession of comparative wealth, combined with good prospects, led to the increase in the number of marriages.

THE BUSINESS OF THE DIVORCE COURT.—The following statistics may interest our readers. Since the commencement of Trinity term the court has absolutely disposed of 111 cases, of which 33 were tried by jury. Besides these, a number of others have been partly heard or have been postponed by the parties themselves, so that, of the 153 on the list, there only remain 28 which have not been called on. Since the commencement of the legal year,

in November last, the Judge Ordinary (in addition to a vast number of motions) has tried 201 divorce petitions and two petitions for a declaration of legitimacy. He has also disposed of 59 testamentary causes. He has pronounced 164 decrees for the dissolution of marriages, and 10 for judicial separation, beside two declarations of nullity; 25 petitions have failed. There have been the usual proportion of heavy suits, and two of what may be termed "monster cases,"—namely, Miss Shedden's petition for a declaration of legitimacy and the Traherne Will cause, the former of which occupied fourteen days and the latter eleven. Had these been of moderate length the court would easily have been able to dispose of all the business before it. As it is, the learned judge has dissolved marriages for adultery committed so recently as October last, and has tried petitions which were not filed till December. The number of new cases already set down for hearing next term is forty. The court may thus be said to have practically cleared off the heavy list of arrears which had accumulated before the Divorce Act was amended, so as to allow the Judge Ordinary to dissolve marriages when sitting alone. This result has not, however, been attained without severe labor; and Sir C. Cresswell remarked, with perfect correctness, that he had sat a greater number of days during the past year than any other judge in Westminster Hall.

Lord Herbert and Emigration.—During the years of his absence from office Mr. Herbert was as energetic in action as ever. He was remarkably furnished with all appliances and means for doing what he thought proper; and if he had been undistinguished in political life, he would always have been busy in some benevolent scheme. He was wealthy; he had unbounded influence in his own neighborhood and connexion; and in 1846 he married a woman of taste and energy congenial to his own. She was Miss A'Court, a daughter of General A'Court and niece of Lord Heytesbury. The mere mention of her brings up recollections of an extensive emigration of laboring families, and especially of young women, to colonies which suffered most from the inequality of the sexes. Mr. and Mrs. Herbert used all their influence to promote such emigration, superintended the outfit of many hundreds, and went on board the departing ships to start the people cheerily.

Post Office Savings Banks.—The Postmaster-General has taken the first public step towards the establishment of the Post Office Savings Banks, under the 24 Vic., cap. 14, by the appointment of the comptroller of that department. The gentleman selected to fill this office is Mr. Chetwynd, who for more than twenty years has been engaged in the Money Order Office, and who is known not only to have taken a very active part in the management of the Money Order Office, but also to have rendered material assistance in arranging, in conjunction with Mr. Scudamore, the receiver and accountant-general of the Post Office, the details of the plan on which these banks are to be conducted.

Co-operative Weaving.—Colne, the battle-ground of the long-continued and disastrous strike, furnished this month a sight much more agreeable than that which lately distinguished the busy little place. The foundation stone of a co-operative weaving shed was laid there, and 700 looms will shortly be at work in it.

Emigration from Irish Ports.—It appears from an official return that the number of emigrants who left Ireland in 1860 was 84,621—42,658 males and 41,963 females, being an increase of 4,022 persons compared with those who left during the previous year—the number in 1859 being 80,599.

Families of Soldiers Serving in India.—The number of ships chartered by the Emigration Commissioners during the years 1859 and 1860 for the conveyance to India of soldiers' wives and families was eighteen. The number of emigrants who embarked amounted to 6,647—352 of whom were male adults, 3,000 female adults, 1,680 boys, and 1,615 girls. The mortality amounted to 600—viz. one male adult, twenty-nine female adults, 281 boys, and 289 girls.