THE LEADER
AND
SATURDAY ANALYST;

A REVIEW AND RECORD OF POLITICAL, LITERARY, ARTISTIC, AND SOCIAL EVENTS.

No. 521.
New Series, No. 11.

March 17th, 1860.

Price 5d.
Stamped, 6d.

CONTENTS.

THEATRES AND AMUSEMENTS.

ROYAL ENGLISH OPERA, COVENT GARDEN.
Under the Management of Miss LOUISA PYNE and Mr. W. HARRISON.

Special Notice.—Nine extra performances of Lurline, commencing Monday, March 19th, and terminating Wednesday, March 23rd, and last, for the Benefit of Miss Louisa Pyne, Manageress. In consequence of the numerous inquiries at the Box-Office the Management have arranged for Wallace's Grand Opera of Lurline to commence at a quarter to Eight each evening.

Revival of Romance, an Operetta, by Henry Leslie.

On Monday, March 19, and during the week, the Performances will commence with Henry Leslie's Operetta,

ROMANCE; or DICK TURPIN.

Messrs. St. Albyn and G. Honey, Misses Thirlwall and F. Cruise.

After which Wallace's Popular Opera of

LURLINE.

Count Rudolph, Mr. W. Harrison; Rhineberg, Mr. Santley; Gnome, Mr. H. Corri; Baron, Mr. G. Honey; Ghiva, Miss Pilling; Liba, Miss F. Cruise; and Lurline, Miss Louisa Pyne.

Conductor, Mr. Alfred Mellon.

Doors open at half-past Six; commence at Seven.

Stage Manager, Mr. Edward Stirling. Acting Manager, Mr. Edward Murray.

Stalls, 7s.; Private Boxes, to hold four persons, from 10s. 6d. upwards; Dress Circle, 5s.; Amphitheatre Stalls, 3s.; Pit, 2s. 6d.; Amphitheatre, 1s.

ROYAL ENGLISH OPERA, COVENT GARDEN.
MISS LOUISA PYNE respectfully intimates to the Nobility, Gentry, and the Public (her Patrons) that her BENEFIT will take place on Wednesday, March 28th.

THEATRE ROYAL, HAYMARKET.
(Under the Management of Mr. Buckstone.)

The "Overland Route" every Evening.

Monday and Tuesday, THE HAPPIEST DAY OF MY LIFE. After which, at Eight, THE OVERLAND ROUTE. Messrs. Charles Mathews, Coppendale, Compton, Buckstone, Mrs. C. Mathews, &c. With HE WOULD BE AN ACTOR. Motley, Mr. C. Mathews. And a Farce.

Wednesday, FOUNDED ON FACTS, THE OVERLAND ROUTE, at Eight, THE BOARDING SCHOOL, and a Ballet.

Thursday, by desire, at Seven, THE OVERLAND ROUTE. With THE CRITIC. Puff and Sir Fretful Plagiary, Mr. C. Mathews.

Friday and Saturday, THE BOARDING SCHOOL, THE OVERLAND ROUTE, at Eight, HOW TO MAKE HOME HAPPY, and a Ballet.

ROYAL OLYMPIC THEATRE.
Lessees, Messrs. F. Robson and W. S Emden.

Monday and during the week, will be performed THE HEAD OF THE FAMILY. Characters by Messrs. H. Wigan and W. Gordon, Miss Cottrell and Mrs. Stirling.

After which, a new serio-comic drama, founded on "Mon Oncle Baptiste," to be called UNCLE ZACHARY. Characters by Messrs. F. Robson, G. Vining, W. Gordon, G. Cooke, E. Vining, H. Rivers, and Franks; Messrs. Leigh Murray, and Miss Herbert.

To conclude with TOM NODDY'S SECRET.

Doors open at 7. Commence at half-past 7.

THEATRE ROYAL, LYCEUM.
Sole Lessee and Directress, Madame Celeste.

Eighth Week of the eminently successful Drama, A TALE OF TWO CITIES, and last Week but One of the present Season.

On Monday, and during the week, a New Drama, entitled THE ABBE VAUDREUIL; or, The Court of Louis XVth. The Abbé Vaudreuil, Madame Celeste.

On Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, LUCKY STARS. Barbara Bristles, Mrs. Keeley.

On Thursday, Friday, and Saturday, a new comedietta, entitled, 17, ARUNDEL STREET, STRAND Principal characters by Mr. Walter Lacy, J. Rouse, Mrs. Keeley, Miss Kate Saville, and Mrs. Campbell.

After which, Mr. William Calcott's Magnificent Transformation Scene from KING TRUSH-BEARD.

To conclude with the new and successful Drama of A TALE OF TWO CITIES. Principal characters by Mr. Walter Lacy, James Vining, Villiers, Forrester, Rouse, Johnstone, Lyon, Morton, Butler, Palmer, Clifford, White, Miss Kate Saville, Stuart, Turner, Campbell, and Madame Celeste.

ROYAL ST. JAMES'S THEATRE,
KING STREET, ST. JAMES'S.

Sole Lessee, Mr. F. B. CHATTERTON.

Directress, Miss WYNDHAM.

Nearest theatre to Chelsea and Pimlico, the Park being open to carriages and foot-passengers all hours of the night.

On Monday, for the benefit of Miss Clara St. Classe, a variety of Entertainments.

On Tuesday and Wednesday No. FORTY-NINE. After which, FIRST AFFECTIONS. To be followed by the successful Burlesque of DIDO. To conclude with MAGIC TOYS.

On Thursday, for the Benefit of Mr. Charles Young, the Nautical Drama of BLACK-EYED SUSAN, and a variety of Entertainments.

Reduced Prices—Pit, 1s.; Gallery, 6d.

Box-office open from 11 to 5 daily. Commence at 7.

PARLIAMENT AND ITS MASTER.

THE personal ascendancy of Mr. GLADSTONE is the absorbing topic of the parliamentary day. There has been nothing like it in the House of Commons since the death of Mr. CANNING. Like that distinguished man, the present CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER owes his pre-eminence solely and emphatically to his own great talents, and to his unwearied diligence in their cultivation. Like him he owes little to fortune or family connection. Like him the opening of his public career was heralded by the *éclat* of university distinction, and marked by early success in debate. Like him his attachment to the Tory party was early suspected of wavering, and his consequent position was long doubtful and disputable. Historic memories and political idealisms jarred in the minds of both with the dogmatism of modern democracy, and the political quakerism of the Utilitarian party. The large element of benevolence, and the high ambition of both, naturally lead them to espouse an industrial policy widely liberal and nationally popular; but whenever questions of political or ecclesiastical power were at stake, Mr. CANNING relapsed into the old traditions of Conservatism, and up to the present time Mr. GLADSTONE has shown no disposition to discard them. As a rare implement for the disintegration and damage of a rival faction, the Whigs in general have always been ready to praise and promote the matchless orator of our day, just as they were to flatter and even to follow the unrivalled rhetorician of the times of GEORGE IV.: but then, as now, the more fastidious and more exacting members of the congregation worshipping at BROOK'S, sullenly refused to acknowledge the orthodoxy of the borrowed minister, and were ready whenever occasion served to dispute his authority, and impugn the sincerity of his professions. The greedy and garrulous crowd of politicians of all kinds worship success; and Mr. CANNING'S oratorical ascendancy in the House of Commons for many years was so indisputable, that the fine ladies of the Whigs could no more resist the temptation of his society, than the coarser-minded men of the party could deny themselves the benefits they hoped to derive from supporting his measures. A certain section of Conservatives, chiefly consisting of men of rank and refinement, adhered to him with anxious but often embarrassed fidelity. They delighted in his popularity, and still more delighted in the delight he showed that he took in being delightful. But they were never entirely free from the fear of his getting politically tipsy with the effervescence of the cup he continually filled afresh. He ruled over men by the power of fascination. Others were as wise and well informed on economic subjects, and more consistently liberal on political ones; but nobody could make the right cause win as he could, when he took it up earnestly. The earnestness might be temporary, but it was sure to be triumphant. The GOWERS and CAVENDISHES, CARLISLES and LANSDOWNES made him the idol of their adulation; while the BURDETTS and BROUGHAMS boasted their readiness in parliament "to stick their knees into his back;" but the HARROWBYS and BRISTOLS, the BENTINCKS and the BINNINGS were as frequently afraid that he would turn downright Whig, as the GREYS and HOBHOUSES were fond of prophesying his return to the old ways of Toryism. And so it is with Mr. GLADSTONE at the present hour. He poises himself with inimitable dexterity on a slackrope swung between the Carlton and the Reform. He holds in his own hand the wand of enchantment, and so long as he can dance forward imposingly and then dance backward gracefully, all the world will clap its hands; and as none can help him, few feel disposed to dispute his perilous pre-eminence, for few have the vanity to imagine themselves fitted to take his place. But it is impossible to dismiss the consciousness, that the position, however dazzling and exalted, is necessarily one of imminent instability. Its exigencies are inexorable: they forbid any long cessation from hazardous efforts; the unequal dancer must dance or die. The French proverb of *reculer pour le mieux sauter* has its converse on the political slackrope; and accordingly, whenever the unrivalled artist has accomplished some splendid movement forward, we know that he must begin a corresponding movement in a retrograde direction, or, grasping one or other of the poles between which he has hitherto played his surprising part, he must prepare to descend.

Mr. GLADSTONE is undisputed master of the position in parliament at the present moment. He has made that position for himself by his own unaided genius and indefatigable industry; and as a man of the people we rejoice heartily in his success, and look not without wonder at his singular position. But let us not mistake what that position is. It is not that of the leader of a great party, for the only party to whom he ever professed to belong distrust and defame him, while the party whom he at present serves rather than leads, daily refuse to follow his bidding or obey his call. Adopting their views, and anticipating their wishes in finance, he has brought forward and virtually carried a marvellous Budget: this is the move forward. But the move backward is about to come, or rather it has come already. The new Reform Bill not only retains in existence every rotten borough in the kingdom, but Mr. GLADSTONE has actually persuaded Lord JOHN RUSSELL, who sentenced scores of them to execution in 1852, to adopt his Conservative doctrines on the subject, and to try to rehabilitate the Tory principle of mere nominal representation. We have got a slice of financial improvement from Mr. GLADSTONE, and now he is about to make us pay the political price of it. And so also it will be, we fear, in other matters. On the Italian question he moves onwards dashingly with the popular party; but on Church Rate Abolition he is dead against us. The Manchester School sanguinely reckon, indeed, upon being able to count upon him hereafter as their leader in all things; and the readiness with which Mr. BRIGHT has renounced his Birmingham programme of Reform betrays their eagerness to close a bargain, from which they hope for official in exchange for demagogic power. It is hard to say, indeed, whether Mr. GLADSTONE has conceded more to Mr. BRIGHT, or Mr. BRIGHT more to Mr. GLADSTONE; but the *entente cordiale* seems to be complete, and no doubt there is an understanding between the high contracting parties, that the veto hitherto exercised upon the admission of the member for Birmingham to the Cabinet shall be presently withdrawn. What effect the further infusion of calico principles into the Government will have on its stability we shall consider by and by.

ITALY AND HUNGARY.

THE inhabitants of Central Italy have not disappointed the expectations formed of their prudence and patriotism, and by deciding for annexation to Sardinia they have immensely advanced their national cause, and the respect in which they will be held in every country where liberty is loved and human progress desired. In a few days the Sardinian Government will officially declare its intentions, and assume the sovereignty which has been so honourably obtained; and it will be seen whether the Austrian Court will abandon its pretensions, or venture upon fresh acts of aggression, either in its own name or through its puppets, the Duke of MODENA and the Pope. How much the Holy Father is beloved in his own territories may be seen from the votes taken at Bologna, which was of late the second city in the Papal States. It appears that 21,694 electors voted for annexation, and the important number of *two* on the other side. The mighty two ought at least to be canonized during their lifetime in order to make the most of such a splendid example of fidelity and folly, in which mixed condition alone can PIUS IX. expect to find faithfulness in followers not actuated by selfish views.

It is believed in Italy and Austria that a collision is impending, and the matter will probably turn upon whether the Emperor of the FRENCH appears inclined to leave the Italians to bear the first brunt of the struggle. The Pope is reported to have 20,000 men; the Duke of MODENA'S little army can at any moment be surreptitiously increased by additions from the Austrian ranks, and Count RECHBERG has prepared for a course of military duplicity by pretending that men wearing the Austrian uniform, and specially sent to the Pope by his Imperial master's orders, are not Austrian soldiers at all. On the 30th January this worthy minister of the HAPSBURG crown declared in the most formal way, as may be seen by the papers recently published, "We shall begin by establishing the fact that at the present hour there is not in the whole of the Italian peninsula a single Austrian soldier outside the boundaries of the monarchy." At that very time an Austrian general commanded the Pope's forces, and a fortnight before, our vice-consul at Ancona wrote to Mr. CORBETT at Florence, to say that the number of recruits landed at Ancona, "most of them wearing Austrian uniforms of the respective regiments they belonged to, is, up to this date, three hundred and eighty-three, including eleven officers, whose names are annexed." The day before Count RECHBERG set his name to the statement we have quoted—"seventy-nine men and one officer, Austrian recruits for the Papal service, arrived at Ancona on board a small Papal steamer from Trieste, and after landing, marched off to Macerata as usual." On the 28th, when our vice-consul gave this information, he described the district as in the "deepest anxiety and consternation." People were taken from their beds at night, and marched off to unknown prisons; and he adds, "the number of persons who have emigrated from Ancona and district, since the commencement of the Italian war, is reckoned to be about 2000;" a number which is in itself considerable, but which appears enormous when we find that the whole population of the province was only 176,519.

according to the census of 1853, and could not have been very much larger when the migrations began.

If the Austrian Government does not seek an opportunity for renewing the war, its conduct in Italy is inexplicable; and if such a contingency is reckoned upon, its behaviour in Hungary is still more perilous, and without reason. Instead of appeasing the anger of the Protestant churches, Count THUN is driving them to rebellion; and it is not improbable that, before long, we shall witness a renewal of the old sort of religious war, but with the difference that the tyrannical and Popish party does not possess its former strength. On the 11th January the Protestants held a great meeting in defiance of the prohibition of the Court. Forty or fifty thousand people assembled, and the Imperial functionary commanded them, in the name of the Emperor, to disperse. The Protestant leader, in the spirit of an old Covenanter or Cromwellian, thundered out, "In the name of GOD I command you to stay." The people obeyed what they accepted as a Divine injunction to support their faith. At this meeting it was decided that another meeting should be held on the 20th April; and on the 1st and 2nd March smaller gatherings took place, at which many of the nobles of Transylvania were present, including Count DEGENFELD, the brother of the Austrian commander in Venetia; and it was resolved with unanimity that the 20th April meeting should be held. If the Government should resort to force, it is probable that a collision may occur; and, if religious zeal should not betray the Protestant churches into imprudence, the ricketty Empire of Austria may find that the nineteenth century will overthrow and avenge the crimes against the Reformation, of which its rulers were guilty two centuries ago. The Court of Vienna has degenerated; its superstition has none of the ancient grandeur about it—it is effete and contemptible; and if the Protestants can produce a Hungarian GUSTAVUS, their enemies will not be able to bring another WALLENSTEIN into the field. There is nothing in the Austrian system to produce great men, and if one should arise, he would be likely to consign his beloved Emperor to Leicester Square or Spielberg, and grasp the power himself. We watch this movement in Hungary with an interest that will be felt all over the kingdom when its bearings are understood, not only because it may lead to most valuable results, but from its strong resemblance to those important passages in English history which contributed so much to make us great and free. If a fresh rebellion occurs in Hungary it will not be an outburst of "Godless democracy," nor a political struggle in which the younger and less prudent part of the population will take the lead; but a solemn, determined, "God-fearing" business, resembling that magnificent mingling of the Bible and the sword which carried the Ironsides in triumph through every field. The great danger is lest the outburst should be premature. If it is well timed it may stir up old associations in Bohemia, and do much to redeem even Austrian character from its levity and frivolity, giving to her Court and aristocracy something better to believe in than licentiousness and superstition, or roughly "improving them off the face the earth."

The stories of Austria's alliance with Russia are much doubted, although it is known that the Czarina was in favour of such a scheme. For the present, GORTCHAKOFF, who hates Austria, is believed to have triumphed, and a new rumour is afloat that the French Emperor has improved his relations with St. Petersburg, by offering to cancel that part of the Treaty of Paris, which excludes ships of war from the Black Sea. We offer no opinion on the truth of this story, and place no reliance in the conventions which diplomatists concoct. There is no putting faith in princes; one after another breaks his word or his oath, and few continental potentates are entitled to complain if the Tuileries should prove treacherous, for most of them have acted as if perjury belonged to the insignia of royalty quite as much as the sceptre or the crown.

Last week our correspondent from Hanover gave an excellent picture of the state of opinion in Germany, and the wonders of the excellent beer drinkers and tobacco smokers at what they fancy our apathy in the face of the designs of France. It is quite true that we have recovered from everything like panic, and entertain a good hope of escaping from any serious convulsion; still our dock-yards and arsenals are actively at work, and the number of our volunteers proves the wide-spread determination not to trust the chapter of accidents, but our own well-developed and organized strength. The Savoy business does not alarm us, and efforts to make a bugbear of it in the House of Commons have ended in ridiculous failure. We do not, however, wonder that any revival of Napoleonic aggression should frighten the Germans about their Rhine; but if Germany will run mad in its intestine quarrels and jealousies, it is from herself and not from the character or ambition of her neighbour that her danger will arise.

Looking to the false and hollow character of diplomacy, we are glad to find our Government growing less diplomatic; but a fuller recognition of great principles is needed, and there is something like hypocrisy or vacillation, when we find Lord PALMERSTON saying that England may be proud of having given her moral influence to bring about the present state of things in Italy, whereas both he and Lord JOHN RUSSELL only last year spoke very strongly against the very course which they now praise. Nor do they seem to have learnt wisdom from experience, for, as will be seen from the "Further Correspondence on the Affairs of Italy," Lord JOHN RUSSELL now urges the King of Sardinia not to do anything for the liberation of Venetia, just as last year he urged him to do nothing for Lombardy and the Duchies. If the patriotic efforts of VICTOR EMMANUEL and his great minister should succeed, and Italy be free from the Alps to the Adriatic, Lord PALMERSTON, next spring, will boast of the moral aid his Government gave to bring about such a happy state of affairs. We want a reconstruction of foreign policy, and need some one to arise in the House of Commons and defend a cause because it is right, and urge its prosecution whenever it is practicable. The cant of pretending friendship for Austria, and helping her enemies, is a national disgrace. The English people wish all Italy to be free, and no language should be held to Count RECHBERG or anybody else, which is inconsistent with the plain rules of Christian morality, applied to neighbours who have a moral right to our support.

THE REPORT TO THE EMPEROR.

THE reports of ministers in France serve, like our debates in Parliament, but in a more succinct and connected form, to make known the reasons on which legislation is founded. They stir up no strife of argument, they awaken no passions and impress no convictions on the people; but they record facts and motives, and are historical documents of considerable importance. The modifications made in the commercial relations of the two countries by the late Treaty have been regarded as so momentous as to require the publication in full (*sans réserve*) of the report made to the Emperor by M. BAROCHE, the President of the Council of State, and M. ROUHER, the Minister of Agriculture, of the manner in which these two negotiators carried into execution his order to negotiate the Treaty. It serves better than any conjectures or even statements of what the French think, to make us acquainted with the causes which have so long impeded the mutual trade of the two countries, and with the advantages they now expect from the Treaty.

The report begins by referring to the previous attempts made by the several Governments of France, from that of the Restoration to that of the Emperor, to unite France and England by a treaty of commerce, all of which, except the Treaty of 1826, establishing the perfect equality of the shipping of the two nations when proceeding directly from the ports of one to those of the other, were fruitless. With LOUIS PHILIPPE'S Government, soon after the Revolution of 1830, negotiations were active, but the zeal of the negotiators on both sides soon cooled. The King was himself, as a forest and coal owner, interested in Protection, and before the end of his reign the doctrines of his cabinet were less commercially liberal than at its commencement. In the interest of despotism, the two ministers adroitly ascribe this general failure to the development of the parliamentary system, which they say subordinated the general interest to the interest of individuals, and established a formidable organisation against every modification of the tariff. They are right in saying that in a parliamentary system private interests continually struggle to obtain advantages in disregard of the public welfare; but it is done openly, and fails to effect its object in proportion as the people become enlightened, and cease to be corrupt. There is, too, ever more confidence to be placed in the public for enlightenment and patriotism than in any individual. Our parliamentary system has accordingly led us much more rapidly and more continuously to put down all attempts, by whomsoever made, to substitute private advantage for the public good, than the Imperial systems of the Continent, with which the negotiators tacitly but flatteringly contrast the parliamentary system.

Political agitation by private interests, operating here through Parliament, has gradually put an end to almost every monopoly and every prohibition; but the two ministers tell us in another part of their report, without thinking, apparently, of the bearings of what they say on the flattering compliment they pay to despotism, that every Government in France for the last thirty years—all of which have been more imperial than parliamentary—have endeavoured in vain to get rid of the prohibitions born, not of private interests, but of war (*enfantées par les malheurs de la guerre*). Experience proves, therefore, that a parlia-

mentary government is more efficacious in freeing trade from restraints than a government placed "by its consular correspondence in the centre of the great movements of commerce and of life," and solely occupied, "destitute of all private interest, by the development of the wealth of a country and the well-being of its people." Theoretically, such a Government is supposed by the ministers to be in a better position to judge with impartiality great economical questions than the public; but practically no such Government has solved such questions so favourably for the general interests as a parliamentary government. Messrs. BAROCHE and ROUHER are quite at liberty to praise their master at the expense of LOUIS PHILIPPE and the elder BOURBONS; but they must not be allowed—because he is enabled in 1860 to deal with commercial questions more liberally than they could—to exalt despotism at the expense of the parliamentary system. From the only country where this has prevailed the light has gone forth which has guided all nations to freedom.

They inform us that the prohibitions which former Governments so vainly endeavoured to get rid of, were almost unknown in COLBERT'S celebrated tariff, and were enacted by the fifth of Brumaire (October, 1799,) as a temporary measure which the return of peace was to terminate. It happened, however, that just before the Revolution, Mr. PITT negotiated a commercial treaty with France, and by some persons that treaty connected with the Revolution in time was regarded as one of its causes. Soon after Mr. PITT'S name as the influential promoter of war against the Revolution became connected in the minds of the French with all its evils and all its resulting horrors. So when their minds were keenly sensitive, an admiration of prohibitions and a hatred of commercial treaties connected with the name of PITT and the horrors of the Revolution were deeply impressed on them. The feeling thus permanently excited resembled very closely the corresponding animosity we felt to BUONAPARTE and his empire. Time and free discussion have nearly swept this out of our national mind; but the sentiment of the French has withstood all the efforts of successive Governments to remove it, all the arguments of their theorists, and all the proofs which our pre-eminent success has supplied of the advantages of free trade. Even now it is more powerful than the popular EMPEROR. He can only modify by promising to respect for a time the prohibitions which former Governments could not put an end to. His ministers flatter him too much and too soon, and make it plain that, contrary to his instructions, not to trouble themselves with any kind of political considerations, they have, in common with their countrymen, thought more of these than "merely of ameliorating the commercial relations of the two countries." They cannot shake off the national sentiment. Like individuals, nations are punished for excesses, and in the lingering attachment of the French to prohibitions as now explained we perceive some of the evil consequences to both nations of their former hasty intemperance.

The French negotiators expect great advantages to the numerous artisans of Paris employed in making jewellery, bronze ornaments, toys, artificial flowers, dress ornaments, etc., by the abolition of our import duties on such articles. We believe that they are quite correct, and that the EMPEROR could not by any other means, so well as by this commercial treaty, increase employment for the vast manufacturing population of his capital. More than half the great multitude derives subsistence from such manufactures, and for the future peace of Paris he does well to open our markets to the produce of its industry. They expect, also, that great advantages will accrue to the manufacturers of Lyons, St. Etienne, and the department of the Isere from the free introduction here of silks and gloves, in which they will not be deceived. They remind us, however, that the Manchester people have proved that their industry has ever taken a new bound when duties said to be protective were reduced. Thus our silk manufacture, some branches of which dread the competition of Lyons and St. Etienne, has increased from importing 3,900,000 lbs. of raw silk in 1842, to importing 9,900,000 lbs. in 1859, or nearly threefold. In the same interval the value of the silk manufactures exported has increased from £590,000 to £2,300,000 in 1859. Our silks, therefore, now compete successfully with French silks in third markets; and therefore we do not anticipate from the probable increase of silks imported from France, the smallest injury to our own manufactures. The increase of opulence every where creates a demand for a great increase in silk clothing; and the cheaper but perhaps less tasteful manufactures of England will find an equally enlarged sale with the more costly and tasteful manufactures of France.

So the two ministers rightly expect that the agricultural interest of France, especially the wine-growers, will reap great advantages from the introduction of wine here at a low duty. They remark that the English have had no opportunity of ascertaining whether French wines are agreeable to their taste or not. Accordingly, at present, while the annual consumption of wine per head is, in Austria, fifty-seven litre, in Portugal one hundred, and in France one hundred, in England it is only one litre. They expect, therefore, that the great reduction in our wine duties now and next year will operate very favourably for the wine-growing interest of France. The ministers and all France see that immense benefit has been derived by the agriculturists of Normandy and Brittany from the abolition of our corn-laws. It enabled them to supply us last year with about 3,000,000 quarters of wheat and flour measured as wheat. This is only an example of the mutual benefits which all trading countries derive from trade. If the peasants of Normandy and Brittany are enriched by our importations, the inhabitants of London and Manchester are both fed and enriched by the produce of those peasants. A detailed return, however, of our exports to France, published on Wednesday, shows that, in 1855, 6, and 7, we sent thither considerable quantities of wheat and spirits, and some flour, though habitually these articles are imported from France. Under varying circumstances, therefore, similar commodities may be both imported from and exported to the same country; and such interchanges will be much promoted by free trade, to the mutual benefit of both nations.

The ministers say that the value of the exports to England in 1858, was 426,000,000f. (25f. to £1). 206,000,000f. were paid for natural products—corn, flour, wine, etc.; and 220,000,000f. for manufactures. Thus something more than half our imports from France are of watches and clocks, silks, gloves, ornaments, etc. Their corn and flour are not benefited by the change in our duties, which will be for the advantage generally of the manufacturers of objects of luxury. In reverse of this, the abolition of prohibitions in France and reductions of the French tariff will be chiefly for the advantage of our coal-getters, iron, cutlery, cotton, and earthenware manufacturers; or generally of persons who supply objects of almost universal utility as contradistinguished from those who minister to the demands of luxury. Messrs. BAROCHE and ROUHER do not advert to this distinction, but it seems to us to show that ultimately the chief advantages of the Treaty, though they will unquestionably be mutual, will fall to the lot of our people. To them will be opened the vast market which 36,000,000 of French offer to the most general and common of our productions; while to the French will be opened the comparatively small market which the opulent supply for articles of luxury. At present the French receive from us manufactures of the value only, in 1858, of 18,500,000f., while we receive from them manufactured articles of the value of 220,000,000f. The Treaty accordingly, though not immediately, will open comparatively larger markets for our industry than for theirs. At the same time, such articles as we could supply France with are dearer there than in other countries, and the ministers are sensible of the necessity of exciting the manufacturing industry of the French, and making them adopt new instruments and new methods of production.

There is one other important matter connected with the Treaty to which the ministers only faintly allude, but on which, being for us of primary importance, we must say a few words. The mutual opening of markets, extending the demand for products, must have a favourable influence on the wages of labour. Since the discovery of gold on the shores of the Pacific, if not before, there has been a sensible tendency throughout the civilized world to a rise in the rate of wages. In England it is very marked. The Treaty, and every step in the march of free trade, will increase the tendency. What, then, will be the effects on the productions of different countries of this rise of wages? In the competition which will increase throughout the world in conjunction with this rise, those who, like ourselves, employ machinery to the greatest extent, will reap the greatest advantages; that is, we shall command the most extensive markets, and we shall supply commodities comparatively cheaper than others. The labour in which little or no machinery is employed will be at a disadvantage, and hands will quit it for better paid labour. The marked tendency in latter times to leave the culture of the fields for the practice of the arts of cities will be increased. By no population engaged in any art is less machinery employed than by wine-growers. They are every where extremely poor. We must expect, in consequence, notwithstanding the increased demand anticipated for wine, that the number of persons engaging in the production will not increase. In judging of our future supplies, therefore, we must take into consideration the condition and prospects of labourers throughout Europe, as well as natural capabilities of soil and climate. If we judge only by the latter, we may form exaggerated and unjustifiable hopes.

ANNEXATION.

THERE are few things more offensive than the desecration of the terms honour, generosity, nobility, when applied to mere selfish party purposes; and in the Savoy clamour we see a good deal of this desecration, with no few hints at the disinterestedness of England in earlier and better times. We wish to cut the matter short, and shall refer to this disinterestedness presently. In the meantime, we would inquire whether there are no other virtues of a less prodigal, but of an equally binding description with generosity, disinterestedness, &c. In private life a great many noble and generous actions are constantly inviting us, and it may cost us a good deal in feeling, to take the unchivalric part; yet we constantly find it not merely our interest, but our duty, to be safe and prosaic, especially when our generosity and chivalry will have to be paid for by others. We rather doubt whether the most magniloquent of the writers and speakers against annexation would throw himself on the injured side in a melée, or even feel it his duty to take up every slight inflicted upon himself, if at the cost of even the day's dinner to his children and domestics. It is distinctly not our duty to protect every injured stranger, at the expense of inflicting the most unquestioned injury upon those who are dependent upon us. The present question is not, be it remembered, the mere question of the loss of an unproblematical advantage, but of positive and actual damage as well. It is not the loss of a commercial treaty, which may provide food for hundreds of thousands —a matter of more consequence than the luxury or the triumphs of the men of Manchester; it is the danger of a war which might cost both food and blood to the people of England; and it is no more the duty of ministers to risk the food of a nation, than of the master of a family to risk the lives and interests of those whom he has under his care, except for the very strongest reasons. It is evident that the anti-annexationist protestors do not care one straw about the risk of a war, if they can get the Government into mischief, and it is equally evident that neither the Government nor the mass of the English people consider the cause sufficient.

We are fully aware of the difficulties of a commerce-created and a commerce-cemented peace: the miseries of slavery in America which we are obliged to wink at, at least with the eye of the State, because the subsistence of our population depends on slave-grown cotton; the many petty injustices which we shall be obliged, in all probability, to witness between State and State, rather than break up commercial systems. We may be disgusted at the serene selfishness and indifference of those who cherish this system, and there are many of them, for the sake of their own pockets, and their own pockets alone; but still we cannot help recognising the mighty law, that if ever peace prevails it is to prevail by the binding pressure of what the poet has called commerce, "the golden girdle of the world." Though, like every human system, it cannot be a perfect one, our hope is that it will, by gradually contracting the circle, at last crush the habit of war; this cannot be done at once, and it would be infatuation to expect it. We are aware that war is, on the whole, an irreligious as well as an unprofitable thing; this is too widely allowed to admit of dispute or require argument, and we only do not dwell upon the due and probable effects of religion as a subsidiary, because it is rather our business to view the question with a political eye only.

We feel sure, from what we said in a former number, that WELLINGTON would have shrunk from this war, and we feel nearly equally sure that the predominance of the military spirit and the pressure of army claims for glory and service, are a positive embarrassment to the present Emperor of France. It is the only power which he needs fear; he has set the priesthood and their dogmas at nought; he has turned nearly a full face against the prejudices of trade; he would be glad, and wisely, to make the wine-growers and the bourgeoisie a *point de resistance* against the clamours of the soldiery. He can neither do this at once by imperious refusal, nor in a direct way. Now, when England has sanctioned by silence other annexations, when she has practised them abundantly herself, is this a time to cry havoc, let slip the dogs of war, and embroil everything, for party or personal motives, as mean as those with which they charge, justly or not, LOUIS NAPOLEON? Are they to prevent him from stealing a march, simply that they may steal one themselves?

There may be acts of injustice so monstrous in themselves, and in their consequences, as to force us upon war. We do not believe that Lord PALMERSTON and the rest of the Ministry are so thoroughly unpatriotic, or so utterly devoid of generosity either, as to offer no resistance if the present were a vital question for England's future interests or present honour. It is not our fault if Savoy is not of substantial importance, or if its inhabitants are indifferent, or if VICTOR EMMANUEL chooses to resign it without a remonstrance. It is scarcely of so much importance as Poland, which was deliberately sacrificed in those bygone days of England's disinterestedness, which are by inference contrasted with our own, but the fact is that it is no easy matter to prove this disinterestedness. Perhaps the nearest approach to disinterestedness or an indifference to substantial interests, was made in the wars of the Crusades, unless we adduce one or two of the military transactions of CROMWELL with foreign powers, for religious objects. With these exceptions, almost all the united action of nations for war or for peace has been mainly produced and promoted by the inducements of interests. Wars have been made for opposing interests; as BACON says, treaties have been generally made where the interests have been identical. "Non enim verbis fœdera confirmantur, *sed iisdem utilitatibus.*" Can anything equal the selfishness of the struggles of England for the possession of France; of the wars of WILLIAM the THIRD and ANNE's time, where Whigs and Tories fought for power and precedence, each making the nation's landed or money interests the plea? What trouble did the Hanoverian interest cost us on the Continent! And what was the motive? Did BURKE, the champion of Chivalry, ever attempt to detach from chivalry the material interests of the English nation? PITT now and then did, and on more than one occasion got thus answered by SHERIDAN:—

"After all these protestations for the rights of humanity, after all these sentiments of abhorrence for the regicide republic, ministers were the first who neglected the professed objects of war, and who consulted individual gain. While they were calling upon all to join in a contest such as never appeared before—while they were maintaining that to bring the awful and unprecedented struggle to a happy termination, they thought that they must have an indemnity for their trouble—they fitted out an expedition, and they stole the West India Islands. This was the way in which we were to punish treachery, and set an awful example of the punishment which awaits disloyalty and irreligion." "From that moment all dignity forsook us, and the variance between our profession and our practice was by turns the subject of laughter, of censure, and reprobation to our allies."

Honour may be a snow-white horse, and Interest a coal black one; but in the constitutional coach England has made them keep pace together pretty well; the white horse may do all the capering and curvetting, trusting to not being put at full speed for the sake of its rather stronger and more sober companion; and whoever, after a calm and candid survey of English history, undertakes to deny this, must put into his arguments some of that heedless and self-sacrificing chivalry which he wishes the nation to put into its acts.

THE STONES OF WESTMINSTER.

BEFORE the gorgeous pile on which Parliament has spent more than two millions of money is actually complete for its future assemblings, the stone of which it has been built is found to be in a state of palpable decay! Instead of materials having been employed of a nature peculiarly fitted to ensure the durability of the edifice, and the preservation in their beauty of its elaborate external ornaments, a species of limestone has been used, which now turns out to be singularly ill-qualified to resist the decomposing influence of an atmosphere, impregnated with the fumes and gases prevalent in the metropolis; and the silent progress of deterioration is already become so incontestable, that a sum of £7280 was demanded last session, and, of course, granted, to defray the expense of washing the exterior of the huge building with a certain chemical preparation said to have the effect of indurating the surface of the stone. On Friday last Mr. WISE brought the subject under the notice of the House of Commons, and asked whether any permanent advantage was to be hoped from the use of the "architectural cosmetics" thus ordered, or whether they had, as yet, been experimentally applied. The reply of Mr. COWPER, the newly-appointed Chief Commissioner of Works, was far from satisfactory; and as the ultimate consequences threaten to become rather serious, it is only right that the history of the transaction should be clearly understood, and that the true cause of the mischief which is likely to cost us so dear, should be plainly pointed out.

It appears from the very lucid and striking statement of Mr. WISE, that when, in 1836, Sir CHARLES BARRY's design for the New Houses of Parliament was adopted, and his estimate was accepted of £774,560, a stipulation was made that a royal commission should be appointed to inquire before any portion of the costly structure was begun, what was the most suitable stone for the purpose. The commission was agreed to, and it consisted of Sir HENRY DE LA BECHE, Dr. ARNOTT, Sir CHARLES BARRY, and Mr. SMITH. After spending several months travelling

together through the kingdom and elsewhere, these gentlemen reported that they had visited one hundred and twenty-three quarries, and examined upwards of one hundred ancient edifices with special reference to the durability of their materials, and the practical conclusion at which they had arrived was that the best stone that could be used in the proposed Palace of Westminster was that of Bolsover, a contract for which was in consequence entered into. Not very long afterwards, however, upon pretexts which have never been thoroughly sifted or explained, this engagement was set aside, and another contracted with the late Duke of LEEDS for the exclusive use of the produce of a quarry belonging to him in Yorkshire. Of the inferiority of the material thus substituted for the Bolsover stone, there is unhappily no room for question; yet, inferior though it be, it might have been so used as to lessen greatly the effects of the elements upon the decorative portions of the building. No rule, we believe, is more generally recognised in such matters, than that of placing stones in all the external parts of an edifice *bed-wise*, that is, according to the position with regard to the grain in which they are found to have been geologically deposited. The neglect of this rule not only tends to mar the unity of architectural effect by destroying uniformity of colour, but what is far worse, it invites the corrosive action of an impure atmosphere wherever the stones have been placed contrary to the law of their formation. Thus nature mutely but inexorably vindicates her own inscrutable wisdom, and sets her indelible brand of reprobation on the vain and fraudulent attempt to falsify her gifts to man. Misplaced, the stone is more easily workable for ornamental purposes, and hence the temptation to misplace it. But what is the use of a highly paid department of Public Works, if these things can be done openly and impudently, in the face of day, week after week, month after month, and year after year, in the most conspicuous and the most expensive building the realm contains? Under successive ministers the department in question has been presided over by the usual variety of aristocratic idlers and jobbers. Some of them have been Tories, many of them Whigs: but not one of them, it is to be presumed, ever thought of inquiring while the gigantic edifice was in progress, whether the intentions of the Legislature were being honestly carried out, or whether the splendid liberality of Parliament was not in danger of being thrown away. There cannot be a more damning commentary on the system of what may be called the "thorough-bred monopoly of high office" than the scandalous narrative of facts before us.

The matchless job now brought to light cannot be laid at the door of any one individual, or even at that of any one administration. Chief of delinquents may indeed be counted those by whom the Report of the Commission of 1836 was originally set at nought: but, on the other hand, it can hardly be imagined that the fatal consequences of the bargain with the Duke of LEEDS were foreseen. On the other hand, it were waste of time to try historically to apportion the blame. Be it among themselves, for by their combined and continuous imbecility, if not complicity, the country has been robbed to an extent hard to estimate in figures; and the hope it so long cherished of seeing an imperishable monument of its national spirit and munificence dedicated to the service of its constitutional legislature, seems doomed to disappointment.

Specifics without end will no doubt be offered, and experiments of all sorts will probably be tried to harden the face of the ducal and deceptive stones of Westminster, and to arrest the progress of premature decay. But we are slow of faith in these empirical devices. We never pass by Buckingham Palace after one of its periodical "paintings-down," that we are not painfully struck with the likeness to "a newly repaired and re-embellished range of most eligible mansions at very low prices" in some second rate watering-place. More than once we have unconsciously found our eye wandering in search of the usual bill in the window of the ground floor which tells one where "further particulars may be had." It is of no use asking us to remember that the three coats of best oil colour found to be indispensable, conceal a palace-front built of really expensive stone. Expensive enough if you will; but as to being real we can only believe in the reality of its rottenness, or of the roguery with which it must have been chosen and used. It is provoking to see the residence of the QUEEN, annually daubed over in this fashion to keep it in decent plight; but it is enough to try the temper of any people to be told that a similar process is now the only certain method of saving from utter dilapidation a national edifice on which we have expended more than Two Millions sterling.

THE GREAT DOMESTIC MISERY.

WILL there be a single dissentient voice arise from the great army of English matrons when we declare that "Servants" are the greatest domestic misery of the present day? Taxes are something; measles in a full nursery are not to be sneezed at; smoky chimnies are vexatious, draughty rooms and damp walls, and; having the family plate stolen through an open kitchen window, are all stumbling-blocks and pitfalls on the road to happiness, but they are flocci, nauci, nihili, pili,—nothing compared with the gigantic domestic misery of the present day—SERVANTS.

There is not a single house you can enter where the great misery has not spread, or where some old voice does not sum up the discussion of JOHN or MARY'S iniquities, with the time-honoured exclamation, "Servants are not what they used to be." What tariff of items would sum up all their crimes? They break the dinner service, they tear the carpets, they star the pier-glass, they let the chandelier drop on the best tea set, they fracture windows, they dislocate chairs, they grease the table cloth, they leave doors unlocked, and they set the house on fire. You would, indeed, think, to hear some angry and desponding matrons, that servants had no other object in life than to put out their master's temper, and mar his domestic happiness. Be it for us to discuss briefly the causes that render the social position of servants now different from what it once was, and to point out some simple remedies by which the great domestic misery might be (if not removed) alleviated.

It is a sad and humiliating thing, and hard for the over civilized to believe, that civilization should bring with it so many drawbacks. We get the clock, and we forget to know how to use that indestructible timepiece, the sun. We get the railway engine for our demon hack horse, and we lose the savage hunter's endurance of leg. We get spectacles, and we lose the far-reaching eye of our fathers. In servants, as in other things, we feel one of the penalties of progress. It is because our servants are no longer the ignorant feudal drudges and blind dependent serfs they once were, that they grow independent and restless. It is not the less sad to think that the old family nurse, who dandled the children of two generations, is now a bygone creature like the Dodo, or the sabre-toothed tiger that they show you in Surgeons' Hall. You must engage a good many red-breeched JOHN THOMASES before you find the old clansmen, who in war threw themselves before their wounded master and died calling out, "Another for HECTOR!" The stuck-up gentleman who condescends to be your butler and winetaster, and refuses to disgrace himself by wearing livery, is a man of a very different stamp from the old faithful clansman. No! it is not wages and "parquisites" that make a servant die willingly for a master. In our shifting, swifter, and more variable modern life these servants of other days are impossible. In this modern struggle for place and for higher seats, it is the servant who, standing between the rich and the poor, and in some degree shares both their weaknesses, that is the quickest and keenest to imbibe this restlessness, to learn the new power of his race, and to desire to exercise it. To marry, to leave service, to take a shop, to emigrate, are all now open to the servant; and, knowing it, they assert their independence often capriciously, often insolently. The increased cheapness of dress now enables the female servant, without extravagance, to dress in gowns very little inferior to those of her mistress; and this, perhaps, contributes a little to her ignoring the differences of rank between herself and her superiors. Improved education now makes the male servant much less openly inferior to his master—perhaps sometimes, his vanity may induce him to think, a little his superior. In days when footmen become, sometimes, schoolmasters and district curates, it is difficult to expect that the old broad distinction can be maintained between master and servant. Turn them away, they have but to come to London and get a better place; or if they save money they may go to Australia, and there, with prudence, become capitalists and enjoy the luxury of having servants in their turn.

It is, perhaps, natural in these days of freedom and emancipation of opinion that the more turbulent and independent servants should imagine that a certain slight taint of slavery now hangs about the livery. We all know how degraded a being in the eyes of the republican ephebi of our alleys is the red-plushed, plump-calved footman, with the pink and white fat face, and the white-greased hair. The London poor man's son dreams of the delight of being a costermonger, and having a "shallow" piled with nuts or oranges; but he never covets the gilt cane or the aiguillettes. Can we wonder that men of the despised condition seek some equivalent for this petty slavery? The better ones try to prove their independence by impudence—the worse make up for the loss of freedom by cheating and thieving.

But can the whole defect be on the servants' side? Have the mistress or master nothing to blame in themselves? Was there ever a quarrel where one side was all black and the other all white? Do we not, as rulers, rather tighten a chain that we ought generously to loosen? Does the mistress up-stairs in her scented conservatory, or in her airy drawing-room, that seems carpetted with rose-leaves—it is so soft and warm, ever think how much less pleasant for the poor country girl, who has lately left some green Devonshire valley, is that subterranean cellar with the iron-grated window that in London we call a kitchen? Is it cheerful work to run up and down stairs, and toil incessantly from six in the morning till twelve at night? Is it healthy or pleasant to live six days in a cellar without setting foot across the door? Is it not rather ascetic and anti-human to allow "no followers," including, of course, among them the true lover and the future husband, when Miss BLANCHE up-stairs has *her* perpetual *soirées* and operas, and a regular regiment of admirers nightly in attendance? Does the hurried minute of chat with the baker or the pot-boy compensate for all that unceasing toil and harmful solitude? And is it a wonder it is bitterly contrasted with the young mistress's endless amusements, or that marriage and emigration are looked upon as desirable terminations to such a toilsome, cheerless, and unpitied life?

Ladies, we think, would do well to remember that human nature at the best is made of poor, weak stuff, and that it is foolish, nay worse, cruel and wicked, to make that hard life more ascetic and unnatural than it need fairly be. You hired a servant for service, and here you are enforcing slavery, not quite in the BROWNRIGGE way, it is true, for that way has its penalties, but still often harshly, capriciously, unfeelingly, hardly, tyrannously; and then, forsooth, you wonder that the creature is so ruthless, unprincipled, and selfish as to crack a tumbler, burn a muffin, send the beef up raw, or boil the fish to a rag.

The remedy for this social evil is not easily to be found. Master and servant get further apart than they used to do. A great social Atlantic rolls between the parlour and kitchen doors, and kindness is the only spell that can be found to dry it up. When servants were treated as foster-children of the house, they loved as children; now that they are treated like enemies, they act like enemies. It is sad to see the city man snubbing the poor tradesman, and the "swell" snubbing both, sowing the seeds for a thorny crop of hatreds and social jealousies; but the suspicion and dislike growing up daily between master and servant is more dangerous and painful still. There must be confidence and mutual forbearance, or our servants will grow still more like Arabs, both as to their love for change and plunder, than they are even now.

One of the most frequent complaints against servants is, that they are generally found incapable of discharging the duties they have undertaken to perform; that, in fact, they are mere uneducated labourers, not worth their wages. Well, indeed, if they are not also, in addition, idle, vicious, bad tempered, or drunken. If there is any more truth in this complaint now than there was thirty years ago, we imagine it arises from the simple law of markets. An insufficient supply has forced inadequate competitors to obtain situations, who, years ago, would have married labourers and stayed at home in their villages. There is such a demand for servants that there is nothing to hinder the capricious from changing at their own wild will their line of employment. The good cook, misled by a miserable ambition caricaturing that of our race and age, becomes a clumsy lady's-maid; the neat nurse girl becomes a slovenly cook; and, so abundant are situations, that such foolish ambitions often escape their natural retributions.

Much more might be done to secure the efficiency of servants. Every national school in England should have a class of intended servants, who should be trained specially for domestic duties; and there is no reason why the kitchens of workhouses should not be a training school for the more steady and intelligent of the pauper girls, who, on leaving, might be presented with testimonials of efficiency, which might be useful in obtaining them situations.

There is also great room for an elementary training school for servants of all kinds, who, on passing successfully through certain examinations, might be registered as A. 1. for any applicant who sought for them; and to obtain these certificates, which would ensure good and lasting employment and high wages, there might be a system of short apprenticeship with families, who for low wages would consent to the arrangements on condition of raising the pay to the ordinary level, when the girl could take her B.A. or M.A. degree in domestic labour. What we want is some proof less painful and expensive than experience, that the servant we are engaging to cook can really cook, has been taught to cook, and understands the why and wherefore, just as we are able to find out that swaggering Captain BOUNCER is really in the army, or that our Family Doctor has passed the College of Surgeons and is a lawful practitioner. If we can get also a proof of skill and worth all the better; as for the present system of characters they are worse than useless. A girl branded as bad, as a thief, and a drunkard, goes on obtaining excellent places—one every three months—by either a forged character or a testimonial obtained from her first place. What we want is a servants' training school; for we have all found by this time to our cost, that the duties of domestic service are not to be learnt by mere instinct.

THE CAUSES AND PREVENTION OF COAL-PIT EXPLOSIONS.

THE terrible explosion in Burradon pit has occasioned greater interest than most preceding explosions, and a very influential meeting has been held at Newcastle, during which Mr. PATTINSON, a gentleman of high chemical reputation, has attributed this and similar catastrophes to the inadequate provisions of the coal-owners and managers. This charge has been on many occasions boldly made and strongly denied. The public cannot judge at all upon this matter, as they know nothing of the causes of these fearful catastrophes. We shall endeavour, in a brief space, to put our readers in the possession of such facts as may enable them to form an impartial opinion on the subject. It may be as well to observe in starting, that we speak from local knowledge of the Northern coal-fields, and from personal examination of the coal-pits, while we are so circumstanced as to be entirely uninfluenced by any motive besides that of anxiety to make known the truth. We might speak in technical and scientific language, but we prefer to adopt the most popular style of which the topic admits.

A large north of England coal-pit is a very onerous charge. Its financial management is somewhat laborious; its scientific management still more so; and the moral responsibility of ensuring its safety is of more moment than both finance and science. All this rests primarily upon the *viewer*, as the head man of the management is locally termed. The head-viewer is generally a man of much mining experience, and some scientific acquaintance with whatever concerns a coal-pit. If very experienced, and therefore eminent, he may have the charge of two, three, or four collieries; and it is evident that, in such cases, he must perform much of his work by deputy. His chief deputy is his underviewer, who should reside at the mine of which he is in charge; and nearly every mine has such a resident officer, who is in fact, though not in name, the manager of the mine. Under him are overmen, deputies, wastemen, lamp-keepers, and several subordinates, all of whom have to report to and take orders from the resident viewer, or underviewer, who is to them all that the colonel is to his regiment in the army. The financial department is commonly in charge of another person, who has clerks at his bidding in an adjacent office.

A viewer's or underviewer's business is not difficult in some mines; very arduous in others. This arises from the circumstance that some mines are "fiery," and others less or scarcely at all so. In the latter cases the management is mere routine work; in the former it has to deal with far more unmanageable things than stone and coal beds, or than even crotchety and discontented workpeople—viz., the dangerous gases which exude from the coal. A man who has to keep a perpetual watch for "fire damp" must always sleep, as the saying is, with one eye open; for his enemy is never totally destroyed, but only defeated, and kept back by the constant agency of superior force. In fact, fire damp in a fiery pit is much in the condition of the Roman people at Rome—kept down by the French troops, but ever ready to spring up in ruthless attack at the moment when the French soldiers march away. Rome and Naples are the Italian counterparts of Newcastle fiery pits. Unceasing vigilance and unfailing counterforces alone can prevent an explosion in all. Chemically, the fire damp is light carbureted hydrogen gas, and is akin to the heavier gas of the same nature which is distilled from coal in our gasometers, and burnt in our streets and public places. The explosions which sometimes happen in shops, cellars, and confined places, in consequence of an escape of gas, are not far different from those of which we are now speaking. Very much the same insidious enemy has to be dealt with in the shop or cellar as in the coal pit. The latter is a natural gasometer, in which nature is herself perpetually distilling fiery gas; so that in a very short space of time the long and numerous passages of an extensive pit become charged with fire damp, and as the pitman says, "fouled" throughout.

Notwithstanding researches into the natural condition of this gas (they have not been many or extended) in the coal strata, it is impossible to say in what form it really exists there. Certain it is, that some seams of coal are filled with it to excess, and we ourselves have stood by portions of coal whence it was heard to issue with a low hissing or seething noise. It is probable that it exists in these seams in a high state of tension, and that the operations of the coal hewer, by diminishing the pressure upon it, and removing the strata that cover it, give it a freedom which oftentimes proves fatal to himself or his fellows. The old story in the "Arabian Nights," respecting the fisherman who set at liberty the *geni*, or spirit of the sealed casket, is realized in the mines of the north. Unhappily, the spirits of the coal pit are always noxious and malevolent.

One of the most striking proofs of the power of this gas, apart from an explosion, is, that on certain occasions and in certain pits, it comes forth in the form of "blowers." A blower seems to be occasioned by the sudden escape of carburetted hydrogen in a larger quantity than usual, in consequence of its liberation by falls of roof or removal of matter. What the blowing-off steam from a locomotive is at a railway station, a gas blower seems to be in a pit. It is a turn of the natural valve-handle in the shape of the movement of a mass of stone or coal. Such is the tension of the gas in its original reservoir, and such its force in issue, that great blocks of stone or shale have sometimes been thrown off violently to a distance; and in one instance two or three tons of matter were thus hurled forth into the gallery of the mine. The outburst of a blower is one of the most dangerous of all pit changes, as the issue of gas is far too rapid and too ample for dilution in the ordinary manner. To this cause many of the fatal explosions in the northern pits are attributed. A fall from the roof is named at Burradon pit.

The amount of fire damp exuding by ordinary processes is generally capable of being neutralized by a due admixture with atmospheric air. Certain proportions of fire damp and common air are explosive upon the contact of flame, and certain others are not. These proportions are known, and the aim of managers is to secure these commixtures by an efficient system of ventilation. Nowhere has ventilation been so systematically practised as in the Newcastle coal pits. Though formerly very much neglected and ill understood, it has, within the last twenty or thirty years, been greatly improved. The system proceeds upon the simple principle of the difference between two columns of air in two separate shafts of a mine, one of which columns is at its ordinary temperature, and the other at a higher temperature. Manifestly the warmer of the two columns, or shafts, will draw to itself the colder air, and thus cause ventilation, just as the chimney of our parlours being hotter than the doorway, draws to itself air from the latter. The larger our parlour fire, the greater the amount of air it sucks in towards itself, and the greater the draft of the chimney. So in the coal pit, to increase the upward draft an immense fire is kindled at the bottom of the upward (called the "upcast") shaft, and the interior of that shaft becomes so rarefied that it acts as a large chimney to the whole interior, while the other (called "the downcast") shaft acts as the doorway to let in air. If the temperature in the upcast shaft be from forty to eighty degrees, we can tell what the amount of the descending and ascending current of air will be. So far all is simple, and the pits might be easily ventilated.

In extended practice, however, the case is more complicated and more difficult of popular description. Not only have the mainways of the pit to be ventilated, but also all the sideways. Every man in the mine must have a certain quantity of pure air brought to his working place, and every passage or gallery of the vast excavation must be swept by the air current in order that it may be visited by human beings. There must be air to breathe, air to dilute the noxious gases, and air enough to sweep all that is foul fast and far away from the human beings. A popular illustration may make this plainer. Suppose all that portion of our metropolis known as the Strand, together with its side streets, to be covered over and made dark, and, naturally, almost airless. Then it might represent the bottom of a large coal-pit, the Strand itself being the mainway, and its side streets the side passages or galleries of the mine. Suppose, now, that a current of air were let in at Charing-cross, and a furnace were kindled at St. Clement Danes' church. The furnace heat would draw in and along all the air to itself, and the current would escape up the shaft presumed to be represented by the tower of the church. That, however, would be too little. Men are working at the bottom of Craven Street, at the bottom of Essex Street, and at the top of Southampton and Catherine Streets. These men have more need of air than their friends in the Strand, because the remoter the post the more noxious the air, and the less of it. How is the current of air, which would make the best and speediest of its way along the Strand, to be turned down the side streets and brought back to the Strand? This is only possible by a system of mechanical contrivances, which is simple enough in construction, and which, in fact, consist of obstructions to the short run of the air current. These obstructions, whether of brick or board, can be so placed *across* a street as to stop the current, or *along* a street as to divide it. The current can thereby be cut short and turned, or cut in two and *split*. This latter operation is the most ingenious part of the Northern systems of ventilation, and the most effective. By *splitting* a current of pure air, it can be made to multiply its value in simultaneous services. One entire current could only go one way at one time; but if the same current be halved or split into three currents, clearly it can perform double or treble duty. Besides, it is evident that such subdivisions can be made at any time or place, and just according to the necessities of time and place; and, in this manner, there is no part of the pit to which the restorative purity of the atmosphere cannot be conducted.

This plan is systematised to such a degree, that any given amount of air within moderate limits can be sent down into and through a mine, from one thousand to ten thousand cubic feet of air per minute. Every ton of the best Newcastle coal has had some such airing before it came to the surface, and every workman in the mine has inhaled some portion of such air before he returned again to the pure and free air of the upper world.

Such is the furnace system of compound ventilation in the most popular form in which it can be represented in a brief space. The multitude of minor particulars connected with it we cannot so much as touch upon at present. Enough has been said to show its principal aim, and the outline of what it accomplishes; and to enable the reader to understand that if the system were really perfect, and were perfectly applicable, the pit and the workmen would be aired, the noxious gases diluted, and explosions rendered very uncommon. Because it is not perfect, and not properly applied, the Davy Lamp, or miner's safety light, becomes necessary. By means of this a lighted oil lamp can be carried into a pit, even where fire damp abounds. The fine wire gauze which surrounds and overcaps the flame of the lamp, protects the miner from an explosion outside the wire cylinder, though little explosions may proceed within it. In brief, *flame* cannot pass through wire gauze so fine that four hundred and eighty orifices make up the square inch of its surface. The gas may pass through, and enlarge the interior flame, and cause it to burn blue and ominous in the miner's grasp, but unless the intervening wire gauze be melted by the flame, it will prove a thin yet invaluable protection to the wandering miner. We could make up a goodly volume of disputes and queries and doubts, about the infallibility or not of the Davy lamp, but one or two remarks must conclude our passing notice of it. It is generally agreed that it is a good and serviceable friend to the miner: that *under ordinary circumstances*, if it were universally employed, there would be far fewer, perhaps very few explosions; but it is not so generally admitted that it is a safety lamp under all or under extraordinary circumstances. Possibly a powerful blower would not only fill the lamp, but, if accompanied with much impulsive force, or any strong current of air, might propel the flame of the interior so strongly against the wire network as to injure it or pass the flame itself. This latter is the opinion of several gentlemen who are not connected with pits, but a reliance upon the improved form of the safety lamp characterises those who are managers of mines. Every lamp, however, must be locked, and only delivered to the miner when locked; for, alas! the careless colliers have sometimes exposed the lamp merely to light a pipe, and sometimes to get more light. A little more light, or the kindling of tobacco, has more than once launched a whole pit-full of workpeople into the other world!

By means of improved safety lamps and improved ventilation, the colliers ought to have air to breathe and light to work by, and enough of both, and to neutralize the two mining evils of darkness and foulness of air. Moreover, the country has to pay some £12,000 a year to a number of inspectors of coal-mines, whose duty it is to see that air enough and light enough are afforded, or, rather, that every thing be done to prevent explosions. Every body knows that, in past times, explosions have been numerous and fearfully destructive. Some pits, like Wallsend and Jarrow, have obtained a most unenviable notoriety for sudden mortality. Hundreds of deaths are chargeable upon each. We ourselves found sufficient records (*though none* were systematic) years ago to prove that the mortality in collieries was greater than any one had supposed. Even now, with improvements, with advancing education, and with well-paid inspectors—more than one thousand (some would say fifteen hundred)—lives are lost every year by explosions in coal-mines, exclusive of other accidents in and around them, terminating fatally. We may fairly say that, despite of every thousand pounds annually paid to coal-mine inspectors, one hundred lives are lost, or, in other words, that the remedy fails to that extent. The most humiliating result of all arises from the comparison of our coal-mining mortality with that of other countries, as made known by the late Mr. Mackworth. It is as follows:—

	Proportion Killed.	
In Prussia	1·89	per 1000 persons, per annum.
In Belgium	2·8	,, ,,
In England	7·5	,, ,,
In Staffordshire	7·3	,, ,,

If the reader were to converse with a coalowner or viewer of large experience and average intelligence upon this topic, and inquire whether any further steps could be taken towards the prevention of explosions, he would most probably (we might say certainly, from our own knowledge) be informed that all is now done that can be done, that nothing more of a remedial nature can be adopted; that carburetted hydrogen in some pits cannot be further opposed than it is; and that, in short, neither the visits of men of science nor of inspectors can do much more than keep up attention to established routine. Now, of the Newcastle district, to which alone our attention is at present directed, we are willing to affirm that it is by far the best managed of all the British districts, and that higher intelligence is there at work in supervision than in many others, and perhaps we might admit any other. But after saying thus much we are bound to state our honest doubts as to the infallibility of the northern colliery viewers. Though we have little sympathy with the outside propositions sometimes made to the practical men of the North, we must confess we do not think them perfect, nor do we agree with their tone of remark just quoted. It is our conviction from personal observation that very much yet remains to be done, and that some things might speedily be done, to ensure a greater degree of safety in the pits. This also is the conviction and expression of the miners themselves, and it is that which they can support by proofs underground.

We cannot enter into detail, but will conclude by pointing out the line of direction improvement should take. First of all, the underviewers and their subordinates *must* be educated up to their position, and for this purpose the underviewer should be better paid. The head viewers obtain large incomes by divided services—the underviewers are but poorly remunerated for undivided services. True, this is the common lot of professions, but the rich coalowners can prevent this. One hundred a year more to an underviewer, or one hundred and fifty, would be wisely expended. Secondly, the owners must be made to suffer *pecuniarily* the results of their ill-judged parsimony; and they must be made to understand that the public hold *them* responsible, as well as their servants, for every proved neglect. Thirdly, the voices of the miners themselves *must* be heard in the way of respectful remonstrance and suggestion, not through demagogues and "the pitmen's attorney," or any such person; but through the inspectors themselves, and *through them to the Government*. At present, it is a complaint of the pitmen that they are not heard, or not sufficiently heard, or not privately heard, and that they cannot so prefer their complaints as to escape being marked men. Fourthly, the science of ventilation and the pit gases (carbonic acid as well as carburetted hydrogen) *must* be thoroughly cultivated; not merely once observed now and then, but regularly and systematically studied. The gases should be experimented upon, lectured upon, and investigated, with all the aids and all the resources of modern chemistry. Lastly, and certainly not least, the system of selecting and appointing coal mine inspectors *must* be revised. We happen to be acquainted with the course of proceeding when the last batch of inspectors was appointed, and we must say that the whole course of procedure tended most undoubtedly to throw all the interest and all the bias of inspection into the scale of the Northern coal owners. We do not exactly blame the then Home Secretary; he was anxious to do well; but the truth is, he, and almost every Home Secretary, are too ready to bow to the appeals of the Northern coal owners and viewers, who have great local and parliamentary interest—and the country ought to know that the original intention of *independent* inspectors is completely neutralized by the ingenious representations and provisions of the very men who manage the inspected mines. It is impossible that any inspector can come into the list unless he comes in through and out of the very men connected with the management of mines. All seems fair at first sight; but we have conversed for hours together with those who were intimately acquainted with every step taken, and who assured us that under the present arrangements a thorough and independent course of coal-pit examination could not be expected. It has indeed so happened, that some of the inspectors have proved to be able and serviceable men, and are much esteemed. But this is not all. They should be fearless, though urbane, totally regardless of the frowns of coal owners and viewers, and totally unprejudiced as to systems and modes of working the mines. Take the case of the inspector for the very district where the late explosion has happened

and who is he? An old mining manager, brought up in the very system he proposes to inspect; bound up by custom and by gratitude for recommendation, with the Northern viewers. Recommended by them, he was, in fact, their nominee. We might say much upon the system of appointments, upon the gentleman employed to examine candidates, and upon the necessary consequence of all the parties forming one concern. We fear, however, that it would be useless to waste words upon this matter. The day is yet distant when an overworked Home Secretary can enter into these minor matters. He knows nothing of mines—how should he? He inquires who are the men of highest repute in mining circles. He is referred to the very viewers themselves! These viewers have particular friends and particular foes, and have pupils who are looking out for places. Some have special reasons for believing in the competency of certain candidates. What, then, is to be expected? Why, only this: that the course of things under ground and above ground is very much alike—only this: that, as according to homœopathy, *similia similibus curantur*, so according to coal-managers, pits are best inspected by their own nominees and friends—only this: that the country, instead of the coal-owners, pays a corps of inspectors for that which is not, and cannot be, in the nature of things, independent, authoritative and impartial inspection!

CONVOCATION.*

IN the present day the pamphlet is very often better worth a critical survey than the volume; the former contains generally a strong and succinct, though almost invariably a party if not an individual view of some matter of deep present interest, and is often a "brief," more or less fair, of former arguments, with frequently an historical summary. Such briefs as Mr. POYNDER'S are very valuable when honestly written, as we believe his to be, on a subject much talked about but little understood by the generality of readers. Truth, like certain marine animals, makes its progress by alternate contractions and expansions; now a volume shrinks into an aphorism, and anon a word is puffed up into a controversy, truth generally being in the end the gainer: we confess we like to catch a subject in its undilated and undiluted, or in its reduced state.

Whether the reader agree with Mr. POYNDER in his deductions or not, the summary is valuable and interesting, especially that part of it which goes to prove that the English Church only recognised even HENRY VIII.'s supremacy, with the saving clause, "so far as the law of CHRIST permits." We have here a brief account of some of the more interesting councils, synods, or convocations, from the apostles' days to the present time; and, in touching the HOADLEY matters, one might fancy the writer had his eye on the page of a well-known modern historian, no indifferentist, by the bye, who says "this debate known by the name of the Bangorian controversy, would supply materials enough for a volume, but hardly interest enough for a page." Those who agree with Lord MAHON on the matter may be thankful to Mr. POYNDER, who has kept himself pretty nearly within the noble historian's limits.

The inference that the writer draws is that the Church should be left to the government of her own authorities; and as long as she keeps herself within her own pale, to this we see no objection. A forcible passage is quoted from Lord BACON to show that a frequent meeting of Convocation for ecclesiastical, is as rational and as necessary as a frequent meeting of Parliament for civil, purposes. Theoretically, perhaps, what is a rule for one time in such cases ought to be a rule for another; practically, we very much doubt whether this principle would apply. As to the parallelism between the two cases, we may observe in the first place, that the consequence of doing without parliaments, or the allowing the same Parliament to sit too long, was, in the days of the STUARTS, most injurious to the civil government, and the peace and progress of the nation, whilst the most marked improvement in the condition of the Church of England happens to have taken place during the precise period on which Convocation has only met to be dissolved. Again: civil councils are on questions practical, and, when once decided, resolve themselves for the most part out of the state of doctrine and theory; and familiarity with the practice to which the vanquished party on a political question is compelled to submit becomes at last a habit, and, sooner or later, the theory on which it was based becomes less and less obnoxious. In Church matters the same might be the case in points of ritual and discipline, not involving any important doctrinal point, but not where the essence of the question is doctrinal. Where the difference is or is likely to be of the latter description, we believe that the *odium theologicum* between the extremes of the conflicting parties is likely to be far more intense and earnest than any *odium politicum* between the extreme right and extreme left on any purely political question. There is between Churchmen more bitter and ill-concealed unchristian contempt, less disposition to give, or even receive, quarter, than there would be in the case of a BRIGHT and a DISRAELI. The contempt is vile, but the excess of earnestness perfectly reasonable, inasmuch as spiritual questions are of higher import than temporal ones. In face to face disputation on certain doctrinal points—we could mention, of course, three or four especially which occur in the Catechism, Articles, and Services of the Church—we should, probably, have old scenes and old weapons, with new combatants,

> Was it by Scripture tried?
> No, sure to that the rebel would not yield,
> Squadrons of texts he marshalled in the field;
> It was but civil war, an equal set,
> Where spears with spears and eagles eagles met:
> With texts point blank and plain each faced the foe.
> And did not Satan tempt our Saviour so?

It is our full belief that Convocation is only sincerely desired at any given time by that party of the Church which conceives itself to be the stronger, or, at any rate, to have an equal chance with its adversary; and that either party, if fully convinced of its own inferiority of strength, and the necessity of implicit obedience, if vanquished, would rather leave the matter to be settled by the slow but less offensive action of opinion without point blank controversy, and, if to be defeated, would receive its defeat with more patience and temper in a court of law, or from a Parliament, if partially, not generally, unchristian, than at the hands of its regular and professed ecclesiastical opponents. What has happened several times in the House of Commons would be likely to happen far oftener in Convocation. Offensive measures might induce indignant ecclesiastical WINDHAMS or BURKES to withdraw altogether with their section of followers from the public councils of the Church after some obstinate encounter, not improbably from the Church itself, rather than submit to the effects of a victory. Even at present many only remain in the Church with the idea that they are the leaven of it, and that ultimately they will be its regulators—as an honest director, a KENNEDY, may stay in a British Bank, believing it, though shaken, to be solvent, and that he may be the saving of it in time if the public will have patience.

However, to Convocation we have really no hostility; restriction and regulation, from some quarter or other, are evidently wanted to check individual extravagances, thoroughly distasteful not only to the lower orders, with their stubborn dislike of practices which experience has justified them in suspecting of concealed Romanism, but to the mass of intelligent members of the Church of England. Convocation is on its trial as regards its practical good—to leave alone its claims and its rights. Its opportunities of making itself even popular are great if it chooses to avail itself of them, and its chances of continued efficiency greater now than at many other periods of its history, perhaps greater than at that early period of the Church when there were heresies; though, from the fact of the popular election of the bishops, one might have expected almost unanimity in the synods. There are, no doubt, violent men in the present day at the two extremes, perhaps many of them; but, on the whole, there is a very great approximation of parties, especially where some practical good is at stake. It is difficult to distinguish between large masses of the highest of the Low and the lowest of High Church party.

> Black steals unheeded from the neighbouring white,
> Without offending the well-puzzled sight.

We hope the half prophecy contained in the latter part of the following passage, from a kindly and moderate writer already quoted, will not be realized:—

"Several good and wise men have deplored the cessation (of convocation), and it is certainly possible that the frequent holding of this assembly might have checked the progress of dissent, and more early provided sufficient space and means for religious worship. But it is at least equally probable that its disputes would have sometimes widened into schism, its zeal warmed into intolerance; that the trade of agitator might have grown profitable in the Church as it is in the State, and that the enemies of all religion would often have been gratified with the unseemly sight of conflicting divines." (*Lord Mahon's History of England.*)

As to the idea of the counsels of Convocation having a tendency to check the progress of dissent *quoad* Convocation, we very much doubt any such result: that would depend on the accidental moderation, or the want of it, of the men who might happen to form the Convocation at the time being; unless a hint is here given of the old Romanist idea of making use of the civil power to coerce others, without any submission whatever to the civil power on the part of the Church itself as represented by Convocation.

Somewhat with this view, the author of the pamphlet before us quotes a passage from Magna Charta granting the Church "jura sua integra," and, amongst others, the election of her own bishops, a point which the earlier Norman kings would not concede, and for which they were plentifully abused by the churchmen of those times. Many churchmen now would claim the plenary authority of Convocation, and consequently, of course, its power of meeting as a plain right, without entertaining the question of expediency at all. They are inclined to say, whatever quarrels we have let us settle among ourselves; let the Church of England be left alone to provide for the spiritual interests of England.

Every article even of Magna Charta is not eternally binding on the British nation, under every conceivable change of circumstances. Magna Charta aimed at what was then the ecclesiastical liberty of the nation, against the intolerably corrupt disposal of benefices by Norman tyrants. It was the expression of the general feeling of the nation when there was little or no dissidence on religious matters; it was a human and not a divine charter.

The Legislature now has to consult many interests, and to act for the general good of the nation, and to give satisfaction and content as far as possible to its component interests; and we are not disposed to think that on such questions as the payment of church rates by dissenters, it ought to come to Convocation for its authority. Let

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* *Historical Remarks on the Convocations of the Church of England etc.* By the Rev. FREDERICK POYNDER, M.A. Rivington; Bell and Daldy; J. Parker.

Convocation settle points of ritual, conduct, discipline, and doctrine for the members of the Church, *if it can*. The less the Church insists upon what she considers her abstract right the better; the more likely she is to be in sympathy with the nation generally, and to bring some at least of the Trinitarian dissenters within her pale. In matters of vital importance we do not think she has much reason, on the whole, to complain of the civil legislature, though everything may not have gone to her wish. She is most strongly, though indirectly, represented in the House of Commons, and is likely to be, at any rate, for many a long year to come, despite the new Reform Bill. Her bishops, though of legal appointment, have been of late thorough sons of the Church, strengthening her alike by their exertions and their general liberality. They are neither bishops of a falling Church, nor appointed by those who wish her to fall. Every effort has been made to extend the influence of the Church of England in the colonies, and we think that on the whole she could not make out a long list of real grievances.

The pamphlet before us closes with a passage from Bacon, taken from his tractate on "The Pacification of the Church," too long to quote. Where Elizabeth and James were concerned, Bacon's opinions are to be taken "cum grano." In his tractate on "Church Controversies" it will be found that he speaks strongly against "synods gathered for the ordinary government of the Church;" and even in the tractate first referred to he speaks very freely of "Convocation being *restrained* under certain political circumstances, clearly making their meetings not so much a matter of abstract right, as of expedience under certain conditions."

A LECTURE BY FARADAY.

THERE are few things so well worth doing in London as going to the Royal Institution to hear a lecture by Faraday; and so thought no small number of persons on the evening of Friday the 9th inst., when the distinguished philosopher had announced his intention of discoursing on Light Houses and the introduction of the Electric Light to guide the sea wanderers on their way. Friday evenings during the season are famous for a mixture of fashion and science in Albemarle Street, and scores of carriages and hundreds of pedestrians draw up in front of the imitation Greek *façade*, and pour a well-dressed throng through the window-like aperture which the bad taste of a modern architect has compelled to perform the functions of a door. Up the branching staircase goes the polished crowd, and, after taking a turn round the library and looking at a few curiosities on its tables, they thread a narrow passage, filter themselves through opera-box-looking doors, or corkscrew up an iron staircase, and take refuge in the somewhat garret-like gallery by which the theatre of the Institution is made more ugly and capacious than it would otherwise have been. It was evident on Friday week that an unusual interest was excited, for by half-past eight every seat was crowded, and new-comers were lucky if they could find space enough for the soles of their feet. A few diagrams occupied the wall behind the lecture table, and on the latter were glass lanterns for light houses on the latest principle, lamps and reflectors old and new, together with some odds and ends the use of which the uninitiated found it difficult to divine. In front of the lecture table stood the well-known electric lamp, with a screen opposite to it on the wall and a large polyzonal lens occupied one corner of the gallery with a monster oil lamp behind it, ready to throw its light across the room to a screen over the way. Numbers of ladies in gay evening dresses contrasted pleasantly with the dingy mass of black coats, who in plenary belief of their superior wisdom monopolized the best places. Shortly before nine o'clock a pleasant, spare, benevolent looking man, with strong though small features, grey hair parted down the middle, and an uncommonly brisk, lively aspect flitted about, now taking a seat for a moment, now darting noiselessly this way and that, surveying the queer apparatus before him, and giving quick, quiet directions to the assistants of the place. This was the great man of the evening—the accurate thinker, the able experimenter, the brilliant discoverer, of whom England and all the world are proud, and who for many years has been connected with the Royal Institution as the pupil, friend, and successor of Sir Humphirey Davy, who never did a greater service than when he helped the poor bookbinder's apprentice to leave a mechanical craft, and enter upon that toilsome but honourable career of science which has carried him to the foremost rank of the intellectual leaders and benefactors of their race.

As the clock strikes nine, the lecturer takes his place, greeted by applause as general and as loud as a "highly genteel" audience think it decorous to give. A slight nod accepts and puts aside the praise of the folk, nimble hands quickly place a pair of spectacles upon the decided-looking nose, and a clear, singularly impressive, and rather musical voice, plumps, so to speak, at once into the heart of the subject. The manner is conversational, not oratorical; there is not a particle of effort to attract attention, and yet every one is constrained to listen with all ears. The solemn old gentleman, the young student, the pretty girl in the red opera-cloak, and the demure old dowager, each alike feels like the wedding guest in the "Ancient Mariner," and has no choice but to hear the tale. The lecture was very elementary, perhaps out of compliment to the "Elder Brethren of the Trinity House," who came to the lecture in full strength, and, like the old folks in the old play, may have need to go to school again to learn their A B C. But Faraday cannot discuss the commonest event without investing it with a new interest. Somebody apostrophised Tasso as the "prevailing poet," who "believed the wonders that he sang;" and Faraday is a prevailing lecturer, because he believes the wonders that he tells or shows. In the course of his explanations he produced a common candle, and called attention to its light. We were too far off to see whether it was what Ingoldsby calls a "rascally dip" or a "sound, round ten-penny mould of four to the pound;" but the audience immediately regarded it—as, indeed, it was—an exhibition of one of Nature's chief miracles, dealing in a marvellous way with the imponderable agencies of light and heat. They had all seen candles before with outward eyes, but many felt for the first time what a candle meant. There was nothing particular in the words which the lecturer used, but a wonderful faculty of communicating to others the clearness and freshness with which he looked at the commonest phenomena, and saw in them the exposition of pervading law. This simple-minded earnestness, which is so true a characteristic of genius, has been one great secret of Faraday's success. Davy warned him that science was an unprofitable trade, but the prospect of much labour and little pay did not discourage the young philosopher, and as his knowledge and fame grew, and a large income might have been easily obtained by applying his skill to the service of the manufacturers, Faraday, with the great mindedness of a high priest of nature, showed himself able to despise wealth, and toiled on, living in a few rooms and upon an income not big enough to purchase dress and cigars for a young man about town. As wealth could not make him her slave, she would gladly have engaged him as a "lion" to exhibit at her receptions, and make her dull dinners more endurable; but social vanities were as powerless as the glitter of gold, and like the hero in the "Bridal of Triermain," the knight of knowledge cast aside all temptations, maintained his fidelity, and won his prize. If aristocracy possessed a keener perception of the hollowness of shams and the solid grounds of human dignity, it would learn from such a career, and the presence of such a man, to be ashamed of the artificial homage which it exacts. Who among the inheritors of lands and titles, bowed in and out of life by a swarm of obsequious menials in and out of plush, will be known to have existed a few years hence—who, in fact, knows or cares for their existence now, except the tradesmen whom they pay or keep waiting for their debts? But after British titles have become matters of antiquarian curiosity—like those of Babylon or Nineveh—it will be remembered that Michael Faraday kindled up an electric light of science destined to guide all future students in their arduous way.

To go back to the lecture. Faraday began by expressing the delight he experienced from his connexion with the Trinity House, arising from the cosmopolitan and benevolent co-operation of all nations and governments in the endeavour to promote the safety of the ocean wanderers in every clime. The first idea of the lighthouse was the candle in the cottage window, guiding the husband across the water or the pathless moor, and it remained in a rude and imperfect condition up to a very recent period. On the table was a reflector, made and used within the memory of men still living, and which was a great improvement upon the contrivances which preceded it. The thing looked something like a pewter punch bowl, and produced a very feeble effect in concentrating and directing the light of a small lamp; contrasted with this was the skilfully contrived parabolic reflector of the Trinity House, which threw a strong cone of light, so as to dazzle the spectators. Passing from reflectors, Dr. Faraday spoke of the apparatus for refraction, and exhibited, by a well-chosen experiment, the effect of spherical aberration, and the bad performance of large simple lenses, in consequence of the foci of their central and peripheral portions being sufficiently different to disturb and confuse the image. To remedy this, Fresnel had devised the polyzonal lenses now in use, in which a number of rings of glass, each having its appropriate curvature, were built up into one large lens. The action of this principle was exhibited by the large lens in the gallery and by lanterns on the table. In constructing refracting or reflecting lanterns for lighthouses, it was necessary to pay attention to the dimensions of the cone of rays sent forth, and in practice it was found that one, having an angle of less than six degrees, did not produce a sufficient breadth of light to be easily visible at a distance, while one exceeding fifteen degrees scattered its rays over too wide a space, and did not give the requisite intensity. But, in order to produce a cone of light of these dimensions, it was necessary that the source of the illumination should be small; hence the limit was soon reached, beyond which the size of ordinary lamps could not be increased with advantage; and the desideratum was to obtain a maximum of intensity in the space of a common candle. This was accomplished by the electric light; and, although Voltaic batteries presented practical inconveniences which had not been got over, it was found that a large magneto-electric machine worked by a small steam engine had been able to maintain a steady illumination during the six months it had been tried in the South Foreland Light House, and its light had been repeatedly seen on the opposite coast of France. To show the necessity for an intense light Dr. Faraday reminded his audience of the dark shadow thrown by the steam issuing from a railway locomotive on a sunshiny day; and having cast a concentrated light from the electric lamp upon a screen, he showed how instantaneously it was darkened by an artificial cloud made with high pressure steam, and which might be taken as an illustration of the effect of the sea fogs and mists so common near the coast. The time did not permit any explanation of the particular means by which the magneto-electric light was rendered reliable and convenient, but the audience separated with a good notion of the general philosophy of the subject, and as Dr. Ritchie used to say that magneto-electricity deserved to be called "Faradayical Electricity," it is pleasant to think that

during the lifetime of the Professor the beacon towers on the coasts of many lands will be converted into luminous monuments to his genius and his fame.

STATE OF THE MINING AND COLLIERY LAW.

[COMMUNICATED.]

IT is a fact (more the pity) that political economists have not yet settled what is the true function or province of law. A terrible outcry was made against the Factory Act, as a breach of all orthodox regulations; and Miss MARTINEAU still protests against the law compelling masters properly to fence off machinery. It seems that the province of law is to protect the lives and health of the people, and to promote the happiness and well-being of the greatest number. It matters not in what direction its operations work, or what form they may take, the province of law is what we have stated, though its operation may change as society may require. It seems also the duty of those who make the law to *enforce* every regulation for improvement which private enterprise has either overlooked or neglected. Holding these views, we chronicle a few facts which have an immediate bearing upon the colliers' question. These facts, which are undisputed, are, first, that the avocation of the miner is excessively dangerous and unhealthy. We have more than four per cent. killed, and a fearful number maimed, by accidents; while the *working* life of miners does not average one-half of that of men of other trades.

By Government returns the average life of the miner is but twenty-seven years, that of the agricultural labourer is forty-three, and the general average is thirty-four. Now, taking this time of working to be from twelve years of age, the miner has but fifteen years to work and to maintain his family in. The general working average of the miner is twenty-two years, while the agricultural labourer may work thirty-one years; and while his average sickness is but twenty-five weeks from twenty to sixty years of age, the miner's average sickness is ninety-five weeks, to be taken from the period of his working years. These figures speak for themselves, and later investigations tend to show they do not tell the whole truth; and that the evils of which the miner has to complain are considerably worse than are here stated by the local registrar's return for five years together (see "Social Science Almanack," p. 59.) In some places it has been found that the miners do but average twenty-one years, and at one place but seventeen years.

Second. This deplorable mortality and consequent misery and immorality are not the absolute consequence of their employment, but of the want of necessary care and attention. The great evils to which the miner is liable are explosions, falling of roofs, breaking of chains, machinery, &c.; and to prevent all these, the practical applications of science may be called into use. F. H. HOLLAND, Esq., at the Bradford Social Science Meeting,* declared that an efficient amount of ventilation can be constantly produced, so as to dilute and to render harmless all noxious gases; and which might thus render all working places in collieries, under ordinary circumstances, free from danger. The Act of 1855 requires this to be done, while all explosions show this Act is either neglected or most wilfully violated. Relative to the falling of roofs, shafts, and the breaking of machinery—the returns of accidents in Durham and Northumberland, compared with those of Yorkshire, Lancashire, Stafford, and Wales, show that in consequence of their superior arrangements, nearly three-fourths of the average deaths from these causes have been actually reduced. These are facts which none can gainsay; and we think also it cannot be denied that private enterprise and unregulated competitions have not provided efficient remedies, or even all that they might do, to preserve the lives and promote the health and well-being of the working miners. All competent authorities affirm, that the Act to inspect mines, and to enforce regulations has done much to reduce the dangers and evils connected with them, and that it could do much more, if properly arranged and efficiently worked; but the point disputed is, whether it is the right and duty of Government to enforce any such regulations at all, and, if so, to what extent? This question leads to the proposed Act now pending. Deputations of associations of miners, both men and masters, are now urging upon Parliament their separate and divided opinions, or rather interests. The men admit the proposed Bill is an improvement upon the past, inasmuch as it enforces education, in better regulations relating to machinery, and by definitions and notices making old clauses better to work by. But they say it is defective in not providing any *means* or scheme of education, which is still required as a condition of working, betwixt the ages of seven, ten, and twelve. Nor does the Bill fix any limit to the hours of working for those under fourteen, which is desirable. Against this the masters strongly protest as "impracticable and oppressive;" and they say that the *supposed* evils have proved real blessings in practice. The men ask for a clause to secure the proper weight of their work. It seems monstrous that the very necessity for such a clause should be requisite; but so notoriously necessary is it, that masters, it is said, are willing to *concede* that boon of justice to the men. But, as true political economists, they are now claiming five hundredweight as a standard of weight, whereas four-and-a-half hundredweight has been the continued custom per dozen.

As the proposed penal clauses stand, for neglect or wilful violation of the law and *regulations*, a "master, agent, or viewer may be fined £5, and not more than £10, for each offence;" while a working man for a similar offence may be fined £2, or be imprisoned with or without hard labour for three months. Against this partiality the men protest. Such a small fine to rich men is a paltry punishment for a criminal neglect which may cost the lives of hundreds of miners; while, at the same time, such a law might be twisted into a monstrous oppression against the operative when administered by magistrates who are either coal-owners or interested therein. It is master and inspector who make legal all special regulations—the men have no voice in them, even where they are the agents and sufferers alone. Of course such one-sided legislation is but possible in a State where the legislation is itself partial and one-sided; and yet the men are told not to oppose *this* clause for fear of losing their rights in others. Again: the men wish the inspectors to be themselves inspected. At present, there is no regulation laid down to enforce any efficient inspection.

The officer may inspect if he likes, or he may "live at home at ease," and seldom stir abroad unless some terrible accident occur. *After* a calamity, we hear of the inspector inquiring; and as the inspectors have hitherto been appointed because they have been themselves coal proprietors, so, if we look to the reports of accidents, we see they have been dreadfully severe upon the men, and most gentle and lenient to the coal owner. In short, by reports we hear that fatal accidents only occur in the "best of all possibly" regulated mines. The men could tell a different tale—of their informations being placed by the inspector before their masters, and discharges following—of inspectors never visiting pits for years together, or of sending ample notice of their coming—of packed juries at inquests, and of coroners (appointed by masters) suppressing all searching inquiry, when it tended to involve the wealthy owners. Indeed, if the men dared but speak out, things now going quietly on in England would be so exposed, that it would make the humane sob again, if it were but told truthfully. Many a verdict of "accidental death" ought to have been "vile murder," or "wilful manslaughter" done in mines; and yet this is going on, producing death at the rate of three and a quarter lives per day's working, the whole year round.

Is it, then, not time something should be done to save and defend the suffering miner? True economists would show, that by saving life, and improving the health and the social and intellectual condition of the people, would in the end be a blessing to the capitalist as well as to the labourer.

* See last Paper on Transactions, 1859.

FEMALE SCHOOL OF ART AND DESIGN.

GOLDSMITH, in one of his charming essays, has said that he who best knows how to keep his necessities private, is the most likely person to have them redressed; and that the true use of speech is not so much to express our wants as to conceal them. Nicely as this is expressed, and great as is our admiration of GOLDSMITH, we must dissent from him in the present instance. We are at a loss to know how necessities that are kept private can be redressed; of course the best way to conceal our wants is not to use speech at all, to be dumb about them, and then if nothing else reveals them they must be concealed. Our object in taking notice of this saying of GOLDSMITH is not that we may have an excuse, for we think there is none required, for bringing before our readers the progress and condition of a certain good institution, but that we may show that if its present necessities be kept unknown, it is more than probable that the institution may decline and break up before the public know anything at all about it.

In Gower Street, W.C., there is a "Female School of Art and Design," which was established at Somerset House in 1842, and transferred in 1852 to the premises now occupied by it. The object at first in establishing this school was to enable young women of the middle class to obtain an honourable and profitable employment, and to improve ornamental design in manufactures, by cultivating the taste of the designer. During the last eight years, that is, since the removal of the school from the Strand to Gower Street, about seven hundred students have entered themselves at the school, and the number there at the present time is one hundred and eighteen, of whom seventy-seven are studying with the view of ultimately maintaining themselves. The daughters of clergymen and medical men are among the students at this school, some of whom have, through the instruction and assistance received here, obtained good appointments, and are enabled to live independently by means of private teaching. There can be no doubt as to the usefulness and success of the school. The Report shows that during the last three years the students have taken an "annual average of twenty local, and three national medals; and, at the last annual examination, six of them obtained Free Studentships." Others have gained their living by designing and painting in various parts of the country, and others by teaching in schools belonging to the department of science and art.

Such is a brief account of the good which has been done by the Female School of Art and Design since its establishment. This good it has been achieving silently, and almost without the knowledge of the public. And no one, we are sure, can read of the benevolent object and the eminent success of the school without gratification. But, we regret to say, the useful operation of the the school seems likely to be brought to an end. Its present promising position and beneficial powers are destined to be destroyed, if not speedily relieved and supported by public generosity or otherwise. The Committee of Council on Education have hitherto assisted the school to the amount of £500 per annum. They are now, it appears

necessitated to withdraw that sum from the school, and eventually to leave it to support itself.

Such, then, is the present position of an exceedingly useful institution. It must either stand or fall presently. By the withdrawal of the large and munificent grant of £500, if means be not had of replacing it, the school must ultimately break up. Now the question which at this crisis the Committee of the Female School of Art and Design propounds is, whether the school is of sufficient value to deserve an effort to maintain its existence? This question, we think, is already settled by the report on the progress and success of the school from the beginning. It has borne good fruits. It has educated and found employment for a great number of young women, who, without such a place and the opportunities which it affords, would, it is probable, have lived in indigence and misery. When the piety and benevolence of the age are directed towards the consideration of what shall be done for the social redemption of thousands (with whom, however, let it be understood, we do not in the remotest sense, connect the students associated with the institution whose wants we are advocating), it is a fitting time to bring forward for public sympathy and support the "Female School of Art and Design." The situation of the school in Gower Street is convenient for the North and West of London, as well as for the City, and this forms a principal reason why it should be maintained there. The Committee propose, in order to preserve the school from closing, that suitable premises for it be purchased in its present neighbourhood. To purchase such premises, it is estimated that at least £2000 will be required. If this sum could be raised to carry out the intentions of the committee, there is every reason to believe that by careful management of its expenses, the institution would be placed upon a permanent basis, a consummation devoutly to be wished. We sincerely hope that the necessitous condition of the school being known, the appeal now made on behalf of it will be liberally responded to; so that, as everybody must desire, it may be placed on a firm, self-supporting footing, capable of carrying out to the utmost the kind and generous object for which it was instituted.

ITALIAN POLITICAL PHILOSOPHY.*

THE political regeneration of Italy has been accompanied, or rather it would be more correct to say that it has been preceded, by a philosophical regeneration. This was the case, likewise, in Germany in the earlier part of the century. Its great philosophers, especially Fichte, had to lift up their mighty and miraculous voice before grand deeds could be done. They who despise philosophy, despise not merely the deepest human thought, the richest human phantasy; they despise likewise the most infallible herald of political revolution. A spiritualist philosophy predicts, prepares political changes that are blissful, a materialist philosophy political changes that are baneful. M. Debrit, therefore, in this excellent volume, has done good service in reference not merely to Italy's philosophical progress, but also to its political disenthralment. He has devoted several years to studying the writings of Italy's three chief modern philosophers—Antonio Rosmini, Serbati Terenzio Mamiani, and Vincenzo Gioberti. The first of these was born in 1797, and died in 1855; the second was born in 1799, and is still alive; the third, and the most celebrated, was born in 1801, and died in 1852; so that they were, in the strictest sense, contemporaries—belonging, furthermore, to our own generation.

They had this in common besides—that they all had a part in political affairs; not much to their own satisfaction, nor the satisfaction of anybody else. However, we may do them infinite injustice by judging them in an English fashion, and by an English standard. We are more and more convinced the more we read, meditate, learn, that only the natives of a country can understand its politics, can interpret its spiritual movements. Foreigners—even the acutest and the justest—can only guess, and in the majority of cases they must guess wrong. With all our researches, do we really know anything of antiquity, of that life which flung itself forth unconstrained into the generous sunlight? What blunders Frenchmen make about England! What blunders Englishmen make about everything and everybody! If an honest, intelligent, patriotic native tells us something about his country, we are in the main disposed to credit what he says, even if prejudice somewhat bias him. But what can the cleverest foreign correspondent tell us which is not likely to mislead? In the conduct of Rosmini, Mamiani, Gioberti, there may really have been wisdom, where we see only folly; that may have been a sublime ardor which we pronounce a wild fanaticism—that a divine faith which we condemn as a blind credulity. They were Italians and Catholics, and we are Protestants and Englishmen.

One of their errors we think pardonable enough—that of taking a liberal Pope as the centre of a new Italian Civilization; thus placing Italy for the third time at the head of Europe—of the world. Republican, succeeded by Imperial, Rome was supreme in antiquity; Papal Rome, with its magnificent handmaidens, the Italian Republics, was supreme in the Middle Ages. Why should not for a third time Italy conquer, command, transform mankind?

Let us hear, first of all, M. Debrit's reply to the question.

It is verily strange, he says, to see so many gifted minds, so many noble intelligences, found all their hopes for the future on the mad conception of a Liberal Papacy, as if these two words untuposed did not involve a flagrant contradiction. It does not depend on the good intentions of a Pope, as Pius Ninth has sufficiently proved, to realize that which is impossible. Authority, in effect, cannot transform itself into liberty without destroying itself. Every reform is for authority an abdication. Rome converted into a constitutional city, Rome obedient to the representative system, Rome with an Upper Chamber and a Lower Chamber, Rome trusting to itself, directing itself; Rome, finally, after a minority of two thousand years, receiving from the hands of the Pope the virile robe, is one of those utopias which do not bear an instant's examination. If such a Rome were possible, Rome would assuredly no longer be the Rome which we know, the abode and the patrimony of the Papacy, and Catholicism would no longer be Catholicism: not that it would thereby cease to be Christianity; it would merely be another form of the Gospel. The character of infallibility, which the Church attributes to the sovereign Pontiff, excludes in the Roman States all national representation, in the same way that it excludes, in the order of ideas, all religious tolerance, all liberty of thought, all criticism, and all philosophy. Rome, the Pope, the expurgatorial index, Jesuitism, the laws against sacrilege and blasphemy, are all things of which the existence is inseparable, or rather, to speak more correctly, these are only the manifold forms of one and the same principle,—authority. Catholicism is not an assemblage of heterogeneous elements; it is an edifice, immense, harmonic, where everything is bound and blended, where everything is in its place, where no part can be severed from the whole, where the whole cannot live robbed of a single one of its parts. Take away a stone, only one, everything falls to pieces: and of this splendid monument which the Protestant Leibnitz admired as the masterpiece of human skill, nothing remains but ruin, desolation, chaos. Between Catholicism and liberty there is no possible compromise: we must necessarily choose the one and reject the other. But to intrust to the Pope the guardianship of liberty is, by an inconceivable aberration, to place the keys of the fortress in the hands of the enemy.

This, M. Debrit, is the truth: but it is not the whole truth. We believe that Rosmini, Mamiani, Gioberti, and many earnest and patriotic souls have been deluded: but we think that the delusion was natural enough. Read Joseph De Maistre; read Lamennais read any one who strenuously upheld the Papacy without being a Jesuit, and you will find that the idea of the Papacy is that of unity and universality, not that of authority and infallibility. The power of the popes really arose from the holiest principles of human nature, and in them it still subsists. One faith, one worship, one celestial brotherhood, these, and not any theological crotchets of authority and infallibility, are what the Catholic heart clings to. Now, as faith, and worship, and brotherhood demand a religious bond, why should not the Pope symbolise the bond? And while symbolising the head, why should not the Pope be the patriot of patriots in Italy? With the vanity of southern nations, Rosmini, Mamiani, Gioberti, wished still more to see Italy foremost than free. Gioberti proved this by his boundless and yet sincere contradictions. The French would all turn Voltaireans to-morrow, if thereby they could add a thousand square miles to the area of France.

In politics we demand noble motives—unimpeachable veracity, ardent patriotism, thorough unselfishness: but we do not demand absolute wisdom:—in politics, still more than in war, we must be satisfied, not with complete victories, but with the fewest failures. As regards politics, then, we have not one word of condemnation, or even of criticism, to fling at Rosmini, Mamiani, and Gioberti. But in philosophy the affair changes its aspect altogether. These three gifted men are certainly not original in philosophy:—they are all the less original from clinging so exclusively to Italian traditions, and from overlooking what the only great philosophers of modern days, the Germans, achieved. Patriotism is of every country—philosophy is of no country. The Italians have had the sublimest philosophers; Thomas Aquinas, our dearly beloved Giordano Bruno, the Martyr Campanella, and so many more. Rosmini, Mamiani, and Gioberti, are incomparably inferior to all these men. But it is strange that so marked, so persistent, so fierce, and so polemical as is Italian individuality, that there has never yet been a pure Italian philosopher. Every Italian philosopher has had a theological, scientific, or political battle to fight. It seems as if the battling genius of the ancient Roman were immortal in Italy.

For M. Debrit we have most cordial and grateful words. He is somewhat imprisoned in formulas; but he means well, knows what he is about, and is very modest. Read him, if only for his modesty.

* *Histoire des Doctrines Philosophiques dans l'Italie Contemporaine.* Par MARC DEBRIT. Paris: Meymiels.

MARTIAL.*

THE world, as it grows older, loses much of its reverence for ancient Rome. The virtues of the republic dwindle away, whilst the vices of the empire stand out more prominent. That remorseless criticism which has robbed the noble pages of LIVY of the charm which faith in the heroic deeds they recount lent to them, has left unimpaired the testimony which the epigrams of MARTIAL give to the monstrous debauchery of the CÆSARS and their subjects. The historian has come to be regarded as a poet, losing thus his greatest merit; and the poet, his wit and grace unaffected, takes rank as an historian—not, indeed, of pillage and slaughter, but of what is as much regarded now-a-days—manners and morals. Where will the curious students of the year 4500 A.D. get such photographs of our peccadilloes? Thank Heaven, indeed, we

* *The Epigrams of Martial.* Translated into English prose. Each accompanied by one or more verse translations, etc. H. G. Bohn.

have no such hideous enormities to be gibbeted for; but still we have our vices and follies, as edifying, we may be sure, to the advanced races who shall succeed to our inheritance, as those of the Romans are to us. What, however, we can gather from MARTIAL and JUVENAL—together only matter for one pocket volume—they will have to extricate with intense labour from law reports and parliamentary debates, should newspapers, annual registers, and sets of *Hansard* be preserved in the confusion which will attend our decline and fall.

MARTIAL is not only *facile princeps* amongst the epigrammatists, but has attained an absolute, unapproachable pre-eminence which he owes not so much to his own powers as to the material upon which, and the tools with which, he worked. Others may emulate, although it is little likely, the pungent wit, the keen observation, the graceful turn of thought, and the out-spoken severity which constitute his chief merits as a writer; but none, we may hope, will have a society like that which served for the subject of his attacks to deal with, and none, certainly, will have a language of such admirable fitness for their work. The marvellous power and terseness of the Latin is, perhaps, nowhere so evident as in MARTIAL. He says in one line what it would take at least two of English (which has this terseness, in the hands of its masters, more than any other tongue) to express; and although, of course, much of this rare merit is due to his own peculiar epigrammatical genius, the example of some of his countrymen, SALLUST—to give but one instance—shows, if need were, that the genius of the language was his great strength. If brevity be really the soul of wit, and certainly it goes so far to make it up, the wit of MARTIAL is supreme. He is always brief and pointed, the wonder being that any man could always keep up to such a level. Of course his epigrams are not of equal merit; whilst some once read can never be forgotten, others appear lame and halting. He says himself of them—

Sunt bona, sunt quædam mediocria, sunt mala plura.

And every writer, from his days down to ours, has agreed with him that

Aliter non fit liber.

Yet it is by no means fair to set down those epigrams which appear to us pointless, as really devoid of the true salt. We can no more understand the puns and jests upon individuals which told well at Rome in the days of MARTIAL, than the imaginary race of whom we have spoken will appreciate Mr. *Punch's* fun about PALMERSTON the bottleholder, RUSSELL upsetting the coach, Mr. COX'S historical abilities, or the jokes of the burlesque writers about crinoline and pegtops. When we can understand his allusions, they are almost always telling. Even the dullest verses give us a singular insight into the morals of Rome, morals so detestable that is impossible to imagine worse. It is in this depravity that we find the sufficient cause of that gross indelicacy and impurity which, in the judgment of our times, disfigures so many of MARTIAL'S unequalled sarcasms. His attacks are mainly levelled at vices of an infamous nature, which are not only unmentionable, but even unknown now. Attacking the sinner, he describes the sin plainly; and in doing so, only did what his contemporaries did. We cannot try the writers of earlier ages by standards formed either upon the morality or squeamishness of our own. The same licence which disgusts us in MARTIAL, is to be found in greater or less degree in CATULLUS, HORACE, and JUVENAL; and either of that great triumvirate, denouncing the men and women of whom MARTIAL wrote, would have spoken as plainly as he has done. Not that this grossness in MARTIAL is merely the result of honest indignation; he does not scourge vice as vice, with the earnestness with which JUVENAL assailed it. He attacks unsparingly some infamous vices; but for others, which we should now deem infamous, he had evidently a sneaking kindness. What the man was himself, we do not care to inquire. He tries to make out, as CATULLUS—all the while accumulating what appears to us proofs to the contrary—did before him, that however impure his book, his life was chaste.

Lasciva est nobis pagina, vita proba est;

or, as Mr. BOHN'S old MS. of translations has it—

"My lines are wanton, but my life is chaste."

Perhaps it was according to the notions of the time, and it must always be remembered that MARTIAL has often written with singular elegance, delicacy, and grace.

The influence of MARTIAL is to be traced almost everywhere in the older literature of Europe. Many a smart saying of an old author, made to do duty by a modern one as his own, really owes its paternity to the Spanish poet who made Rome his home. Naturally, the looser writers of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries have borrowed from his filthiest epigrams ideas which they clothed in their own language, and then given an air of novelty and an extra spice of interest to them by applying the story or satire to some eminent personage of their own times; but he has not been less drawn upon by staid, sober, and even devout writers. Whether they went to him as a fount of pure latinity, a source of sparkling wit, or drawn by that strange attraction which these wanton books, when redeemed by any genius, seem to have for grave and reverend seignors, we cannot see; but in old history, philosophy, and even divinity, one often stumbles across MARTIAL, sometimes quoted by name—for the men of old were generally honest in these matters—sometimes translated into the vernacular—or rather his idea expressed in the vernacular, for translation of MARTIAL is out of the question; the man who undertakes it must be a MARTIAL himself, and then he must have a language as suitable for the purpose as MARTIAL had. Of course the attempt has often been made, but as much of course it has failed. The only chance of success is to give up the notion of translating, and taking the idea of the poet, put it in another framework, a course which has been not unfrequently adopted in this and other countries.

Mr. BOHN having determined to give a translation of this author, has undoubtedly done well to let it be in prose. The poetical versions, although collected with great industry, are not very good. Those by FLETCHER are the best, and are sometimes singularly happy. So far as we have examined the prose, the translation seems good enough, and we can quite recognise the expediency of its ceasing to be literal, when it had to render words which cannot be printed in these days. That question, indeed, has been Mr. BOHN'S great difficulty, and we cannot say that his solution of it is the best. He has given the epigrams which are absolutely untranslateable in the original Latin, and appended an Italian translation by GRAGLIA. In other words, he has marked out for the benefit of the lovers of dirt the really dirty epigrams, and given such assistance in the translation of their difficult Latin as Italian would render. It must be said, however, that GRAGLIA has managed his translation by the very easy course of giving the most indecent Latin words in an Italian form. So far so good. We confess we think it would have been much better to have left these epigrams completely out, and have plainly stated the reason. Nor do we see any very good ground for the publication of the translation, except Mr. BOHN'S natural desire to have his classical library perfect. The wit and point of MARTIAL, as we have said, cannot be given in another tongue, and valuable as may be the information which he gives of the life of Imperial Rome, it is scarcely appreciable, except by those who have studied its history well.

ART AND LIFE ROMANCE.*

THE author of "The Scarlet Letter" has, after a considerable lapse of time, added another to the list of his world-famed productions. The *Romance of Monte Beni* doubtless owes its birth to the author's evident enthusiasm for the works of genius and art. The effect produced upon his fertile brain by drawing aside the curtain which shrouds the masterpieces of Rome, sacred relics of those mighty intellects long since departed into the shades of the Eternal City, has led to the composition of three singularly eloquent volumes, teeming with the most fanciful creations of one of the most fanciful and creative of imaginations. Mr. Hawthorne's exposition of the individual and artistic meaning couched in each senseless block of sculptured marble, and the elevating influence which a due appreciation of art must necessarily exercise over the educated and inquiring mind, is at once chaste, comprehensive, and instructive; he has in fact left nothing unsaid that could be said upon the subject. Nor does he confine himself solely to sculpture; he delights in expatiating on the beauties of Raphael, Leonardo da Vinci, and the master spirits of many a past generation, when the genius of painting was at its height. There is something fascinating in the author's mode of treating these and all other subjects, appealing directly to the higher capabilities of our intellectual faculties. The reader finds himself wafted onwards in a perfect stream of calm spiritual enjoyment, and does not become conscious of any feeling of impatience in consequence of the delay thus occasioned in the progress of the story. The story itself, however, is open to some criticism. The Count of Monte Beni, a young man of slender intellect, but of a singularly vivacious temperament, and whose miraculous resemblance to the Faun of Praxiteles has been discovered by a company of friendly artists during a visit to the sculpture gallery at Rome, is introduced as a friend and companion of Miriam, a lady artist, who is endowed by nature with the most brilliant intellectual capacities, and whose power over the young Arcadian (as mind will sometimes exercise a magnetic influence over the mere animal propensities of a lower order of beings) is entire and absolute. Led away by this fatal passion, and under the spell of an electric glance from his mistress's eye, this poor fawn-like creature commits a dreadful crime—murder, in fact. The author now proceeds to extract good out of evil. The death of a human being, the result of his own violence, developes faculties that from his birth had lain dormant in the breast of Monte Beni. Remorse, the offspring of guilt, becomes at once the instructor and moral regenerator of the young Count. Hitherto, he has had no perception of right and wrong; if he chanced by accident to follow in the right track, it was not the result of carefully treasured precepts and ennobling principles, but the consequence of mere instinct—such instinct as belongs more or less to every species of the brute creation. He now becomes conscious of a new life flooding in upon his awakening faculties, and his inner nature is exalted in proportion as he inhales the heaven-born treasure, so that from the bitter ordeal of blood and sorrow he emerges a wiser and a better man. Thus far we have no objection to make. We thoroughly coincide with Mr. Hawthorne's theory of an originally apathetic and unreasoning mind receiving the revelation of profound truths through the medium of crime and remorse. But when he leads us into a labyrinth of mystery, from which he allows us no apparent outlet; when his heroine, Hilda, who is here represented as a personification of innocence and purity, is suddenly spirited away, for no palpable reason, nobody being able to conjecture the how or wherefore; and when, moreover,

* *Transformation; or, The Romance of Monte Beni.* By NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE. Three vols. Smith, Elder, and Co.

Which is Which? or, Miles Cassidy's Contract. A Picture Story. By ROBERT B. BROUGH. Two vols. W. Kent and Co.

Notley Hall; or, The Wife's Sister. Smith, Elder, and Co.

she as suddenly reappears in a manner as wonderful as it is unexpected, the author still affording us no clue wherewith to arrive at any solution of the enigma, we confess ourselves not a little annoyed and disappointed. But the most unaccountable mystery is that which surrounds the young artist Miriam, which name, we speedily become aware, is merely assumed, her original cognomen having been connected with some deed of darkness too terrible to be detailed. This young lady's footsteps are dogged by an unwearying persecutor, who first makes his appearance as the "spectre of the catacombs," and is evidently acquainted with Miriam's former history, which knowledge he makes the vehicle of unmitigated torture to his victim. Owing to this and other circumstances, the reader's imagination is wrought up to the very highest pitch of excitement and expectation; and, just as he naturally concludes that the whole myth is about to be satisfactorily elucidated, the author breaks off the thread of his story, as though he had got it into an awkward entanglement, and his only means of extrication was in snapping it asunder, thereby leaving the reader in a kind of mental stupor, not quite certain whether there might not be a fourth volume lying somewhere on his own table, or that of his librarian, who may have neglected to forward him the entire set.

Thus, notwithstanding the high poetical appreciation every where apparent throughout this novel, its brilliant descriptions, and lofty sentiment, it is impossible for any reader to arrive at the termination without experiencing a feeling of irritation and dissatisfaction.

Which is Which; or, Miles Cassidy's Contract, which some of our readers may remember as having, not long since, embellished the weekly numbers of the *National Magazine*, is here reproduced under the more imposing form of two considerably bulky and neatly printed volumes. Notwithstanding the numerous class of readers who must have become familiar with this story when it originally appeared, we have no doubt that it is destined to command in its present shape an extensive circulation. We are fully justified in making this assertion by the work itself, which possesses all the elements of popularity. The style is natural and fluent without any attempt at flowery metaphor, which is sometimes lamentably out of keeping with the general bearings of a story, and always mars its simplicity. The author here contents himself with drawing his incidents as closely together as possible, thereby rendering the interest of his reader both concentrated and permanent. All his characters are drawn with a life-like consistency and individuality that could only have been accomplished through an intimate acquaintance with human nature. The portrait of "Miles Cassidy," which is the first introduced upon the scene, and indeed the latest to quit it, having performed the principal part throughout the drama, is a perfect masterpiece of singularity combined with high-souled integrity, illustrating how easily one half of the world can misconstrue the actions of their neighbours; being unacquainted with the individual peculiarities by which the conduct of every man is regulated, we are apt to pervert the purest and noblest of motives according to our own sophisticated views and selfish considerations.

Netley Hall is a novel very carefully and pleasantly written. It indicates considerable talent and considerable research on the part of our author. The current of events is made purposely to take a polemical direction—in a word, to advocate the lawfulness of marriage with a wife's sister. The argument on the subject, indeed, forms a significant portion. The scriptural doctrine, as proved by Dr. M'Caul,* is clear enough on the point; it is not so technically and closely stated in the novel, but the points are correctly cited and skilfully arranged. In point of composition, this little romance is a careful and superior work. The style indicates learning, and there is throughout a discrimination of character which shows in the author a philosophical turn of mind and much study of human nature. The argument of the book may serve to illustrate the difference between Art and Life; that, while the former is obedient to rule and law, which predispose the harmony of details assembled in the artist's work, the latter is not so scientifically regulated, but leaves much to caprice and the will of the individual. The manners of a particular period, however, sanctioned by the respectable portion of society and those who are placed in authority over it, are not always synonymous with those morals which the thinking mind finds to be true, consistent at once with the feelings of the heart and the laws of nature. In life, there are always needed new forms of legislation, as corrective of past errors; while in art every work enounces and illustrates its own law, and leaves it as an exemplar and model for the guidance of future labourers in the same inexhaustible field. Of true morals, however, the principles are eternal; and, working in secret at the base of society, gain in strength from day to day, and at length secure the support of public law and general custom.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

(SPECIAL.)

PARIS, March 14, 1860.

NOT only Paris, but every spot in France has been afflicted by this "fourth winter," which has seemed all the more wintry for coming immediately after the warm, sunny weather of the last week of February. Certainly, if there is one thing more uncongenial than another to the true Parisian, it is wintry weather. The majority of them are convinced that the existence of so absurd a season is one of the most objectionable of the freaks of the great French deity, Fate; a season when one is not able to sit out on the Boulevards in the balmy air of evening, sipping the fragrant coffee, chatting with a congenial friend or in luxurious solitude, watching the blue curls of smoke rise from one's cigar into the bright atmosphere, and meditating lazily *de omnibus rebus et quibusdam aliis*; when there are none of those enchanting excursions to St. Cloud or Asnières, in which a fine day, a recherché dinner, and a pretty companion go far to make life more than tolerable—Oh, decidedly, winter is a fatal mistake. Imagine, therefore, the wrath consequent upon the aggravation of such a mistake, by bringing cold, snowy weather into March, which, in Paris, is generally like an English May. Well, it is lucky that this mistake was not persevered in too long; yesterday the frost vanished, and we have had two capital Spring days.

We have had quite Spring weather for the last few days: warm, sunny days, bright with that peculiar clear blue which is scarcely known in England. The Bois de Boulogne presents a magnificent appearance just now, as it is the height of the Paris season, and every afternoon the carriage drives are crowded with equipages of every description, from the splendid coach and liveries of some Russian merchant, who has come to Paris to play the gentleman, down to the hackney cab in which the French paterfamilias gives his wife an airing amongst "the quality." The scene is diversified by some extraordinary machines, evidently suited to American tastes, in which a being of comparatively human aspect appears perched above what seems a strange combination of wheels and bars—or you see, gleaming through the branches of the wood, the bright helmets of the soldiers guarding the carriage of the young Prince Imperial; in a few moments the whole cortége goes clattering by, and you catch a glimpse of a little chubby Napoleonic visage looking out of the window, apparently quite indifferent to the surrounding scene. Impertinent people hint that this child will never be wise enough to know his own mother; this may be, but there is no doubt as to his father. Poor little urchin, I wonder whether he will die in his bed like a decent Christian! An hour later you espy, amidst the throng of carriages, one that is open, containing two ladies; and it does not want a second glance to inform you that the Empress is one of them, so much does she resemble her portrait that used to stare one in the face at MACLEAN'S in the Haymarket—as much, in fact, as that gentleman in the grey shooting-coat, riding by the side of the open carriage, resembles a face that I see very, very often in *Punch*. That ordinary, sly-looking gentleman in the grey coat, whom one would think the quietest being in the world, is the chosen of the French people, the most important man in Europe. He has been trying to get a little colour into his sallow visage, and clear his brain; he is now going home to dine, and go on with his new edition of the map of Europe.

There is nothing very stirring going on in Paris just now. The rain of pamphlets still continues with unabated violence. Everybody in Paris is pamphleteering. The swarm of *brochures* which come pouring forth from the various presses, and espousing various sides of the vexed questions of the day, is "in numbers numberless." DENTU'S shop, from which issued "Le Pape et le Congrès," the grandmother of all these pamphlets, and which every day sends forth fresh dust to be thrown into the eyes of a distracted public, is like a smoky chimney on a windy day. The French *littérateur*, full of all sorts of views and theories, not being able, like an Englishman in such a case, to let off his doctrines through the medium of a journal, is obliged to scribble a pamphlet, which DENTU kindly publishes. We have "Christ et le Pape," "La Nouvelle Attitude de la France," "Rome et ses Provinces," "La Situation de la Papauté," and a hundred others on the same topic, of varying degrees of temperature; though most of them range very high, and on the whole are in support of the papal claim. In fact, to judge from the tone of the pamphleteering press, one would suppose that France was as orthodox now as in the days of ST. LOUIS, and that the nation was zealous on behalf of the preservation of papal domination in its entirety; whereas, as a matter of fact, I believe the great body of the people is profoundly indifferent as to what becomes either of his Holiness or his see. The idea of excommunication, which once would have made the people tremble and quake, is now regarded with calm derision; and the Frenchman to whom it is suggested merely shrugs his shoulders (as Frenchmen only can) and murmurs a contemptuous "*N'importe*," or "*ça m'est égal*." It's all the same to him, lighthearded dog, provided the papal interdict does not fly away with his dominoes, nor turn the *eau-sucré* sour, nor bring wet Sundays. But the press does not at this time at all fairly represent the national view; the pamphleteers are in a state of excitement, and therefore are not representatives of the general mass, which is peculiarly undisturbed. One is frequently misled in forming an estimate of the feeling of a people on any given subject by the bias in this or that direction of books and pamphlets; and the blatant excitement of a body of partisans may pass for a national movement. There is one brochure, however, which is just now creating an enormous sensation in Paris; greater, perhaps, than any of its predecessors—except, of course, the grandmother pamphlet—and which I had some time to wait before I could get. It came out about a week ago, and had no sooner made its appearance than it was eagerly sought after; so much so, that at every shop where I inquired for a copy, the answer was unanimous, "We have none left, but to-morrow morning—" and I am told that the printer can scarcely do his work quickly enough to meet the demand. The title of this popular production is "The Liberty of Italy and the Church," and it proceeds from the pen of

* *The Ancient Interpretation of Leviticus* xviii. 18. A Letter to the Rev. W. H. Lyall, B.A., by the Rev. A. M'CAUL, D.D. Wertheim, Macintosh, and Hunt.

the Reverend Father LACORDAIRE, who, as everybody knows, about a month ago was elected a member of the Academy—the forty immortals, as they are called.

The event which is looked forward to with the liveliest interest is the approaching trial of the Bishop of ORLEANS for libel on the *Siécle*. It ought to have opened on Monday, but, on account of the indisposition—(of a very voluntary nature, I am told; like the indispositions, as was supposed, of Mr. GLADSTONE)—of one of the advocates, it is postponed till to-morrow, the 15th. Mons. DUPANLOUP'S antecedents do not prejudice one in his favour. He was born in 1802, at a small village in Savoy, and in 1815 was sent to school in Paris. Even at this age, and in the position of schoolboy, he found more than one opportunity of displaying that turbulent spirit which has just now found vent in defaming his dead predecessor. In 1825 he was ordained priest, and soon attained great eminence as a preacher; and his success was such, that his superior, accusing him of self-seeking in the business, desired him to cease a certain course of lectures. But DUPANLOUP was only too pleased to have a quarrel with anybody, and the consequence was an obstinate warfare for some months, which was only ended by the curate finding a better "place" at the church of St. Roche, where he acquired most of that learning which has come in so opportunely, or, as some might think, so inopportunely, during the present crisis. The Revolution of 1830 was an annoyance to DUPANLOUP, who had been made chaplain to the Duke of BORDEAUX, in which capacity he doubtless had, or speedily would have had, no small influence upon ecclesiastical affairs. However, like all truly great men, the priest yielded to the force of circumstances, especially as such a concession was rather favourable than otherwise to his temporal prospects, and he was appointed to open the conferences of Nôtre Dame, which he did with great *éclat*, in 1834. When the archbishopric of Paris was vacant, M. DUPANLOUP vehemently opposed the election of M. AFFRE, but in vain. The new prelate, however, bore him no animosity on this account, and sent him on an important mission to Rome, at the same time raising him to the rank of titular grand vicar. On his return to the Eternal City, M. DUPANLOUP passed through Piedmont, and the King of Sardinia promised him a mitre if he would remain in his dominions. This was refused, either because he was alarmed at the thought of so lofty a dignity, or because he thought a bishopric in France better than one in Piedmont. In 1841 the Abbé DUPANLOUP was made professor of sacred eloquence at the Sorbonne, where his lectures were thinly attended, and he proved a desperate failure. His next rise was to become Superior of the Seminary of St. Nicholas, and, during all the latter part of the reign of LOUIS PHILIPPE, we find his name mixed up with every agitation of the time; and the violence of his articles which appeared in *L'Ami de la Religion* drew upon him universal remonstrance; to which the reverend gentleman replied somewhat paradoxically, "We do not insult, but we do not respect." He was an object of great dislike to the King, and he was fully aware that his only hopes of preferment lay in a revolution. This revolution came to pass in 1848; and on the 6th of August, 1849, FELIX DUPANLOUP became FELIX ORLEANS. As bishop he has been incessantly active, seeing much society, frequently writing on the topics of the day, unwearied in the cause of theological education, having even opened a school in the episcopal palace; but, under all circumstances, he has been uninterruptedly quarrelling with somebody or other. In 1854 he was chosen an Academician, for motives somewhat similar to those which suggested to Father LACORDAIRE "to renew the ancient alliance between the Church and Literature, between the Episcopate and the French Academy." His only work which is not of a fugitive character is one on education, which somebody has called the finest educational monument of the century. His productions on the Papal question are absolutely frenzied; but they are too well known to call for any description.

The Parisians are very angry against Nature just now for a reason besides the cold weather. Half of Paris went last Thursday to Havre, Dieppe, Boulogne, Cherbourg, to see *la grande marée* the highest tide there has *not* been for a hundred years; the special trains were crowded with an eager public, and landed the said eager public duly, but lo and behold! what was their disgust to find old ocean much as usual, with perhaps a laugh upon his watery countenance at their credulity. At Boulogne, however, a few hours after the departure of the special train and its disgusted cargo for Paris, amounting to about four thousand souls inveighing savagely against the railway companies, and vowing never again to trust the predictions of tidologists—whilst they were doing all this a strong wind rose, and there was a magnificent sea, which came rushing in with immense force, sweeping right up to the cliffs. Otherwise *la grande marée* must seem to have been got up by BARNUM.

ROME, February 25, 1860.

PAPAL LOTTERIES.

IF ever anybody had cause to regret the suppression of lotteries, it is the whole tribe of writers and authors. Never will there be found a "*Deus ex machinâ*" so serviceable or so unfailing as the lottery. If your plot wanted a solution, or your intrigue a *dénouement*, or your novel a termination, you could always cut through all your difficulties by the medium of a lottery ticket. The virtuous but impoverished hero became at once a very Crœsus, while the stern and worldly-minded parent bestowed his daughter and his blessing on the successful gambler, who, by the way, never purchased his own ticket, but always had it bequeathed him as a legacy. Alas! lottery tickets, like Indian uncles and places under government, have gone out of date. The fond glance of memory turns in vain towards the good old times, "Consule Giorgio," when lotteries were in their glory. It is, however, some comfort to reflect that if, as devout Catholics assert, the Papacy is eternal, then, in Rome at least, the lottery is eternal also. In truth, the lottery is a great, I might almost say the great Pontifical institution. It is a trade not only sanctioned, but actively supported by the Government. Partly, therefore, as a matter of literary interest, and partly as a curious feature in the economics of the Papal States, I have made various researches into the working of the lottery system, and shall endeavour to give you the practical, not the pecuniary, result of my investigations.

During the year 1858, the receipts from the lottery were upwards of one million scudi, or nearly a tenth of the whole Pontifical revenue. This source of income, therefore, is a very important one, and is jealously guarded as a Government monopoly. There are no public gambling tables allowed in the Papal States. Even high play in private houses is suppressed, if known to the police authorities. In fact, if you want to gamble, you must gamble at the tables, and on the terms of the Government. The very sale of foreign lottery tickets is, I believe, illegal. To this rule, however, there is one exception, and that is in favour of Tuscany. Between the Grand Ducal and the Papal Governments, there long existed an *entente cordiale* on the subject of lotteries. There is no bond, cynics say, so powerful as that of common interest; and this saying seems to be justified in the present instance. Though the Court of Rome is at variance on every point of politics and faith with the present revolutionary Government at Florence, yet in matters of money they are not divided; and so the joint lottery system flourishes as of old. The lottery is drawn once a fortnight at Rome, and once every alternate fortnight at Florence or Leghorn; and, as far as the speculator is concerned, it makes no difference whether his ticket is drawn for in Rome or Tuscany, though the losses or gains of each branch are kept separate. These lotteries are not of the good plain old stamp—in which there were, suppose, ten thousand tickets, and ten prizes of different value; and the remaining nine thousand nine hundred and ninety ticket-holders drew blanks. The system of speculation in vogue here is far more hazardous and complicated. To any one acquainted with the German gambling places it is enough to say, that our lottery system is exactly like that of a *roulette* table, with the single exception that the chances in favour of the Bank, instead of being about thirty-seven to thirty-six, as they are at Baden or Hombourg, are in the proportion of three to one. For the benefit of those to whom these terms convey no meaning, I will try to explain the system as shortly as I can.

In a Papal or Tuscan lottery, there are ninety numbers, from one up to ninety; and of these numbers five are drawn. You may therefore stake your money on any one, any two, or any three numbers turning up amongst the five drawn, which is termed playing at the *eletto*, *ambo*, and *terno* respectively; or you may finally play *al estratto*, that is, you may not only speculate on the particular numbers drawn, but on the order in which they may happen to be drawn; this, however, is rarely done. Now, a very slight process of calculation will show you that the chances against your naming one number out of the five drawn is eighteen to one, against your predicting two about four hundred to one, and against your hitting on three nearly twelve thousand to one. Supposing, therefore, the game was played with ordinary fairness, and twenty-five per cent. were deducted off the winnings for working expenses and profits; if you staked a scudo, for instance, and got an *eletto*, *ambo* or *terno*, you ought to win, say in round numbers, fourteen, three hundred, and nine thousand scudi respectively. In reality, you would win, if (a very great "if") indeed you did win, not more than four, twenty-five, and 3600 scudi. In fact, if there ever was a game in the world at which the saying, "heads you win and tails I lose" holds true, it is playing at the Papal lottery. If the number you back does not turn up, you lose your stake; if it does, you are docked of about seventy-five per cent. of your winnings. For my part, I would sooner play at thimblerig on Epsom downs, or dominoes with Greek merchants, or at "three cards" with a casual and communicative fellow traveller of sporting cast. I should infallibly be legged in either case; but at any rate I should get some amusement for my money. Still, even those gentlemen who play with loaded dice, or marked cards, may have a run of luck against them. Spiritual infallibility itself cannot decide whether a halfpenny tossed into the air will come down man or woman; and the law of chances cannot be regulated by a *motu proprio*. It is possible, though not probable, that on any occasion the majority of gamblers may fortuitously stake their money on one series of numbers; and if those numbers did happen to turn up, then the loss to the lottery, even with all deductions, would be a serious one, and the Papal Exchequer is not prepared to bear any heavy drain. In consequence, measures are taken to avert this calamity. Each office reports daily what sums have been staked, on what numbers; and if any numbers are regarded with undue partiality, orders are issued from the head department to receive no more money on these numbers or series of numbers. I have assumed all along that the numbers are drawn fairly; and, without a very high opinion as to the integrity of the Papal rulers, I am disposed to think they are. In the first place, any suspicion as to the fairness of the drawing would be fatal to the future success of the speculation; and in the second, by the usual rule of averages, it will be found that on the whole people stake pretty equally on one number or combination as on another; and therefore the question, which numbers turn up, is of less practical importance to the lottery than one would at first

suppose. In spite, however, of these abstract considerations, the virtue of the Papal lotteries, unlike that of Cæsar's wife, is not above suspicion; and I have heard sceptical inquirers demand what the reason can be for having one blank day between the closing of the lotteries and the drawing, except the obvious one of calculating, from the state of the stakes, what combination of winning numbers will be most beneficial, or least hurtful, to the Papal pockets.

Whatever mathematicians may assert, your regular gamblers always believe in luck; and therefore it is not surprising that a nation whose great excitement is the lottery, should be devout worshippers of the blind goddess. It may be that some memories of the Pythagorean theory still exist in the land of its birth; but, be the cause what it may, it is certain that in the Southern Peninsula a belief in the symbolism of numbers is a received article of faith. Every thing, name and occurrence has its numerical interpretation. Suppose, for instance, a robbery occurs. Forthwith the numbers or sequences of numerals corresponding to the name of the robber or his victim, the day and hour of the crime, the articles stolen, or a hundred other coincident circumstances, are eagerly sought after, and staked upon, in the ensuing lottery. Then there are the *numeri simpatici*, or the numbers in each month or year which are supposed to be fortunate, and lists of which are published in the popular almanacs. That, for instance, for the present month is eighty-eight, why or wherefore I have never been able to discover. We will assume now that, having dreamt a dream, or heard of a death, or I care not what, you wish to stake your money on its arithmetical signification. You will have no difficulty in discovering a lottery office. In every street there are one or more *Prenditoria di Lotti*. In fact, begging and gambling are the only two trades that thrive in Rome, or are pushed with enterprise and energy. When the drawing takes place in Tuscany, the result is communicated at once by electric telegraph, a fact unparalleled in any other branch of Roman business. Over each office are placed the Papal arms, the crossed keys and tiaras. Outside, their aspects differ according to the quarter of the city. In the well-to-do streets —if such an appellation to any street here be not an absurdity—the exteriors of the lottery offices are neat, but not gaudy. A notice, printed in large black letters on a white placard, that this week the lottery will be drawn for at Rome or wherever it may be, and a glass frame over the door in which are slid the winning numbers of last week, form the whole external adornment. In the poor and populous parts, the lotteries flaunt out in all kinds of shabby finery. The wall about the door is pasted over with puffing inscriptions. From stands in front of the shop flutter long stripes of gay particoloured paper, inscribed with all sort of cabalistic figures. If you like you may try the *Terno della Fortuna*, which is morally certain to turn up this week—or next. If you are of a philosophical disposition, you may stake your luck on the numbers nineteen and forty-two, which have not been drawn for twelve months, and must therefore be drawn sooner or later; or, if you like to cast in your lot with others, you may back that *combo* which has "sold" marked against it. At any rate, you will not be the only fool who stands to lose or win on that chance, which, after all, is some consolation. If none of these inducements are sufficient, you may fix on your choice by spinning round the index on the painted plate, and choosing the numbers opposite to which the spin stops, thus making chance determine chance. Having then selected your combination somehow or other, you enter in.

The interior of these offices is the same throughout. A low dark room, with a long ink-stained desk at one side, behind which, pen in ear, is seated an official, more grimy and more snuffy even than the run of his tribe. Opposite the clerk, there is sure to be a picture of the Madonna, with a small glass lamp before it, wherein a feeble wick floats and flickers in a pool of rancid oil. Indeed, the lottery throughout is conducted on a religious footing. The *impiégati*, or officials, who keep them are all men of sound principles and devotional habits, fervent adherents of the spiritual government by which and under which they live. Lotteries, it is said, encourage a simple faith in Providence, while they dispel any overweening confidence in your own unsanctified exertions, and may therefore be defended on abstract moral grounds. When you have reflected on all this, you simply tell the clerk what sum of money you want to stake, and on what numbers. The smallest contributions (from eleven baiocchi, or about sixpence upwards) will be thankfully received. A long whitey brown slip of paper is given you, with the above numbers written on it, and the sum you may win marked opposite. No questions whatever about name or residence, or papers, are asked, as they are whenever you want to transact any other piece of business in Rome; and all you have to do is to keep your slip of paper, and come back on the Saturday to learn whether your numbers have been drawn—or not.

There is, in truth, a ludicrous side to the Papal lotteries; but there is also a very sad one. It is sad to see the offices on a Thursday night, when they are kept open till midnight, hours after every other shop is closed, and to watch the crowds of common, humble people who crowd in, one after the other—servants and cabmen, and clerks and beggars, and above all, women of the poorer class, to stake their small savings—too often their small pilferings —on the hoped-for number. When one speaks of the disgrace and shame that this authorized system of gambling confers on the Papal Government; of the improvidence and dishonesty and misery it creates, too certainly, amongst the poor, one is always told by the advocates of the Papacy, that the people are so passionately attached to the lottery, that no Government could run the risk of abolishing it. If this be true, which I do not believe, I can only say—shame to the rulers, who have so demoralised their subjects. Of late days, however, the liberal party have attempted to hinder their fellow citizens from taking lottery tickets, with a view of stopping this source of the Papal revenue. Be their motive what it may, I say heartily, God speed them! for their work is good.

FLORENCE, March 5, 1860.

WHEN this reaches you, we shall be in the midst of the bustle and excitement attending the fresh appeal to the populace to decide upon annexation to Piedmont, or a separate Tuscan Government. I feel neither doubt nor fear as to the result of this second experiment of universal suffrage, and am quite convinced that it will confirm the acts of last April, and contradict the assertion, that the former votes failed to represent the spontaneous expression of the popular will. The strictest honesty will be observed by those who have the superintendence of the votes, and, whatever may be the final decision, it will be respected and acted upon. Great efforts have been made through the press and the communal authorities to make the lower classes understand what it was they would be called upon to vote for, and the difference between union with Piedmont and a separate kingdom. With this object, voting papers have been freely circulated with the newspapers, both in the towns and the country. It is not to be denied that the present moment is felt by all here to be an important crisis in the destiny of the country. If the vote for annexation is carried, it is true all uncertainty will be at an end with reference to Piedmont; for we now know that VICTOR EMMANUEL, our chosen king, will accept our votes at any hazard to himself, and that our independence will be secured to us. But then, who can calculate the dangers we may have to face as the price of our adherence to our new king? If, in opposition to all our hopes and wishes, the vote for a separate kingdom should emerge from the electoral urn, then all would be problematic, dark, and threatening. Weakness, division, Austria, and servitude would soon again be our lot. In the union with Piedmont, on the contrary, we should enjoy strength, liberty, and progress; and we must trust to Providence to help us safely through the perils which dim this bright and happy prospect. It has been said that Piedmont has sought to absorb the States of Italy for her own aggrandisement, and that the desire manifested by Tuscany for annexation was incited by hatred against Austria, Rome, and Naples. Every act of Tuscany during the past few months has been such as to show that it is her own strong and spontaneous desire to identify herself with Piedmont in order to create Italy. The strongly-felt necessity of becoming Italian and getting rid of foreign interference, has urged Tuscany towards Piedmont, not Piedmont towards Tuscany. For some time after the flight of the Grand Duke considerable disinclination existed on the part of the Tuscans to give up their separate identity, and merge their traditional glories in those of the House of Savoy. Had affairs been immediately arranged after the Peace of Villafranca, it would not have required much persuasion to induce Tuscany to listen to proposals for any Government short of receiving back her former sovereign. But in the long delay which has intervened, every month has been drawing closer the bonds between Tuscany and Piedmont, and the desire to form an Italian kingdom has now attained a power and development which, I doubt not, will effectually overcome all obstacles which may be placed in the way of annexation. Every day affords some fresh instance of the general desire for fraternity and amalgamation. The other day the students of Pisa and Turin interchanged addresses, which attest the strong sentiments of union and patriotism with which they are mutually penetrated. A far more remarkable address has since been issued. The clergy are now giving in their adherence to VICTOR EMMANUEL; and an address, signed by a large portion of the Pistoiese priests, has been sent to the King of Piedmont. This is, perhaps, the first combined manifestation of respect and devotion to the principles of liberty made by the sacerdotal ranks in Tuscany, and may be looked upon as a demonstration equally remarkable and gratifying. The numerous signatures appended to the address were obtained neither by request nor by command, but were freely and spontaneously offered by the individuals named. I send you a copy of the Address.*

It is strange to see two men of such opposite stamp as Lord NORMANBY and Signor GUERRAZZI rise up at the same moment to enter the lists against Tuscany and Piedmont. GUERRAZZI, as you well know, was dictator of the Tuscan republic in 1849, and at the restoration of the Grand Duke sought an asylum in Piedmont. His name is famous in modern Italian literature, and it is deeply to be deplored that he should have broken the silence of years, to declare that the national assembly of Florence acted independently of the wishes of the people in voting for annexation with Piedmont, and to vilify the acts of the temporary government as he has done. Though disappointed hopes and want of self-control have thus partially obscured his judgment and patriotism, I think it must have been equally to his surprise and annoyance that his words have been quoted in confirmation of the calumnies of your English Lord by the public press, and particularly that of Germany. Lord NORMANBY has never had any opportunity of knowing what was the real state of Tuscany, and the views and wishes of the Tuscans. Though he lived here for so many years as a diplomatist and as a private gentleman, he knew, in reality, as little of public feeling as if he had remained in his ancestral halls, or been residing in China, or any of the British colonies. His most intimate friends were persons of no consideration among us, and if any of the best citizens by chance appeared in his saloons he took no pains to learn their opinions. His knowledge of Florence and Tuscany was derived

* We append a translation of the Address.

from the Austrian minister and the Austrian parasites, by whom he was courted and flattered. The military occupation of Florence merely added to Lord NORMANBY's sources of amusement. The white uniform agreeably varied the civil *toilettes* of his male and female guests, added additional brilliancy to the decorations of his drawing rooms, and, by preventing the approach of true Italians, kept him in the dark as to what was passing around him. The only excuse which can be made for the utter misstatements stated by him in his place in parliament, is, that it was the interest of his correspondents to deceive him, and that he was too much blinded by Austrian prejudices to perceive the deception which was practised upon him.

"ADDRESS OF THE PISTOIESE CLERGY TO HIS MAJESTY VICTOR EMMANUEL II., OUR ELECT KING.

"SIRE,—The Pistojan clergy, who combine love of religion with love of the Italian country,—by the hands of one of the cathedral canons, who feels himself highly honoured in being allowed to proclaim the evangelical word in your illustrious capital,—have pleasure in thus attesting the faithful, devout, and deep respect, which they sincerely profess towards your august person, not only as their elected and desired king, but also as the consistent and intrepid champion of Italian redemption; who, *not insensible to the cries of grief which arose from us*, courageously risked his crown and life.

"SIRE,—You are the true and only lord (Signore) of the Italians, because you have done great things for them in a short time; because, before you reigned over the Italian provinces with the sceptre and the sword, you succeeded, by your beneficence and love, in reigning over their hearts; because the wish and the gratitude of the people have chosen you for their supreme leader, nor can malignant arts or barbarous violence ever detach you from us.

"Your royal dynasty, perhaps the most ancient of the reigning powers of Europe, is certainly the most flourishing in hopefulness and life, owing to its loyal and intelligent policy, ever friendly to the people, in conformity with ancestral traditions, *the ideas which it represents, and the sympathy which it inspires.*

"Son of the great forefathers who preceded you upon the throne, far from degenerating, you have surpassed them all in liberality and magnificence, in valour and strength in arms, and above all, in the boast of guiding and perseveringly supporting the lofty undertaking of setting free from the iron yoke of the foreigner that beautiful land.

"Che Apennin parte, il mar circonda e l'Alpe.

"To the cry of *Savoy* in the thirteenth century Count ODOARDO rallied his troops and routed his enemies. This cry has resounded during the revolution of ages, and ever preserved the honour of the Italian arms inviolate. Repeated by you to your daring bands in the fervour of recent heroic deeds of arms, it sufficed to put our ancient and formidable oppressor to fatal confusion and rout. The blood-stained fields of Goito, of Pastrengo, and of Custoza covered you with youthful and true glory; but at Palestro and San Martino so refulgent were your bravery and intrepidity that the famous hero of Saint Quentin must have looked with envy from the celestial spheres upon the laurels which you gathered with noble pride in the midst of your conquered enemies.

"If AMADEUS, the so-called CONTE VERDE, boldly and chivalrously maintained the independence of the house of Savoy in opposition to the Emperor CHARLES IV., you may boast of having asserted the rights of all Italy against one of the strongest and most warlike powers of Europe. If CHARLES EMMANUEL II. desired in his last moments that the doors of his palace should be set open to the people, *that he might enjoy the sight of his dear subjects*, you have opened the doors of your kingdom to all who have been so unhappy as to be compelled by foreign oppression to abandon their native soil. Italian wisdom and genius have enjoyed honour and favour under your hospitable protection, as in the happy time of the first CHARLES EMMANUEL surnamed the Great.

"*Jealous guardian of the common patrimonial inheritance of honour and glory*, appointed defender and heir of an unspotted crown and of a stainless banner by the father who, first among kings, offered himself a sacrifice in order to render a fatal misfortune less bitter and pernicious, you with iron will, derived alone from indomitable love of country, and with that frank loyalty which is a characteristic of your illustrious family, *conscientiously fulfilled the vow made upon the tomb of your magnanimous father*, and proud of being the *first soldier of Italian independence*, avenged the equally glorious and unfortunate disaster of Novara, thus consoling the afflicted spirit of him who in his remote and voluntary exile at Oporto was as worthy of admiration and pity as was the great conqueror at Saint Helena, and in the modest retirement of sufferings far from the splendours of the throne, was as deserving of veneration and love as WASHINGTON.

"Sire, we priests who fearlessly salute advancing civilization, faithful to our sacred ministry, recognise in you that supreme authority which the gospel charges us to obey and respect. We regard it as a high privilege to be under your wise and paternal rule. We well know how upright, generous, and liberal are your intentions, and that order and justice, morality and religion, thanks to your kindness and wisdom, will never be lost sight of. Under your sceptre, Christianity, free from base passions, will be enabled to develope its superhuman principles, and cause their beneficial effects to be felt alike by individuals and entire populations. While fulfilling the duties of our divine mission, we will not forget those which bind us to your sacred person and to the nation as citizens of Italy. Our fervent petitions will ascend to heaven for you, for your triumphs, and for the fulfilment of the supreme wish, the total freedom of Italy under your single sceptre.

"February, 1860."

Here follow the names, nearly a hundred in number.

HANOVER, March 13th, 1860.

THE ministerial press of Prussia is occupied with the Upper Chamber, and from the tone of these journals it is evident how slight are the hopes entertained by the ministry of overcoming the opposition of the feudalists. The rejection of the bill for the reform of the army is considered certain, for since it has become known that the Upper Chamber is resolved to oppose the measure, the natural disinclination of the people for soldiering is plainly evinced, and the feudalists may rely upon their sympathy in the opposition to the three years' term of service. The measure will doubtless be ultimately carried, but not by the liberal ministry. The opposition, however, is based not upon the alterations proposed, but upon the cost. The ministers calculate the additional expense to be six million thalers, while the feudalists and public reckon it will exceed seventeen millions. The first demand will be the six millions, but the alterations once begun must be proceeded with, and the Chambers will be forced to agree to further demands, highly burthensome to the nation, and tending to destroy the popularity of the Parliament. It is difficult for the non-military observer to decide as to whether the measure is an absolutely necessary one or not, but this must be said of the Upper Chamber, that it evinces a determination not to be made a mere appendage of the Court. The members belonging to the opposition have displayed, during the present session, a sturdy spirit of independence which, though perhaps obstructive at this moment, may afford a good example to the liberals in the future. On the 6th instant, a petition from the inhabitants of Berlin was presented to the House of Representatives praying the House to press the consideration of the affairs of Schleswig upon the Government, and obtain from Denmark the fulfilment of the conditions guaranteed by the Crown of Prussia.

On Thursday last the Federal Diet adopted the proposal of the commission upon the affairs of Holstein. The representative of Denmark immediately entered protest against any encroachments upon the prerogatives of the Danish crown. Upon the same day the publication of the acts of the Diet was agreed to.

It is the intention of Prussia to bring the question of the coast defences before the Diet, but not, as has been asserted by some journals, with the view to force Hanover to accede to the Prussian plan. In the first place, it is doubtful whether the Diet would consider itself competent to decide in such a case; and in the second place, Prussia is hardly strong enough in the Diet to carry anything against Hanover. The aim of Prussia is, perhaps, to raise a debate upon the project, and induce Hanover to give way by bringing public opinion to bear upon her. Your readers know through your columns already that the plan of Prussia is to connect the coast towns and landing places with the grand arsenals of the interior; and the fortress of Minden, in Westphalia, is to become a vast military station, more particularly for the defence of the coasts, and the chief point is to connect this place with all the ports of North Germany—or, at least, all the ports of Prussia—by means of railways and telegraphs. As your readers are aware, Prussia possesses, by purchase from Oldenburg, the territory on the Gulf of the Jade, where a naval arsenal is being constructed. Now, it so happens that this arsenal on the Jade cannot be connected with the arsenal of Minden without cutting through a small portion of Hanoverian territory. Hanover refuses the concession, and the Prussian plan is thereby paralyzed, not only with regard to the defence of all North Germany, but to Prussia's own ports. The Diet will have to examine the whole system, as also the strategical value of the railway desired between the Jade and Minden, and decide accordingly. Whatever may be the reasons upon which the Hanoverian Cabinet bases its refusal, the fact that meanwhile the coast of Germany is entirely exposed to the attack of an enemy, will not tend to strengthen Hanover against the supposed designs of Prussia. With the sole exception of the Elector of Hessia, the King of Hanover is the most unpopular prince in Germany. It is loudly asserted that he is entirely guided by his favourite, his hairdresser.

It is one comfort for the German patriot that the spirit of imitation is as strongly developed in his race for good as for bad. The Austrian Government having taken a short step in the direction of common sense and good government, thanks to the agitation of the Free-trade association, we see now other German states skipping awkwardly in the same direction; and Oldenburg, Saxony, Frankfort, and Bremen, have been making lame attempts to introduce "*Gewerbe Freiheit*," freedom of handicrafts. The discussions upon the subject are so amusing, that I am inclined to regret that your valuable space debars me from affording your readers a hearty laugh at the wisdom of the profoundest thinkers of the nineteenth century. Fancy a long debate upon the question whether women should be allowed to gain their living in a certain town by needlework! Imagine the police having full powers to decide how many bakers' shops and butchers' shops are required by the inhabitants. What can be expected of a people that tolerates, nay encourages and cherishes such blind folly? Certainly not civil liberty by their own exertions.

On the 6th instant was published at Vienna an imperial decree augmenting the Council of the Empire by the convocation periodi-

cally of extraordinary councillors — a poor essay at an imperial legislative assembly. The Emperor appoints as councillors for life the archdukes, the ecclesiastical dignitaries, and several high civil and military personages. The Provincial Assemblies are to propose for the Emperor's nomination thirty-eight candidates, who will continue their functions during a period of six years. The *attributes*—not powers or privileges—the attributes of the Council are to extend to the examination of the budget, the accounts of the National Debt Commission, the consideration of important alterations (not reforms), or the creation of new laws of general interest, and to the proposals made by provincial assemblies. The Council of the Empire has not the right of taking the initiative in the proposal of any measure. The ministers and chiefs of central administrations are authorised to take part in the deliberations of the Council. The expenses of members will not be defrayed by the State.

A second Edict convokes this Council for the month of May to discuss the budget for 1861.

The *Gotha Tageblatt* about a fortnight ago produced a translation of an article in the London *Times* which had caused the exclusion of that English paper from the Austrian dominions. Other papers had before given extracts of the article without being molested. and the *Tageblatt* thinking to present a piquant treat to its subscribers translated literally the entire article. It had no sooner appeared than the magistracy, having, without question, received a quick sharp hint from abroad, confiscated the journal, and instituted legal proceedings against the publisher. Here we have another proof of the petty, unstatesmanlike system pursued by these so-called governments. The *Gotha Tageblatt* is a paper hitherto hardly known beyond its own locality, and but very few German papers had reproduced the *Times'* article, but since this prosecution has been commenced every one is curious to read the article, and the *Tageblatt* containing it is difficult to be got at any price. Wherever you meet with a copy it is in shreds from having passed through so many hands.

The Evangelical community of Pressburg have almost unanimously refused to obey the prescriptions of the Imperial Edict of 1st September last.

RECORD OF THE WEEK.

HOME AND COLONIAL.

On *Tuesday, March* 13, the Duc de Montpensier arrived in England on a visit to the Queen, and to his mother, the ex-queen of the French.—On *Wednesday, March* 14, the Speaker gave his eighth Parliamentary dinner and levee for the season.

On *Saturday, March* 10, the Norwich election committee decided that Lord Bury was not duly elected.—On *the same day*, Mr. George Cubitt was returned as member of Parliament for West Surrey, without opposition; he is a Conservative.—On *Monday, March* 12, Mr. Padmore was returned without opposition for the city of Worcester.—On *Friday, March* 9, the Manchester Reform Association passed resolutions accepting the Government Reform Bill, but pointing out many defects in it.—On *Saturday, March* 10, a public meeting at Greenock adopted resolutions of a similar character. —On *Monday, March* 12, was a public meeting at Huddersfield, at which Mr. Leatham, M.P. was the chief speaker; dissatisfaction was expressed at the limited character of the measure, but it was accepted as an instalment.—On *Wednesday, March* 14, at a meeting of Reformers at Paddington, resolutions were adopted to the effect that the Bill only provides for a small part of the just demands of the people; the lodger franchise was also claimed.—On *Tuesday, March* 13, at Leeds, a crowded meeting adopted resolutions in favour of Lord John Russell's Bill.—On *Thursday, March* 15 a great meeting of merchants was held at the London Tavern, at which were present Messrs. R. W. Crawford, M.P., Thos. Baring, M.P., Somes, M.P., and Hubbard, M.P., besides many other great capitalists; the meeting expressed itself strongly against the resolution on the new Customs' Act proposing new taxes and charges, and declared that the Chancellor of the Exchequer's policy neutralized Free Trade.

On *Wednesday, March* 14, the annual meeting was held of the Royal Literary Fund; during the past year £1,640 has been dispensed in relieving forty-nine cases of distress; Mr. W. M. Thackeray was elected on the committee.—On *the same day*, a meeting was held of the metropolitan gas delegates; it was resolved to go to Parliament at once with their bill without further consulting the gas companies.—On *Tuesday, March* 13, at Edinburgh was held a meeting in favour of the Oxford and Cambridge missions to Central Africa; resolutions in their favour were adopted and a subscription opened.—On *Wednesday, March* 14, a crowded meeting of journeymen bakers declared the feasibility of the twelve hours' system of work, and challenged the masters to prove the reverse.

On *Saturday, March* 10, at Southampton, one Casman, a black sailor, was accused of poisoning the captain and mate of the ship Accrington; on *Monday, March* 12, he was discharged from custody.—On *the same day*, at York, Isaac Bickerstaffe, a priest of the Established Church was tried for bigamy and sentenced to three years' penal servitude.—On *Wednesday, March* 14, the coroner's jury returned a verdict of wilful murder against John Fenton, who is accused of the homicide of Charles Spencer at Walkingham, in Notts.—On *the same day*, at Bedford, Joseph Castle was sentenced to death for the murder of his wife at Luton, Beds, on 9th August last.

On *Saturday, March* 10, a deputation waited on Mr. Villiers to confer on the intended appointment of a committee to consider matters connected with the Poor Law.—On *the same day* Mr. Milner Gibson received some gas meter manufacturers with a grievance about the Sale of Gas Act.—On *Monday, March* 12, Sir George Lewis listened to the representations of the London bakers as to the Food Adulteration Bill.

On *Tuesday, March* 13, at Welshpool, in Montgomeryshire, died suddenly of apoplexy Mr. Baron Watson; he was taken ill while presiding at the assizes, and died in a few hours; his age was 64; it is thought he will be succeeded by Mr. Lush, Q.C.—On *the same day* expired Sir Robert Ferguson, M.P. for Londonderry, Lord Lieutenant of that county, and colonel of the Derry militia.—On *the same day*, at Brighton, died the Countess Granville, aged 49.

The Public Health improves; the Registrar General's return of *Tuesday, March* 13, gives, deaths 1,397, being a decrease of 103; births 1,786; being 22 over the average.

By the last Indian mail we learn that the financial statement of the Rt. Hon. Jas. Wilson was published on *Feb.* 18; the deficit is nine millions; there are to be licences on trades and an income tax of 2 per cent. below £600 and 4 per cent. above it; also a tax on tobacco.

The Canadian Parliament was opened at Quebec on the 28*th February*; it was announced that the Prince of Wales would visit the province this summer.

On *Thursday, March* 15, the half-yearly court of proprietors of the Bank of England was holden, and a dividend declared of £4 10*s.* per cent.; the rest being £3,025,991.—On *Monday, March* 12, the Bank of Australasia declared a dividend of 6 per cent., with a bonus of 9 per cent. per share.—On *Thursday, March* 15, Consols closed at 91⅜ 94⅞ for money, and 95⅛ for the account. French Three per cent. Rentes 67f. 95c. to 68f. and firm.

FOREIGN.

On *Sunday, March* 11, M. de Thouvenel despatched a communication to Count Cavour to the effect that if King Victor Emmanuel consents to the annexation of Tuscany to Piedmont, Louis Napoleon will withdraw his support from Sardinia.

On *Sunday, March* 11, was published a manifesto of the Pope rejecting the vicariate of the Romagna by foreign sovereigns; the Pope promises measures of reform, if the integrity of his dominions be guaranteed.—On *Thursday, March* 15, the total numbers polled in the Romagna were—for annexation to Piedmont, 200,659; against the annexation, 244.

On *Wednesday, March* 14, the total votes in Tuscany were ascertained to be—for the annexation to Piedmont, 330,087; against that measure, 13,156.—On the *same day* the National Assembly was convoked to meet on the 20th instant.

On *Wednesday, March* 14, at Modena, the votes for annexation were 52,199, and against it 56.

On *Wednesday, March* 14, it was asserted at Turin that the Sardinian Government had assented to the demands of Louis Napoleon to effect a cession of Savoy by special treaty.

On *Saturday, March* 10, was made at Berlin a semi-official announcement that Austria had declared to the Tuileries that, in case of the Rhine frontier being menaced, Austria will unite with Prussia for the defence of Germany.

On *Tuesday, March* 6, the English fleet arrived at Naples; a great sensation was said to be caused by this occurrence, and numerous arrests immediately followed.

On *Sunday, March* 11, the Moors attacked the Spanish encampment at Tetuan, and, of course, were disgracefully repulsed.—On *Wednesday, March* 14, the Moorish Emperor sent to O'Donnell to express his desire for peace. O'Donnell consents to treat, but refuses to suspend operations.

ENTERTAINMENTS.

THE most attractive novelty of the week is a new adaptation from the French, called "Uncle Zachary" which has created a sensation at the Olympic hardly less than that produced by the "Porter's Knot." As *Zachary Clench*, one of those nature's gentlemen whom enthusiastic writers love to portray and audiences admire as types of "the people," Mr. Robson illustrates as only Bouffé and he have done in our time the utmost intensity of natural affection, and the torture of a sensitive mind that has thrown such love away upon an unworthy object. Since they played together in the gutter *Zachary* (Mr. Robson), and *Saul Clench*, his brother (Mr. G. Cooke), had never been divided. Yet the former, in leathern apron and with his basket of tools, had stuck to the smiths' bench, while the latter attained the dignity of a superfine frock coat, a handsome over-dressed daughter, and other ingredients in what is called among such folk a respectable position. Weaned from old ties by the smooth tongue of *Reginald Ready*, a London schemer (Mr. G. Vining), and ambitious on account of his *Amy*, *Saul* draws out different manifestations of his brother's master-passion, fraternal love—first by hinting at change of scene, then by refusing to rejoice over a legacy of £2000 which he has inherited, and, lastly, by moving to London. *Uncle Zachary* bears all this without much more than a passing twinge. The more clearly his shrewd homely "old 'oman," *Mrs Tabitha Clench* (Mrs. Leigh

Murray), appreciates the state of affairs, the more idolatrously does he cling to fraternal love. But in Act ii. he awakes. A letter from *Amy* the niece (Miss Herbert) apprises the worthy couple of her approaching marriage. They mistake the courtesy for an invitation, and to the discomfiture of *Saul*, and the especial disgust of *Mr. Haughton Highbury*, his chief metropolitan snob-divinity, make their appearance at his elegant abode in town. Then, as if to fill his own cup of sorrow, *Zachary*, who needs a trifling addition to his £2000 before he can purchase a farm, asks a loan of his apparently wealthy brother. But *Saul*, who is, in truth, on the verge of ruin, refuses it. *Zachary*, who cannot conceive that the splendour around him is but the whitewash on a sepulchre, shakes the dust from his shoes in a paroxysm of indignation at what he deems a cruel and wicked lie. But returning ere long, delirious with drink, he elicits the true state of his brother's affairs, lends him magnanimously his treasured thousands, unmasks the grandiose *Mr. Highbury*, who is no more than a *ci-devant* barber, and, need we add, completes the happiness of his niece *Amy* and her lover.

All who are familiar with Mr. Robson's masterly delineations will recognise in the sketch we have given an abundance of material for this celebrated artist to deal with; and though it were going too far to compare the drama as a whole with "The Porter's Knot," the character of *Uncle Zachary* will not fail to become a laurel in Mr. Robson's chaplet. Unfortunately it is but too clear that other characters have been dwarfed to secure greater prominence for the leading one. Thus the drama suffers materially; as *Saul Clench*, which could not have been in worthier hands than Mr. Cooke's, is but a bald sketch, and we are tantalized by mere glimpses of character ably suggested by the Vinings, whose make-up in their parts is admirable. Mrs. Leigh Murray, however, invaluable and properly prominent as *Tabitha Clench*, contributes not a little to the *ensemble*. The piece has already caused a run upon the Olympic which is likely to continue.

The pantomime has, for a time, been shelved at DRURY LANE, in favour of a new drama by Mrs. Fitzball, called "Christmas Eve, or the Duel in the Snow." The production is written up to the celebrated picture by Jérome representing the fatal end of a duel, the actors in which have evidently adjourned from a *bal masqué*, and in the fantastic costumes of Parisian revellers, to fight on the new fallen snow in the Bois de Boulogne. This tableau, on which the curtain falls, is stirringly and faithfully copied from the picture, and a narrative of what might have led to it is prefixed in two acts. The tale, of which Mr. Emery is the hero, is a harrowing one, and comprises several powerful situations, with which that gentleman's artistic training and intelligence enable him thoroughly to cope. But though he be assisted satisfactorily by Mr. Verner, a promising actor, and Mr. Roxby, a never-failing one, the play is not quite up to our Drury Lane standard. Besides, it is essentially a sketch for a cabinet picture, and is somewhat dwarfed by the vast dimensions of the stage on to which it has found its way; but it will well last out the now rapidly closing season.

Miss M. E. Bradden is the authoress of a sparkling comedietta, "The Loves of Arcadia," now charming the visitors to the STRAND THEATRE. The Arcadia of the title is not that of the classics, but of the euphuists of modern France: a land of blissful bowers, tenanted by the sweet souls, in satin smalls, and trains with whom the potters of Dresden and Sevres—not to speak of Staffordshire—have so long and industriously familiarized us. The Arcadians of the STRAND are of the Louis XV. epoch. That monarch, to whose failings the fair dramatist has been more than blind, figures on the scene in the person of that accurate actor, Mr. James Bland, as a good genius. *Mdlle. de Launnay* and the *Chevalier de Merrilac* (Miss Swanborough and Mr. Parselle) are the Daphne and Narcissus of Arcadia. Each of these seeks the seclusion of the wood in shepherd guise to avoid a compulsory match with the other; but, there happening to meet, fall madly in love. After being tortured awhile for court amusement, by the fantastic *Louis*, they are finally united under the benevolent auspices of that lately whitewashed monarch, in the prettiest and most paternal manner.

Notes of preparation for the Spring campaign have sounded at the CRYSTAL PALACE. The rifles are looked forward to as a Saturday attraction, and an armoury and shooting butts for their use are making rapid progress. The Piccolomini concert has been followed by others of pretension and no less interest; that on this day week offered an excellent programme, and a treat in point of performance. There were 3,407 visitors present, most of them of the resident season ticket class, and the satisfaction they experienced at having the superb playing of Miss Arabella Goddard, and the admirable singing of Miss Parepa, brought so liberally to their own doors, may be imagined. Herr Manns conducted, and made as acceptable as possible, the artistic intricacies of Schumann's first symphony; then performed for the first time in England. The other principal features were Miss Parepa's song, "Gia dalla mente involasti," and the brilliant fantasia of Thalberg, upon the "Mose in Egitto." This day (Saturday) appear Miss Parepa, with Mons. and Madame Sainton, late Miss Dolby.

The London Glee and Madrigal Union, encouraged by the success of their Concerts at the Dudley Gallery, will commence a short Series of Concerts on Monday next, at the Lower St. James's Hall, to be limited to a fortnight. The lovers of all English vocal music should not neglect the opportunity of hearing it, so well rendered as it is by the Society under the direction of Mr. Land, illustrated and enlivened by the literary and anecdotical observations of Mr. T. Oliphant.

THE FLORAL HALL—that London Crystal Palace adjoining Covent Garden Opera House—has been thrown open during the week as a promenade; the flowers (artificial, we presume, as they do not fade), and other decorations, being left as they appeared on the occasion of the late Grand Volunteer Ball. The room is one of the largest and most magnificent, from its glass roof and dome, in London; and its size may be judged of when it is recollected it has a length of area equal to the entire extent of the neighbouring Opera House, including entrance and audience portico, and the stage. The uses of such a noble building, with its under capacious supper-rooms, will be various, and Mr. Gye deserves great credit for such a valuable addition to the public buildings of the metropolis.

The LONDON GLEE and MADRIGAL UNION are still popularising, to numerous and delighted audiences, the beautiful choral works of the English school, interspersed with ballads, principally drawn from Mr. Chappell's melodic treasury, the "Old English Ditties." This week we have had several of Bishop's glees, the famous catch, "How Sophia," Goss's glee, "There is Beauty," the old Wykhamist song, "Dulce Domum," and Pearsall's noble madrigal, "O! who will o'er the Downs." Miss Eyles still charms her hearers in the old ballad "Near Woodstock Town," and Mr. Lawler has introduced a grand aria of Purcell's. All who truly love music and appreciate repose will thank us for recommending this elegant entertainment, of which not the least interesting feature is the critical and antiquarian illustration read by Mr. Oliphant.

PARLIAMENT.

THE Marquis of NORMANBY on Friday again "harped" on his pet theme of Central Italy by moving for copies of the instructions sent by Government to our *Charge d'Affaires* at Turin. The noble Marquis charged Government with having thrown off the mask of assumed neutrality, and now Government boldly stood forward to the world as in the attitude of eager partisans. Lord WODEHOUSE said the papers moved for could not be produced, simply because they never had any existence. The noble Marquis had charged the British Government with being "partisans" and as desiring to influence the Tuscan election. Both charges were incorrect, Government having always remained neutral and having acted always on the policy of non-interference in Italian affairs. The Marquis of CLANRICARDE eulogized Count CAVOUR and M. FARINI. Lord DENMAN wished for a European Congress. The Earl of MALMESBURY objected to indirect as well as direct influence or interference in the affairs of Italy. The Duke of ARGYLE declared that Government had done no more than to express properly that the Italian people should be allowed to give unfettered expression to their views and wishes. The Marquis of NORMANBY after asserting that no sufficient answer had been given to his complaint and interrogatories, withdrew his motion.—On Monday the affairs of Italy, in which matter the Marquis of NORMANBY has rather conspicuously involved himself, was brought on the *tapis* by a smart attack on the Marquis of CLANRICARDE by the Marquis of NORMANBY, who was charged with having taken part in a Banquet at Milan, and by that step identifying himself with the discontented portion of the Italians. He claimed to have a superior knowledge of the feelings of the Italians over the Marquis of CLANRICARDE. This claim was, however, not permitted to pass unchallenged, for the Marquis of CLANRICARDE insisted on his superior knowledge of Italian feelings from a recent visit to Italy, which had convinced him that the return of the Grand Dukes to power was an impossibility. The address to the Crown on the subject of the Treaty was fixed for Thursday.—Sundry matters engaged attention on Tuesday in consequence of Lord CHELMSFORD drawing attention to a petition from numerous tradesmen praying for an alteration in the law relative to Sunday trading. His Lordship proposed to introduce a Bill the object of which was to give those who wished to suitably reverence the Sabbath, but were prevented by Sunday trading, an opportunity of doing so. The Bill was read a first time.

The close of the Opposition assault on Government was attained on Friday; previous, however, to the resumption of active hostilities, some important matters of public business were disposed of. The CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER gave some important explanations relative to certain details of the Budget. In reply to Mr. LINDSAY, Mr. MILNER GIBSON said the Government had given the question of the recommendations of the Harbour of Refuge Commissioners due attention, and as soon as the state of public business permitted he would submit a measure on the subject to Parliament. Attention having been drawn by Mr. WISE to the decaying condition of the stonework on the New Houses of Parliament, Mr. COWPER said every precaution had been taken to get the best and most durable stone, but the result was that Government had got a bad stone. The only way to arrest decay was to get some composition which would render the stone impervious to the influence of the weather. In reply to Mr. WAY, Sir C. WOOD said there was no intention to deduct the batta from the prize money of the captors of Delhi. Mr. BOWYER asked if a Romish priest, who had been committed to prison for refusing to give up the name of a culprit from whom he had received a stolen watch, on the plea that the crime had been disclosed at confession, and was therefore a privileged communication, had been liberated. Sir G. LEWIS did not agree with Mr. Bowyer. Confessions to a Roman Catholic priest were not privileged communications by law. The judge had properly vindicated the law by committing the priest. He believed, however, that the priest had been discharged. Mr. HALIBURTON asked if parties interested in the Canada timber trade would be allowed to be heard by counsel at the bar of that House against a change which would extinguish that trade. The

hon. member made some rather strong personal remarks on the alleged "superciliousness" of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, when a question was put to him on this subject an evening or two previously. The Chancellor of the Exchequer, after defending himself from the charge with spirit, replied to the question that it was unusual to hear counsel at the bar on such occasions, and the rule could not now be departed from. In reply to a question by Lord H. V. Tempest, Lord J. Russell said the Government had communicated with Austria, Prussia, and Russia, to obtain their views on the subject of the proposed annexation of Savoy and Nice. Neither the Cabinets of Berlin nor Vienna had come to any decision, and no communication had as yet been received from St. Petersburg. The opinion of the British Government with regard to Switzerland was unchanged. The adjourned debate on the French treaty was then resumed. Mr. Horsman railed in good set terms at the treaty, objecting to it on the ground that it was likely to be unfair in its operation, and that it conceded too much to France. Mr. Disraeli objected to the treaty on three grounds, financially, commercially, and politically. The right hon. gentleman attempted to make out his case by showing that revenue was needlessly sacrificed; that our commerce would not be benefited, but the contrary, and that France was strengthened and this country weakened. Mr. Gladstone reprobated some of the remarks of Mr. Horsman as being irritating to France, and improper from one nation to another when at peace. After going at large into a defence of the treaty, a good deal of minor debating took place, and as it was quite evident that Government would have an overwhelming majority Mr. Horsman wished to withdraw his amendment. This, however, the House would not permit, and the amendment was lost by 282 to 56, the largest majority which Government has yet obtained. Monday was another opposition "field-day." A discussion occurred on Mr. Kinglake's notice of motion relative to Savoy. Some sharp exchanges took place between Mr. Disraeli, Lord J. Russell, Lord Palmerston, Mr. Horsman and Mr. Fitzgerald. Nothing, however, came of the *impromptu* discourse. The abolition of the paper duty was the *pièce de resistance* of the evening. Sir W. Miles moved that the Bill for the abolition of the duty be read that day six months. It will only be necessary to enumerate the speakers pro and con, the public generally being thoroughly in possession of the arguments on both sides. Mr. Morris, Mr. A. Black, Mr. Maguire, Mr. M. Gibson, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, were for; Mr. A. Miles, Lord R. Cecil, Mr. Horsman, Sir J. Pakington, against. The division proved a fourth Ministerial triumph, the numbers being 245 to 192, a majority of 53, which is the smallest majority Government have yet obtained. The "Affairs of Italy" was the most exciting of all the varied topics brought under discussion on Tuesday. Lord J. Russell further explained the course Government had taken, the strong objections urged by him against the annexation of Savoy by France, and the avowal that the policy of Great Britain was to leave the Italian States in perfect freedom to choose their own rulers and form of government. The influence of Great Britain had throughout only been employed for the interests of Europe and peace. Mr. Whiteside, after going at considerable length over the public despatches, came to the conclusion that Lord J. Russell had not been altogether judicious in following out the line of policy he had himself indicated. Mr. M. Milnes was against the proposed transfer of Savoy and Nice to France, and hoped Government would bring all its weight against the annexation. Mr. Horsman had no wish for war with France, but some bounds must be put to the aggressive policy which he feared was but too apparent on the part of the French Emperor. Lord H. Vane desired to have all the information possible on such subjects, from time to time, laid before Parliament. Mr. Griffith did not think the French Emperor, under all circumstances, was entitled to ask for Savoy from Sardinia. Mr. Kinnaird eulogised Count Cavour, by asserting that if Italy ever attained independence it would be through the exertion and ability of that eminent man. He was averse to the proposed annexation, and if it were executed he was satisfied the Emperor of the French would soon discover he had made a fatal political blunder. Lord Palmerston denied that he or the Government desired to prevent the discussion of this important question, unless in the form of a formal censure on the French Emperor. He insisted that the course of Government had throughout been clear and consistent. There might be great objections to the annexation of Savoy, but there was nothing in the question to warrant this country going to war to prevent that annexation. Referring to Count Cavour the noble Lord declared that History would regard him as one of the greatest and most distinguished patriots that had ever adorned any country. Mr. Disraeli contended that Lord J. Russell had not exhibited that perception of the true state of the question which he ought to have done, and which had he done in its earlier stages might have prevented entirely or mitigated materially the present difficulty. He did not denounce the policy of the French Emperor so fiercely as Lord J. Russell had done, but he considered that this policy demanded the calm and careful consideration of the country. If hostile events should follow the annexation of Savoy, Lord J. Russell and his government would be responsible to history and the country for the calamities that must ensue. Mr. Kinglake thought the present discussion would tend to allay irritation and smooth the path before the British Government. As the annexation of Savoy was only contingent on certain circumstances he did not think it advisable to probe the question further at present. Mr. Fitzgerald considered the tone of Government was more satisfactory than it had been. He feared that the annexation would be completed before Parliament had an opportunity of discussing it. Mr. B. Osborne said if Lord J. Russell's language was now more satisfactory to Mr. Fitzgerald he could only say that Mr. Fitzgerald's language was now more satisfactory to Lord J. Russell. After a few explanatory remarks from Lord J. Russell the papers moved for were laid on the table.—On Wednesday, Mr. L. King moved the second reading of the Religious Worship Bill, the object being to extend that freedom enjoyed by every other religious denomination to the clergy of the Church of England. By this Bill service might be performed by clergymen in other than sacred edifices. Mr. Walpole considered that the Bill would neither give satisfaction to the members of the Established Church, nor serve the interests of religion. The Bill was good in principle but required to be materially modified before it passed the Legislature. Lord R. Cecil objected to the Bill as calculated to destroy the just influence of bishops within their dioceses. The noble lord then referring to the Jewish members, said such discussions as the present moment must be regarded by them as an insult. Sir F. Goldsmid, on behalf of the Jewish members, asserted that they were as anxious as Protestant members for parties brought up in the Christian faith to have full facilities for performing their religious duties. The Chancellor of the Exchequer censured Lord R. Cecil for his reference to Jewish members. As far as regarded the Bill he could not support it in its present shape. Mr. Horsfall doubted whether rectors and incumbents, as asserted, were favourable to the Bill. Mr. Ayrton suggested that the Bill should be suffered to go into committee and there amended. Mr. Bouverie objected entirely to the Bill as it stood, and would therefore move that it be read that day six months. Mr. Bass considered the Bill itself sensible and unobjectionable. Mr. Adderly did not approve of the Bill. He thought the way to remedy the evil the Bill proposed to reach, was by giving bishops greater facilities for ousting those clergymen from pulpits whose teaching showed they were unfit to occupy them. Sir G. C. Lewis supported the amendment. After a good deal of discussion the Bill was lost by 168 to 131. The Adulteration of Food Bill passed through Committee. On Thursday, in the House of Lords, the newly-elected peer, Lord Taunton, moved that the House agree with the Commons in the Address on the Treaty of Commerce. His lordship asserted that the measure was popular throughout the country, and that the concessions made in the new treaty were necessary for our own sakes. After touching upon some of the principal objections which had been made, he said, with regard to French wine, that its admission into this country would be attended with vast results, as providing a wholesome substitute for the adulterated alcoholic fluids so largely consumed at present. He considered that our finances were in such a state as to justify the Chancellor of the Exchequer in sacrificing the revenue derived from the wine duties for the sake of the benefit their abolition would confer. He laughed at the idea of our supply of coal becoming exhausted; and as to the shipping interest, he thought that the stipulations of the treaty were decidedly advantageous to British shipping, as it placed English and French vessels on the same footing. That being the case, he saw no cause for despondency on the part of British ship owners.

North British Insurance Company (Incorporated by Royal Charter and Act of Parliament)—Annual Report, 1860.—The Annual General Meeting of the North British Insurance Company was held within the Company's offices, 64, Princes Street, Edinburgh, on Monday, 5th March, 1860, in terms of the constitution of the Company, Sir Archibald Islay Campbell, Bart., one of the Extraordinary Directors, in the chair. A Report by the Directors was read, in which the following results were communicated:—*Fire Department:* The Premiums received during the year 1859, amounted, deducting Re-insurances, to, £35,332 10s. 5d.; being £4,986 14s. above the receipts of last year. *Life Department:* 605 New Policies had been issued, assuring the sum of £449,913 0s. 0d., and paying of Annual Premiums, £14,070 1s. 6d., being a considerable increase above any former year. The amount of Claims under Policies emerged by death, was £48,650, 0s. 0d.; in the Annuity Business, 26 Bonds had been granted, for which was received the sum of £19,073 17s. 3d.; the Accumulated Fund now amounts to £1,031,454 0s. 0d.: and the Annual Revenue to £179,083 11s. 11d. This being the Fiftieth Anniversary, the Directors submitted a Vidimus of the Transactions of the Company since its establishment in 1809. The Company had paid to the Representatives of deceased Assurers £1,346,465, and had allocated to Policies as Bonuses out of Profits, the sum of £643,956 2s. 11d. On the motion of the Chairman, seconded by G. Warender, Esq., younger, of Lochend, the Report was unanimously approved of, and the usual dividend of 8 per cent. on the paid-up capital of the Company declared, free of income tax, payable on Monday, the 2nd April next. The Thanks of the Meeting were then voted to the Local Boards and Agents, and also to the Directors. The Extraordinary and Ordinary Directors were then elected, and on the motion of Lord Viscount Melville, the thanks of the Meeting were voted to the Chairman.—Head Office, 64, Princes Street; Edinburgh; London Office, 4, New Bank Buildings, London. Branch Offices: Glasgow, 102, St. Vincent Street; Dublin, 67, Sackville Street; Manchester, Cross Street; Liverpool, Exchange; Newcastle, Sandhill. Office-bearers (all of whom are shareholders); President, His Grace the Duke of Roxburghe, K.T.; Vice-Presidents, The Most Noble the Marquis of Abercorn, K.G., and the Right Honourable the Earl of Stair. David Smith, Manager. London Board: Chairman, Sir Peter Laurie, Alderman; Deputy-Chairman, John J. Glennie, Esq.; William Borrodaile, Esq., John Connell, Esq., Archibald Cockburn, Esq., P. Northall Laurie, Esq., Peter J. T. Pearse, Esq., and Charles J. Knowles, Esq., Q.C.; Solicitor, Alexander Dobie, Esq., Lancaster Place; Secretary, R. Strachan. [*Advertisement.*]

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