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THE LEADER AND SATURDAY ANALYST;

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

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February 18th, 1860.

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Crystal Palace.—Arrange-
ments for week ending Saturday, February 25th.
MONDAY. Open at 9.
TUESDAY to FRIDAY. Open at 10. Admission One Shilling; Children under 12, Sixpence.
Orchestral Band, Great Organ, and Pianoforte performances daily. The Picture Gallery is open.
SATURDAY. Vocal and Instrumental Concert. Admission by Season Tickets—Half-a-Guinea each, or on payment of Half-a-Crown: Children, One Shilling; Reserved Seats, Half-a-Crown extra.
SUNDAY. Open at 1:30 to Shareholders, gratuitously, by tickets.

SPECIAL NOTICE.
To secure the advantage of this Year's entry, proposals must be lodged at the Head Office, or at any of the Society's Agencies, on or before 1st March, 1860. Policies effected on or before 1st March, 1860, will receive Six Years' Additions at the Division of Profits at 1st March, 1865.

Scottish Equitable Life
ASSURANCE SOCIETY.
Head Office, 26, ST. ANDREW-SQUARE, EDINBURGH.

The Profits are divided every THREE YEARS, and wholly belong to the Members of the Society. The last division took place at 1st March, 1859, and from the results of it is taken the following

EXAMPLE OF ADDITIONS:—
A Policy for 1000*l.*, dated 1st March, 1832, is now increased to 1654*l.* 9*s.* 5*d.* Supposing the age of the assured at the date of entry to have been 40, these additions may be surrendered to the Society for a present payment of 363*l.* 17*s.* 8*d.*; or such surrender would not only redeem the entire premium on the policy, but also entitle the party to a present payment of 104*l.* 4*s.*, and in both cases the policy would receive future triennial additions.

The Existing Assurances amount to .. £5,272,367
The Annual Revenue .. 187,240
The Accumulated Fund (arising solely from the Contributions of Members) .. 1,194,657
ROBERT CHRISTIE, Manager.
WM. FINLAY, Secretary.
London Office, 26, POULTNEY, E.C.
A. T. RITCHIE, Agent.

East Kongsberg Native
SILVER MINING COMPANY OF NORWAY (Limited).

Incorporated under the Joint Stock Companies' Acts, 1856, 1857, 1858.

CAPITAL, £150,000.
In 30,000 Shares of £5 each; Deposit 5*s.* per Share on application, and 5*s.* per share on allotment.

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Secretary.
Mr. George Searby.

Offices—35, Moorgate-street, E.C.

The Directors of this Company have acquired an exclusive mining grant from the Norwegian Government of upwards of 50,000 acres, immediately contiguous to and formerly an integral part of the Royal Kongsberg Silver Mines, so successfully worked by the Government, at an average profit, from two mines only (as appears from the annexed extract of the official returns for the last twenty-five years), of 44,200 per annum. The Anna Sophia District, ceded to this Company, embraces upwards of thirty miles proved to contain silver, upon which the working may be resumed at a small outlay, with every prospect of immediate and profitable results.
Prospectuses and a pamphlet embodying the reports

of the Government Inspectors of Norway, and of Mr. J. H. Clement, F.G.S., &c., who surveyed and inspected the property for this Company, may be had on application to the Secretary at the offices.
Applications for Shares, in the usual form, must be accompanied with the deposit of 5*s.*, paid to the Company's Bankers or forwarded by Post-office Order to the Secretary, who will return Bankers' receipt for same.
GEORGE SEARBY, Secretary.
35, Moorgate-street, E.C.,
Feb. 11th, 1860.

Extract of the Official Returns.

Year.	Produce of Silver Sold.	Expenses by the Mines and Stamping Work.	Net profit.
	£	£	£
1834	88,962	9,700	79,262
1835	69,279	9,000	60,279
1836	54,223	10,350	43,873
1837	53,459	12,807	40,652
1838	59,692	13,671	46,021
1839	69,580	12,644	56,936
1840	65,911	12,716	53,195
1841	64,637	13,274	51,363
1842	30,710	12,561	18,149
1843	42,481	11,499	30,982
1844	40,494	11,878	28,616
1845	37,731	11,443	26,288
1846	38,273	10,913	27,360
1847	53,181	10,683	42,498
1848	77,535	11,289	66,246
1849	51,118	11,056	40,062
1850	48,756	11,329	37,427
1851	30,133	11,259	18,874
1852	41,832	11,656	30,176
1853	37,310	11,911	25,399
1854	52,962	12,772	40,190
1855	64,960	6,390	58,570
1856	73,120	6,811	66,309
1857	61,422	7,148	54,274
1858	61,008	7,204	53,804
Total ..	£1,377,710	272,770	1,104,940
Average	£55,110	10,910	44,200

Average produce in 25 years, £55,110 yearly
expenses in 25 years, £10,910 yearly.
net profit in 25 years, £44,200 yearly.

Duty off Clocks.—Notice.

J. BENNETT will, on the passing of the New Tariff, offer the whole of his extensive Collection of FRENCH CLOCKS, in Marble, Gilt, Bronze, and every other description, at the full reduction of Ten per cent. from the present marked prices.

Should the New Tariff apply to SWISS WATCHES, his entire Stock of Watches, of every kind of Swiss manufacture, will be offered to the public at a similar reduction.

His premises having been recently enlarged, and his Stock greatly increased, J. Bennett offers the full reduction off the largest possible selection.

BENNETT'S WATCH MANUFACTORY,
65 AND 64, CHEAPSIDE.

FIRE, THIEVES, FIRE.

Second-hand Fireproof

Safes, the most extensive assortment by Milner and other eminent Makers, at half the price of new. Dimensions, 24 in. high, 18 in. wide, and 16 in. deep, £9 10*s.* At C. GRIFFITHS', 33, Old Change, St. Paul's, E.C. Wanted, Second-hand Safes by Milner, Chubb, Marr, or Mordan.

NOTICE.—Gentlemen possessed of Tann's Safes need not apply.

Benson's Watches. "Per-

fection of Mechanism."—Morning Post.

Gold, 1 to 100 guineas; silver, 2 to 50 guineas. (Send two stamps for Benson's Illustrated Watch Pamphlet.) Watches sent to all parts of the World free per Post. 39 and 34, Ludgate Hill, London, E.C.

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Chief Offices,
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Birmingham Branch, 47, UNION PASSAGE.

Capital, ONE MILLION STERLING.

The Fire and Life Departments are under one Management, but with separate funds and accounts.

Chairman,
Sir William Foster, Bart. ;
Vice-Chairman,
James Parker, Esq., Baddow House, Chelmsford.

FIRE DEPARTMENT.

Capital responsible for Losses, £750,000.
The business is confined to the best classes of insurance. The discount allowed by the Government on the duty is in all cases given to the insured.
Claims settled with promptitude and liberality.

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A Bonus every five years,—next Bonus in 1864.
Moderate rates of Premium.
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Incorporated by Royal Charter.

Paid-up capital, £700,000.

Chairman—Duncan Dunbar, Esq.
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Letters of Credit and Bills of Exchange are granted on the Branches of this Bank at Sydney, Melbourne, Geelong, Maryborough, Ararat, and Ballarat.
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and CHIMNEY PIECES.—Buyers of the above are requested before finally deciding, to visit WILLIAM S. BURTON'S SHOW-ROOMS. They contain such an assortment of FENDERS, STOVES, RANGES, CHIMNEY PIECES, FIRE-IRONS, and GENERAL IRONMONGERY, as cannot be approached elsewhere, either for variety, novelty, beauty of design, or exactness of workmanship. Bright stoves, with ornate ornaments and two sets of bars, £3 15*s.* to £33 10*s.*; bronzed Fenders, with standards, 7*s.* to 25 12*s.*; steel fenders, £2 15*s.* to £11; ditto, with rich ornate ornaments, from £2 15*s.* to £18; chimney pieces, from £1 8*s.* to £80; fire-irons, from 2*s.* 8*d.* the set to 24 4*s.* The BURTON and all other PATENT STOVES, with radiating hearthplates.

Papier Mache and Iron

TEA-TRAYS. An assortment of Tea-Trays and Walters wholly unprecedented, whether as to extent, variety, or novelty, is on show at WILLIAM S. BURTON'S.

New Oval Papier Mache
Trays, per set of three from 20*s.* 0*d.* to 10 guineas.
Ditto, Iron Ditto .. from 8*s.* 6*d.* to 4 guineas.
Convex shape, ditto .. from 7*s.* 6*d.*
Round and Gothic Walters, Cake and Bread Baskets equally low.

William S. Burton's Gene-

ral Furnishing Ironmongery Catalogue may be had gratis, and free by post. It contains upwards of 400 Illustrations of his limited Stock of Electro and Sheffield Plate, Nickel Silver, and Britannia Metal Goods, Dish Covers and Hot-water Dishes, Stoves, Fenders, Marble Chimneypieces, Kitchen Ranges, Lamps, Gasoliers, Tea Urns and Kettles, Tea Trays, Clocks, Table Cutlery, Baths and Toilet Ware, Turnery, Iron and Brass Bedsteads, Bedding, Bedroom Furniture, &c., with Lists of Prices, and Plans of the Sixteen large Show Rooms, at 39, Oxford-street, and 1, 1A, 2, and 3, Newman-street; and 4, 5, and 6, Ferry's-place, London.—Established 1820.



Mappin's Electro-Silver PLATE AND TABLE CUTLERY.

MAPPIN BROTHERS, Manufacturers by Special Appointment to the Queen, are the only Sheffield makers who supply the consumer in London. Their London Show Rooms, 67 and 68, King William Street, London Bridge, contain by far the largest stock of ELECTRO-SILVER, PLATE and TABLE CUTLERY in the WORLD, which is transmitted direct from their manufactory, Queen's Cutlery Works, Sheffield.

	Fiddle Pattern	Double Thread	Kings' Pattern	Lilly Pattern
12 Table Forks...	1 16 0	2 14 0	3 0 0	3 12 0
12 Table Spoons...	1 16 0	2 14 0	3 0 0	3 12 0
12 Dessert Forks...	1 7 0	2 0 0	2 4 0	2 14 0
12 Dessert Spoons...	1 7 0	2 0 0	2 4 0	2 14 0
12 Tea Spoons...	0 16 0	1 4 0	1 7 0	1 16 0

SIDE DISHES.
ELECTRO-PLATED ON HARD NICKEL SILVER suitable for Vegetables, Curries, and Entrées. Per set of 4 Dishes.

No.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
E 3678 Gadroon Oblong Pattern, Light Plating	8	8	0	
E 5137 Beaded Edge and Handle, similar to E 4013		10	15	0
E 1766 Ditto ditto stronger ditto		13	0	0
E 4012 Antique Scroll Pattern, Melon-shaped Dish		12	0	0
E 4013 Beaded Pattern Dish		13	4	0
By removing the Handles from the Covers, the set of four can be made to form a set of eight Dishes.				
E 1792 Norfolk Pattern, a very elaborate Design, with rich Scroll Border all round	17	10	0	
Hot Water Dishes for above	extra	15	0	0
E 1797 Threaded Pattern, equally good as the Norfolk Pattern		16	12	0
Hot Water Dishes for above	extra	15	10	0

DISH COVERS.
ELECTRO-PLATED ON HARD NICKEL SILVER. Each set contains one Cover 20 inches; one of 18 inches; and two of 14 inches each.

No.	Complete set of 4 Covers.	£ s. d.
E 2750 Plain Pattern, with Scroll Handle	10	10 0
E 2751 Melon Pattern, French Scroll Handle, either Plain or Gadroon edge, very handsome	13	12 0
E 3812 Shrewsbury Pattern, with bold Beaded Edge and Handles	15	12 0
E 4085 Greek Ornament Pattern, matches E 4375 Side Dishes	25	0 0
E 4854 Warwick Pattern, matches E 4853 Side Dishes	23	0 0

A Costly Book of Engravings, with Prices attached, may be had on application. Estimates furnished for Services of Plate for Hotels, Steam Ships, and Regimental Messes.

MAPPIN BROTHERS, 67 and 68, King William Street, City, London, E. C.; Manufactory, Queen's Cutlery Works, Sheffield.

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Mechanical Tools of every description. Also, Tool Chests fitted complete with Tools of warranted quality, and varying in price from 6s. to £12. They are well adapted for the amateur, the practical mechanic, or the emigrant.

Economic Cooking Stoves,
Ranges, &c.—DEANE and CO. recommend with confidence their improved Cooking Stove. It is cheap in first cost, simple in construction, easy of management, capable of doing a large amount of work with a comparatively small consumption of fuel, and is manufactured in sizes suitable for large or small families. In operation daily in the Stove and Range Department; where may also be seen the improved self-acting range and the improved cottage range, each with oven and boiler.

Prices of the Range:—4 feet wide, £13 10s.; 4 feet 3 in., £15; 4 feet 6 in., £16 10s.; 4 feet 9 in., £18; 5 feet, £19 10s.; 5 feet 3 in., £21; 5 feet 6 in., £22 10s.; 5 feet 9 in., £24; 6 feet, £25.

Furnishing List. — For
the convenience of persons furnishing, DEANE and CO. have arranged a complete Priced List of Articles requisite in fitting up a Family Residence, embracing all the various departments of their Establishment, and calculated, generally, to facilitate Purchasers in the selection of goods. This List DEANE and CO. will forward to any address, post free.

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46, KING WILLIAM ST. LONDON BRIDGE.
SADDLERY AND HARNESS MANUFACTORY—
283, ARTHUR ST. EAST, LONDON BRIDGE.
GAS FITTING ESTABLISHMENT—
No. 4, ARTHUR ST. EAST, LONDON BRIDGE.
EXPORT WAREHOUSES—
ARTHUR STREET WEST, LONDON BRIDGE.

THEATRES AND AMUSEMENTS.

ROYAL ENGLISH OPERA, COVENT GARDEN.

Under the Management of Miss LOUISA PYNE and Mr. W. HARRISON.

Production of Vincent Wallace's Grand Opera of "Lurline," with new Scenery, Dresses, and Decorations.

NINTH WEEK OF THE PANTOMIME.
Only representations of "Victorine" and "Sonnambula" this season.

On Monday, February 20th,
SONNAMBULA.

Messrs. Santley, H. Haigh, G. Honey; Misses Parepa, Thirlwall, and F. Cruise.

On Tuesday, 21st, Mellon's Opera of
VICTORINE.

Messrs. Santley, H. Haigh, G. Honey, H. Corri, Walworth, Bartleman; Misses Parepa, and Thirlwall.

On Wednesday, no performance (Ash Wednesday).
On Thursday, the 23rd, will be produced, for the first time, a Grand Legendary Opera, entitled

LURLINE.
The Music by W. Vincent Wallace. Libretto by E. Fitzball. Lurline, Miss Louisa Pyne; Count Rudolph, Mr. W. Harrison; Rhineberg, Mr. Santley; Mr. Gnome, Mr. H. Corri; Baron, Mr. G. Honey; Ghiva, Miss Pilling; Liba, Miss F. Cruise.

Conductor, Mr. Alfred Mellon.

The Scenery by Messrs. Grieve and Telbin.

To conclude each evening with the successful Pantomime of

PUSS IN BOOTS.

Messrs. W. H. Payne, H. Payne, F. Payne, Barnes, Tallies, Miss Clara Morgan, and Infants Lauri; Midles, Lequaine, Pasquale, Pierron, Mons. Vandriss.

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

No charge for booking, or fees to box-keepers.

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

THEATRE ROYAL, HAYMARKET.

(Under the Management of Mr. Buckstone.)

Monday and Tuesday, for two nights only, the

Comedy of A BACHELOR OF ARTS, in which Mr. and Mrs. Charles Mathews will appear in the characters sustained by them at Windsor Castle, on the 31st January last, by command of Her Majesty.

After which HOW TO MAKE HOME HAPPY, and the Pantomime of VALENTINE'S DAY, or Harlequin and the Fairy of the True Lovers' Knot.

Wednesday, being Ash Wednesday, there will be no Performance.

On Thursday will be produced an entirely new and original Comedy, in three acts, entitled THE OVERLAND ROUTE, written by Tom Taylor, Esq., and in which Mr. Charles Mathews, Mr. Chippendale, Mr. Compton, Mr. Rogers, Mr. Clark, Mr. Buckstone, Mrs. Charles Mathews, Miss M. Ternan, Miss E. Weekes, and Mrs. Wilkins will appear. After which the Pantomime.

THEATRE ROYAL LYCEUM.
Sole Lessee and Directress, Madame Celeste. Brilliant and Increased Success of the New Drama. Colette Dubois and Therese Defarge, by Madame Celeste.

On Monday, and during the week, the new and successful Drama, called A TALE OF TWO CITIES, by Tom Taylor, Esq., from the story of that name by Charles Dickens, Esq. Principal characters by Messrs. James Vining, Walter Lacy, Villiers, Rouse, Forrester, J. Johnstone, T. Lyon, Morton, Palmer, White, H. Butler, Clifford, and Fredericks; Misses Kate Saville, Stuart, Turner, Mrs. Campbell, and Madame Celeste.

After which the New Grand Christmas Extravaganza entitled, KING THURSHBEARD, THE LITTLE PET AND THE GREAT PASSION; in which is presented one of the most novel, costly, and magnificent effects ever witnessed. Designed and Painted by Mr. William Calcott. King Thrushebeard, Miss Julia St. George.

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KING STREET, ST. JAMES'S.
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Directress, Miss WYNDHAM.

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

Reduced Prices.—Pit, 1s.; Gallery, 6d.

On Monday and during the week, MAGIC TOYS—

Miss Lydia Thompson, Miss Clara St. Casso. After which FIRST AFFECTIONS—Miss Wyndham.

Messrs. H. T. Craven, and George Spencer. To be followed by the gorgeous burlesque of DIDO. Mr. Charles Young, Mesdames Wyndham, Clara St. Casso, Murray, Eliza Arden, Cecilia Rance, Alice Evans, Julia Ashton, and the Corps de Ballet.

To conclude with I WILL IF YOU WILL. Box office open from 11 to 5 daily. Commence at Seven.

Wednesday, being Ash Wednesday, there will be no Performance.

POLYGRAPHIC HALL,
KING WILLIAM STREET, STRAND.

THE CELEBRATED AND ORIGINAL

CHRISTY'S MINSTRELS,

(Organised in 1842.)

The Public are most respectfully informed that they will commence their

FAREWELL SEASON,

in London (previous to their departure for America), on MONDAY, February 27th, 1860.

Reserved Seats, 3s.; Unreserved, 2s.; Back Seats, 1s.; Private Boxes, holding six persons, £1 1s.

Tickets and Places may be secured at Mr. Austin's West-end Box-office, St. James's Hall, Piccadilly.

The first Grand Morning Performance will take place on Saturday, March 3rd, at Three o'clock.

Secretary, H. MONTAGUE.

The European Assurance SOCIETY.

Empowered by Special Act of Parliament.
FOR THE ASSURANCE OF LIVES, ANNUITIES, AND THE GUARANTEE OF FIDELITY IN SITUATIONS OF TRUST.

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ONE HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS.

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Immediate Annuities, payable during the whole of Life, may be purchased on the following scale:—

Annuities granted at the undermentioned Ages for every £100 of Purchase Money.

Ages.	50	55	60	65	70
Annuity payable yearly.	£7 17 6	8 16 8	10 3 4	12 1 3	14 16 2

Lists of Shareholders, Prospectuses, and Agency applications, may be obtained on application to the MANAGER.

THE HARRIS FUND.

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It is proposed by a few friends of the deceased to raise a fund for the Children of the late Charles Harris, who are left totally unprovided for—the father having struggled for years with misfortune, ill health, and many reverses and failures in his business as a Theatrical and General Bookseller. This appeal is earnestly addressed to professional gentlemen; for the "Theatrical Depot," which stood opposite Covent Garden Theatre for a half century, must be well remembered. Any member of the Committee will thankfully receive contributions; and Mr. Louis Herrman, of 92, Great Russell-street, Bloomsbury, who will gratefully acknowledge them, has kindly undertaken the office of Honorary Secretary and Treasurer.

ATTIRE FOR THE SEASON. Lawrence Hyam has to an-

nounce his preparations for the Autumn and Winter. Gentlemen will now find his Stock of Garments for immediate wear complete in every department. The productions of the various Manufacturers exceed, in variety of design and material, those of all former years.

LAWRENCE HYAM'S OVERCOATS,
of the LATEST FASHION, comprising the INVERNESS CAPE, the ALBERT, the CLARENDON, the SAC, &c., are made from the most suitable materials, and in the strongest manner. 21s., 30s., 42s., 50s.

LAWRENCE HYAM'S WALKING DRESS,
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LAWRENCE HYAM'S TROUSERS
celebrated for their true and comfortable fit made of the strongest and newest fabrics.—Price, 10s. 6d., 12s., 14s. 6d., 17s., 21s.

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WEST-END ESTABLISHMENT—
150 AND 160, TOTTENHAM COURT ROAD

THE POLITICS OF THE BUDGET.

WHILE the exhilaration produced by Mr. GLADSTONE'S speech was still fresh and vivid, few people seriously contemplated the probability of effective opposition to his plan. The public mind was startled by its varied novelty, and dazzled by the brilliancy with which it was displayed. But as the effervescence has subsided, and the aroma of the first pouring forth has passed away, different degrees of appreciation begin to be expressed, and as the wine grows clear a certain degree of sediment is found in the cup. Metropolitan members of the most approved Free-trade stamp, like Mr. LOCKE and Sir CHARLES NAPIER, find it necessary to *finesse* with the discontent of the hop merchants, and only succeed in escaping an order to vote against the scheme, as a whole, by the amusingly elastic promise to do so if, after full debate, it should appear that its other provisions are as objectionable as that which embitters the soul of beer. Even Lancashire and the West Riding are far from being satisfied with some of the most important details; Liverpool objecting loudly to the increased delay and inconvenience of the proposed penny-on-package duty, and Leeds seriously threatening a demonstration against the export of machinery, unless the French duty on yarns be cut down from thirty to ten per cent. These and other indications, likely to be followed by others of a similar kind, were all that were required to restore animation to the political opposition within the walls of Parliament, that seemed for a moment stunned by the far-resounding rhetoric of the CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER. On Tuesday last a meeting of the Derbyshire members of the House of Commons was held at Lord SALISBURY'S, to hear their chief propound his views of counter-policy. As might be expected, Lord DERBY denounced the continuance and increase of the income tax, and made many severe comments both upon what is contained and what is not contained in the Commercial Treaty with France. He dwelt especially, we are told, on the recognition by England of the differential duties in French ports on English shipping, and on the absence of any discretionary power whereby the British Government might, for political reasons, restrain the export of coal to the Continent, without violating its other engagements with France: the latter is a point on which we believe grave debate is likely to arise—not on mere party, but on what may be truly designated national grounds. The export of coal as a matter of commerce may, in itself, be right; but coal having been recently pronounced by the prevalent opinion of Europe not to be contraband of war, it becomes a more serious question whether we ought not to reserve to ourselves, in case of threatening danger from abroad, a legal and acknowledged power of limiting betimes the supply of this great essential of maritime strength to those who may obviously be meditating hostile combinations against us. Times are changed since we could afford to allow a powerful fleet to be gradually assembled in the Baltic by a professedly neutral power, confident in our ability at the last moment suddenly to seize and destroy it, lest it should be turned against us. We cannot rely for our safety upon the precedent of Copenhagen. It is at once the peculiar advantage and peculiar danger of steamer armaments, that they may be collected at a given rendezvous on a given day, and almost at a given hour, from all points of the compass, and thence directed with terrible precision against any undefended quarter. The chief remaining requisites of their strength are heavy guns, powerful steam engines, and supplies of coal. The first, every foreign nation will soon be able to command; and the second they can, at a certain cost, always manufacture for themselves. Fuel is alone beyond the reach of treacherous absolutism, save at enormous cost and in very limited amounts. It well behoves Parliament to consider whether in doubtful and threatening times we ought to throw away the advantage Nature has conferred on us in this great item of maritime defence. Mr. HORSMAN, it is said, has been specially applying his attention to this subject, and intends to take personal satisfaction for his exclusion from the present Cabinet by giving the country the benefit of his anti-ministerial investigations. Mr. DISRAELI has received instructions from his chief to back to the utmost the malcontent member for Stroud; and as nineteen out of twenty members of the Carlton Club have no interests in coal, we may take for granted that they will as a body vote against Government on this clause of the treaty. On the other hand, not a few of the Welsh and North Country Tories are intensely delighted at this particular part of Mr. GLADSTONE'S project: we may therefore reckon on some serious defections from the usually compact ranks of Opposition, as a set-off to whatever amount of Radical defection there may be from the ministerial side.

Lord DERBY has likewise signified his intention of joining issue with Lord PALMERSTON'S Government upon the general

scope and tendency of the Financial Plan, which he, not without reason, regards as deriving its origin mainly from the inspirations of the Manchester School. He says, and perhaps truly, that, after what has already occurred, any further transfer of permanent burthens from indirect to direct taxation will be irreversible; and that the country must make up its mind to an increased and yearly increasing income tax, or to a vast reduction of naval and military armaments, if it adopts Mr. GLADSTONE'S Budget. Mr. BRIGHT says the same, and confesses that he is chiefly reconciled to the re-imposition of tenpence in the pound on all incomes above £150 a year for the ensuing year, because he hopes by the end of that time that the community in general will have got thoroughly out of temper with its indiscriminating injustice; and that when they find it impossible to re-enact customs and excise duties in place of it, they will sweep it away, and some ten millions of army and navy estimates at the same time. The avowal of this *arrière pensée* is equally characteristic and inopportune. Mr. BRIGHT, with his usual impatient egotism, cannot resist the premature utterance of his delight at the prospect of working out so much of his anti-warlike principles, even under Lord PALMERSTON for Premier. His delight with Mr. GLADSTONE, as the finest official child he has ever seen, breaks forth into passionate raptures and gesticulations, as reckless as they are rough. Poor Mr. GLADSTONE would fain be spared the desperate endearments of his self-appointed dry-nurse; but furiously his uncompromising guardian flings him up in the air, claps his hands, laughs for glee, and then alternately cuddles and cuffs him with half-contemptuous, half-affectionate care. The evident moral meant to be drawn from the whole affair, was set forth the other day, in plain terms, by Mr. GEORGE WILSON at Manchester, when he asked his hearers to think what we might have come to by this time, in matters of taxation, had Mr. COBDEN and Mr. GIBSON been sooner employed in high stations, and had Mr. BRIGHT as well as Mr. GLADSTONE been earlier admitted to the Cabinet. Conservatives will hardly fail to fasten on these boastings, and to incite the flagging party zeal of their friends out of doors by pointing to the ultimate results at which the men of Manchester aim. We have little doubt that the leading questions involved in the Budget will be sharply fought; but we doubt very much whether Lord DERBY would really wish to win a decisive pitched battle before Easter. A practical grievance like a renewed and unreformed income tax would be worth more to him than a premature triumph. He has but three hundred votes in the present House of Commons, though it is one of his own calling; and he could not presume to ask the QUEEN for another dissolution within twelve months from the last. It is capital fun for him to find fault with the present Budget, but where is he to find another, without resorting to four-fifths of the same materials as those which have been used by Mr. GLADSTONE? He may carp at the treaty with France, and in some particulars not without reason; but is he prepared to tear it in pieces, and thus provoke a rupture with our great rival, for sake of replacing Lord MALMESBURY in Downing Street, and Lord CHELMSFORD on the woollack? Lord DERBY well knows that a more desperate undertaking was never conceived than that of a Tory resumption of power at the present moment, and in our opinion he is too shrewd and too honest a man to make the attempt.

DEBATE IN THE LORDS' ON ITALIAN AFFAIRS.

SIMPLE-MINDED and straightforward people frequently ask one another—what does Lord NORMANBY mean? Once a week, since the Session opened, the veteran courtier has availed himself of his position to denounce and defame the Italian cause. Were his position as insignificant as his personal capacity for mischief, the evil would be too small to merit attention. Unfortunately such, however, is not the case. The noble Marquis filled, for some years, the post of Ambassador at Paris, and subsequently that of Minister at the court of Tuscany. Of his previous career as Governor of Jamaica, Post Master General, Home Secretary of State, and Viceroy of Ireland, it is unnecessary to speak. Suffice it to say that during the present reign, he has not been suffered for any length of time to remain out of place; and as he is now not more incompetent in point of good sense or ability than he ever was, he naturally expects to be reappointed to some lucrative office, either abroad or at home. And for our parts, we are, we confess, at a loss to conceive what lucrative sinecures can be kept up for, if it be not to stop the mouths of court favourites, who, like the marquis, have *carte blanche* to make themselves troublesome whenever their wants are not appeased. It is only needful that they should take care to distinguish between the wish of the nation, and the will of the Court; and to be always sure that, however they may endeavour to thwart the former, they never forget the

latter. Lord NORMANBY is peculiarly well circumstanced in this respect. For several years his wife was one of the Ladies in Waiting to her Majesty; for a considerable period his son was Comptroller of the Household, a post which he only vacated in order to be appointed Governor of Nova Scotia; and for many years past his brother, the Hon. Col. Sir CHARLES PHIPPS, has been Keeper of the Privy Purse and private Secretary to the Queen. It were bare affectation to pretend that under these circumstances, the studied invectives of his lordship can be treated as the mere random talk of an ordinary man. Lord NORMANBY is, beyond all comparison, the man who has been most favoured during the present reign; and whatever may be his faults or foibles, there is no reason to suspect him of the folly or ingratitude of wilfully offending the prejudices or embarrassing the aims of his illustrious benefactors. After the honours and emoluments he has received from time to time, he could hardly afford to do so. He and his have occupied public stations more or less conspicuous. They have been marked out as the special objects of royal confidence, and they are so still. It happens, accidentally, that the Marquis himself is just now in want of a situation; but he has too long been in the habit of living at the public charge to do or say anything calculated to impede the realization once more of his more noble ambition. Experience proves that he, above all men in the realm, understands the business he has so long pursued; and as, from the meek and mitigated tone with which his attacks are deprecated, instead of being repelled, by Ministers, there is no hope of their ceasing, we think it probable that this patriot peer may soon be once more provided for at the cost of the nation.

Until, however, Lord NORMANBY's anti-Italian mouth shall be stopped, we should be glad that some means were provided for meeting his scandalous misrepresentations of fact, from time to time, as they are made, and on the spot. It will never do to allow scenes like that of last Tuesday evening to be enacted in the Upper House. If Lord GRANVILLE is not acquainted with what has been taking place in Italy during the last twelve months sufficiently to contradict offhand the calumnious allegations of Lord NORMANBY, and if Lord WODEHOUSE be not capable of grappling with a sham case he persists, night after night, in presenting, surely some member of a Cabinet of sixteen, or of a Government that boasts of its red-tape ability, might be crammed for the purpose, and set up to obliterate the defamatory traces of the ex-ambassador's harangues. It is hardly decent to leave the vindication of a Government like that of Sardinia, with which we profess to be on terms of intimacy and friendship, to the loose aid of an *amicus curiæ* like Lord CLANRICARDE,—always supposing that the policy of ministers is, and is really meant to be, steadily consistent with the liberal professions so often made by its chiefs. We annex the condition, we own, not without some misgivings. In the course of his speech on Tuesday last the Lord President of the Council volunteered an admission, worth more to the Court of Vienna than all the anonymous statements endorsed by Lord NORMANBY. Lord GRANVILLE assured his Conservative opponent, that in the interviews the Marquis LAJATICO (Envoy of the Tuscan Provisional Government) had had in November last with Lord JOHN RUSSELL, he had been repeatedly urged on the part of our Government to advise his countrymen to recall the Grand Duke to Florence! From the papers just presented to Parliament, it appears that at the period in question NAPOLEON III. was vehemently pressing the same counsel on the Italians; and we presume that our ministers would seek their justification for giving confidential advice so contrary to their own general professions, and so adverse to general English feeling, by dwelling on the expediency of maintaining a policy of unison in all things with France. We must say, however, that in this instance we think they have erred deplorably; and that it is fortunate for them the Tuscans had the self-respect and courage to reject their evil counsels.

ENGLISH FREEMEN AND SPANISH BONDS.

A MAN never looks so deeply injured as when he has just run against somebody in a crowded supper-room. If he has upset the ice that you are carrying trippingly to a lady still radiant from the last waltz, he, if possible, looks still more hurt. It is a trick of our innate selfishness, a small development of the old saying of the wise historian, "that we hate those we have injured." Wily human nature, never owning itself in the wrong, and yet afraid it may be for once erring, thus craftily attempts to throw the blame upon the innocent. Hence it is that when your omnibus driver nearly grinds a careless doctor's boy to powder at Regent's Circus, he at once swears at him violently, and gently double-thongs him with his chariot whip in order to avert the many-tongued blame that might otherwise assail the impetuous and tyrannical driver of the "Royal Blue." It is these small daily experiences, and such as these, that lead us to indeed

confess, in the thoughtful words of the sagacious and inimitable Yorkshire educator of young gentlemen—we refer to Mr. SQUEERS—that "though nature is an 'oly one, nature's a rime 'um."

The recent irritation manifested in Spain against England leads us to these reflections on ingratitude in general. We long ago heard from SHAKESPEARE, who is a good authority in heart disease, that

"The lender loseth both his gold and friend,"

but we scarcely expected to find a country so shameless as to profess with its million-tongues its hatred of the generous people who, years ago, so rashly risked their money to help them out of the gory slough of civil war and the feverous marsh of hopeless bankruptcy. No one, however, who has lived in the world of trade but is well aware of the angry and injured way in which even the most honest men get in the habit of talking of their creditors—how they speak of them with a certain mournful malignity, as if they were their relentless persecutors, who were working out some Corsican retribution. Any one who has ever visited a prison and talked to prisoners knows well how surprised one feels at each and all telling you, with the utmost earnestness, that they are all in for "nothing"—shut up by a cruel and oppressing world. A set of more injured men, too, than those that drive racket balls about the monastic quadrangle of the Bench, who draw faces of the "bum"-bailiffs, HAAMAN and LAZARUS, on the squalid walls of the Cursitor-street sponging-house, or who stare through the orange-rusted bars of the dens of Whitecross Street, are not to be found in all the world, except, perhaps, in some rice swamp of Carolina, or among the battened-down slave cargo of some hard-pressed slaver off the coast of Guinea. Alas! as some great poet said—

"The world knows nothing of its wisest men."

There cannot be a doubt that Bedlam contains some of our greatest poets and painters, the Bench some of our most versatile financialists, and Whitecross Street some of our most daring projectors—men who would tunnel the Andes, just as you would run a taster into a Stilton cheese, and cut isthmuses in two just as you would snap a LE'MAN's biscuit: but so the mad world will have it. Let it in the meantime console these brave but unfortunate spirits, that, in the words of one of the tragic poet's finest outbursts of passion, generally recited on the stage by a very pale lean man in Hessian boots,—

"There is another and a better world."

A Lame Duck of great experience on the Stock Exchange—between ourselves, we may say a *very* lame duck—sympathetically indignant at the unjust contumely cast on Spain (as if it was really a second Pennsylvania,) has explained to us the whole affair of the Spanish loans, which has so filled us with a sense of the softness of Castilian soap and the magnanimity of Iberian chivalry, that we feel ready to exclaim with witty SMITH (SIDNEY of that ilk), "Would we were altogether such as these men are, saving these bonds." Our special Lame Duck has obtained the following accurate particulars from the persecuted gentlemen with whom every Sunday morning he comes over from Boulogne for a day's recreation; he tells us *en passant* that the patriotism displayed by those noble exiles at the sight of the white cliffs of their native country, would draw tears from any whose sea-sickness would enable him to display such generous emotion. Our Lame Duck, who knows the Continent well, deposeth (and you must treat him as a Spanish advocate) that the finances of Spain being brought down to the very edge of the bottomless pit by seven years' desolating Kilkenny-cut civil war—a war as cruel as useless; and by the preceding reign, which had been witness of the French invasion and the loss of the Spanish colonies, was unable for eleven years to pay the interest on her debts contracted in 1831, which she had paid till 1840 with a becoming regularity, of which our friendly Lame Duck speaks with more than due pride. In 1851, hoping, we suppose, to secure fresh loans by paying the old ones, Spain recommenced to pay interest.

Pay in full she could not, and did not, for the arrears of interest by this time exceeded the capital; but, with true MACAWBER spirit, the great country at last made an "arrangement," generally a quiet name for cheating. She capitalised the amount of interest unpaid, giving in exchange for the despised coupons other stock bearing a gradually increasing interest, which has been, our Lame Duck says—"proud of his port, defiance in his eye"—ever since punctually paid.

By a law of August 1, 1851—of true MACAWBER grandeur of design, and worthy of a JUPITER bankrupt or Colonel FAUCON himself—upwards of a hundred different kinds of stock, representing one hundred and fifty millions, were on that day converted into three classes of paper—consolidated, DEFERRED, and redeemable. Of these three the second was, Lame Duck

thinks, perhaps the largest lot. Everybody was delighted at this arrangement—that is, every one who did not hold Spanish paper:—the possessors of the over-due coupons were, however, in spirits considerably “below par.” In the words of a Spanish advocate, perhaps a paid one, “Spain was not attempting to pay off all her creditors in full, which the state of her finances would not have allowed; but she resumed payment of the interest on that portion of her public debt on which the coupons had remained unpaid, on what was considered the most favourable terms that her resources would permit; and in order to apply to the purpose not only the means then at her disposal, but also the increasing resources of the country, the principle was adopted of paying interest by a gradually increasing scale, first at one per cent., and eventually (after adding a quarter per cent. every two years), at the end of eighteen years at the current rate of her consolidated fund, which is three per cent.

“With regard to the interest which had accrued during the before mentioned period, when it had remained so long unsettled, the Spanish Government proposed that it should be capitalised, and exchanged for the new “deferred stock” at one half of its nominal value. In other words, a coupon, which was worth on the Stock Exchange at that time (see *Times*, July 1st, 1851) $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of its nominal value, was to be exchanged for an inscription of the new stock, worth nominally fifty, and saleable at that time for about twenty, and now for thirty-three and a half of its nominal value.”

This “arrangement,” however, that our *Lame Duck* thinks so lavishly generous, was, in the London Stock Exchange, at once branded and “posted” as rank repudiation. The City holders said, This is disgraceful, and unworthy an honest nation. We gave our money; we got no interest for eleven years; we were prevented putting it out where it might have hatched other gold; we will declare commercial war against Spain. “Bodikins! we will be revenged; war to the knife with repudiation.” Meetings at this time (July 3, 1851) of coupon holders were held, in which a few accepted, but the majority rejected, the proposal. A few weeks later, however, the law of Bravo MURILLO passed the Cortes, without waiting for English consent, offering payment of half the arrears, and cancelling the other half. Three months later (Dec. 3) a meeting of London holders protested against the settlement being considered final; taking, however, inscriptions in the new deferred stock as a stop-gap, but reserving their right to demand future payment. Now black discord stirred up the Stock Exchange, as boys do anthills with a pliant switch. War was actually proclaimed. Transactions in any Spanish securities issued since the date of this law were prohibited on the Stock Exchanges of London and Amsterdam; an edict that drove like a bursting broadside, and almost dispersed the small armadas of commercial Spain. The angry bondholders, also, assuming that one half of the debt had been liquidated, issued certificates to represent “the parties” entitled to the other half whenever the liquidation should be made.

The answer of Spain was an ignorant and unprincipled quibble, such as might have been expected from a proud yet needy nation. They were as indignant as your pickpocket is when P. C. 365 says he (SYKES) has been three times “lagged,” “whereas it were only twice your Mudship;” they declared that half the creditors accepting the proposal implied the whole accepting it; and they denied the right of creditors to accept the interest, yet reserve a right to some future settlement. When a Spanish minister owned the nation’s error, and in 1853 proposed to repeal the repudiating law of 1851, he was at once hooted from his seat with all his gang of plausible hirelings.

In vain commercial men, appealing to the gross but plastic passion of selfishness, which works the largest heartstrings of so many of us, represented that the settlement of this question—not more than £1,000,000—would send up the Spanish funds ten per cent., a rise which would be worth £15,000,000 to the fallen country, besides restoring her commercial credit all over Europe, and make her dollars worth more than they had been since the time that PHILIP sailed for England, or CHARLES V. sailed for Africa.

The war with the Moors has now given Spain courage to pay her debts. Her best victory has been over herself. Her armies have marched from Ceuta to Tetuan, and will soon march back again. You cannot wound air. The Moors practise the Puritan trick, and wheel round and watch their cumbrous antagonist as an agile bull-fighter does a bull. The Spaniards will return from Africa, having lost some ten thousand men, with a game bag of so many shaven heads and some burnt huts. The Moors will flood back on Tetuan and Tangiers, and great imperturbable Nature, with the voice of thunder, will shout her parade order to African things in general, “As you were!”

One good result, however, at least the war has led to, and that is, the payment of Spain’s debt to England. But let us

not flatter ourselves, for the old Peninsular debt of gratitude will never be repaid while Gibraltar remains ours; and let us be assured that we owe this tardy and angry casting down of repudiated cash not to the HONESTY of Spain, but to her PRIDE.

AUSTRIAN WAR MOVEMENTS.

THAT Austria is preparing for another conflict in Italy is scarcely open to doubt, although it may admit of question whether her plans are dictated under the *delirium tremens* of absolutist intoxication, or are founded upon a conviction that success must attend the Jesuit conspiracy against the liberties of Italy, and the Empire of France. When the Hungarians saw the movement of troops and cannon towards Italy, and the military brutality and terrorism under which Venetia was ruled, they were led to expect that the Emperor would endeavour to wind up his quarrels with their Protestant churches, in order that he might devote all his energies to the impending struggle, by which his fortunes will be retrieved or shattered to pieces, as the issue may decide. Accordingly, after some demur, the proposals of Baron VAY received favour at Vienna from Count RECHBERG and his Imperial master, and might have been carried into effect if the Protestant Churches had not wisely determined not to abandon their legal and constitutional stand-point. The Protestants are in possession of eight endowed colleges, four Lutheran and four Calvinistic, and corresponding with these are eight ecclesiastical districts; divided into seignories, numbering in each district from eight to fourteen. Their superintendents, or bishops, are independent of the Government, as also the lay inspectors; and when the Synod—which, like our Convocation, can only assemble when summoned by the Crown,—was brought together, it afforded a real representation of the interests committed to its care. The object of Count THUN was to destroy this independence, to make the bishops the creatures of the Court, and break up all free local action by dividing the eight districts into twelve. There were other portions of the scheme, which would have made honest voting a dangerous course, and the Protestants saw with alarm and indignation an attempt to place their venerable institutions under the virtual command of the Jesuit priests. Baron VAY recommended a diplomatic solution of the difficulty; Count THUN and the Emperor were to have the satisfaction of retaining their arbitrary twelve divisions, but the elections were to take place in the Seignories, whose boundaries were not to be changed. This would have been acceded to, had not the Protestant leaders demanded its legalisation through the sanction of the Synod, convoked in the old way, and elected by the eight districts which the Government had overthrown. This very rational and prudent proposal was highly unpalatable to a despotism which hates legal restraints, and it is now expected that no compromise will be effected, and that the quarrel will grow wider until it assumes revolutionary proportions. Those Hungarians who do not care for it as a Church question, regard it as an important defence of constitutional right against HAPSBERG usurpation; and if FRANCIS JOSEPH should be so infatuated as to go to war again, he will labour under the disadvantage of an incipient rebellion, which may easily travel from Pesth to Vienna, after another Solferino has reduced him to despair.

But, although Hungary is not to be pacified by any concession of religious liberty, an attempt will be made to remove the financial difficulties of her landowners, most of whom are under heavy mortgages, and a provisional consent is said to have been given to a scheme for a *Crédit Foncier*, which Baron MORITZ HABER is expected to take up. At present—thanks to the influence of misgovernment—money cannot be borrowed upon land in Hungary except at ruinous rates; and it is proposed that the *Crédit Foncier* shall advance notes or bonds bearing five per cent. interest upon the security of land, and that the mortgagors shall pay for this accommodation five per cent. interest and two per cent. amortization. The only capital required for the scheme would be a guarantee fund, large enough to make the notes marketable commodities. It is difficult, however, to see that it could do much good, as the policy of the Government would be unchanged, and the new paper could only be cashed at a depreciation proportioned to the alarm which the conduct of the Emperor excites.

There is also a scheme afloat to adjust the Government finances by a lottery of about ten millions sterling, intended to make what constitutional lawyers call an illegal sale of the Crown estates in Hungary. It is possible that the South Germans and Dutch, who are deeply involved in Austrian securities, may fall into this trap, in the hope of staying off the bankruptcy of their creditors, and occasioning a rise in Austrian stock through the resumption of cash payments, which, for a time, such a plan might enable the Bank to undertake. The estates in question

are already mortgaged to the Bank for eight millions, so that in fact the scheme would do little more than shift the debt from one direction to another; but it would place in the hands of the Court money enough to commence a fresh war on a large scale.

The Austrian Government appears to place immense reliance on the success of the Jesuit intrigues against the Emperor of the French, and also calculates upon being assisted by Bavaria and the whole of South Germany. To English eyes all this looks so foolish, that it would be incredible, if one single action could be discovered that indicated a just perception of the difficulties of the Austrian Empire, and an intention of meeting them by fair and reasonable means. Russia will object strongly to the operations in Hungary, which are sure to be the result of a new conflict with France. But the Czar has not yet got over his difficulties in emancipating the serfs, and before that is accomplished any important military enterprise would be extremely hazardous.

There can be no doubt that Count CAVOUR is determined not to rest satisfied with an indefensible frontier, and the alarming presence of an immense mass of Austrian troops in Mantua, Verona, and Venetia; but he will assuredly use every exertion to throw the onus of renewing the struggle upon the Austrians and make them the first parties to break the unsatisfactory peace established by the Treaty of Zurich. The French Government may be desirous of peace, but it cannot allow the Jesuit conspiracy to run its evil course unchecked; and it had better incur the expense of three months' more victory over the Austrians, than tolerate the prolongation of the inquietude which must exist until the Italian question is definitely settled, or, at least, finally handed over to the Italians themselves, with security against the intervention of any foreign power.

The South German potentates are exceedingly jealous of Prussia, and find a zealous leader in the King of Bavaria, who cordially hates his more powerful rival, and dreads the plain tendency of events to depress Austria and her adherents, and make Prussia the acknowledged head of Germany. It is, no doubt, a portion of the Austro-Jesuit scheme, to force Prussia and North Germany into a war with France on behalf of Francis Joseph and the pope; but the German confederation does not bind one state to defend another, if that other plunges recklessly and without the sanction of the Diet into war; and unless the Prussian Court loses its wits it will find means of protecting its own interests, without obstructing any military operations which would become necessary for France if a fresh war should occur; provided always that the French Emperor should neither in Savoy, nor elsewhere, manifest a desire to enlarge his territories at the expense of European interests.

We can easily imagine that Austria will receive the strongest recommendations from every power not in the hands of Jesuits, to retrace her suicidal career; but we saw last year, in the invasion of Sardinia, how hopeless it is to offer good counsel to an infatuated despotism, and it seems the determination of the Court of Vienna to play the part of a ruined gamester, and stake its existence upon one mad and desperate throw.

DESPATCH OF BUSINESS AT WASHINGTON.

THE regular session of the United States Congress commences on the first Monday in December, terminates every second year in the first week of March, and in the other, or first of its existence, whensoever it pleases the two houses to adjourn. It is seldom prolonged beyond the end of May, notwithstanding the inducement which the "compensation" offers to the needier members, on account of the absolute necessity imposed upon them of devoting some months to party work at home. If, however, the system adopted by the thirty-sixth Congress is to be regarded as a precedent, the session must be lengthened, or the Federal attributes lessened. That Congress met, as usual, in the beginning of December, 1859, and its most important branch had not commenced business on the 31st of January, 1860. Two months out of the five this year allowed it for law-making and money-voting have been consumed by the House of Representatives in what is facetiously termed organisation. This painful labour is represented by the last advices as approaching its termination; and it is not improbable that by the time these lines are in the hands of our readers, we shall have learned that some time in the first week of February a Speaker and Clerk were elected, and that the House has settled down to such necessary preliminary business as the examination of contested returns. Assuming that these expectations are not disappointed, less than three months will remain for the accomplishment of the work, which generally occupies about twice that time. How it will be done, if done at all, cannot be doubtful. If the members have had their fill of oratory, and are disposed to get over the dry business as quickly as possible, they will necessarily do it in an imperfect and perfunctory manner; but the probability is that they

will pay no attention whatever to any proposals for new laws which may be made to them, and will concentrate their attention upon the appropriation bills. Poor Mr. BUCHANAN will find his recommendations even more contemptuously disregarded than they were last year. He will not obtain the law authorising him "to employ a sufficient military force to enter Mexico, for the purpose of obtaining indemnity for the past and security for the future." Nor will he get the power for which he pleads so strongly, of employing the naval forces of the State, according to his own pleasure, in the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific. He will not even obtain the recognition by Congress of the expediency of purchasing Cuba; and it is very questionable whether he will get what is practically much more important—the payment of his own salary—for to such a pretty pass have matters come in this land of sharp business-men, that the public servants, and the public creditors, against whose claims no party raises an objection, cannot get the money due to them.

The House of Representatives, like our Lower House, has the privilege of initiating money bills. It is a sort of equivalent for the power possessed by the Senate of ratifying or cancelling treaties with foreign powers and diplomatic appointments. Up to within a very recent period, the House of Representatives has shown alacrity, rather than tardiness, in this particular matter. It has voted money away in a very extravagant manner; but last year, for some reason or other, it did not pass the usual act making appropriations for the service of the post-office. The post-office of the United States, we should observe, does not yield any revenue; on the contrary, it is a heavy tax on the Federal income—the deficiency to be supplied from that source being, for the year ending 30th June, 1859, just seven million dollars; whilst for the current year it is estimated at about six millions. The consequences of this failure to supply the funds required by this important department may be readily conceived. The authorities of the post-office managed, by means of balances in their hands, and the patience of the mail contractors, to tide round to December, expecting then to obtain an appropriation for the past year from the new Congress; but this expectation has been, of course, disappointed, and the embarrassment of the officials is represented as extreme; whilst several of the persons to whom money is due on contracts are suffering very severely. The other appropriation bills, for the army, navy, judiciary, &c. were duly passed in that session; but how will it be in the present? The House has barely three months in which to take up the old post-office appropriation and the new one, together with those for the army and navy—the latter generally exciting considerable discussion—the judiciary, and Federal government. These bills must also pass through the Senate, which has for the last two months been sitting in solemn idleness, its own special business not being sufficient to take up its time; and its members, although great contributors to the immense stock of Buncombe orations, which enriches the literature of the United States, are not sufficient in mere respect of numbers to keep up lively debates upon points of order. We do not see any possibility of this absolutely necessary business being got over by the end of May. Should such be the case, the President must call an extra session—a step peculiar reasons prevented him from taking last year; and as the members are not paid for their attendance at an extra session called for such a purpose, the number present will be small, and the business hurried over in a slovenly manner. In any case, no new legislation, however urgent may be the necessity for it, can be expected.

This is not a very pleasant picture of democratic institutions; but the evil is, after all, not so bad as it seems. It is discreditable to a great nation to have its central legislature the scene of a contemptible struggle for place, to which all the interests of the nation are sacrificed. It is disgraceful to it that this struggle should be marked by incidents to be only expected in a pot-house or penny concert-room, and that the men who are nominally selected by their fellow-citizens for their pre-eminent ability and high character should display less courtesy, consideration and intelligence than might be calculated upon from an assembly of London costermongers. It must be exceedingly embarrassing to all the Federal servants and creditors to be kept out of their salaries and claims, and the general interests of the whole people must suffer, so far as Federal misgovernment can affect them. Fortunately, however, the powers of the Federal Government are comparatively limited in their influence upon the home concerns of the people. Each state still retains perfect control over its own citizens, makes its own laws, and manages its own business. The Federal Government is the representative of the nation to other powers; but beyond its action in this respect, its power of peace and war, its control over the army and navy, its regulation of the tariff, and its right to govern the territories, it is nothing, and each separate state is all in all to itself. The framers of the constitution, and the great American statesmen who amended

it, could scarcely have anticipated such a deadlock as now exists in Washington—one which, if the Federal Government possessed larger functions, might be productive of the most serious consequences; but they evidently saw some dangers ahead when they so carefully defined the Federal attributes, and then, to make security more secure, added the article which limits those attributes to such as have been expressly conferred. Thanks to this forethought, the inhabitants of each state go on as usual with their business, little troubled, except as keen partisans of the one or other side, by the stoppage of the great Government machine at Washington, and sufficiently unhurt to find an amusement in the vulgar exhibitions which reflect so much discredit upon their country. Thanks also to this same sagacious care, the dissolution of the union—should the irrepressible conflict of which the contest which causes this deadlock is one of the phases lead to such an event—will disturb but little the ordinary arrangements and existing institutions of the Free States. It would be the same in the Slave states, but for that element of disturbance, the danger of which the Slaveowners are madly augmenting. If on a rupture of the union the slaves keep quiet, well and good. All will go on as before; but if, as we may expect, they do not keep quiet, and attempt to give its legitimate extension to the doctrine of the declaration of independence, the bloodshed which may attend the attempt will not be chargeable upon any imperfection in the devices by which the framers of the constitution balanced Federal and separate state powers, but upon the foul blot of slavery, which they allowed to disfigure a so-called charter of liberty.

THE BUDGET ANALYSED.

WE were not assailed by the seductive pleasure of hearing Mr. GLADSTONE's eloquent oration, and know it only as it appears in unimpassioned print. We can subject it accordingly to a more impartial criticism than those who heard it, and judge of it by its bearings on the nation, not by the pleasure of hearing his musical voice. Looking rather at the facts than at his explanation, we are less enraptured than his auditors. His speech is multifarious and tortuous. The Budget embraces only two distinct and important topics: the national finances, and the political or police regulations of trade. Both are large, but by being considered apart they are susceptible of condensation, and of the clearness which usually results from limiting the view. Fiscal regulations affect commerce, and commerce, as it prospers or decays, affects the revenue; but the two are essentially different. Commerce is a part of industry, and of the natural growth of society; fiscal regulations are the offspring of Government. Though they affect each other, each has a different origin, and is governed by very different laws. Mr. GLADSTONE's Budget embraces both in a very confused and complicated manner; we shall endeavour to distinguish between them. We shall first put prominently forward facts, and leave opinions and inferences to be deduced from them afterwards.

Beginning with the financial part of the Budget, we must remind the reader that from the falling in of terminable annuities to the amount of £2,146,000, by which, as one quarter's interest paid last year properly belonged to the ensuing financial year, the charge on the National Debt is actually lessened in 1860-61 by £2,438,000; and from the termination according to law in the ensuing financial year of the war duties on tea and sugar, and on property and income, it was impossible to avoid dealing to a great extent with our financial system. The Chancellor then is fully justified in at once calling the attention of Parliament to the subject, and of proposing for the consideration of the public large financial measures. The necessity of doing this now has long been known, and his mind must have been for some time turned to the subject. At a late period Mr. COBDEN's chance visit to Paris opened a prospect of a commercial treaty with France. The completion of the treaty increased the urgency of a revision of our fiscal system, and the extensive changes proposed by Mr. GLADSTONE, probably prepared some time beforehand, are intended to meet inevitable circumstances. The mode of dealing with the financial question is Mr. GLADSTONE's own; to avoid dealing with it was beyond his power and the power of the ministry.

The revenue of the fiscal year 1859-60, terminating on March 31st next, of which the next six weeks are merely estimated, and the previous forty-six weeks are now accurately known, was calculated last session at £69,460,000; but every branch of the revenue except Stamps has hitherto exceeded expectations, and it is now concluded that by the end of March, supposing no change to be previously made, it will amount to £70,578,000, or £1,118,000 more than the calculation. Such is now the increased power of our industry in creating wealth, that it surpasses every year the sanguine expectations of the most sanguine finance ministers.

The expenditure of the year, nevertheless, will exceed the actual revenue, great as it is. The expenditure was expected to amount only to £69,270,000, and actually promised at the time Parliament closed, to be only £68,953,000, which would have given at the end of the year the handsome surplus of £1,625,000. Then came further expenditure for the Chinese war and naval preparations, £1,170,000; and now has interposed the treaty with France, involving an *immediate* reduction of our customs' duties, estimated to amount, by the end of March, to the sum of £640,000—together £1,810,000; thus, by reducing the revenue £640,000, and increasing the expenditure £1,170,000, instead of a surplus there is a small deficiency. Spain, however, has paid an old debt, and £250,000 of this will come into the exchequer before the end of March. Thus we learn from these facts that the resources of the exchequer for the year to end next March 31st, will amount to £70,188,000, and the demands on it to £70,123,000, leaving a surplus of £65,000.

The expenditure in the year 1860-61, ending March 31st, 1861, which it is the especial business of the Budget to provide for, is estimated at £70,100,000, notwithstanding the charge for the National Debt is £2,400,000 less than in the year 1859-60. The chief increase of expense for the year is caused by the military and naval services, £3,618,000 more than for the same services last year. A great increase of expenditure is the remarkable feature of our finances in the year 1860-61. Mr. GLADSTONE rather acquiesces in it than proposes it. He declares that he does not like it; he hopes that the nation or the Government means to retrace its steps, and he merely accepts the burden, undertaking to bear it. He does not say it cannot be lessened, but he makes no attempt to lessen it. The other items of expenditure—the civil list, the miscellaneous services, the charge for collecting the revenue—present no corresponding increase, and we, therefore, content ourselves by saying, on this branch of the subject, that the expenditure for the year 1860-61 is calculated at £70,100,000, or £540,000 more than the expenditure last year, though the charge for the National Debt is reduced £2,438,000.

To meet this vast expenditure Mr. GLADSTONE calculates that the customs, as the laws at present stand, will yield £22,700,000, excise £19,170,000, stamps £8,000,000, taxes £3,250,000, income tax at 5*d.* £2,400,000, post office £3,400,000, crown lands £280,000, miscellaneous sources £1,500,000, together £60,700,000, leaving a deficiency of £9,400,000. This is independent of the loss to the revenue which will accrue in the year by the reduction of duties on wine and spirits required by the commercial treaty with France; and by the abolition of duties on sundry manufactures stipulated for by the same treaty. The Chancellor estimates the loss by these causes at £1,190,000, which makes the deficiency no less than £10,590,000. Being in all things a law to himself, Mr. GLADSTONE, with astonishing financial audacity, contrary to all expectations, proposes still further to increase the deficiency by abolishing the customs duties on butter, cheese, eggs, nuts, nutmegs, paper, tallow, &c., &c., and by reducing the customs duties on timber, currants, raisins, figs, dates, liquorice, &c., &c., which he estimates—allowing, in all cases where duties are retained, for a probable increase of consumption—will cause a loss to the revenue of £910,000. Moreover, he proposes to abolish the excise duties on paper, to reduce the duties on hops, and make an alteration in game certificates, which will cost the revenue a further sum, he estimates, of £990,000. Thus, according to his statements and our computation, if he were to impose no other taxes, the revenue would be deficient in the year £12,490,000.

To fill up this "chasm" he proposes to take from the maltsters and the hop-growers the duties on these two articles, which they have hitherto been allowed to retain for six weeks after levying them from the consumer, which will give him in the present year £1,400,000; to retain the war tea and sugar duties, which ought now to expire, at a gain of £2,100,000; to renew the income and property tax at tenpence in the pound on incomes of upwards of £150, and sevenpence on incomes below this sum, the produce of which will be £8,472,000. He proposes also to levy several new taxes: in the customs a duty on the landing and shipping of all goods for importation or exportation of a penny on every package or parcel, and of a penny on every ton weight, quarter, load, or thousand in number, as the goods are required to be returned to the custom-house; and a penny on every animal; also a duty, varying in amount, on moving all goods to or from warehouses under bond, and for operating on them in these warehouses. From these sources he expects to obtain £510,000. Then he proposes to compel all confectioners and eating-house keepers to take out licenses, and he enables them to become licensed victuallers at a low additional fiscal charge; to impose stamp duties of one penny each on all contract

notes for the purchase or sale of any and all goods, stocks, funds, or public securities; also a duty of threepence on dock warrants, or any document entitling a person to hold property in docks or warehouses, and on every transfer of such warrants or documents; a duty, too, of a penny on every certified extract from any register of births, deaths, or marriages; also of sixpence on every transfer in the cost-book of a mine of every share or part of a share; of sixpence on every memorandum of agreement; and a progressive duty of 6*d.* additional for every 1080 words the memorandum may contain after the first 1080; and he makes sundry other alterations in the stamp duties, abolishing some exemptions from these duties, and among others any now existing on bills, drafts, or orders to pay money. From these various sources he expects to gain for the inland revenue a sum of £386,000; and he is to save £86,000 in the revenue establishments. These several sums amount to £12,954,000, which shows an expected surplus at the end of the year of £164,000. Thus, as the result of these numerous changes, as large a revenue is raised as before. For some customs and excise duties, an enlarged income tax and several new customs and stamp duties are substituted. There is an additional amount of direct taxation and a diminution of indirect taxation.

It has latterly been held to be a just financial maxim to make as few changes as possible in taxation unless they be reductions. Mr. GLADSTONE makes a great many changes, and no reduction. He substitutes an enlarged property and income tax, extends the licensing system, enlarges and increases the stamp duties, and invents some new customs duties for the excise and customs duties lowered or abolished. What impediments the new regulations will throw in the way of trade cannot possibly be known beforehand. We believe that many of them will, in the end, turn out to be as onerous as the duties repealed, and that the mere substitution of one species of vexatious taxation for another does not lessen but increase its evils. It creates disturbance, and gives no actual relief. The burden is measured by its amount, not by the place it rests on. Reduction of taxation is needed; and as long as our enormous expenditure will not permit this, to change the mode of taxation is only to rub in some other place a new sore.

To the proposed grant of licenses for selling beer and spirits, paying a small sum, to eating-house keepers and confectioners, we must take a special objection. Under cover of liberating the victualling business from the brewers and magistrates' monopoly, it extends the jurisdiction of the licensing system and of the police to a vast number of houses of entertainment. As we read this part of the resolutions laid before the House of Commons, it will be imperative on every eating-house keeper and confectioner to take out a license "to keep a refreshment house." In fact, therefore, this proposed extension of freedom is a great limitation of it, and will subject a largely increased number of houses to the visitation and control of the police. It is desirable to break up the monopoly; but to ask the Legislature to accomplish this act of justice by a furtive and deceitful fiscal clause in a budget, is a public scandal. Like cloth and bread, the sale of beer, wine, and spirits should be perfectly free.

Mr. GLADSTONE and the Ministers may persist in saying that they cannot reduce the expenditure, but when they find it extremely difficult, not to say impossible, to maintain the present taxes, when they are obliged to abolish the paper duties, and all the minor customs duties, can they justly say that there are no sums in all the estimates which could be spared, to avoid the necessity of levying £510,000 additional customs duties, and £386,000 additional stamp duties? Could they not have deducted for a year or two, till the revenue had recovered from the changes made necessary by the commercial treaty, which is expected to give new activity to our industry, some two or three hundred thousand pounds from public works, some two or three hundred thousand pounds from building schools, endowing colleges, and fostering much quackery, in order to avoid the necessity for the new, minute, vexatious, and execrable taxation Mr. GLADSTONE has proposed? We will undertake to point out from the estimates for civil services, at least £1,000,000 which need not be expended this year; and, not being expended, might save the community from Mr. GLADSTONE's new blisters. Royal palaces, and harbours of refuge and parks, the cultivation of science and the promotion of education, are all useful when they can be easily accomplished by the Government, but are they worth purchasing by the obstacles Mr. GLADSTONE will place in the way of business by his statistical taxes on imports and exports, by his interference with goods in bond, and by his vexatious stamp duties on notes and warrants? If he ever thought they were, the public meetings already held to remonstrate against his new-fangled taxation must have awakened him from his delusion. We have no doubt that the balance of advantages is decidedly against his course, and in favour of saving outlay to

the extent of avoiding all the new taxes he recommends. To persist in levying them, in order to supply an extravagant expenditure, and to plead in defence that the public will have it, betrays in the Ministers a blunted perception of right and wrong, and a want of self-respect, a deficiency of a sense of honesty, and of their own dignity.

He loses sight of the origin of the warehouse system in proposing these changes. It was, and it continues to be, a part of the restraints imposed on the importer for the behoof of the Government, though somewhat relaxed for his convenience, when he was allowed to withhold by its means the payment of the duties till he required the articles imported for use. All taxes on imports are restraints, restrictions, violations of individual freedom, gross evils, only to be justified if no better means than they can be found for raising a revenue; but they do not cease to be restrictions because they are somewhat lightened by modern ingenuity, while as large a revenue is equally raised. Mr. GLADSTONE, however, obviously and fallaciously regards the warehousing system as a *favour* done to the merchant; as a benefit conferred on trade, and therefore he feels himself at liberty to lessen its advantages. The warehousing system is a great amendment on the rapacious plunder of trade by the PLANTAGENETS, the TUDORS, and STUARTS, but it is still vitiated by the violence in which it originated; and while it is the duty of modern statesmen more and more to deprive it of its restrictive characteristics, Mr. GLADSTONE increases and extends them.

A similar sort of fallacy may be traced in Mr. GLADSTONE's notion about taxing all parcels and packages coming into and going out of the kingdom. The State keeps a register of them for its revenue purposes, not for the benefit of individuals. Importing or exporting merchants keep a very correct and minute account of every package they have to deal with, and they want no additional registration of it. To them the accounts kept at the Custom House are of no use whatever. These accounts have a statistical value for State purposes; they are interesting to the political economist; they help to guide the statesman, but they are of no special service to the importer and exporter that they should pay a registration fee on every parcel. Forgetting that the origin of all custom-house and excise regulations is a desire to extort a revenue, custom-house officers and finance ministers have come to regard them as inherently beneficial, like armies and navies; and now Mr. GLADSTONE actually taxes trade for the restrictions imposed on it. For political economists, ministers, and other officials to write about business and to register its steps is to do it. This is a fatal mistake. It fills the world with worthless books, and wastes the time of public men. Every sort of work now connected with the Government is stifled under much writing—and every official is overwhelmed by useless work. For individuals to keep accounts of their transactions is necessary; but to suppose that national wealth and national prosperity can be promoted by docketing and ticketing the industrial products of human action is nothing less than absurd. To this absurdity, however, Mr. GLADSTONE is now lending the support of his astounding eloquence.

For the sake of the commercial effects of this renowned budget, Mr. GLADSTONE appears to have exclusively constructed it. He recognises public opinion, and bows to the reclamations of Liverpool for the abolition of vexatious custom-house duties, and the reclamations of the press for the abolition of the paper duties. He avows that, having £2,000,000 and upwards of less annual charge on the national debt by the falling in of annuities, his object is to "scatter a thousand blessings on the land." He has yet to learn, apparently, that nothing so beneficial can be done for trade as to leave it uninterfered with. For the purposes of abating expenditure the £2,000,000 is a comparatively unimportant item, but he regards it as a mighty engine for the relief of trade. Nor can it be denied that the restraints, restrictions and taxation Mr. GLADSTONE gets rid of are all great injuries to the public, and it is good to get rid of them. The abolition of the excise duty on paper releases one of our most ingenious arts from the trammels of barbarian ignorance. Removing from the tariff all differential duties, except those on corn and timber, equal to three per cent. of their price and conferring an advantage to that amount on landowners, is common justice; and these two yet lingering remnants of the old plunder must speedily follow the rest. Butter, cheese, and fruit are happily released from contributing, by taxes on them, to the rent of the landowners. Only forty-eight articles remain in the tariff subject to duty, which is a great and beneficial improvement. Mr. GLADSTONE is, on this point, a true disciple of Sir ROBERT PEEL, but he carries out the views of his master rather with mechanical precision than mental discrimination. If he had inflicted on trade no additional duties this part of his budget would have had our hearty commendation.

Mr. GLADSTONE, taking the Liverpool view, speaks of

trade as essential to the prosperity of all classes; but it is only one branch of industry—every part of which needs freedom as much as the exchange of commodities between the inhabitants of Liverpool and Bordeaux. On the vast mischief caused by restrictions on this part of industry he is very eloquent, and adds many demonstrations to those already known of the folly of previous legislators. Every word of denunciation of the duties he proposes to repeal will be echoed throughout the country. He confirms the opinion that the moral and social evils of exorbitant wine duties, intended to check exchange, and of duties on butter and cheese to collect a revenue for the state, are enormous, and the existence of these evils is his justification for lowering the former and abolishing the latter, though by so doing he deprives the state of revenue. The latter is, in his estimation, a trifling object compared to the former. But restrictions on other species of industry are equally injurious. The excise duty on paper is at least as mischievous as the duties on wine. Every other species of honest industry is equally meritorious as paper-making, and should be left equally free. Mr. GLADSTONE and all of us see and feel the evils of existing taxation and the existing restrictions which he proposes to abolish; but he does not see nor feel, nor do any of us yet see or feel the evils of the many stamp and warehousing and licensing taxes he proposes to inflict on us. We have yet to learn them from experience; and Mr. GLADSTONE, drawing on a glowing fancy, fondly believes that money will be raised by his new taxes without injuring the public, just as the imposers of the duties on wine and butter believed the same of their impositions. The authors of the corn laws even believed that they would not injure the nation, and many years of great suffering had to be endured before they and their heirs in the legislature were convinced of the contrary. Mr. GLADSTONE goes mechanically to work, after the manner of PEELE, in abolishing custom house duties, being ignorant that the evil is taxation, that he inflicts on industry a great number of onerous new restrictions. He does not comprehend the general principle at issue, and repeats by his new taxes the evils inflicted on industry he exults at getting rid of by abolishing old taxes.

To all his new regulations about warehousing, and his new duties on contract notes and dock warrants, we must raise a general objection. He removes from the tariff many articles which are no longer subject to duty; and the object of all such tariff regulations being solely to raise a revenue, the articles no longer subject to duty should be released from the control of the Custom House. The import and export of commodities is one great branch of industry, and if it be not right to tax them for revenue, it cannot be right to impede the import and export for any minor purpose. As soon as duties on exports and imports are abolished, to force them all through the Custom House, and to force importing and exporting merchants to give an account there of their proceedings, becomes a mere measure of police. Even if it be adopted to prevent the smuggling of any of the articles yet subject to duties it has no other character. Subjecting this great branch of industry to restrictions for the sake of obtaining a revenue was bearable, if not wise, compared to subjecting it to restrictions, however apparently trifling, as a matter of police. After sheer necessity has driven the Government from the old plan of interfering with every commodity that came in or went out of the country, in order to raise a revenue, Mr. GLADSTONE renews and extends this plan on the bureaucratic principle, that the Government must control business. Custom house regulations, as duties disappear, become mere police regulations, and Mr. GLADSTONE, by his new impost on all commodities imported and exported, and on all removals of commodities from warehouses, only extends and confirms and rivets such regulations on trade. It is the passport system applied to the fruits of industry instead of industrious men. It is the continuation and extension along our whole seaboard of those douanier establishments which guard the frontiers of all contiguous Continental States. To beat down and destroy them, as by the union of the States of Germany under one Custom House system, is modern wisdom, to which Mr. GLADSTONE's extension of Custom House regulations, while he exempts commodities from Custom House duties, is directly opposed. No doubt the time will come when exports and imports will be as free to and from other countries, as they are now mutually free to and from the counties of England, and all Mr. GLADSTONE's new regulations are at variance with this obvious and certain progress.

He boasts of striking "fetters off the arm of industry;"—he does so with one hand, and with the other places on it new fetters. To the old fetters society has accommodated its relations, and his new fetters will be found more galling than the continuance of the old. The necessity of dealing with finance while the reform of Parliament is pending might have been met by keeping down

the non-essential expenditure, and by a judicious application of the £2,400,000 no longer required for the debt. Unfortunately it has pleased Mr. GLADSTONE not to take this simple course, and to all the difficulties of the Government he has added the great difficulty of unnecessarily disturbing without settling the whole financial system, and many of the fiscal regulations which affect commerce. He has found himself obliged unwillingly to bow to public opinion; but in doing so, he has still been resolved, like a true politician, to take a course of his own. Such a Budget as his was never before seen. It was wholly unexpected. The public will scarcely be found ready to support it, though the great features of abolishing the excise duty on paper, and removing so many articles from the tariff, strongly recommend it to public approbation; but these amiable features are connected with so many ugly and distasteful attributes, that the scheme seems more likely to generate confusion than promote prosperity.

A SERIOUS SOVEREIGN.

NEARLY all writers who have moralised upon matrimony have dwelt a great deal on certain discords of disposition conducing much to a general harmony in the marriage union. Two spouses of equal levity, equal prodigality, equal impatience, even equal good-natured *nonchalance*, are not generally supposed to be well matched, either for mutual respect, reciprocal happiness, or family progress.

Perhaps it was from this analogy, that one of the acutest French moralists was led to the wise remark, that "France ought to have a serious sovereign." He meant, doubtless, a seriousness in the highest and grandest sense of the word; not the mournful gravity of exhaustion,* nor that passive calmness often the companion of stolidity; for amongst the many varied contrasts that may be imagined between man and wife, there is one which never answers—poorness of spirit on the male side of the house, matched with vivacious courage on the part of the female. For this unopposing opposition the lady herself never either respects or admires, whatever advantage she may be pleased to take of it. The probability is, that, after making endless concessions for peace and quietness' sake, the gude man of the house is ultimately turned out of it altogether, and the lady makes as many changes as lively fancy, giddy will, and gaudy vanity may suggest, till she falls in with some uncompromising lover, who fascinates her senses, dominates over her will in a style which has all the charm of novelty, and whom she admires at last, as another humorous Frenchman has said of the Dames de la Halle and their liege lords, "*parcequ'il frappe bien.*"

France has had long to wait for her serious sovereign, in the serious sense of that word. At the time when LA BRUYERE, who supplies our text, wrote, she had a king who was serious enough in one way, for, as she who knew him well wrote, "it was terrible to find amusement for one whom nothing could amuse;" another king, who spent his life in making himself *blasé* and *usé*—a sad frivolity and a sad gravity; a third who, because he was too slow in family reforms, though kindly disposed enough, was turned out of the house with most summary cruelty; a fourth who died with a *jeu d'esprit* in his mouth. With such royal spouses, and with intervals of more lovers than a MESSALINA, and one publicly acknowledged, who indulged her to the height of her bent, till she was sick of him and of herself—with such as these has France been capriciously pleased or dissatisfied, as the case might be, since one of her shrewdest sons declared that she had need of a serious sovereign.

But she has got him at last; fortunately with a dash of blood advantageously alien in his veins; a man whom she does not thoroughly understand, and therefore cannot twist round her fingers; with a sombreness which interests her, with a silence behind which there lies something besides the memory of old debauches, and acquiescence in old "*bonnes fortunes*;" a silence which does not dignify emptiness, but conceals activity, which makes even England criticise her neighbour's spouse with a hush, as she contemplates a monarch who by no means chooses to be "read over and put down," and who never allows himself to sit long enough in one attitude even to be daguerreotyped; or to permit swift contemporary historians to decide whether in those features, sometimes "discharged of all expression," and sometimes changing like a GARRICK's, the good or the bad is to be

* Considering what Napoleon has done and borne since the following was written, we appeal to the reader as to whether the following, and others like it, can be correct sketches:—"He gave me the idea of a man who had a perfect reliance on himself, . . . but there was a weary look about him, an aspect of excessive watchfulness, an appearance of want of sleep, of over work, of over indulgence too, that gives an air of exhaustion to face and form, and leaves an impression on the mind of a close observer that the machine of the body will break down soon and suddenly, or the mind will give way under the pressure of pent-up thoughts," &c.—*Madden's Lady Blessington*.

allowed to predominate. As for ourselves, we only profess here to give one main colour; in detail we really can scarcely get further than "that eccentric member of the Buonaparte family," as he was called *before his successes*, in the little School French History book. The naturalist does not draw his bird whilst still on the wing, and no human being can say from present appearances whether our bird will be finally drawn perched on the pillar of despotism or the tree of liberty, on the laurel of conquest or the olive of peace, or whether this phoenix of the ashes of a revolution will expire in some blaze like that which gave him birth.

Those who knew him even in earlier and less active days, seem only to have drawn him with those neutral tints which often conceal in the young the higher colours of maturity. Whether we see him amiably rowing Mr. JERDAN in a wherry at Richmond, or listen to his friend Madame EMILE GIRARDIN whilst she describes him as rather an amiable mother-loving boy, like most French boys, watering his favourite flowers with warm water, lest he should take cold—his mother's care, not his own; or, in later days, having really "no ambition further than that of being colonel of some French regiment," not to add other glimpses of equally small significance, given by friends, casual or constant, of former days.

But since then has he not had good studies of "seriousness?" a life as private, though scarcely as taintless as CROMWELL'S; much of that solitary consideration which sent MAHOMET and LUTHER forth at a mature age to the strife and the mastery; long studies, not by any means of engineering only, at the "university of Ham;" his language to ORLOFF; a youth of troubles, like those which encompassed two of the greatest and most favourite Kings of France, CHARLES the Seventh and HENRY the Fourth, with the latter of whom he has certain points of comparison; a similarity in one or two particulars to which we may hereafter refer; still more like our own HENRY the Seventh in his gravity, his taciturnity, his policy, to use the words of BACON, "by no means vulgar;" or CHARLES EMMANUEL of Savoy, of whom the historian WATSON says that "so various were his stratagems, that the most penetrating of his contemporaries professed themselves unable to form any probable conjecture concerning his designs."

In his anger, too, how serious and quiet! None of the undignified fretting, fuming, and quarrelling of the first NAPOLEON with his generals and his tools. The Emperor is said, indeed, to have shown some temper towards the Austrian ambassador; compare it with the following description of the bearing of his uncle, under similar circumstances:—

"Let me tell you, while I think of it, says WILBERFORCE, writing to a friend, that the account you will see in the newspapers of BUONAPARTE'S violent language and demeanour to Lord WHITWORTH, at Madame BUONAPARTE'S drawing-room, is perfectly true. He spoke loud enough to be heard by two hundred people, and his countenance was perfectly distorted with passion."

His nephew's seriousness seems to be of an assimilating character; DE MORNAYS lose their violence beneath its influence; and if WALBWSKIS refuse to be assimilated, they are calmly put on the shelf till they find it convenient to submit to the process. Very serious, too, is he in his triumphs and successes. On that memorable day when the victorious Army of Italy entered Paris, the faintest flush of emotion on the cheek, just a *souffron* of pleasure in the eye, were all we could detect on this the most glorious day of his life.

His speeches, also, and letters are very serious; there is very little rhetoric, with none of the old rhodomontade of the first Empire, with which highly-coloured *billet-doux* France used once to be delighted and deceived. Let Austria, Russia, the Pope and Mons. VEUILLOT confess, in chorus, that France has got a very serious sovereign; at any rate, in two senses out of three which that word sometimes bears—for the third two of the parties named will scarcely grant him.

Of England, no matter what his motives, he has shown himself thus far, with equal seriousness, substantially the friend—if we except a few little matters, such as the Charles et Georges' case in its commencement, and the ebullitions of the French colonels. He knows well that steam must have a safety valve, no matter how strong the machinery, and that the iron of his own firm will might have to yield to the dangerous vapour of French vanity, if compressed too rigidly; and so he would rather allow it to have a free puff or two than be blown up himself, and have his best neighbours scalded; at the same time, he judiciously takes the opportunity when it offers itself, of condensing it by a slight *douche* of serious cold water, which no one knows better how and when to administer than himself.

And so, anon, come the first soft, grave pipings of peace from Monsieur CHEVALIER'S reed, of which it was very easy to see

from the first who held the stops with the right hand, whilst he was modulating Monsieur ABOUT'S with the left—a pipe since destined to give a short Huguenot air by way of an interlude. May it be a prophetic one! May he, though a professed Catholic, favour, like HENRY QUATRE, the weaker creed! May he resemble that ever dearest monarch of France also in his permanent and faithful friendship to England, as he has exceeded us, like HENRY QUATRE, in his aid rendered to an oppressed nationality, desiring freedom, and deserving to be free; for, to our shame be it said, that the relief which England and ELIZABETH rendered to the struggling Netherlands in those days was beggarly and temporising compared with the thorough and hearty friendliness of the French HENRY. At all events, may he be spared the fate of his great predecessor, and experience only what SHERIDAN called facetiously "providential outrages," which not only leave a monarch in life, but make him stronger than ever in power and in favour; and once more may he see that there is one point in which he may excel the first and greatest of the BOURBONS, who gave to his beloved France a rich legacy of glory, but left her without the one thing needful—a good and free constitution;—and may he do this, as he does everything, seriously and in earnest.

People are fond of finding and making mysteries, and exceedingly fond of talking mysteriously of the inscrutableness and depth of the French Emperor. They are fond, in the words of the old dramatist DANIEL, of

"joining to a present fact,
More of time past than it has ever had
To do withal;"

but no politician can call up events as a prestidigitator does cards, or make them to his mind. NAPOLEON'S mystery lies a great deal in his gravity, in his utter freedom from French levity and chatter; in keeping his counsels when made quite as much as in making them; in his unflinching steadiness of nerve—in our opinion his greatest attribute—a steadiness which

"Nor shrinks, nor steps aside for Death,
But with unaltered pace keeps on,
Providing for events to come."

He rarely makes the events, but, like other great men, he knows how to mould the clay wet from the wheel; he has the instinct to see which "seeds will grow and which will not," and out of the mass of time to pick out the "moments pregnant with the future."

THE ABUSE OF REWARDS.

ADMIRAL HOPE is, we do not doubt, a very brave officer; but his friends in the House of Commons, including Sir C. NAPIER, who sets up for a reformer, must have comical notions as to the grounds on which a Government is justified in granting conspicuous and honorary rewards, when they claimed a Victoria Cross for the defeat on the Peiho. A mere display of personal courage on the part of a commander, so far from being meritorious, is sometimes a proof of incapacity, and demands punishment instead of reward. The Government have done right in promoting half-a-dozen officers, who did their best with the silly orders they received from their unthinking admiral; their courage was meritorious, because it was calculated to make the best of their position, and not stained by the folly of a design over which they had no control.

After the Crimean war our military authorities disgraced themselves and the country by rewarding every conspicuous offender, who had brought discredit upon our arms or caused the death of our troops; but although we would not do Admiral HOPE the injustice of comparing him with those melancholy monuments of official corruption, it is clear that an equally vicious principle would have been established if the Government had been foolish enough to give way to the ill-judged clamour of Admirals NAPIER and WALCOT; and we congratulate Lord CHARLES PAGET upon his judicious decision, not to decorate "imprudent officers, who might be led to undertake expeditions at a great loss of life in the hope of receiving rewards." Our whole system of rewards is greatly in want of revision, and the value of such distinctions as the Crimean medal is much reduced by the indiscriminate way in which they are bestowed. They do not, as they ought to do, mark out the men who actually fought in the war—in some cases, we believe, lounging in Regent Street was equally efficacious with fighting in the field. The Victoria Cross has, on the whole, been better bestowed; but we know an instance in which a distinguished officer was recommended for the Legion of Honour on account of conspicuous bravery in the field, and then omitted from the Victoria Cross list because he was too independent to submit quietly to the insufferable chicanery which characterises the Horse Guards' administration, and which the well-meaning Duke of CAMBRIDGE has not the moral courage to break through.

Sir CHARLES NAPIER's advocacy of Admiral HOPE is an illustration of the readiness with which "reformers" are ready to sacrifice their principles for the sake of themselves or their friends; but Lord C. PAGET's quiet though severe rebuke will prove useful in enlightening many obtuse understandings. It was, however, marred by a statement that Admiral HOPE's conduct had the approval of the Government. It was a most manifest case of reprehensible carelessness to assail the front of a position without reconnoitering it, and to send brave men to stick in the mud and be shot at, without any reasonable prospect that the sacrifice would lead to any corresponding beneficial result. Such blunders ought not to have the approval of any Government, however well-connected their authors may be. Sir C. NAPIER thinks his pet admiral has been depreciated in order that Mr. BRUCE should be unduly extolled. If this has occurred, an injustice has been done. Both functionaries did the stupidest thing open to them; and if we had an Order of Demerit, no objection could be made to their taking rank in it immediately below the Grand Crosses that would be bestowed upon the Court favourites of the Russian war.

THE "ORDINATION SERVICE."

THE secession from the ranks of the Established Church by the Rev. Canon WODEHOUSE is not only one amongst the many ominous signs of the times in relation to ecclesiastical reform, but is an event to be regretted by every true friend of the doctrine and discipline by which that Church is upheld. But it is consolatory to predict that as from present evil much future good ultimately results, so from this loss of a faithful labourer in the vineyard of the Establishment inquiries and scrutinies into the cause of it may be instituted, which will lead to amendments and wholesome modifications. This secession is the more to be deplored, because the reverend dignitary was neither a popularity-seeking Calvinistic preacher, nor a pervert to Popery or the kindred practices of Puseyism. He is a conscientious divine, whose maturer studies in theology have led him to a review of certain doctrines in the Book of Common Prayer, which in his earlier examination of that volume he accepted without difficulty, and which, it would seem, at the time of his ordination he had received without hesitation or distrust.

We feel considerable anxiety lest, in calling the attention of our readers to this subject, our motives may be misinterpreted, and we unintentionally give offence where we intend none. Our object, as members of the Christian community generally, and of the Established Church of England particularly, is to labour in our vocation for the universal good of our brethren, and, as honest journalists, to record all events impartially, accompanied by fitting comments. Mr. WODEHOUSE, in a letter to the Bishop of Norwich, which has been published in the columns of the daily press, has himself explained the motives of his secession; to that document, which is too long for our limited space, we must refer our readers, contenting ourselves with such extracts from it as are necessary to a right comprehension and estimate of its tendency and importance.

Mr. WODEHOUSE writes thus: "Ordained in 1814; in less than three years I became an incumbent and prebendary of Norwich. Led in after-years to examine more particularly the subscriptions required from clergymen, I came to the conclusion that I could not assent, in what I conceive to be the literal and established sense of our language, to the following parts of our Liturgy, viz., the damnatory clauses of the Athanasian Creed; the form of absolution in the visitation of the sick; the words used at the imposition of hands in the ordination of priests, and in the consecration of bishops." We assume that everybody is in possession of a Prayer Book, though, we fear, most persons very seldom examine those portions which do not relate immediately to the morning and evening services. We will refer them to some parts of the Liturgy to which the ex-canon objects, and content ourselves with an extract or two from the Ordination and Consecration services, and the Absolution, which is consequent from the power therein conferred, leaving to their own judgment any opinions for or against the Athanasian Creed.

The conscience of the reverend seceder has been offended by the words in the Ordination service of priests, which are therein adopted as taken from the twenty-second chapter of the Gospel of St. John, and which are used by the bishop when he lays his hands on those admitted to the holy office: "Whosoever sins ye remit, they are remitted unto them; and whosoever sins ye retain, they are retained." Many years ago, he tells us, he sought counsel of Dr. KAYE, then Bishop of Lincoln, who subsequently, in the House of Lords, stated the particulars of the interview, and then avowed that if the ex-canon had expressed to him as a candidate for holy orders the same views which he now entertains of the import of those words, he (the bishop) would nevertheless have ordained him. Now these words have either a most serious import or they have not,—no less a meaning than the communication directly made by the bishop of a power conferred by the Messiah himself upon his chosen apostles and abiding by implication in the Church, to be by it dispensed through the instrumentality of bishops and priests to the laity. If these words have not such a signification, what import have they? What notions of their force the late Dr. KAYE had arrived at, we are unable to affirm; but with all our respect for that prelate, and with all due reverence for his character as an able scholar, we cannot but express our surprise at his avowal; and we must state

without qualification that if they mean nothing the sooner they are removed from the ordination service the better for the cause of common sense, plain dealing, and true religion. The bishops themselves, with certain exceptions, to which it is not necessary more particularly to allude, are aware of the necessity of explaining away what appears to most persons to be a definite and explicit claim to the power of giving supernatural authority by one man to another, and accordingly in those books which are put into the hands of candidates for ordination, all such glosses and all such arguments as human ingenuity can suggest, and such pleading as acuteness of intellect can supply, are made use of to explain and qualify the startling affirmation. Thus, young men, who like Mr. WODEHOUSE have at the time of ordination made little progress in divinity, receive with the indifference of ignorance or the imbecility of reliance on others what in their maturer years and more extended knowledge they repudiate and abjure.

WHAT IS AN AUDITOR?

SOME honest tradesmen, whose acquirements at school did not comprehend "bookkeeping by single and double entry," employ an accountant to keep them aware of their own position, and to prove their honesty to the creditors of the concern. Other tradesmen there are who need no such assistance, but who practise the system of double entry not to protect their creditors, but to secure a good balance out of a fraudulent bankruptcy. A case of this latter kind we remember when the Great Northern Railway introduced competition in the coal trade. The dealer in question sold coals at a loss, in order to keep up his connection; and knowing well where this must end, charged "domestic expenses" at double the amount actually spent, in order to enable him to commence trade again.

So some public institutions employ auditors to set forth every item of their expenditure, and convince their constituents that the whole is properly appropriated; whilst others (judging from their reports and from the lumping fashion of their balance sheets) use their auditors as a blind to enable them still to fawn upon a benevolent public, and to misapply the sums intrusted to their care. Widows and orphans suffer, whilst officials grow fat; subscriptions to annihilate heathenism abroad are pocketed by worse than heathens at home, and money intended to distribute Bibles here and abroad is devoured in the shape of fat capons washed down with old port and madeira.

In one society, whose proceedings have latterly attracted public notice, nearly £400 is consumed by the adjournment of a dinner, tempting the reader to inquire what the dinner itself would have cost had it been eaten instead of being adjourned. Another society, whose professed object is to spread the Gospel in foreign parts, and whose annual expenditure is more than £87,000, puts down over £4000 as expenses of deputations, £2000 for printing, and other £2000 for salaries. The society has £88,000 and upwards invested, but accounts including the whole of these large sums appear to have been audited by two of the standing committee. Of course every thing may be properly expended, but it looks ill for the men who have had the handling of the monies and the whole control of the society to audit their own accounts, to be their own check, to affirm their own honesty. Again, the Church Missionary Society shows in its balance sheet interest on investments, £3600; but the same balance sheet shows investments, the interest on which ought to amount to considerably more; and in this case also the auditors appear to be two of the standing committee and one life governor. In the Merchant Seamen's Orphan Society there is an item put down as receivable which is really a defalcation by the secretary; that is, they reckon as an asset a sum of money which has been stolen.

We have an old adage, that when things get to the worst they will mend, and it may surely be hoped that these sham audits, both in benevolent societies and joint stock companies, have nearly reached their worst phase. The situation of auditor is a most responsible and a most difficult one, but the interests involved in an honest or dishonest audit are so immense, that any dereliction of duty ought to send the auditor to succeed Sir JOHN DEAN PAUL at knitting nightcaps, or to Western Australia to join LEOPOLD RUDFARTH. An auditor is generally a salaried officer, who in return for his appointment too often feels inclined to humour the officials whose conduct he ought to check; and then an audit, instead of being a searching investigation into every item of expenditure, so as to decide if it is proper or improper in kind and amount, becomes simply a test of the correctness of certain columns of compound addition, all else being assumed to be quite proper. But if such auditing leads people to invest in insolvent concerns, by representing rotten investments as sound, then assuredly the Fraudulent Trustees Act ought to operate against the fraudulent auditor. The law of privileged communications would quite justify any exposure by an auditor to subscribers or shareholders for the protection of their property, and if he obtains money under the false pretence of auditing when he really neglects to audit, he deserves the heaviest punishment which the law can award.

It is a sorry fact that auditors, like other men, are sometimes punished for their truthfulness; and it is worse that the public should neither move to compensate the loser nor to alter the system. In fact, so far as the public departments are concerned, truth to say, honesty is not the best policy in this world. For instance, Mr. BERTOLACCI, late auditor of the Duchy of Lancaster, refused to certify that a certain property had been sold for the best price obtainable, because he was not furnished with the means of proving it, and for

this and other such refusals he was superseded in his office, and is to this date £900 out of pocket because he did his best to improve the Queen's private revenue; and although a parliamentary inquiry established the fact that the revenue of the duchy was considerably increased during his term of office, yet he was punished as if he had robbed the Queen. But the strangest feature of all was the rule laid down by the Solicitor-General of the duchy, to the effect that the auditor ought to certify to the correctness of an account by order of the Chancellor, even if the auditor knew that such certification covered a fraud. To a stranger the question naturally arises—if such be the power of the Chancellor, and if he uses it, what need is there to rob the Queen of £200 per annum for a sham auditor? And how does the lawyer reconcile his dictum with the old doctrine that the law will not recognise a fraud? Perhaps the fact that the Chancellor of the duchy during a portion of the time was the chief leaseholder, may reconcile all these things! However, to us it seems that the affairs of charities ought always to be audited by "public accountants" of eminence; the auditors of joint stock companies ought to be held responsible for the safety of the investments as valued by themselves up to the date of audit, whilst the auditors of public departments ought to be rendered independent by being made irremovable except by a court of law.

Everybody is familiar with tales about corruption in Government departments, and latterly we have had a sort of extra-national audit in the shape of a royal commission at Weedon, Woolwich, and the Tower, which after a very long inquiry ended by acquitting everybody. Of the value of the report from such men the treatment of Mr. BERTOLACCI furnishes one instance; and we will conclude this article with another. During the Crimean war, and whilst the ladies from John o'Groats to the Land's-end were all busy scraping lint to make up for the neglect of the Commissariat, a Manchester merchant made an offer to supply a large quantity to the Government. After the usual three weeks of delay his letter was acknowledged, and he was asked for a sample, which not having ready he went to another firm which was already supplying, and begging a sample sent it up as his own, and quoted a price 3d. per lb. less than was charged by the firm from whom the sample was obtained. Another delay of three weeks, whilst thousands of wounded soldiers were dying for want of lint, and then a reply to the effect that a medical board had reported the lint as unsuitable. But mark the sequel: in a day or two afterwards the merchant received a letter from Apothecaries Hall asking if he had not some lint to dispose of; he replied in the affirmative, and quoted 6d. per lb. more than he had offered the article at to the Government. In reply he was told that they (the authorities at Apothecaries Hall) had understood that his price was 6d. per lb. less; nevertheless he might go to work, and send all he could until told to stop. Doubtless the reader will feel disposed to ask one or two questions, such as, "Who composed the medical board which reported the lint as unsuitable? How did the people at Apothecaries Hall know that this merchant had lint for sale? How much of this same lint went to the Government at last, and at what price?" And for ourselves, we ask, when shall we have a real national audit?

LECTURES AND INSTITUTIONS.

THE "failure of the Lecture system" is a common source of complaint among those who hoped that literary and scientific institutions would prove valuable instruments in national education. It was not unreasonably expected that a steady band of members would attend the lecture-rooms of these establishments from year to year, ready and anxious to obtain the best and latest expositions of that wide round of subjects, scientific, literary, and artistic, which form, so to speak, the basis of civilized life. In the main, however, this anticipation has been disappointed, and the number of institutions which try to arrange a good and useful programme is exceedingly small. As a rule, no lectures are popular but those of mere amusement, which are, in fact, cheap substitutes for the light comedy of the theatre, or the musical delectations of the concert-room or the opera. If we take up at random a dozen lists of lectures for the season, we shall notice an absurd jumble of subjects, thrown together in "most admired disorder," and scarcely ever find sufficient space given to any one topic to enable it to be treated in a satisfactory way. Working men will congregate in considerable numbers to hear long courses of instruction on a variety of subjects at the School of Arts and Mines in Jermyn Street; but no mechanics' institution dare venture upon similar plans, and the Royal Institution stands alone in London for fidelity to its original design, and for supplying from season to season a succession of discourses which offer the readiest means of being "well up" in the science of the day. What other body would put forward as "arrangements before Easter," six lectures on the Various Forces of Matter (adapted to a juvenile auditory) by MICHAEL FARADAY; twelve lectures on Fossil Birds and Reptiles by RICHARD OWEN; twelve on Light, including its higher Phenomena, by JOHN TYNDALL, and ten on the Relations of the Animal Kingdom to the Industry of man by EDWIN LANKESTER? We know that the Royal Institution enjoys the patronage of the better educated portion of the aristocracy, and of the upper section of the middle class; but is it true that these are the only portions of the community who really want to be informed on the subjects alluded to? We cannot believe this to be the case, and fear that by bad management audiences have been spoilt, and led to look anywhere rather than to the lecture-room for aids to study or thought.

If an audience is not well kept up, lecturers soon go down to its evel; and we recently had a curious instance of this in the hand-

some and commodious building which adorns Finsbury Circus, and whose proprietary roll in wealth. The occasion was a *soirée*, in which one of the most conspicuous objects was a venerable cabbage-stalk of extraordinary length; and Professor OWEN was to lecture on "extinct animals." The audience certainly had not that lively, intelligent, well-dressed look which is so characteristic of the Friday evenings at the "Royal," but still their lugubrious aspect scarcely justified the learned Professor in treating them like charity school children, to whom he would benevolently twaddle for an hour, telling them frankly at the beginning that he had nothing particular to say to them, had prepared no lecture, and wished they could gossip with him to make the thing go more pleasantly! About the same date the same Professor was all earnestness, learning, and animation at scientific societies, or at the theatre in Albemarle Street. We suppose he thought that the London Institution had got into a fossil state, and he tried to enliven its old stones with jokes calculated to make a megatherium grin.

To go back to Albemarle Street: we must notice two of the most remarkable of the Friday lectures of the present season—one on the 20th January by Professor TYNDALL, on the "Action of Magnetism on the Electric Discharge," and one last Friday by Professor HUXLEY, on Mr. DARWIN'S views of the "Origin of Species." The first was a remarkably able condensation of a very difficult subject, so as to admit of its illustration by a series of admirably selected and brilliantly performed experiments, assisted by very little talking. The most novel feature was the exhibition of an important discovery by Mr. GASSIOT, that the stratified discharge *in vacuo*, hitherto obtained only from RUHMKORFF'S coil, could be produced by a powerful GROVE'S battery without any coil at all. The investigations in which Mr. GASSIOT has recently been engaged lead to new views of the nature of the electric current, to which we shall endeavour to return, and pass now to Professor HUXLEY'S exposition of the Darwinian theory.

What the "Vestiges of Creation" did in the way of creating a sensation in the ordinary world of intelligent readers, Mr. DARWIN'S recent work has accomplished in scientific circles; and as Professor HUXLEY was known to be one of the earliest converts, his appearance in the character of an apostle of the new faith, was regarded with no ordinary interest, and accordingly his lecture was attended by a very numerous and critical audience, comprehending many of the chief notables in the scientific world. Mr. HUXLEY read a carefully prepared paper with an earnestness and emotion that showed how deeply he felt the responsibility of the task he had undertaken, and of the position in which he stood. He deprecated the way in which his friend's hypothesis had been treated, upon grounds totally distinct from those of science, and eloquently defended the right and the duty of the students of nature to exercise unfettered liberty in investigating and interpreting the great volume exposed to their view. He then passed to the inquiry of what is a species?—and selecting a horse as an illustration, briefly described its structural or morphological characteristics, tracing their connection with those of the rhinoceros, the tapir, and the hyrax. But structural peculiarities, such as the development of the one middle finger or toe in the horse, and the rudimentary condition of the adjacent fingers or toes, were not all that characterised the equine species; there was also the physiological property of producing prolific offspring—a property which might be broadly affirmed to exist only among animals whose species was identical. Mr. HUXLEY then traced the easy gradations by which the horse of the present day was connected with the horses of the Tertiary period and with the paleotherium, which in many respects resembled the modern tapir; but he did not venture to affirm that the horse was the descendant of those earlier beasts. Passing to pigeons he pointed out the amazing structural differences between the supposed primitive form of the species, the rock pigeon, and the pouter, the carrier, the fantail, and the tumbler; and he showed that in the case of the pouter the difference extended to the addition of vertebrae, and in the fantail to the multiplication of the tail feathers.

These illustrations certainly tended to shake faith in nice morphological grounds for distinguishing species, but he confessed that the new theory threw no light upon the physiological problem, which is after all the most important. In conclusion, the Professor intimated his readiness to accept all the consequences which are likely to flow from the new hypothesis, and declared there was less difference between man and the highest form of monkey, than between the monkeys themselves!

Our task now is not to investigate Mr. DARWIN'S views, but simply to notice what is occurring in the lecture world; and whether Professor HUXLEY succeeds in making converts, or is himself reconverted, he deserves credit for courage and integrity, and it is honourable to the Royal Institution that it should have taken so early an opportunity of bringing before its members a subject that will for some time to come be foremost in the minds of thinking men.

It is, however, to be remarked that Professor HUXLEY scarcely touched upon the doctrine of natural selection, which is the most important that Mr. DARWIN has brought forward, and which we should like to hear him treat on another occasion.

A MODERN FRENCH DRAMA.*

WHAT constitutes a play or a novel immoral? Our neighbours on the other side of the Channel hold a very different opinion on this subject from that which is common amongst ourselves; so

* *Un Père Prodigue*. Comédie en cinq Actes. Par ALEXANDRE DUMAS FILS. Paris. 1859.

much so, that whilst they maintain that the average standard of morality is lower, in fact, in this country than in France, they charge us with a ridiculous fastidiousness with respect to what we read by our firesides or see on the stage; in other words, they accuse us of a national prudery, as childish as it is hypocritical and insincere. Without entering into any discussion as to how far the literature of any country is an unmistakable and infallible reflex of the contemporaneous tone of feeling, or whether there is the same systematic immorality, the same domestic and social irregularity in London as in Paris; and even supposing, for the sake of argument, that breaches of the moral law of society are as frequent and as flagrant in one capital as the other, which, in spite of the revelations of Sir Cresswell Cresswell's court, we are far from allowing, is it not more conducive to the public well-being to veil the evil with a decent reticence, and, even at the risk of being sneered at as prudish and weak-minded, to forbid its reproduction and representation by the press or on the stage? The less we have of a bad thing the better; and if vice is inevitable in itself, it is surely no false delicacy to say as little about it, and to publish it abroad as little as possible. Pope appreciated the principle which lies at the bottom of our so-called prudery, and a broad truth is conveyed in his well-known lines:—

"Vice is a monster of so frightful mien,
As to be hated, needs but to be seen;
But seen too oft, familiar with her face,
We first endure, then pity, then embrace."

"He that toucheth pitch shall be defiled therewith;" and the author, performers, and spectators of an immoral drama are all exposed to the debasement of mind which is as surely engendered by an unwholesome moral atmosphere, as are physical maladies by inhaling a poisonous physical atmosphere. It is no more hardy to bend for an hour over a patient in the putrescent stage of typhus, than it is to spend an evening at a theatre in listening to the profligate vagaries of a veteran debauchee, or witnessing the degrading arts of a mercenary courtesan.

The Parisian public flock night after night to see the "Père Prodigue," a play so noisome and fetid that it has been even prohibited at St. Petersburg, where, as a rule, the censor is not extraordinarily stringent. Still the admirers of Dumas the younger—and their name is legion—maintain that it is not immoral; and this brings us round to the question with which we started—When can a play be called immoral? Whenever grave, unmistakable, downright vice is depicted in such a way as to excite laughter, and even an unacknowledged admiration. [Folly, not vice, is the fit subject for laughter.]

The play before us is an illustration. There are two heroes, father and son. The former, left a widower at the age of twenty-five, with a son a year old, soon became the gayest man in gay Paris. Having been himself educated in the midst of the most rigid Puritanism, he goes to the other extreme, and initiates his son in all the profligacies of the French capital; and at the time when the action of the play begins, the worthy gentleman's reckless extravagance has nearly demolished an enormous patrimony. Heroine there is none; but the person who would be if there were one is a scheming prostitute, who intends to retire from business as soon as she has saved a certain amount of money. Another lady is introduced, who plays the necessary but comparatively tame part of the virtuous and intelligent wife. Of course there is the usual complement of pimps and adulteresses. The plot is "simple in its neatness." At first the father and son live happily enough together, each enjoying his own style of immorality. The son meets with a beautiful and virtuous maiden, whom his father had previously courted; he marries her, and at once subsides into the heavy husband. Then there is a rumour through Paris that the father is endeavouring to seduce his daughter-in-law. The indignant father-in-law, learning this, consoles himself in the embraces of the demi-heroine. The son, who has full power of the purse, cuts off the supplies, and demi-heroine, having saved the predetermined amount, marries the pimp. The father, reduced to impecuniosity, fights a duel with a husband whose wife the son had had an intrigue with in his "fast" days; wounds the weak-minded husband, and on the strength of it becomes reconciled to his grateful son. And the piece terminates with the pleasing intelligence that the son is in turn shortly about to become a father.

"The Prodigal Father" mightily furnishes instruction and amusement to hundreds of men and women. At what expense this amusement is procured, what sort of instruction it gives, and how it contributes to the growth of national virtue, may be easily conjectured. It is much as if a British paterfamilias were to take his wife and daughters to promenade the Haymarket at midnight for amusement and instruction. If a man, or a body of men, venture to plunge into an atmosphere of vice, it should be as a physician enters the ward set apart for some infectious disorder—every available precaution having been employed, and the motive being not an idle curiosity, but pure philanthropy. A man who with this spirit and in this way makes vice the object of his contemplation, is a benefactor to humanity, and deserves hearty encouragement, though even then we must remember that danger can never be entirely removed. But no condemnation is sufficiently strong for those who depict unprincipled debauchery in bright and attractive colours, and who make the comic drama a medium for promoting moral degradation, instead of the harmless amusement and diversion of rational beings.

Apart from the moral question, and viewing it merely in a literary light, the work is singularly unmeritorious. To understand this it is not enough to compare it with others from the same pen, or even

with the writings of contemporary authors, such as "Le Duc Job" of M. Laya, or "La Pénélope Normande" of Alphonse Karr. Let us take a play of Molière's, and see how the genius of French comedy has changed, and how woefully its glory has departed. Read "Tartufe," and then read "Le Père Prodigue." What a contrast do we observe between the accurate and complete delineation of character in the one, and the crude, superficial conceptions of the other; between the repose of the master and the slovenly haste of the self-sufficient tyro; between the wit of Molière and the obscene double-entendres of Dumas; between true genius on the one hand, and the prurient imaginings of fifth-rate talent on the other. With the one, the object of his comedy was to amuse mankind at the same time that he corrected them; the other neither corrects nor amuses, and is like a physician who employs his art not to heal his patients, but to poison them. The unnatural pedantry of the dramatic unities has been abolished; but that was not more objectionable than is the unartistic style which marks the plays not only of Dumas the younger, but of most modern playwrights. The neglect of unity did not involve inattention to symmetry, yet as a matter of fact how few plays of the present French school can be said to indicate that elaboration and finished study which ought to distinguish a national drama. The merest superficialities of character are seized, and an enumeration of these supplies the place of a full and deep grasp of the subject, such as we meet with in the comedians who lived in days when the public required a picture, and would not, as is now the case, have been satisfied with a meaningless daub. As for England, she has no present drama. In France, the spectator has the satisfaction of knowing that such ingenuity or talent as may be detected in the play is of home-growth; whilst the English playgoer cannot forget that he has before him only an adaptation, in some cases a mere translation of some French piece, which was probably much too weak in the first instance to bear any dilution or filtration without losing what little flavour it ever had, and which therefore reaches us in a state of hopeless insipidity. However, we have not now to speak of the English stage, but we may say that its present feebleness is to be preferred to the "strong-mindedness" of our Gallican neighbours, and we shall be quite willing to bear the charge of prudery and straitlaced hypocrisy if it saves us from such garbage as the "Prodigal Father."

PRE-ADAMITE MAN.*

WE can never too highly value the privilege of every Briton to conceive, adopt, or publish any theory he pleases. Be his theory what it may, it will never endanger his head, even though it may injure his heart. The list of the Martyrs of Science is closed. Her sons may suffer now from obscurity, poverty, and neglect; but no man will dare to deprive them of their liberty of theorizing and publishing. Let them but pay their printer's and paper maker's bills, and they may laugh at the law just as freely as men may laugh at their theories.

It was not always so, as this very theory before us may be instanced to show. Our anonymous author is by no means the first propounder of it. According to him there were men before Adam; so also were there pre-Adamites before this one. The only one known to us who worked out his idea into a book was Isaac La Peyrere, who published it in Holland in 1655. An English version of it now lies before us, and was published in London, the first part in the same year, and the second part in 1656. Evidently it was thought no small risk to publish it, for it bears no printer's name, and no kind of indication of author or bookseller. The unhappy author, however, was speedily discovered, and had no peace from that hour for a whole year. At Paris his book was publicly committed to the flames; at Brussels he himself was committed to prison. A prince had to intercede for his liberation, upon which Peyrere repaired to Rome (in 1656), where he gave in to the Pope a solemn renunciation of his pre-Adamitism, and, at the same time, of his Calvinism; the latter, however, being a very different kind of creed from that which Calvinists commonly hold, and nearly resembling the Deism of our age. Persecuted, nevertheless, as he was, he lived to the great age of eighty-two; but at the last, upon being questioned about his pre-Adamitism, he declined to retract his opinions, declaring with his dying breath, "Whosoever denies these things blasphemes." So departed the old man, whose book contains many curious remarks, and whose life was still more curious than his book. A poet of his own times wrote an epitaph for him, which may be thus freely rendered:—

"Peyrere lies here, a good Israelite,
Huguenot, Catholic, Pre-Adamite.
To four religions his faith he plighted
Yet all so long and sadly slighted,
That when he saw his eightieth sun
He had not yet made choice of one!"

The author, whose book is before us, is in no danger of imprisonment, and need not fear that his work will be burnt; nor is it probable that Pius the Ninth will call upon him to recant his opinions. Men may not take up with his theory, but they certainly will not take off his head. He may publish another volume on Pre-Evites, if so minded; and no doubt many of the post-Evites would read it with pleasure, especially if adorned with portraits of the supposed antecedents of the fairest part of our creation.

The amount of presumed proof of his theory, as based upon
* *Pre-Adamite Man; or the Story of our Old Planet and its Inhabitants, told by Scripture and Science.* London: Saunders, Otley, and Co.

Scripture and derived from theological considerations, is but inconsiderable. The differences and difficulties in the first two chapters of Genesis have sorely perplexed him, until he has arrived at the conclusion, "that the true way of explaining these passages is to refer them to two distinct creations, belonging to periods far removed from one another, and occurring under conditions extremely different." Well, then, we are to admit the pre-Adamites upon the earth without question, except as to how they came here; and as to this point we are assured that "nothing seems to contradict the probability that the human species, like other creatures, were brought forth abundantly (swarmed forth at once) by the fiat, 'Be fruitful, and multiply;' and thus at the earliest possible period overspread the earth, a ruling and a royal race." Further, "There is an entire difference between the pre-Adamite and Adam: the former we have seen starting into being out of nothing, by a word—complete at once in a twofold nature;" but the second man (commonly called the first) is in all respects a contrast to the presumed first in his origin, for he is not created out of nothing, but formed out of the dust of the ground. "His predecessor had all the world for his possession; Adam neither enjoyed nor coveted the same wide empire." So that the first Adam, who was made out of nothing, got everything; and the next Adam, who was made of the dust of the earth, got very little of the earth. We submit that this seems hardly fair; but our author must, of course, give each Adam what he thinks proper. For ourselves, as we have no connexion with the supposed first Adam, we do not think we can feel much affection for him; and we should have dealt far more liberally with the head of our own family. With our author, however, it is according to the old proverb: First come, first served—and best served, too.

When did the first man appear, chronologically? Our author thinks we may suppose his creation took place about the middle of the sixth age, "that is, the sixth day of the biblical record; and that the seventh-day age had still to run ere Adam was born and Eden planted—the Sabbath era of Genesis ii. 1, 2, 3. The length of the seventh 'day' must have been similar to that of the preceding six. It was a period of 'holy rest, during which, as it rolled on, the calm and undisturbed blessedness resulting from God's approving smile must have spread itself over all creation.'" It is difficult to know how to dispose of the pre-Adamites when we have them before us—especially as no hint or indication the faintest or most distant exists to direct our thoughts aright; yet the most readable pages of the book are the few which attempt to depict the happy condition of that earliest race. The pre-Adamite man was formed for worship. "With infantine and holy simplicity he went forth to pluck the flowers strewn in his path, and as he gazed upon their beauties or inhaled their odours his child-like spirit would rise with grateful praise to the Creator. He gathered harvests which he may never laboriously have sowed, and partook of a perpetual feast from trees and plants which gave him an unfailing variety, needing no barns to store it for future use. His fields no winter devastated, no locust devoured; and his heart, ever prompting to gratitude, found in every new experience new reasons to make it one great object of his child-like being to love and praise."

No objection can be made to so pretty a picture, and the reader's displeasure can only arise from the necessity of marring it. Why make the pre-Adamites fall, and divide and end—some very brightly and others very badly? Biblical ground there is none for such a supposition; though obscure reference is thought to be made to this in Ezekiel xxviii. 15, 16, 17, 18. Abating this presumed hint, we can see no necessity for debasing the earliest race, and dividing them into ultimate angels and ultimate fiends, excepting the plain necessity of sweeping them away from the face of the earth to make room for the Adam and his family; for it is certain that while the whole generation of pre-Adamites has possession of the stage, you cannot expect to witness the Adamites and the performance of their parts. Therefore they were tempted; therefore some of them fell, while many remained steadfast and innocent. But there is another difficulty; get rid of the sinners, they ought to vanish at once; but what of the unsinners? As they have done nothing bad, they may surely remain where they were, happy and holy. So they doubtless might, but for the coming Adam. He must of necessity be made room for; he must be alone at first; so then there is no help for it. Good and bad pre-Adamites are at the end of their world-lease, and quit they must. What is most singular in the author's last act of this drama is, that the bad pre-Adamites are the more reluctant to go; and the good ones the more ready; the bad still hovering around the scene of their former existence, hating their successors, and ready to come and delude them under any turning and whirling tale, and at any rash and presumptuous summons of profane spirit-mediums. The good have gone up to one or more of the stars, where they think of old times and old scenes, and occasionally come down again, when specially commissioned and permitted; but they scorn to attend to spirit-dealers, or table-rappings, or American mediums.

Such is the theological and biblical conception and argument. However much we may admire the author's reverence for religious truth, his desire for correct biblical exegesis, and his anxious wish to amend the current angelology, we are bound to confess that we cannot find in any scriptural passage, or in any theological dilemma, sufficient basis for this theory.

Its scientific basis, as laid down by the author, is no firmer or broader. All must admit that there is not a single remaining record of the entire race and rule of the pre-Adamites. Neither bone nor stone in any part of the world displays one token of their existence. Yet the very animals and organisations which are supposed to have been contemporaneous with them have left numerous

and unquestionable tokens of their existence. Every year amongst the three last decades has brought many or fewer of these to light. Geological collections have been shelved and labelled and arranged; how is it that in no museum, no private cabinet in Europe, have we any one pre-Adamite human petrification? Most geologists would say, simply because we cannot expect to find what never existed except in imagination. The author can say nothing more than that we may yet find them. But at this rate we should never arrive at any conclusion. The possibilities of the future would weaken or overthrow half the admitted theories of science, if possibilities alone were permitted to invalidate probabilities, and fair and almost inevitable inferences.

When, however, our anonymous theorist deals with the geological part of his subject, he so plainly displays his imperfect acquaintance with that science, that we are pained to think he has not submitted his pages to some competent geologist before publication. Any geological friend would have spared him the discredit and us the pain of pointing out his gross darkness in geological chronology. Here is one proof: "The Isle of Sheppey, Dr. Mantell assures us, is entirely composed of the London clay—a formation recognised as belonging to the later tertiary, or pre-Adamite age." That the Isle of Sheppey is composed of London clay is notorious enough, but to say that this formation belongs to the later tertiary age is as notoriously wrong. It belongs to the earlier tertiary, and is itself the very formation which suggested Lyell's name of *Eocene*—indicating the dawn of tertiary life. To place pre-Adam there would be to intercalate man amidst geological impossibilities, and to destroy the author's own arguments in other pages. But from other pages it appears that the writer would place his pre-Adam in the pleistocene age, and it is evident that this is his meaning throughout—although he has unconsciously made a geological anachronism of some hundreds of thousands of years, which must have intervened between the London clay and the pleistocene beds. All his reasonings, however, are so tainted with his geological incompetence, that we find it impossible to make him consistent with himself and his own theory. His remarks about the fossil plants, fruits, and seeds of Sheppey, in connection with his observations on the "but one creation" of terrestrial plants and his pre-Adamite men, are below geological criticism altogether. It would be easy, and is tempting, to place these in a ludicrous aspect, but we have no wish to do more than passingly point out the writer's ignorance of that science which so many good and religious men think they understand, and can even pronounce upon, when they have glanced over one or two popular books. Gentlemen may read as little or as much as may please them on this science, but they should neither write nor theorise about it until they have really mastered its details. Our author has much to acquire in this direction before any geologist would condescend to argue with him.

His notions on botanical science are equally crude. "I cannot believe," says he, "that any discoveries hitherto made justify the inference drawn by several authorities, that there were from time to time successive creations of certain species of plants at different ages of the world. The ample provision of the third day is all that was needed for the formation of the carboniferous strata," &c., &c. But there were plants before the carboniferous era—Silurian and Devonian plants—and whence came they? Then, as to all the succeeding fossil plants having been created inclusively in the carboniferous era, but not developed until later ages, the idea is so remote from all the common beliefs of the fossil-plant student that it can scarcely be reasoned upon, and is simply absurd. Think of the fifty-six thousand species of plants, reckoning by De Candolle (and there are many more), wrapped up in the one thousand species or more of the coal-producing age! Yet such is the author's exegesis of Genesis i. 29. Whence then came the plants of the lias and the oolites, those of the London clay and the plastic clay? And as to recent plants, whence came they? Moreover, the third creative day of Genesis, according to any well-considered and consistent geological synchronism, must, by whole cycles, have preceded the carboniferous era; and it is most philosophical to consider it a corresponding with the emergence of dry land, and the Azoic period of geology. On the whole, this author's "Story of our Old Planet" is neither that told by Science nor Scripture.

We have not dwelt upon the question of the possibility and probability of the existence of Tertiary races of men, or of an anthropoid race, which might have fashioned the flint arrow-heads (or Kelts) so much discussed at this time; because, although the author's theory is associated to some extent with these Kelts, yet he is not the man to pronounce scientifically upon this very interesting point of inquiry. We hope to be able to take it up on a future occasion.

ASPIRATIONS.*

THIS appears to be the work of a studious and amiable man; but we like the character of the author, as far as it is reflected in his volume, far better than the volume itself. It is a *Liber sententiarum*, scarcely aphoristic, more like the "Guesses at Truth," Mrs. Jameson's "Book of Sentiments," and the different Table Talks recently given to the world; but, we should say, far less successful. No class of works require, on the whole, more rigorous criticism, in default of a rigorous self-criticism on the part of their authors;—and for this reason; there is here no story, no travail of construction, a mere effusion of thought. Any man who can write English may

* *Aspirations from the Inner, the Spiritual Life.* By HENRY M'CON-MACK, M.D. Longman.

put forth at the shortest notice a deluge of the veriest truisms, and torment the reader with merciless self-repetitions.

We do not demand bran-new moral truths; they are not so easily found; perhaps any man who could produce five such really, would be the greatest man of the day: we can aim at little more than to give fresh and unexpected illustrations, cite very remarkable examples, throw the light very strongly on one facet of a diamond truth; show an unknown root, or a fresh ramification, make up complements that have been omitted by others, abbreviate the results of a wide induction into as few words as possible, and as strong, or call some authoritative witness against a wide-spread fallacy. In default of an absolute and almost impossible originality, the above requirements are what a reader may fairly make of a man who comes forward as the propounder and propagator of moral truths; and, as far as these requirements are concerned, we consider the present volume, in the main, a failure. Up to a certain point of excellence, a writer who seeks eminence in this department, if department it can be called, should come, and the line must be held tightly. The author has great reading; but this reading appears to us not to have produced its simplest good effect,—that of avoiding ten more repetitions of what he must have met with ten, or fifty times, it may be, in the several authors—and their name is legion—with whose works he seems to be familiar. The best effect of his varied reading is, that it has made him liberal, possibly even too liberal to men holding the most opposite opinions; it has given him a very wide range of sympathy and of charity for all, even for those who have had very little charity themselves.

The quotations are numerous, and form an important part of the work; they are from the Greek and Latin, and all the higher modern European languages: some are very good; with reference to many of them, the following remarks of Sir Thomas Brown, in his "Vulgar Errors," are applicable. "We urge authorities on points that need not, and introduce the testimony of ancient authors to confirm things evidently believed, and whereto no reasonable hearer but would attest to them . . . which, although known and vulgar, are frequently urged by many men; and, though trivial verities in our mouths, yet noted from Plato, Ovid, and Cicero, they become reputed elegances."

We have not attempted to test all the quotations and references, but some are irrelevant. With their context we happen to be familiar. That from Dante's "Purgatorio," for instance, page 69, has no reference whatever to the matter which the author is urging, nor is it even applicable, or in point, as a loose line. Again, the four lines from "Monti," page 195, previously used by Madame de Staël in the "Corinne" are certainly very little to the point, and had the author known the poem which he cites, he might have found four others there really to his purpose. To prove a trivial proposition, viz., "There is indeed a soul in nature, and that soul is God," he adduces three lines of a Sophoclean fragment, which merely state, with pure Greek simplicity, that there is one God who made heaven, earth, and sea. Such quotations are pedantry, if they are not worse, the result of calculation upon the ignorance of the reader. The truisms are very fatiguing. We detest garbled quotations from an author whom we are reviewing, and we will show this, as briefly, and at the same time as fairly, as we can. The author, if wordy, is seldom absolutely pompous, though he is so once or twice, when he has to make what appears to him to be an important enunciation. We will take then two of these.

(Page 177.) "Were it possible then, it should be blazoned in characters of light, proclaimed as with a thunder's roll, that our powers must be exercised and developed to be retained."

(Page 228.) "Peal it then through furthest heaven, no one is good in vain."

We have taken two cases of magnificent announcement purposely, and leave it for the reader to judge whether the wool is worth the cry. Such verities do not need repeating, even as premises or intermediate propositions, much less as conclusions. We should be very sorry to maintain what we have said at the expense of the reader's temper and patience by further quotations of the same description, which we might make by the hundred. If Dr. M'Cormack's "still voice" were not sometimes better than his thunder peals, we should never have taken the trouble to review him so much at length.

There is much and high meaning in the following:—

"Manners, in truth, make us free of the angelic kingdom, and, founded on goodness and love imply the very courtesies of heaven. For if we shall but reflect, the essential happiness of this life and of the life to come must needs include the commerce—its celestial—of natures progressively elevated with each other, and with God." (pp. 48, 49.)

"The atheism of which I would speak is of a yet more disastrous stamp—acknowledging God, but loving Him not; professing charity, but evincing none; admitting God's existence with as little feeling as it is denied by some; the atheism of the heart, in short, if not the atheism of the understanding." (p. 43.)

"For all self-imposed limitation—and every new duty is a limitation—which is a condition of a real exercise of the spiritual or higher life, is the reverse of a real limitation, reconciles us in so far with God." (p. 68.)

"It is only what the soul drinks in with eagerness that becomes thoroughly and perfectly its own." (p. 90.)

We could heartily wish that such matter predominated in the book, and that there were less verbiage. Extensive reading ought to give an author mastery over language, not language mastery over him.

The style is somewhat Germanic and Emersonian, but without the strength and originality of Emerson—when he chooses to write practically and not mystically. The original German element in the English mind and style is most valuable, the imported rather sickening and faded. "Silence is golden," quotes Carlyle; we believe so, from

what it costs some people to keep it, and the precious privilege thereby secured to their non-hearers; "and speech is silvery;" but of all kinds defend us from German silver; of the two, we rather prefer the worst British metal, for there is less pretentiousness about it. At the same time, we can honour such writers as Jean Paul, and we wish Dr. M'Cormack had not alluded to Richter's far-fetched analogies, for it reminds us forcibly of a power which he himself wants, and which would have supplied him with a few more new metaphors and similes.

In many of the author's doctrines we do not concur, but we have not allowed this disagreement to taint our criticism; we should be proud to share that kindness of spirit which some readers may prefer to terseness and novelty, but which, without them, generally makes a man rather loved than read.

He is an universalist; intimates that a man may degrade himself infinitely, but does not appear to describe the process, or define the period of self-recovery. Towards the beginning of the volume he denies "retribution," but elsewhere says that "God's violated laws do most assuredly vindicate themselves," which, we fancy, comes to much the same thing; but we apologise if we have misunderstood his meaning. The author admires and counsels benevolence; we think that he will find more extensive and practical exhibitions of it in men of what he apparently considers the narrow creed of the English Church, as ordinarily received, than amongst German dreamers and speculators, as there are exponents of its doctrines amongst our great divines and moralists, the study of whose works would decidedly improve his style.

LITERARY BIOGRAPHY.*

LEIGH HUNT may be taken as the representative literary journalist of the first half of the nineteenth century. He would not be able to take that position at any later date. Things have altered, and, as we hope, for the better, since. The pecuniary status, certainly, has undergone a great change and improvement. Literature has become more of a profession. This fact alone would disqualify the editor of the "Examiner" and "Indicator" for the situation, for he would no longer have the excuse for his personal embarrassments that in his time really existed. Leigh Hunt, in his autobiography, attributes these to his own ineptitude for accounts; this may have blinded him to the fact as it stood; but that fact was, though he could not see it, that the world was then opposed to the journal-craftsman, and he had to win his bread against desperate odds. Now, a market has been opened for him, and the juvenile adventurer of talent can find in it a ready resource, while waiting for his opportunity in the greater world, or may safely make in it an abiding-place with the fair chance of a permanent income.

We are not of those, then, who regard the pecuniary position of Leigh Hunt as a fault in the man, rather than as a misfortune from which it was scarcely possible for an individual in his position to escape. He was one of an army of martyrs, whose sufferings were needed as the condition of the world's improvement, and the establishment of a new order or profession—and he was remarkably well fitted for the post by his antecedents and his disposition. The son of a liberal clergyman, with West Indian blood in his veins, thrown upon the world to live by his wits, there was just the instinct and the necessity in his nature and circumstances to fall into the way of life which he had adopted, and to follow its chances and fortunes with as much courage and success as were likely to attend the efforts of any similar aspirant. In some respects, he had many advantages. There was in him the creative mind of the poet, with much of the executive power; and an adroitness in prose composition which stood him in good stead in the production of literary and critical essays, that were designed rather to appeal to popular feelings, than to display either erudition or orthodoxy. As to the latter, the age was in a state of transition, and as that state is always a painful one, there is no reason to wonder that Leigh Hunt, with his Unitarianism and Universalism, which he derived from his father, though the latter was a clergyman of the Church of England, got sometimes into trouble with the religious world. Nobody will now care what his theological opinions were; but what he did for literature and civil liberty will live in the remembrance of mankind, in whatever manner the popular creed may be modified, whether the form of belief become more or less latitudinarian than it was, or is, either in his times or our own.

In one point Leigh Hunt had a great advantage. He was a wit; an elegant wit, who had studied in the school of our dramatists, novelists, and essayists, and had caught their spirit and their mantle. He belonged, also, to a guild, a brotherhood of wits—Charles Lamb, Thomas Campbell, the two Smiths, Theodore Hook, Thomas Moore, Coleridge, Keats, Byron, Shelley. Of all these, Shelley comes out more magnificently than any other. He gave Leigh Hunt no less than fourteen hundred pounds to pay his debts with; and, to complete the jest, the debtor was not at last relieved, but suffered the full penalty for a small outstanding liability. The world may laugh; but Shelley's magnanimity was none the less, whether its grin belong either to the broad or narrow gunge. On the railway of life such a benefactor is seldom met with.

After all, Leigh Hunt was more a man of taste than of genius. His faults belong to the former character; his merits also. He

* *The Autobiography of Leigh Hunt. A New Edition, revised by the Author; with further Revision, and an Introduction by his Eldest Son, Smith, Elder, and Co.*

Macaulay; the Historian, Statesman, and Essayist. Anecdotes of his Life and Literary Labours, with some Account of his Early and Unknown Writings. John Camden Hotten.

had been delicately reared, amid conventional decencies, and his mind had been trained, not left to work its issues out by its own impulses. His father had encouraged his verse making, and published the produce in a volume of "Juvenilia," of which the author lived to be ashamed. We remember once to have had copies of this volume, and are inclined to believe that Leigh Hunt was too sensitive on this score. The prevailing character of it was elegance, after the Pope and Shenstone model. All this indicated a course of culture calculated to form the taste. What Leigh Hunt had of genius was simply reflective. He grew up to a perception of better models, and learned to imitate them more judiciously. He went back to the Elizabethan poets, and carried his public (for he had one) with him.

As a teacher of the people, Leigh Hunt had peculiar qualifications. His want of classicity, which made him despise the Kemble school of acting, was one. His taste was in the direction of romantic literature; and, therefore, *a priori*, of a popular nature. His association with the superior literary men of his day gave him ultimately a forced elevation and importance, and suggested to him possibilities beyond the natural reach of his own powers. His mind was, as it were, recreated by his intimacy with Keats, Shelley, Byron, and his occasional interviews with Wordsworth and Coleridge. The two latter evidently awakened in him admiration and wonder—with the former he was on more familiar terms—nevertheless, they transcended him. The latter statement, however, must be accepted with some limitation. In the drama he was at least their equal. His "Legend of Florence" is more dramatic in its substance than anything produced by either of them, except "The Cenci."

We have another biography on our table—but it is not an autobiography. It is a hasty, not to say careless compilation, or memoir of Lord Macaulay; in which the deceased peer is considered as a historian, statesman, and essayist. It may, perhaps, be found an amusing compendium, as it includes some anecdotes of his life and literary labours. Lord Macaulay, like Leigh Hunt, is also a representative man; but he represents the successful literary man of the present day, not that of the earlier portion of the century. He began life with advantages, to which the elder essayist had no claim. Trained in the severe Calvinistic school, his religious notions had none of the laxity which beset the latter. He was a sturdy Presbyterian of the stern Calvin cut, and derived from his father an exact knowledge of the letter of Scripture. He belonged to a family that had always been fortunate in life; and was himself one of the most fortunate of men. The little work to which we have adverted presents the reader with a rapid outline of his career, and really contains some original matter that is profitable for instruction. In conclusion, we feel that we have done rightly in noticing these two works together—for they are associated on the principle of Contrast, and present very opposite phases, both of character and fortune, yet both alike illustrative of literary life in the nineteenth century, so different in its manifestations when contemplated at its beginning or near its end.

A GERMAN PASTOR.*

THE business of the translator has become a separate and important vocation in the paths of literature and science. Indeed, to be a good translator, more than ordinary ability is requisite, for in rendering the text of a foreign writer into his own language it should be the chief aim of the translator, as far as he has the power, to transfer the wit, beauty, and spirit of his author into his pages. As this is certainly the principal object which a translator should have in view while transferring the feelings and opinions of a foreign writer into our mother tongue, this object can only be satisfactorily accomplished by translating the *whole sense* of the original in that style which we may be sure the author himself would have used or have desired to use, had he written in English. Now, whatever may be the merits of German writers generally, and they are no doubt great, the idea of complexity and heaviness with which translations of some of the best German authors inspire the mere English reader, creates a distaste for the otherwise rich and recondite German literature. Even the matter and the manner of a German writer, that he may appear to advantage in England, must undergo a change—not an essential, but simply a conventional and idiomatic change—before he can be relished here. Such a translation as we mean would not at all interfere with the "individuality" of the original, nor destroy any local or national characteristics and differences between us. On the contrary, the translation of works on the principle we intend would, while maintaining the essential characteristics of different nations, add materially to the power and popularity of foreign works among us. For in our language the mysticism and obscurity of German writers are absolutely unreadable and unintelligible. We look for clearness of thought and expression in a book, and the unpopularity of every writer here is in proportion to his want of this element of perspicuity. This fact, however, the admirable translator of the "Life and Letters of Schleiermacher" seems to have felt; for in the execution of her task she has carefully avoided all verbal "Germanisms," and has, consequently, succeeded in giving us, in a popular style, the life of a man whose name is worthy of becoming a household word among us.

When eight years more shall have elapsed—a period, according to some of our prophetic interpreters of holy writ, that shall mark the commencement of all possible blessings—it will be a century

* *The Life of Schleiermacher*, as unfolded in his *Autobiography and Letters*. Translated from the German by FREDERICA ROWAN. London: Smith, Elder, and Co.

since the birth of Schleiermacher, and it is now a quarter of a century since he died. He kept the "noiseless tenor of his way" as a preacher and professor of theology in an age of wars and revolutions, when poets and philosophers who made fame common were numerous in every land. From his life and letters, now before us, we have no difficulty in forming a high opinion of the German preacher and professor. In some respects he may be pronounced a kind of German Dr. Watts, for his whole feeling and understanding were faithfully and assiduously employed in the service of religion, all his aims and duties being, through a long life, set upon the perfecting of himself and the happiness of his fellow-men. And notwithstanding his talents and learning, his fame will rest chiefly on his *character*. To Christianity he was devoutly attached, and to those among the cultivated classes of his age who contemned it he addressed a series of "Discourses on Religion," which had a general and beneficial effect. While Schleiermacher professed his firm belief in historical Christianity, he nevertheless roused the indifferent and the sceptical by appealing directly to the true religious sentiment within us as the source of piety to God and love to man. But sermons are, perhaps, *heard* by more and *read* by fewer persons than any other human productions. The perennial freshness of the Christian religion itself testifies against the idea that it is in its nature unwelcome to humanity. It is its own evidence of its divine and indestructible truth. Sermons and discourses on religion may, indeed, state this fact over and over again, but they can add little to its force and authority. Hence, perhaps, the short-lived popularity of the divine; for every generation loves to perceive and teach in its own way the eternal principles of the Christian revelation.

The German theological professors are proverbially prodigies of learning. They have genius, and are partial to the broadest culture. Literature, philosophy, and science are subordinated by them to the interests of religion. They may, however, from their extreme bookish habits, be too deeply saturated with dreams and opinions, and too scantily acquainted with the world, to be among the foremost practical religious teachers and leaders of the world—the class of whom the Apostle Paul is the type. Schleiermacher, however, stands high among religious teachers and reformers, and as far as a very long epistolary correspondence can be said to constitute the life of a man, we have the life of Schleiermacher complete enough in the present volumes. For though it may be a new species of autobiography, there is, after all, no truer index to a man's heart than is generally contained in his letters; especially when, as in the present instance, the writer freely and honestly expresses his feelings and opinions on all subjects that come under his notice. We think that from the poem of the poet, the tale of the novelist, the annals of the historian, we may learn pretty accurately how much each is able to do, what his powers may be, but we may not learn much perhaps of what he himself really is. But from the letters of a distinguished man it is easy to get at his innermost feelings, he photographs himself—objective interests scarcely ever intervening between himself and friends, either to conceal or modify his feelings.

In the sonnets of Shakespeare it has been suggested that the great dramatist's autobiography is written. No doubt those sonnets evince much that was private and personal in the life of the poet, but they certainly cannot be accepted as autobiography. It is not so, however, with an author's letters, collected and arranged with strict regard to the time and place of their production. In our best biographies is not a letter frequently the most interesting portion of the book, be the life as graphic and well written as it may? There is nothing, however, wanting in the present volumes to enable the reader to become acquainted with a great and good man, whose affectionate heart and unclouded intellect we cannot but hold in the highest esteem. It is something, too, to learn how they feel and think, and what they say and do in social life in Germany, and Schleiermacher informs us all about these things in his times.

The correspondence of Schleiermacher shows how closely German criticism resembles our own, though for the most part German politics and philosophy may be very different from ours. Having been informed that a certain literary journal had ceased to exist, he observed, "It is quite in accordance with the laws of necessity that publications which are deficient in vigour, though not failing in good intentions, must perish; while others which, in spite of their bad tendencies, are conducted with a certain amount of ability and skill, flourish, and deserve to do so." "Sages," he tells us, "are the only persons who ever do anything," though he himself knew that they sometimes neglect to do many things, for he informs the world that his friend Schlegel left him in the lurch while translating Plato. "Is not wit," he asks, "the offspring of a light heart and a lively imagination?" There is much force and wisdom in the following:—

"Be not astonished that your good mother clings so strongly to life. Why should she not! She is independent, she has reason to be satisfied with her children, and is happy in their love. To *despise* life is either enormous pride or revolting levity; to be indifferent to life is only permitted to him who feels that his inner being is a ripe fruit, and who enjoys himself as such, or to him whose real life is already destroyed, and to whom therefore, death is no more than an outward formality; but to be able to *detach* ourselves from life in spite of nature's clinging to it, that is the highest triumph of faith and religion. Often the last radiant moment is called rapidly into being, even in souls wherein the eternal light has not always shone with bright effulgence."

In the second volume of his "Life and Letters" he is more speculative, but he never travels into a land of mists where his readers can scarcely get a glimpse of him. He is plain to all understandings, yet truly profound. In a letter to Jacobi he says, "I will not even in eternity allow myself to be deprived of the right to philosophise." And he goes on to say, "When my christian feeling is conscious of a

divine spirit indwelling in me, which is distinct from my reason, I will never give up seeking for this spirit in the deepest depths of the soul's nature."

Without quoting further from works which must, we feel sure, please and instruct everybody, we simply add that the old sentiment—"Look in thy heart and write," seems to have animated Schleiermacher in all his compositions. His translator, we must also say, has clothed his spirit in pure English, and her introduction of him here is worthy of the great theologian. In his own beautiful words we bring our remarks to a close, "You have invited me, dear friends, and here I am, come to live and love amid you all. Is not the spirit of man there where it is active? If so then certainly I am among you."

He is welcome to join the great brotherhood of thinkers, "who though dead yet speak," and still influence, educate, and advance mankind.

ISLAMISM.*

ISLAM is *Salvation*. The lineal descendants from Ishmael of the tribe of the Koreish, to which Mohammed belonged, had degenerated from the faith of Abraham, and looked in vain to their Christian or Jewish contemporaries for examples of that pure old piety, the restoration of which was desired by the more contemplative of the wild Arab minds that were nurtured in the wilderness; yet not unmindful of their origin, and the great ancestor who was alike acknowledged by themselves, the Hebrew, and the followers of the Nazarene. The author of the work before us, Dr. Muehleisen Arnold, remarks that, out of all the nations of antiquity, only those descended from the two sons of Abraham have preserved their nationality. Phœnicians, Egyptians, Assyrians, Babylonians, and Persians, have either altogether disappeared, or they exist only in degenerated remnants. The Chinese and Hindoos, he reminds us, remain only in two great masses, inert and torpid; and the Greeks and Romans of the present day differ essentially from the Greeks and Romans of classic times. But the sons of Israel and the sons of Ishmael stand yet in the world as two separate and distinct nations, unchanged in character, and retaining their ancient manners and customs. He acknowledges that the Mohammedan is a true type of the Ishmaelite, and contends that the celebrated symbol of the Mohammedan creed, "there is no God but one," was known to the Arabs before Islamism existed. Nevertheless, this simple creed had suffered corruption, and idolatry had supervened. Wise souls lamented the fact. We read of four men of the tribe of Koreish sitting in secret conclave, and saying that their fellow-countrymen were in a wrong path—they were far astray from the religion of Abraham. "What," they asked, "is this pretended divinity to which they immolate victims, and around which they make solemn processions? A dumb and senseless block of stone, incapable of good and evil. It is all a mistake. Seek we the truth; seek we the pure religion of our father Abraham. To find it, let us quit our country, if need be, and traverse foreign lands." And it is recorded that one of these men went day by day to the Kaaba, to pray to Allah to enlighten him; and the other three, travelling forth, became Christians. Others, who were agitated with the same feelings, were not so easily satisfied with the corrupted Christianity of the period; and many Arabs accordingly expected "a prophet of their own, who would restore the religion of Abraham, and put an end to the state of ferment into which the Peninsula had been thrown by the concussion of Judaism, Christianity, Sabæism, and the idolatry which they inherited from their forefathers."

Such was the state of the Arabian intelligence previous to the appearance of Mohammed. His coming satisfied a need, and answered to a craving in the human mind. Men saw that he was the Man for the Hour that had stricken; and he felt that he had the mission to perform the work that was demanded. It was from the first a work of danger and difficulty, and required a man of genius and courage. He surmounted those difficulties; he escaped those dangers; not, however, without showing symptoms of human weakness, making occasional concessions to the evil he came to destroy, but recovering himself and his cause by a timely repentance. Nor was he ashamed to confess his shortcomings, but in the Koran records them faithfully, with his successes. Like many men, too, of his character, he was a visionary; his excited imagination mistook dreams for facts, which his reason was not instructed enough to distinguish from each other. The subjective and the objective were frequently confounded in his experience. The inward and outward worlds were often identified in his apprehension. It was late in life before he began his mission; and he was, therefore, naturally impatient of delay. At first, he tried to persuade and convince by argument; but, in due course, deemed force necessary, and appealed to the Sword. And lo, the Sword was placed at his command. The feeble, unfriended, persecuted teacher of Truth became a Conqueror, and imposed his creed on subject millions. His practice, however, was not so pure as his precepts; and, as he declined into the vale of years, he rewarded himself for his exertions, like many other men of his time and country, by polygamous sensuality. On the other hand, it might have been an unavoidable concession to deep-rooted custom, or he might have been convinced of the lawfulness of the practice, and expected an advantage from it in the increase of numbers. On this score, we must not judge him by European notions. Finally, having established the worship of the One God, and destroyed innumerable idols, Mohammed became conscious of his

approaching death, and publicly announced it in the mosque to his people, and expired (632) in the arms of his favourite wife Ayesha, who had been betrothed to him at the age of seven years. His followers remained faithful to his memory, and about two hundred millions of mankind continue to be called by his name to the present day.

For a long period it had been the custom for Jewish and Christian writers to regard Mohammed as an impostor;—but the philosophical minds of this century have formed a more favourable opinion of his character. For the most part, they seem disposed to recognise his mission; at any rate, they are not prepared to dispute that it was accomplished. This, undoubtedly, is a great fact in his favour, and to Mr. Thos. Carlyle in particular conclusive of his claims. Our author, however, is not satisfied with this view. By virtue of their origin, he maintains that Jew and Mohammedan alike are the natural enemies of Christianity. Judaism, he says, is the embodiment of a dead orthodoxy, and Islamism the personification of a cold religion of the understanding;—and, being such, both are necessarily opposed to the Christian faith. Moreover, "being inflated with gross superstition, wild fanaticism, inconceivable pride, and a special animosity against the Christian, the Mohammedan is far more difficult to convert than even the Jew."

This difficulty is generally acknowledged, not only in reference to the Mohammedan, but likewise the Hindoo and Buddhist, and some other of the Oriental religionists. But this difficulty is not entirely nor even chiefly due to the causes assigned, but rather to the fact that the ground is preoccupied. The East is the birth-place of religious systems; and the Christian missionary is accordingly met with an already existing belief, which naturally resists innovation. He seeks to instruct those who are also anxious to instruct him. One might as well aim at teaching music to the Italian as religion to the Oriental. Dr. Arnold traces Mohammedanism to the spread of Arianism; and certainly, in the simplicity of its dogma, the former must be considered as the extreme of Protestantism in the Eastern Church. Our author's theory of Satanic influence, the despair of the theologian, will, we fear, little advance the cause he advocates. We find the theory coming immensely into fashion. It is used on all occasions. Of Divine influence we now hear little;—of the diabolic too much. Such an assumption lays the axe to the root of religious sentiment, and destroys the tree and its branches. We, therefore, fear that Dr. Muehleisen Arnold's book will stand the missionary in little stead. It is bad to begin with the *odium theologicum*; every prudent man, Christian or Mohammedan, would avoid it. Easier, we think, it would be to convert by conciliation, and mutual agreement on some common truth, as the basis of a logical argument which might lead to a common result, namely, that Salvation which it is the purpose of Islam, and ought to be that of every religious creed, to secure for the souls of erring men.

That the compilers of the Koran were bad Biblical critics, and mixed up Rabbinical tradition with Scriptural narrative in strange confusion, the author has fully proved. This fact is, of course, available to the controversialist;—but we would rather leave it in the hands of the educator. It will tell with more force in the historical review than in the polemical treatise. As education progresses, the stores of knowledge become common property, and all Scripture has to abide the searching scrutiny of the general intelligence. The relative value of literary productions will thus be tested, and the inferiority of the Koran to the Bible made publicly manifest. Leave it to time; and, in due season, the truth will be surely discovered.

SOLDIERS AND THEIR SCIENCE.*

THE work just published by Messrs. Parker and Son, entitled "Soldiers and their Science," is more useful and entertaining than may, at first sight, appear. If anybody cares to know anything about "battles and sieges," from the first battle which was fought by the four kings in the vale of Siddim, to that which was won by the allied armies of England and France, as if but yesterday, on the heights of Alma, he may find the information in the present work. Although so long a period of time has elapsed since the first and last of human conflicts, war itself has not differed very materially in its nature and object. Of course, through four or five thousand years, we must expect to find that military tactics and systems have essentially changed either for the better or worse. But while we recognise a great change in the mode of warfare, we perceive no change in the spirit which first prompted one man to attack and another to defend himself, his home, his territory, and his rights. As far as the outward means and instruments of war are concerned, those of the armies engaged in the first battle were no more like those of the armies that for several weary months besieged and took Sebastopol, than an ancient orchestra is like a modern one in skill, execution, and variety of instruments and of music.

However, the sketches of the great battles and sieges, culled from the rest of the history of the world by the pen of Captain Brabazon, will afford the reader ample illustrations of the way in which military science has altered and improved. Taking for granted that our author can direct the fire of artillery, or wield the sword as well as he does the pen, we may well trust to such heads and hands as his the honour and independence of the country. His work, however, is timely for more reasons than one. War, in this age of consummate civilization—of civilization which is the result of intellectual and moral progress—and of the mechanical and industrial

* *Ishmael; or, a Natural History of Islamism, and its Relation to Christianity.* By the Rev. Dr. J. MUEHLEISEN ARNOLD. Livingtons.

* *Soldiers and their Science.* By Captain BRABAZON, R.A. London: John Parker and Son.

skill and energy of the people, we require more than overwhelming numbers and pure physical force to sustain it intact. Courage is, no doubt, indispensable to victory, but without a thorough acquaintance with the science of war and perfect discipline, the most daring and courageous army may be defeated. An army composed of such men as Nimrod and Hercules, with their clubs, would stand no chance now-a-days against a body of well-trained soldiers, though the latter may be but dwarfs by their side. We may then accept it as an axiom, that the higher the civilization of a people, the more powerful are their arms, and the safer is their freedom.

It is demonstrated by our volunteer movement that there can exist in a nation which has attained the highest position which scientific discovery and political freedom can confer a strong love for the arts of peace, and at the same time a strong will to resist and to repel an enemy. Men who by their industrial and peaceful occupations contribute to the greatness and dignity of the country would be the last, notwithstanding their present rifle movement, to provoke a war, or to enter upon a crusade against the liberties of their fellow men. To men like these, of business habits and cool judgments, the lines of Hector sound absurd and ridiculous,—

"The glory summons to the martial scene,
The field of combat is the sphere for men."

The men who chiefly compose the volunteer body make no pretensions to the martial enthusiasm of the Greek—they are Englishmen, and therefore citizens of a nation which represents infinitely more reason, more science, more morality, more civilization, and more universal enlightenment than did Greece in her palmy days, and they would, we doubt not, to perpetuate their immensely superior advantages emulate, if required, the ardour and courage of Hector or any of his illustrious fellows. Arguments are unnecessary to prove the pacific nature and tendency of our national movement. But there is one thing to be said, that, while religion and intelligence have improved and softened the nature, they have not at all weakened the spirit of mankind. It is the weakest of puling to complain, as some men do, that the publication of military works and the organization of rifle movements are calculated to kindle and keep alive jealousies, disagreements, and collisions among nations. Strength, manifested by a people who have wisdom enough to control and properly direct it, is a moral power which will lead to totally different results from what the timid and the querulous apprehend. The universal feeling is, in all circumstances, that nobody will meet in a fair and open encounter the man whom he knows is, beyond all question, his superior. Besides, all civilized nations, it may be presumed, have interests and aims of their own above those of war, to promote and carry out. It is then with a view to guard the common rights and interests of humanity that the nation betakes to arms, and that the press sends forth its well-considered and deliberate counsel and opinions on the subject. Grievous and dreadful as they have been, it is nevertheless a fact, that great battles have not been unprofitable to the world. And if sound and soldierlike criticism on the theory and practice of war, the merits and faults of commanders, the victories and defeats of armies, and, as the consequence of all these, if valuable comments on the most recent changes and improvements in the whole of military science be sufficient ground for recommending to the public a new work, then we hesitate not to call general attention to "Soldiers and their Science," by Captain Brabazon, R.A.

WHARTON'S LAW LEXICON.*

IT is with sincere gratification that we call attention to Mr. Wharton's "Law Lexicon," and we rejoice to see that it is so far appreciated by the public that a second edition has been called for. In a law dictionary there are two simple objects to be attained, viz., the information and the convenience of the reader; and we think Mr. Wharton has eminently succeeded in uniting these qualities. A series of imperfect treatises on jurisprudence is not the desideratum in a work of this kind, and Mr. Wharton has managed admirably to steer clear of the temptation to dissertation that besets law and lawyers. His subjects are treated with most commendable simplicity, and with a regard to facts alone that might be more often imitated with advantage. It is difficult to criticise a Lexicon, but after a careful examination, we may say that we have been unable to find a single instance of a legal word or subject that has been omitted. Moreover there is a vast quantity of information on subjects occupying the boundary between law and the other sciences, and a copious vocabulary of words in the French, Latin, and Saxon languages, while even Jewish and Mohammedan law has not been forgotten. The method and arrangement are admirable—the instruction of the reader has been the sole object consulted; he is not annoyed by confusing references backward and forward from one subject to another, but look out what word he will, he may rely upon finding a brief and able exposition of its meaning, and of its bearing upon law. The references are not sown broadcast with that overwhelming hand we are accustomed to see, which savours rather of the writer's claim to erudition than any actual acquaintance with his authorities. Mr. Wharton gives sufficient authorities, and exact references on all important matters; in fine we think he has succeeded in the object he proposed to himself, that of "preserving a due medium between a scanty vocabulary of mere words, and a prolix cyclopædia of exhaustive discussions." We feel sure his book will be useful to the legal profession and to many beyond it.

GIFT BOOKS FOR THE YOUNG.

THE crowd of new books with which enterprising publishers, at the approach of each succeeding holiday, tempt fond papas and generous uncles, to gratify the highly-cultivated intellect of young Hopesful, is a

* *The Law Lexicon; or, Dictionary of Jurisprudence.* By J. S. WHARTON, Esq., M. A., Oxon., Barrister at Law. Second Edition. V. and R. Stevens and G. S. Norton, 26, Bell Yard, Lincoln's-Inn. 1860.

significant indication of the varying tastes and the restless desire for novelty for which the age is conspicuous. The story books of thirty years ago, if any of them could now be brought to light by some persevering archæologist, would be found totally unsuited to the taste of little masters and misses now-a-days, and more appreciated by their seniors than themselves. "Robinson Crusoe," "Sanford and Merton," Miss Edgeworth's capital "Tales for Children," and Sir Walter Scott's "Tales of a Grandfather"—we recollect the time when those books were our solid reading, with the "Arabian Nights," and the "Tales of the Genii," for our stock of romance; the "Boy's Own Book" being our encyclopædia of philosophy and mechanics. These and a few similar books were handed from schoolboy to schoolfellow, and criticised and admired with an enthusiasm that appears now to have almost died away in the boyish bosom. In those days, when the attraction of these model story books began to pall upon the sated appetite, we were allowed to wander into our father's library, and cram our brains with whatever came first to hand, swallowing much rubbish, but digesting some food worth devouring. A change took place; some pestilent innovators contrived the wretched system of "science in sport," and useful information was thrust upon the youthful mind as a never-failing source of recreation. A bald and meagre outline of a tale introduced the deluded victim to a series of lectures upon hydrostatics or quadratic equations; chemistry and astronomy took the place of the old familiar fairies and giants; "Robinson Crusoe," and "Philip Quarll," had unlimited leave of absence to their respective desert islands. At length it was suspected that too much improvement of the mind was producing a corresponding deterioration in the health of the body; the doctors and mamas remonstrated, and another revolution took place, which produced a flood of children's books of the most inane description, which, while certainly free from the imputation of conveying useful information, were at the same time utterly destitute of interest, or of the humour which children appreciate as keenly sometimes as their elders. The booksellers at length discovered that it required as clever people to produce books which should please the boys as it did to write those which would satisfy the taste of their fathers; and the character of this class of works has steadily improved of late years, partaking in all the glories of elegant binding, beautiful printing, and excellent illustrations. Among the volumes which form the subject of this notice, "Many Happy Returns of the Day" is especially noticeable for the beauty of the vignettes with which it is studded; some of the little bits of rural scenery being exquisitely drawn and engraved by the Brothers Dalziel. Taking for their theme rural scenes and out-door amusements, Mr. and Mrs. Cowden Clarke have produced a highly interesting miscellany, which is sure to be a favourite with boys, if not so much so with their sisters. All the domestic pets—rabbits, fowls, dogs, and horses—are touched upon, and hints given for their management, interspersed with anecdotes illustrative of their instincts and habits. There are some good (and not too dry) chapters about geology, astronomy, and botany—and descriptions and details with regard to such manly sports as shooting, rowing, swimming, and riding, which might very judiciously be omitted in a future edition, as the mastery of these useful accomplishments can only be obtained by practice, and studying athletic exercises from books leads more frequently to accidents than to perfection. In a book bearing these two names, we look of course for well-selected quotations, and are not disappointed; every subject is illustrated with well-culled flowers from the best English poetry. "Famous Boys" is a misnomer; the work being a selection of sketches of self-taught and self-made men, who became famous enough in after-life, but who were generally struggling in obscurity in their early days: one exception may be noted—that of William Jay, who took to conducting prayer meetings and popular preaching at fourteen years of age, an example which we devoutly trust may not be followed by many of the juvenile readers of his biography as here set forth. The object of the author is commendable in setting up as examples of what may be done by perseverance when combined with ability such men as Jerrold, the Stephensons, Kitto, and Livingstone; he is sometimes bombastic, however, as when he styles Mr. Horace Grésley the "modern Franklin;" nor do we think the career or the end of the millionaire Morrison calculated to afford a desirable or enviable example by which to foster a boy's ambition. Mr. Evans's "Century of Fables" is a delightful and attractive little book, evincing great poetic talent, and a keen sense of humour. It is a selection of one hundred fables from the classic writers of eight living and dead languages; some are old favourites, but the majority have not often been seen in an English dress. The simple and appropriate language which has been employed renders every line intelligible to the capacity of a child; but this has caused no sacrifice of elegance—on the contrary, the versification is polished and harmonious. The author thinks fit to apologise in his preface for any defects that may appear, by telling us that he has only received the limited education of a mechanic's son, he himself being in the humble position of a journeyman printer. His industry in study and his natural poetic talent have produced a work of which the author may justly be proud, and which will be acceptable to readers of all ages, and of various tastes.

LETTER FROM ITALY.

(SPECIAL.)

PAPAL PAGEANTS.

Rome, 11th February, 1860.

I wrote last week about a popular demonstration. I am going this week to write of a Papal one. I cannot say that either was very grand or very dignified, but of the two I think the popular was the least absurd. The truth is, the Papacy is too old and too feeble even to die with dignity. Of itself the sight of a falling power, of a dynasty in *extremis*, commands something of respect, if

* *Many Happy Returns of the Day.* By CHARLES and MARY COWDEN CLARKE. London: C. Lockwood and Co.
Famous Boys; and How they became Great Men. London: Darton and Co.

A Century of Fables in Verse; for the most part Paraphrased or Imitated from Various Languages. By W. R. EVANS. London: Robert Hardwicke.

not of regret; but the conduct of the Papacy deprives it of the sympathy that is due to its misfortunes. There is a kind of silliness—I know of no better word to use—about the whole Roman policy at the present day which is really irritating. It is silly to rave about the stake and the martyr's crown, when nobody has the slightest intention of hurting a hair of your head; silly to talk of your paternal love when your provinces are in arms against your "cruel mercies;" silly to boast of your independence when you are guarded in your own capital against your own subjects by foreign troops; silly, in fact, to bark when you cannot bite, to lie when you cannot deceive. No power on earth could make the position of the Pope a dignified one at this moment; and if anything could make it less dignified than before, it is the system of pompous pretensions and querulous complaints and fulsome adulation which prevails now at the Vatican. I know not how better to give an idea of the extent to which this system is carried than by describing our last Papal demonstration.

To enter fully into the painful absurdity of the whole scene, one should bear in mind what the prospects of Papal politics were at the beginning of the week. The provinces of the Romagna were about to take the first final step towards their separation, by electing members for the Sardinian Parliament. The question whether the French troops were to retire from Rome, or, in other words, whether the Pope could remain in Rome, was still undecided. The streets of the city were crowded with Pontifical Sbirri and French patrols to suppress the excitement caused by a score of lads, who shouted "Viva Italia!" a week before. The misery and poverty of the Roman populace was so great, that the coming Carnival time was viewed with the gravest apprehension, and anxious doubts were entertained whether it was least dangerous to permit or forbid the celebration of the festival. Bear all this in mind. Fancy that some "Mene, mene, tekell upharsin," is written on all around, telling of disaffection and despair, and revolt and ruin, and then listen to what was said and done to and by the Pope on that Sunday of Septuagesima.

Some months ago a college was founded at Rome for the education of American youths destined for the priesthood. There were already an English, an Irish, and a Scotch college, not to speak of the Propaganda. However, in addition to all these, a college reserved for the United States was projected and established by the present Pontiff. Indeed, this new American college, the boulevard raised in the Forum, and the column erected in the Piazza di Spagna to the dogma of the Immaculate Conception, appear to be the only material products of the Pontificate of Pius the Ninth. Sunday last was the feast of St. FRANCIS DE SALES, and, for some reason or other, which I am not learned enough in theological lore to determine, the feast of this saint was celebrated as a sort of inauguration festival by the pupils of the new college. The Pope honoured the ceremony with his presence, and, for a wonder, a very full account of the proceedings was published in the *Giornale di Roma*. From this, and from private sources, I have compiled my narrative of the ceremony. The paragraphs in italics are literal translations from the official report.

"The day,"—I quote, of course, here from the *Giornale*—"was, in very truth, a blessed and a fortunate one, not only for the pupils themselves—who yearned for an occasion of bearing solemn witness to their gratitude and devotion towards their best and highest Father and most munificent benefactor—but also for all those who have it upon their hearts to share in those great works which form the most striking proof of the perpetual growth and spread of our most sacred religion."

Apparently, the number of the latter class is not extensive, as the visit of the Pope attracted but little crowd, and the lines of French soldiers, who were drawn up on his way to salute him as he passed, were certainly not collected in the first instance by a spirit of religious zeal. The *Giornale*, however, sees everything with the eyes of faith. Mass was performed at the "Holy Church of the Humility," and "from early dawn, as soon as the news of the Holy Father's visit was circulated, an immense crowd assembled there, which filled not only the church, but the adjoining rooms and corridors. The crowd was composed of the flower of Roman rank and beauty, and the *élite* of the strangers residing at Rome, both French, English, and American, who desired the blessing of assisting at the bloodless sacrifice celebrated by the Vicar of CHRIST, and longed to receive from his hands the Angels' food." I am sorry that truth compels me to state that the whole of this "immense crowd" consisted of some one to two hundred persons in all, and that the only illustrious personages of special note amongst the crowd, not being priests, were General GUYON, the American Minister and Consul, and the Senator of Rome. The Pope arrived at eight o'clock, and then proceeded to celebrate the Communion, assisted by Monsignors BACON, Bishop of Portland, U.S., and Goss, Bishop of Liverpool. "The rapt contemplation, the contrition of heart, the spirit of ardent faith, which penetrated the whole assembly, more especially while the 'Holy Father' distributed the sacred bread, were all things so sublime, that they are easier to conceive than to describe."

The Pope, after mass was over, entered the college. Over the door the following inscription was written in Latin, composed, we can safely say, by an Hiberno-Yankee pen:—

"Approach, O Mighty Pius, O Thou, the parent of the Old World and the New, approach these sanctuaries, which Thou hast founded for Thine American children devoted to the service of the Church. To Thee the whole company of pupils, to Thee all America wild with exultation, offer up praise. For Thee they implore all things peaceful and blessed."

In the Hall prepared for His Holiness's reception there was hung up, "beneath a gorgeous canopy, a marvellous full length likeness of

the august person of the Holy Pontiff, destined to recall his revered features." Around the picture a number of appropriate Latin mottoes were arranged, of which I give one or two as specimens of the tone of adulation adopted:—

"Come, O Youth, raise up thy glad voice; behold the Supreme Shepherd is present, blessing his children by the light of his countenance."

"Hail, O day, shining with a glorious light on which his glad children receive within their arms the best of Parents."

"As the earth beams forth covered with the sparkling sunlight, so the youths rejoice with fresh gladness, while, O Father, Thou kindly gladdens them with Thy most pleasant presence."

Refreshments were then presented to the guests, which I trust, and indeed am told, were much better than the mottoes. The pupils of the Propaganda, who were all present, sang a hymn; addresses were made to the Pope, by the Pro-rector of the college in the name of the pupils, by Bishop BACON on behalf of Catholic America, and by Cardinal BARNABO, the Superior of the Propaganda, all of them in terms of the most fervent adoration. Each of the American pupils then advanced with a short poem, which he had composed—or was supposed to have composed—in expression of the emotions of his heart on this joyful occasion, and requested permission to recite it. At such a time, the best feature in the Pope's character, a sort of kindness of nature, was sure to display itself. I cannot but think, indeed, that the sight of the young boyish faces, whose words of reverence might possibly be those of truth and honesty, must have given an unwonted pleasure to the worn out, harassed, disappointed old man. The "Holy Father, receiving so many tokens of homage with agitated feelings, was delighted beyond measure." When the English poems were read to him, he called out, "I can't understand a word, but it seems good, very good." He spoke to each of the lads in turn, and when he was shown the statue of WASHINGTON, told them to give a cheer for their country, to cry "Viva la Patria" (the very offence, by the way, for which, in the very week before, he had put his own Roman fellow-countrymen in prison), and then, when the boys cheered, he raised his hands up to his ears and told them, laughingly, they would deafen him. Now all this is very nice and pleasant, and I wish truly I had nothing else to tell. I trust, indeed, that the long abstinence from food (as a priest who is about to celebrate the communion is not allowed to touch food until mass is over, and in these matters the Pope is reputed to be strictly conscientious), or else the excitement of the scene had been too much for the not very powerful mind of the Pontiff; otherwise I know not how you can excuse an old man, on the brink of the grave—to say nothing of the vicar of CHRIST—using such language as he employed.

"After such affectionate demonstrations, the Holy Father could no longer restrain his lips from speaking, and turned his penetrating glance around." Very possibly you may have received an account of the speech ere this. In case you have not, I extract the striking passages. After alluding to the foundation of the college, the Pope "pointed out" what a great "blessing the Catholic faith was, a true gift of Heaven, which formed, indeed, our sole comfort and relief in time of trouble . . . and expressed his extreme distress that this very faith should be made an especial object of attack in these days; adding that this fact alone caused him most lively and poignant grief. There was no need, he said, to refer to the imprisonments and martyrdoms of past persecutions, when every one was an eye-witness of the onslaught which is now made in like manner upon the Catholic faith, and upon all who would sustain its purity and dignity. . . . Although in the midst of persecution, it was his duty to arm himself only with firmer courage. Yet the grief of his heart was rendered still more bitter by beholding how, in this very peninsula, so highly privileged by God, not only with the gift of the faith, but with the blessing of being the centre of that faith, and of possessing the most august throne on earth—how even here the minds of men were hopelessly perverted." His Holiness then went on:—"No, it is not the arms or armies, or the forces of any power on earth, which can cause me fear; not the loss of temporal dominion which can create in my heart such bitter grief. The guilty authors of this loss must bear, alas! the reprobation of the Church, and be given over to the wrath of God, unless they repent and trust in His mercy. No, what afflicts and terrifies me far more than all this, is the perversion of ideas, the frightful tendency to make all ideas false. Vice, in truth, is counted for virtue; virtue taken for vice. Indeed, in some cities of this unhappy Italy, men have sunk at last into deifying the robber and the assassin. Praise and glory are poured lavishly on the most villainous of men and actions, while yet people have the audacity to stigmatise as hypocrisy, fanaticism, and abuse of religion, all constancy in the faith, and even episcopal resolution in preserving the sacred doctrines of that faith and its greatest blessings."

I have reason to believe that even amongst the audience, who all belonged to the papal party, the intemperate and injudicious character of this speech, and the allusions which could not but be intended for the Emperor NAPOLEON, CAVOUR, and VICTOR EMMANUEL, created grave consternation. The *Giornale*, however, tells us that when His Holiness, with agitated voice, bestowed his apostolic benediction, awe and admiration could be read on every countenance—all hearts beat aloud; no eyelid was left dry. The whole assembly moving forward, bent in turn before the august Personage, touching, some his dress, some his hands, while others again cast themselves at his feet, in order to impress a reverent and affectionate kiss.

After having examined the building, the Pope "went on foot to the neighbouring convent of the Augustine nuns, called the Convent of the Virgins. The whole of the religious community were

permitted to kiss his sacred foot;" and then, having comforted the virgins with "paternal and loving words, he returned to the Vatican"—returned past the French troops, and through the beggar-swarming streets, amidst cold, sullen glances and averted obeisances, back to his dreary palace, there to wait wearily for telegrams from Paris.

LETTER FROM GERMANY. GERMANY AND THE HOUSE OF HAPSBURG.

HANOVER, February 13th, 1860.

PUBLIC opinion in all parts of Germany has undergone a considerable change of late, and I think I am correct in asserting that, should war break out again in Italy, Austria may count upon the enthusiastic support of all Germans, Prussians included. The proposed annexation of Savoy, the hostile neutrality of Prussia, and above all, the active intrigues of Russian agents, have made Germans more inclined to give ear to the supporters of Austria. The Liberals, from the bitterest opponents of the Southern States, have become their most resolute adherents. Indeed, they cannot help doubting the prudence of the policy pursued by England and Prussia, when they observe journals, the acknowledged organs of Russia—such as *Le Nord* of Brussels, and the *Perseveranza*, lately brought out at Milan—heartily applauding every step taken by the French Emperor, and every enterprise that appears to have his countenance—instance the Spanish raid in Morocco, the Suez Canal project, as well as all he has done or intends to do in Italy. The applause of these journals must fill every Liberal with doubt and dread. The titles given to these two Russian papers, *The North*, and *Perseverance*, are significant enough. It is believed to be the fell determination of Russia to aid in the discomfiture and disruption of the Austrian Empire; first, from a desire of revenge, and secondly and chiefly, that when all treaties be, as they will be, cancelled by the death of LOUIS NAPOLEON—when the entire Continent, except Russia and Sweden, shall become one vast scene of confusion, Russia may pour in her legions and dictate her will to the struggling factions, unless some man of genius be found, to unite all Liberals into one solid phalanx in defence of liberty. The fear of Russia is beginning to strengthen the hands of Austria, and should she be again provoked to war, France may rely upon it, Germany to a man will rise in defence of the HAPSBURGS, despots and blunderers though they be. The present moment has been considered the most opportune to publish a letter written by M. VON GAGERN, the head of the National and Liberal, or, as it is also termed, Gotha party. The letter is a reply to an application requesting his signature to the programme of Eisenach. A translation of this programme has appeared in the columns of the LEADER. M. VON GAGERN positively declined to subscribe to the document in question, and gives at great length the reasons of his refusal. He agrees with the programme so far that a central power combined with a national representation, is an absolute necessity for Germany; but he objects decidedly to Prussia's being called upon to take the initiative. He thinks the exclusion of Austria, in a proposal to effect a reform of German affairs, both insulting to that power, and ridiculous in itself. They would reject Austria on account of her supposed anti-liberal system, forgetting what the nationalities are that compose the Empire, and forgetting further that the Prussian system, with its liberal institutions of yesterday's growth, is only free in name. With regard to the position that Austria bears towards Germany, there are two views. According to one, which is the view he takes, the political and military power of Austria is a European necessity, as well as a bulwark of Germany. This view has lately taken such forcible possession of the public mind, as to have become a national instinct. Those who hold this opinion desire Austria to adhere to Germany, and Germany to Austria. They would gladly see the contending elements of the monarchy united into a contented and well-ordered mass, and joined firmly and for ever to Germany. The other view is that Austria stands in the way of a united and concentrated Germany under the leadership of Prussia, and that therefore the sooner the empire be dissolved the better for Germany. Whether a loosely-united Germany, without Austria, would be in a position to protect the new States lying between France and Russia, does not seem to enter into the calculations of the adherents of this view, as little as does the question as to what would become of the Danubian countries, what of Illyria, and of the communication with the Adriatic. The holders of this opinion go so far as to assert that it would be preferable to cast overboard the lumbering element of the Southern Catholic States, and rely entirely upon the progressive energy of the Northern Protestant countries. This idea, which was promulgated by the programme, was another reason why he could not put his signature to it. Any reform, to be effective and advantageous to Germany as a whole, must have the entire acquiescence and the support of Austria and the other States, as well as of Prussia. Whatever may have been the failings of Austria, Prussia has, up to the present time, done nothing to gain the love or esteem of Germany.

M. VON GAGERN then proceeds to expose with great force of language the cowardly and crafty selfishness of Prussia during the war in Italy, and concludes his letter thus: "I will await the future deeds of Prussia; it is to be hoped that she will do more for the unity and power of Germany than she has hitherto done; but I will not express a confidence at a time when with the deepest scorn I feel that she has scandalously damaged the interests, the power, and the honour of the nation."

This letter has produced a great sensation, and the programme of

the Eisenach party may be said to have vanished. In its place we may have a second *Rhine-bund* of the Central States, with Austria at their head. With regard to the coast defences, there is an appearance of a disposition on the part of Hanover to give way, at least so far as to adopt measures in concert with Prussia. Bremerhaven, the port of the city of Bremen, and the free port of Geestemünde, belonging to Hanover, separated from each other by a little stream called the Geeste, are to be both strongly fortified, to the grief of some of the most thoughtful of the inhabitants, who have an idea that their weakness has hitherto been and might possibly still prove to be their best defence. It is expected that Prussia will commence with her coast defences so soon as the Chambers shall have granted the supplies. The dangers which are threatening from the South of Europe, the bitter hatred of the Prussian name and the dynastic policy of the Government entertained by the people and princes of Central and Southern Germany, have forced the Regent and his ministers to carry out one of the promises of the constitution. The constitution guaranteed liberty of the press, but successive ministries have found justifications in other laws or ukases to nullify this right. Whenever an editor incurred the displeasure of a minister, nothing was required but to refuse or withdraw the license to publish. So long as publishers were licensed, and depended upon the Government for the license, liberty of the press was a mere name. Count SCHWERIN is now about to bring in a bill, or, as the Prussians term it in imitation of the French, "present the project of a law" to secure the press against arbitrary interference on the part of the Government. In strict accordance with the press laws, the license of a journal cannot be withdrawn but by sentence of the legal tribunals. Count SCHWERIN explains that the attitude of the press towards the present Government has been such that no occasion has arisen to require the exercise of the power they possess, and the Government thinks that the faculty of intervening may now be surrendered entirely by the authorities. It is the interest of the Government to accord the press a liberty regulated by the laws, not passing the limits of propriety and order. The printer relieved from the trammels which have hitherto held him in check, and knowing that the judge alone can condemn him, will acknowledge the moral responsibility of his profession, and exercise the "censure" upon himself, even if the good sense of the public should not control him. Should, however, the Government find itself deceived in its expectations, or should the state of affairs at home or abroad be threatening, so as to render an examination of the written word necessary before being printed, the Government will not hesitate a moment to demand from the Chambers the fullest powers of suppression.

RECORD OF THE WEEK.

HOME AND COLONIAL.

ON Saturday, Feb. 11, the Queen returned to Buckingham Palace from Windsor; the Prince of Wales returned to Oxford.—**On Wednesday, Feb. 15**, was the first *levée* of the season.

On Saturday, Feb. 11, there was a Cabinet Council, attended by all the members.—**On Monday, Feb. 13**, the Hon. W. F. Cowper was re-elected for Hertford, and Mr. Hutt for Gateshead.—The *same day* was announced the retirement of Judge Perrin from the Irish bench; he is succeeded by Mr. Fitzgerald, Attorney-General for Ireland; the Solicitor-General, Mr. Deasy, is appointed Attorney-General.—**On Tuesday, Feb. 14**, a meeting of the Conservative party was held at the Marquis of Salisbury's house; Lord Derby was present, and about a hundred and forty others; it was resolved to oppose the Budget.—**On the same day** the *Gazette* announced the elevation of Lord Ward to the earldom of Dudley.—**On the same day** the Builders' strike terminated; the masters having withdrawn the "document."

On Friday, Feb. 10, the Earl of Bective, Sir Hugh Cairns, several members of Parliament, and others, waited on the President of the Board of Trade on the subject of the French duties on British linen.

On Monday, Feb. 13, the Manchester Chamber of Commerce passed resolutions approving of the new Commercial Treaty with France, and Mr. Gladstone's budget.—**On the same day** the Bradford Chamber of Commerce pronounced in their favour.—**On the same day** the Birmingham licensed victuallers and the Glasgow grocers and spirit dealers passed condemnatory resolutions.—**On Tuesday, Feb. 14**, the Edinburgh Chamber of Commerce were in favour of these measures; and on the *same day* the Liverpool Ship Owners' Association, the Mincing Lane wholesale tea-dealers, and the Edinburgh grocers and spirit-dealers, declared against them.—**On Wednesday, Feb. 15**, the licensed victuallers of Manchester protested against the entire measure, and a meeting of hop-growers in the Borough against the clauses which affect hops.

On Saturday, Feb. 11, a Common Hall of the Livery of London passed resolutions condemning the Government Bill for the reform of the corporation.—**On Tuesday, Feb. 14**, was held a public meeting at Manchester; at which Mr. Bright spoke and resolutions were passed in favour of the Treaty and the Budget.—**On the same day**, a meeting of the Westminster Reform Union passed similar resolutions; and condemned the proposed expenditure on the army and navy.

On Monday, Feb. 13, the Bishop of London consecrated the Church of St. Bartholomew, Gray's-inn-road.—**On Tuesday,**

Feb. 14, the Convocation for the province of Canterbury assembled; the Upper House discussed the questions of an alteration in the ecclesiastical law as to baptismal sponsors, and admission of improper candidates into the ministry. The Lower House made a demonstration against altering the Liturgy; the meetings were resumed on Wednesday, Feb. 15.

On Wednesday, Feb. 15, were published the Army Estimates, showing an increase of nearly two millions sterling.

On Tuesday, Feb. 14, the Registrar-General's returns showed that the cold of last week had increased the mortality: deaths 1,442, being 136 more than the average; births 2,021, being 300 more than the average.

On Sunday, Feb. 12, died Lieut.-Gen. Sir William Napier, historian of the Peninsular War; aged 74.—On the same day expired Viscount Gormanstown, an Irish Roman Catholic peer; aged 85.

On Monday, Feb. 13, and Tuesday, Feb. 14, many accidents occurred on the ice in the Parks; a gentleman in St. James's Park, and a youth at Hampstead were drowned through the breaking of the ice.

On Monday, Feb. 13, was decided the trial of Lord Ward v. Lumley, for rent of Her Majesty's Theatre; verdict for plaintiff, damages £4,560.—On Tuesday, Feb. 14, and the two following days, was argued the case of Morgan v. London Dock Company, for alleged adulteration and deterioration of wine in the docks.—On Thursday, Feb. 16, in the case of Scully v. Ingram, verdict was nominal for the plaintiff, subject to arbitration.—On the same day was argued the cause of Gye v. Hughes, for recovery of £5,000, paid for rent of Her Majesty's Theatre.

On Saturday, Feb. 11, at the half-yearly meeting of the Great Southern and Western Railway of Ireland, a dividend of five per cent. was declared.—On Monday, Feb. 13, the Mid-Kent Railway declared a dividend of four per cent.—On Tuesday, Feb. 14, London and Blackwall four per cent.; North-Eastern various dividends on different stock, from 5½ to 2½ per cent.—On Thursday, Feb. 16, the business in cotton at Liverpool was confined to six thousand bales.—On the same day the wheat trade assumed a firmer tone, and two shillings advance upon last week's rates was readily paid.—On the same day Consols closed at 94½ 94½ for money; 94½ 94½ for the account. The French Three per cent. Rentes were 67½ 65c., both for money and account.

FOREIGN.

On Saturday, Feb. 11, the Paris journal *La Presse* received a warning for "mixing false news with malevolent remarks."—On Sunday, Feb. 12, Prince Gortschakoff informed the French Government that Russia considers a conference of the five Great Powers necessary.—On Monday, Feb. 13, the ex-Grand Duke of Tuscany arrived in Paris.—On Tuesday, Feb. 14, the *Moniteur* announced that the opening of the session of the legislative body and the Senate is adjourned to the 1st of March.

On Tuesday, Feb. 14, it was announced in Berlin that Prussia has not given in her adhesion to the English proposals; and that the statement of an approaching conference of the four Powers without Austria is false.

On Tuesday, Feb. 14, letters from Naples state that the King had ordered the release of prisoners arrested on suspicion: in Sicily the barbarity of the police increases.

On Tuesday, Feb. 14, Bishop Monrad, who had been asked by the King of Denmark to form a ministry with unlimited powers, gave his consent.

On Wednesday, Feb. 15, arrived New York news to Feb. 3. Mr. Pennington (republican) was chosen Speaker by Congress on Feb. 1.—On Feb. 2, fifty lives were lost at a fire in Elm-street, New York.—On Feb. 3, the explosion of a boiler at a factory in Brooklyn buried fifteen workmen in the ruins of the building.

On Tuesday, Feb. 14, arrived, *via* St. Petersburg, news from Peking to Dec. 4; the rebels were quarrelling, and the imperial troops had gained some victories; European vessels were at the mouth of the Peiho; the Russian mission was prospering.

ENTERTAINMENTS.

"THE Forest Keeper," a two-act drama, produced at DRURY LANE THEATRE on Monday, is a feeble specimen of the author's power, though the story he has taken for his foundation seems to have capabilities worthy of his greater industry, or the collaboration of a more skilful dramatist. The hero, *Christian Reynolds* (Mr. Charles Dillon) has, in Act I., a narrow escape of being an interesting character. He is a fine, honest French peasant, dotting on a handsome young wife, *Louise* (Miss Page), and their happiness is as prettily conveyed as their cottage home is skilfully painted. But the devotion of poor *Louise* to the noble family who reared her induces her to shelter one of its members, the proscribed royalist, *Duchamp* (Mr. H. Mellon). This is discovered, and the unhappy husband, after wildly attempting the life of his supposed rival, courts death in the ranks of the republican army. In Act II. (temp. 1815) he turns up a live but disbanded trooper. The waifs of Napoleon's beaten armies were at a sad discount in popular esteem in the year 1815; and our friend, happening to pass through a country town where the new shoots of Legitimism were prospering exceedingly, gets into a "difficulty" with the mob. Pelted and hunted down, he is sheltered by a local official, who is no other than the prime mover in his train of sorrows, the *qi-davant* proscriber, *M. Duchamp*. The audience are first led to suppose that this gentleman has married *Louise Reynolds*, in full belief of her

widowhood, but are afterwards informed, in clumsy fashion enough, that the wedding has somehow not been exactly consummated. The situation in which the lady appears with her daughter before the pair of husbands is an extremely delicate one, and, unfortunately, just as awkwardly handled. *Christian*—a mere trifle changed in seventeen years—is recognised mysteriously by his child, unborn when the separation occurred, yet not by her mother. The author may be said, in fact, to have got his play into a knot so tight, though simple, that, after dismally floundering in quest of a *dénouement*, he is obliged to take the good old remedy the knife, and that in jagged and untidy manner. We must still admit that though Mr. Roxby has next to no part at all, and one for Mr. Tilbury seems wedged in against the fitness of things, the first act is pleasing, and Mr. Dillon is pleasing too. Yet if "The Forest Keeper" is produced by the management under the impression that it offers a field for the display of the higher powers of Mr. Dillon, we must add that they have paid him and his ability but a sorry compliment.

At COVENT GARDEN, Mr. Leslie's operetta has apparently not answered either our expectations or those of the managers. We liked it; but the public having proved of the contrary opinion, we can but bow with the composer, who should at all events be counselled to try again. *En attendant* Mr. Wallace's great effort, "Lurline," which we are to enjoy next week, the English Opera Company have given the "Crown Diamonds," the "Rose of Castille," and "La Sonnambula." In the latter Miss Parepa fully sustains her reputation. She was called, recalled, and enthusiastically applauded, and we have every pleasure in chronicling her new success. Mr. Haigh's "Elvino" is at present suffering from a little nervousness; but with such a voice and so many qualifications Mr. Haigh should be of better cheer.

Matters are looking up at the ST. JAMES'S. Miss Wyndham has taken her attractions and her capital into the concern, and appeared on Saturday last very becomingly dressed, and singing very nicely, as *Anna* in a new burlesque on certain passages in the *Æneid*, entitled "Dido." Mr. Charles Young is really very clever. His make up and "business" as the forlorn Queen materially aid the young author, who has at present a long stern chase ere he may get abreast of Messrs. Talfourd and Byron, not to speak of Panché. *Dido* run mad, not in purple nor white satin, but on Margate sands, Balmoral boots, wide-brimmed straw hat, and in fact in a complete sea-side toilette *à la mode*, makes an amusing figure *per se*, and Mr. Young fills up the picture completely. On Monday a neat little piece from the French, by Mr. Palgrave Simpson, was very nicely played by Miss Wyndham, Miss Nelly Moore, Mr. Craven, and Mr. G. Spencer. It is entitled "First Affections," and proves, or endeavours to prove, that they are by no means so fond as supposed; but may even end in the most dismal of all ways—boredom. The piece is charmingly put on the stage, and is an evident hit.

At the new fashionable STRAND, Mr. Wooler, a practised dramatist, has produced an exceedingly ingenious and amusing piece, called "Sisterly Service." Miss Sedgwick has appeared at the Haymarket as *Julia* in the "Hunchback," aided by Miss Swanborough as *Helen*, for the present only, we presume. Good as may be the *troupe* at the little Strand, it will never do for the fair lessee to leave it.

A number of well-known literary and artistic amateurs propose to perform, at the LYCEUM, on March 7th, the "School for Scandal," and a new extravaganza, written, jointly, by four or five of the most eminent hands in that species of composition. The profits of the entertainment are to swell a fund now raising for the families of two deceased literary men. The undertaking is by no means a light one for our confrères, and we hope their efforts will be supported by solid sympathy from the public.

PARLIAMENT.

ON Friday the Commercial Treaty between England and France was laid on the table by Lord Wodehouse. The vexed question of the annexation of Savoy and Nice was again raised by the Marquis of NORMANBY, in reply to whom Earl GRANVILLE admitted that communications had recently taken place between the two Governments, but not of an official character. Lord BROUGHAM, who has of late exhibited himself somewhat in the character of the apologist of Mr. BRYAN KING, presented a petition from Mr. KING on the subject of the Sunday riots at St. George's in the East. Lord BROUGHAM made some strong remarks on the rioters, but none on the author of the riots. Lord DUNGEON postponed his motion on the subject of Sunday sermons in theatres to the 24th, and though pressed strongly by the Lord CHANCELLOR, the Archbishop of CANTERBURY, and the Bishop of LONDON, to abandon it altogether, refused to do so. On Monday the Indictable Offences Bill was introduced for second reading by Lord CHILMSFORD; a bill intended to give another blow to the Grand Jury system, a system described by the noble and learned lord as the "hope of London thieves." The Lord CHANCELLOR remarked that though he should not oppose the second reading, he considered the question at issue was surrounded with great difficulties; and therefore that the Bill ought to be framed with great caution. He must, however, protest against doing away with Grand Juries in all cases, though he quite admitted that that tribunal in many instances was useless and the parent of abuses. Lord BROUGHAM said he had always proposed to make alterations in the Grand Jury system, though not to encroach so much on its functions as his Bill proposed to do. Lord WESLEYDALE objected to the unqualified abolition of Grand Juries, as he considered they were a great protection to innocence. The Bill was read a second time. In reply to remarks from the Earl of CARNARVON, the Duke of Newcastle said negotiations had been commenced with the Hudson Bay Company for the transfer at once, or by degrees, of the power and rights over the territories enjoyed by that Company. He believed the directors were willing to make the transfer for an adequate compensation. The St. George's in the East scandal was revived by Lord ENRY, who presented a petition from the vestry of that parish complaining of the grievance under which the parish laboured. The noble Lord remarked that in a recent petition it was asserted that the parish had always been noted for its "devoted attachment to the Church and its loyal obedience to the crown," until the appointment of Mr. BRYAN KING and the introduction by him of unaccustomed forms and

vestments, which had the effect of emptying the Church and driving the parishioners into open outrage. The parishioners consider that the purpose of Mr. B. KING was to pave the way for the substitution of the Roman Catholic creed and practices in place of Protestantism, and as the law appeared insufficient to deal with the grievance, the petitions wished for some efficient means to be provided by Parliament. The Bishop of Exeter defended Mr. KING, who had, he asserted, in all he had done and attempted, acted in conformity with the law. Lord BROUGHAM took the side of the law, and contended that whatever the practices or objects of Mr. KING—right or wrong—the law must not be violated. The Bishop of London said sixty policemen in the church had been found sufficient to suppress popular feeling last Sunday. This was, however, an unsatisfactory state of things. He very much doubted the accuracy of what had fallen from the Bishop of Exeter relative to the legality of Mr. BRYAN KING's doings. His suggestion for the healing of the differences was, to renew his offer of deciding the matter if both parties would leave it in his hands and agree to be bound by his decision. —The Marquis of NORMANBY, on Wednesday, brought before their lordships the whole question of Italy from his peculiar point of view. He considered that the Italians were coerced into their present attitude of liberty; that they did not want to become an independent nation, or to change the old system for the new. The presence of Signor BUONCOMPAGNI was an insult, and it was scandalous that HER MAJESTY'S representatives should have paid him official court. Earl GRANVILLE took a totally opposite view of matters, and strongly defended Signor BUONCOMPAGNI. The noble marquis, he considered, had been deceived on the subject of Italian wishes and Italian nationality by correspondents of no weight or authority. The Earl of MALMESBURY took occasion to justify his foreign policy when in office, and hoped that Government would not abandon the principle of non-intervention laid down by the last Government in the affairs of Italy. The Marquis of CLANRICARDE could not concur in the speech or the views of Lord NORMANBY. The Earl of DERBY wished to know whether instructions had been sent to our representative to pay official honours to Signor BUONCOMPAGNI, and whether any official correspondence with France on the subject of the annexation of Nice and Savoy had recently passed. Earl GRANVILLE said no further correspondence with France had occurred; and with respect to our representative, the only instructions sent out were for him to treat Signor BUONCOMPAGNI just as he had treated his predecessors.

Friday, in the Commons, was remarkable for the exposition of the deferred Budget. The CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER, with that unrivalled elocutionary ability which he possesses, for the space of nearly four hours, kept a full house in fixed and earnest attention upon statements and propositions, that, whatever may be their final reception, were enshrined in such matchless and glowing language as to make even dry statistics pleasant and thoroughly endurable. Monday week was, after some debate, fixed upon as the day on which to take the formal discussion on the Budget. An important inquiry was made on Monday by Sir J. PAKINGTON relative to the position of the question of French Encroachments on our Newfoundland Fisheries. The reply of Lord J. RUSSELL was not altogether satisfactory; the Commissioners, French and English, had made their respective reports, but the French Government had not yet signified its decision or acquiescence on the matters in dispute. China was the subject that engrossed the largest share of the attention and time of sitting of the House. Mr. B. COCHRANE introduced the matter by inquiring what were our relations with China, and what the instructions sent out to our representative. Admiral SEYMOUR vindicated his own conduct, which officials in China had impugned, and earnestly implored Government to mingle moderation with their determination to bring the Chinese to a proper sense of what was due to this country. Lord J. RUSSELL defended Mr. BRUCE, and considered that, under existing circumstances, he was justified in acting as he had done, and that Mr. BRUCE had done the best he could for the honour of the country, though the event turned out disastrously. The British Government would act with moderation; but, at the same time, the terms of the treaty of Tien-tsin must be carried out by fair or by forcible means. Sir DE LACY EVANS remarked that the noble lord's explanation and statement were not altogether satisfactory, as it did not touch upon the war in which we evidently should shortly be engaged with the Emperor of China. Sir C. NAPIER passed a just eulogium on the bravery of Admiral HOPE, and considered that some reward, such as the Victoria Cross, ought to be conferred on him. Lord PALMERSTON counselled the postponement of the discussion until further accounts had come from China, and this recommendation being adopted, the subject dropped. An appeal having been made to Mr. KINGLAKE to postpone his motion on Savoy, the hon. member acceded to it, but with great reluctance. The navy estimates were then brought on by Lord CLARENCE PAGET, who reviewed the position of England, as to her navy, and as compared with the navies of other countries, especially France and Russia. The noble lord appeared to be guided by the rule that the aggregate naval power of England, as a measure of protection, ought to be somewhere about the aggregate of the joint navies of France and Russia. After going through a series of valuable statistics, the noble lord concluded by moving for a vote of 85,500 men for the naval service of the year. Sir J. PAKINGTON took credit, and not unfairly, for the efforts made by the last ministry to improve the naval defences of the country. The present Government were deserving of full credit for having so ably followed out the policy laid down by their predecessors. Sir CHARLES NAPIER was induced to think that our navy was now in a prosperous and efficient state. Mr. WHITBREAD said it was impossible to prescribe the exact number of line-of-battle ships for the country to keep up. The discussion was adjourned, but not before the vote was agreed to. —Tuesday was remarkable for the anti-Maynooth oration of Mr. SPOONER. The hon. member made good use of old arguments, and brought forward some new circumstances in support of his theory and proposition, founded on the conduct of the Ultramontane Irish priesthood in the matter of the Pope's temporal claims and the affairs of Italy. The hon. member specially indicated the rabid outpourings of a paper called the *Irishman*, the property, as asserted, of the well-known JOHN MITCHELL, and asked whether Government intended to administer a dose of Attorney-General by way of allaying the inflammatory action and condition of the leading articles. The hon. member concluded with the usual motion to with-

draw the annual grant from Maynooth. Mr. LONG seconded the motion, mainly on the ground that the Roman Catholics were sufficiently wealthy to do without eleemosynary grants from the Legislature. Mr. O'BRIEN and Mr. POPE HENNESSY defended the Irish priests from the charge of want of loyalty. Mr. NEWDEGATE, who hitherto has appeared as Mr. SPOONER's *fidus Achates*, was content with uplifting his voice in favour of the motion. Mr. HADFIELD was opposed to Maynooth grants in particular, and all grants for religious purposes in general. Mr. CARDWELL considered that the recurrence of these motions was to be deprecated, as they only tended to unsettle the religious institutions of Ireland. The vote, on a division, was lost by 186 to 128. Mr. P. URQUHART brought forward a motion for an address to HER MAJESTY, praying that the royal consent to certain portions of the statutes of Trinity and St. John's Colleges be withheld. The hon. member, whose purpose was understood to have regard to Roman Catholic objects, argued the question on the ground that the portions of the Statutes objected to operated injuriously on the real interests of the university. Mr. BAINES in the dissenters' interest seconded the motion. Lord STANLEY could not ignore the compromise recently entered into by the commissioners, and should therefore oppose the motion. Mr. WALPOLE followed on the same side, and after some further discussion Mr. URQUHART consented to withdraw the motion. The Corrupt Practices Bill came under discussion on Wednesday. Mr. MELLOR moved the second reading, and urged the adoption of the measure by recommending Parliament to show itself in earnest on the subject of bribery at Elections, "otherwise representative institutions would become the scorn of Europe." Mr. HUNT gave a qualified support to the Bill. Sir F. GOLDSMID could not assent to the principle which appeared to pervade the Bill, that of inflicting heavy punishments in cases of bribery. Mr. COLLIER considered that unless a severe penalty was adjudged in cases of bribery, the public would refuse to believe the House was in earnest in its efforts to suppress the offence. Sir G. GREY did not quite approve of the penalty of hard labour in addition to imprisonment. He thought the best course would be to refer the Bill to a select committee. After a good deal more discussion, the motion for the second reading of the Bill was withdrawn. The motion of Mr. JAMES for a select committee to inquire into the operation of and effect of the Corrupt Practices Prevention Act was agreed to. The Adulteration of Food and Drink Bill was read a second time. —On Thursday Lord REDESDALE brought in a Bill to regulate the weight to be carried by horses kept for racing purposes. He thought no horse carrying less than seven stone should start for any race. The Bill was read a first time. In the Commons Sir ROBERT PEARL and Mr. FITZGERALD asked some questions relative to the threatened annexation of Savoy and Nice. Lord J. RUSSELL said that the Government had received no official information with respect to the views of France relative to the annexation in question; but he understood it had been communicated by the Government of France to Sardinia, that if the territory of the latter kingdom were increased in consequence of the addition of a portion of Central Italy, that France would not consider her frontier sufficiently secure unless she obtained the annexation of the provinces alluded to. After this, Mr. WILLIAMS made a long speech about flogging in the army and navy; and Sir CHARLES NAPIER made some strong observations on the Admiralty with regard to manning the navy.

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