

MONTALEMBERT AND HIS WORK.

A Lecture Delivered By Rev. Dr. Hogan

Before the Catholic Commercial Club, Dublin, Ireland His Sympathy for Ireland and the People Referred to in Eloquent Terms.

The closing lecture of the present season of the Literary and Debating Society of the Catholic Commercial Club, Dublin, was delivered on Thursday by the Rev. J. F. Hogan, D.D., his subject being the Count de Montalembert.

On the motion of Mr. R. J. O'Mulrenin, the chair was taken by Rev. Father Darlington, S. J. There were also present Rev. F. O'Neill, Dr. Cox, Mr. P. J. O'Reilly, Mons. Guilgault, Messrs. W. E. White, J. C. Bergin, J. Mansfield, J. K. Bridgman, B. L. L. Keogh, Charles Dawson, J. P. McClure, P. Comerford, P. J. Massy, R. J. O'Mulrenin, T. J. Smith.

The chairman said in the name of everybody present he desired to offer a most hearty welcome to Dr. Hogan, who was peculiarly fitted to treat of the life of Montalembert. His residence in France, particularly in Paris, where the public life of Montalembert was passed, put him in the possession of facts and a knowledge of the influence at work which made that great man. The name of Dr. Hogan was as distinguished in Paris as it was here in Ireland (applause).

Rev. Dr. Hogan, who was warmly received, said he need offer no elaborate explanation for selecting Montalembert as the subject of his address. The members of the Catholic Club could scarcely be indifferent to the memory of one of the foremost Catholic men of letters the nineteenth century had produced. Those who were interested in art as well as literature must be attracted to one of the most refined critics and most enlightened judges of his time. Those who studied politics from the standpoint of general principles and laws must find a fruitful subject for reflection in the career of the man whose life work was one long effort to conciliate.

Liberty and Liberty

As he himself expressed it, to win over Liberalism to the Church and to win over the Church to Liberalism (applause). Those who have made such a spirited stand against Godless colleges with their bribes and temptations, must derive both satisfaction and courage from the example of the political leader who broke down the State monopoly of France, and after a campaign of thirty years, succeeded in rescuing millions of his countrymen from the hotbed of impiety and vice through which he himself had passed, and at the very thought of which he shuddered up to the last day of his life (cheers). Indeed in almost all the gifts and attributes of a Catholic leader Montalembert excelled. We are well aware that he made some mistakes. We know that he had many opponents to amongst the Catholics of France. We also admit that there is a large body of Catholics in France at the present day who charge Montalembert and his principles with many of the worst misfortunes that have overtaken their country both in Church and State in recent times. But whatever we may think of these contentions, whether we endorse his principles or condemn them, we must at all events admit that Montalembert was one of the most brilliant advocates of the doctrines of his school and the man in whom its most fascinating qualities were imperceptible. But in addition to these claims on our attention Montalembert was a life-long and devoted friend of Ireland. He loved our people and our country with a love begotten of faith but strengthened by personal experience and by a profound study of our history (applause). Possibly his sympathy for Ireland was in some measure due to the fact that his mother, whose name was Forbes, was a native of Ireland, and a niece, I believe, of the Earl of Granard at that time. At all events, at a very early age he conceived the project of writing a history of Ireland, and although he was never able to carry out his design the materials he collected served his purpose well when he came to deal with the 'Monks of the West.'

An Admirer of Irish Models.

He was an enthusiastic admirer of the Irish school of oratory. Grattan and Burke were the two models he thought of the political wisdom and weight that illuminated his speeches, Grattan on account of his pure and unadorned patriotism. Indeed, I do not think that any patriot of ancient Greece or of Rome, or of any nation in modern times, so completely fascinated the imagination of Montalembert as Grattan did. It was with such dispositions that the young Frenchman paid a visit to this country in 1830. He had just returned from Stockholm, where his father was Minister of France, and where he had gone to reside on the conclusion of his university studies at the College Ste. Barbe in Paris. The letters which he wrote to an intimate friend during the course of his visit have been published in recent years, and give a good idea of the impression which Ireland made on this young foreigner sixty years ago. In his first letter he describes his impressions of Dublin Bay and of the city. In the second he speaks of Wicklow, and particularly of Killybeggy Castle and of the Vale of Avoca. 'No,' he says, 'never in France or in England or in Holland or in Germany have I seen anything to compare with these wild and picturesque gorges of Wicklow. The islands in the Bay of Stockholm, which until recently I preferred to everything else, are now outshined in my eyes. I could give you anything like an adequate description of what I have seen in speaking much less in writing to you. Only imagine the strongest contrasts of imposing grandeur and of smiling loveliness—wild mountain streams leaping down

rocky shelves, making innumerable cascades, now brawling over the shallows, now fretting along the ravine in the matted shade, now murmuring under the thickets and the trees, and then stealing quietly forth through the green meadows that stretch along the valleys. Here are oaks of fabulous age and size; fields worthy of the Emerald Isle; old abbeys lonely in their desolation, their roofs as churches and desecrated shrines pleading to men and angels against the hands that have profaned them; modern castles of the purest and most airy Gothic cover this landscape with the most interesting, the most light hearted, the most poetic population in the world; remember it was here that Grattan passed his infancy, that he thought out his speeches along these torrents, that one of these mansions was given to him by his country in recognition of his services—that all these beautiful places have been sanctified and immortalized by the heroic exploits of the rebels of 1798—think of this and you will have some idea of what I must have felt during these last days' (applause).

A Terrible Dividing Line.

A short time later he writes from Carlow, where he had gone to visit Dr. Doyle: 'You have no idea of the terrible dividing line that separates Catholics and Protestants in this country. All the rich are Protestants, all the poor are Catholics. And when we remember that these poor Catholics, in addition to the rent they have to pay to harsh and exacting landlords, are compelled to pay tithes to the Anglican clergy to subsidize and keep in repair countless Protestant churches; that they rarely have wherewith to purchase meat or bread; and that, in spite of all this, they maintain at their own expense the churches, presbyteries and schools required for the service of the faith which no persecution could compel them to abjure, I think we may well say that this is a unique people, and that its like is not to be found in Europe.' From Cork he wrote a beautiful description of a Mass he heard in a country chapel at Blarney. Montalembert on this occasion paid a short visit to O'Connell at Derrynane, to Killarney, the Giant's Causeway, and Belfast. He also spent a few days with the Duke of Leinster at Carton, during which he paid several visits to Maynooth College, of which Archbishop Murray was then President. Of all these visits he has left most vivid and interesting sketches in his letters. But he was soon compelled to return to France. In that country events were hastening onward in which he was destined to take a leading part. The Monarchy of July had already been proclaimed. Catholics of France, just then beginning for the first time since the Revolution to be conscious of their strength, were determined to submit no longer in peace and humbleness to the crushing oppression of the State. The Charter of Louis XVIII. had promised them indeed freedom of education; but the Charter had remained a dead letter. A band of resolute men determined to sound a new note in these old controversies, to summon their Catholic comrades to give up sighing for dynasties and charters and to march under a new banner—the banner of liberty. The leaders of the new movement were

Lamennais, Lacordaire and Montalembert.

In all such movements a newspaper is a necessity. The new Liberals started a newspaper, which during the thirteen months of its existence attracted more attention than any journal in the world. They called it the Avenir—the Future—and announced their programme in the following words: 'The majority of Frenchmen wish for religion and freedom. No stable order is possible if these two are looked upon as hostile to each other. The two chief forces of society cannot be in conflict without producing divisions and confusion. On their union—natural and even necessary as it is—depends the safety of the future (applause). The policy of the Avenir was courageous as it was generous. But its authors made the fatal mistake of taking matters so closely affecting the Church entirely into their own hands without consulting its rulers, either in France or in Rome. The Bishops got alarmed at the tone and methods as well as at the theoretical teaching of the Avenir. They condemned the paper, and it was suspended in obedience to their authority, but its founders appealed to the Holy See, and proceeded to Rome to prosecute their appeal. Their efforts, however, proved of no avail: after considerable delay Pope Gregory XVI. pronounced against them in the Encyclical 'Mirari Vosdevem.' It was not without a severe mental struggle that Montalembert abandoned his favorite project. For a while he clung affectionately to his old master, but when he read a few of the chapters of 'Les Paroles d'Un Croisant,' written by Lamennais on his return to France, he was terrified at the dangers to which extreme theories lead. He saw that Lamennais was lost beyond recall, and as he turned to view the whole fabric of Catholicism in its constitution, its rulers, its doctrine, its history, its art, its poetry, its architecture, in all the benefits it had conferred upon the world, he put from him the horrible idea of turning his back upon all that he had loved and revered because a few of his cherished theories, doubtful even to himself, had been disapproved by the Father of Christendom. This reverie did not, however, compel Montalembert to abandon either his love of liberty or

The Liberal Tendencies of His Mind.

It merely compelled him to work in harmony with the rulers of the Church in matters that affected the interests of religion. Liberty, such as Montalembert understood it, in its essential nature was not, and could not be, condemned by the Church. It was with this conception of liberty in his mind and in his heart that Montalembert entered on his political career and took part in the discussion of every great question that arose in France and in the world for twenty-five years. It was in virtue of these principles that he advocated the independence of Belgium, the independence of Greece, the freedom of Poland, the emancipation of Ireland, the abolition of negro slavery, the independence of the Holy See. In the internal affairs of France his name is most intimately associated with the law on the 'Freedom of Education.' He himself had gone

through the State schools and knew what they were. It required the Revolution of 1848 to make the rulers of France understand that the Catholics were in earnest. But the Revolution came and the monopoly was broken down, and although the Catholics of France have much to complain of in the injustice with which they are treated at the present day, as long as the principle of liberty is admitted there is always hope for the future. Having referred to Montalembert's 'Monks of the West' and 'Life of Elizabeth of Hungary,' Dr. Hogan said: 'With many of the political, literary, artistic, and religious controversies in which Montalembert took part time will not allow me to deal. I trust, however, that I have given sufficient reasons for my belief that Montalembert deserves to be remembered amongst us. As Catholics we revere the character and bless the memory of one of the noblest champions of our faith, and as Irishmen we give tonight a small pledge of our gratitude to the statesman and the writer whose eloquent voice was heard over the civilized world in protest against the oppression of our forefathers (loud applause).

Mr. Charles Dawson, in moving a vote of thanks to the lecturer, said he was a professor of modern languages at Maynooth. When they wanted lectures on scientific subjects they had to go to Right Rev. Mgr. Molloy, who had studied in the laboratory at Maynooth. When they wanted history—ecclesiastical history and the history of Ireland—and a noble and eloquent exponent of it, who had had to look to but such men as the Bishop of Clonfert, an honour to Maynooth? Some of the most sublime discoveries in electricity were made in Maynooth by Father Carroll, who undoubtedly discovered the inductive coil. To all these scientific attainments men like Dr. Hogan had added literary and historic additions, proof of which he had given to-night (applause). Church and liberty both in France and here, thank God, would become united, and would bring all the blessings we could desire for the country in which we lived (applause).

M. Guilgault, in seconding the motion, said Montalembert was born in the same country in which he was (applause). Montalembert, they were told, loved Ireland, indeed every Frenchman had come to this country, he thought, loved Ireland (applause).

The vote was carried by acclamation.

Rev. Dr. Hogan, in acknowledging the vote, thanked Mr. Dawson for his reference to Maynooth. Maynooth was the centre and cradle of the religious life of Ireland, and there was no doubt but that the spirit that reigned in Maynooth of true, genuine religion and patriotism was as strong now as it was at any time in the history of Ireland in the hearts of the clergy of this country (applause).

WAR AND ITS RESULTS.

An Outline of Some of the Financial Features.

Feeding and Clothing an Army—The Laws Governing Nations in Such Terrible Undertakings, and Other Matters.

How few people are there who carefully scan the bulletins of the sensational press, and who speak callously of the frightful carnage of a great battle, ever give the matter a more serious thought than the gratification of a morbid sense of curiosity as to how many souls it is possible for the legalized butchery of war to launch into eternity. Even the most important things outside the mere killing are lost sight of. Few people stop to figure out how much it costs to kill a man, or how much it costs to feed and clothe the man who kills him, while contraband of war is a mysterious term in everybody's mouth, with never an idea attached to it as to what it means.

Feeding and Clothing an Army.

In the present instance, the following studies of these matters must be interesting: Great care is being given to the feeding, clothing, medical requirements and sanitary arrangements for the American army that is to invade Cuba. The island has the reputation of being a hotbed of miasma, where fever and other virulent diseases lie in wait for the unacclimated.

Experts in the Bureau of Subsistence of the War Department believe that the dangers from the climate of Cuba have been grossly exaggerated. The officers in charge of the American army of invasion will not permit their troops to suffer from the exposure, neglect and privation which have caused the death of thousands of young Spanish recruits.

The medical department of the army has also given much attention to the subject, and the troops who go to Cuba will be equipped to withstand the climate.

Special clothing adapted to the hot season of the tropics will be provided for every man in the service. These clothes will not be made of canvas, but of a new light material resembling the 'khaki' worn by the British troops in India.

In design the uniform will have the appearance of a shooting suit.

The cap will be of canvas and the shoes of tan leather.

Only the officers will wear hats, which will be turned up at the side like those of the Cubans and fastened with a rosette.

This uniform will be decidedly light and admirably suited to the needs of the service.

In each one of the uniforms will be a man who knows he has a country behind him that will keep him supplied with proper rations and all necessary care in health or in sickness.

The poor Spanish soldiers owe their decimation by disease to the absolute lack of all these things.

A line of communication with Key West will be maintained in order that

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fresh supplies for the army can be sent over at all times.

Live cattle may be shipped to provide an ample quantity of fresh beef, as the department does not intend to let the men use salt meats more than is unavoidable.

Fresh bread will be baked for the army and an abundance of fresh vegetables will be furnished from the gardens of the South. Very little canned stuff will be used.

Provision will be made for boiling all water before it is used to drink, and no liquor will be allowed in the camps, as it is said the abstainer from alcohol can best resist the danger of the tropical swamps. Lime juice, pickles and vinegar will be largely used.

The medical staff will have supplies of condensed milk and extract of beef for the diet of wounded men, and the Subsistence Bureau will supply at cost price a long list of extra articles.

Officers or men will be able to purchase many luxuries without being obliged to death by the old style 'sutler.'

Among the articles thus obtainable will be evaporated apples, green corn, peas, peaches, oatmeal, sugar cured ham, lard, sardines, condensed milk, smoked beef tongue, ginger, cheese, mustard and red pepper.

From the same sources they may also obtain briar smoking pipes, chewing tobacco, smoking tobacco, glycerine toilet soap, pencils, pens, penholders, envelopes, notepaper, black ink, nose blacking, blacking brushes, brooms, whisks, hair-brushes, toothbrushes, fine smoothed combs, handkerchiefs, safety matches, shoestrings, towels, tin handbasins, can openers, cotton thread, linen thread, needle boxes, needles, trousers buttons and metal polish for their equipments.

Cornmeal and wheat flour will be provided also, but no butter. This the men will have only when they can obtain it from the inhabitants.

On the march the 'travel ration' will be used daily to groups of soldiers.

This ration consists of 100 pounds of bread, 75 pounds of canned beef, 25 pounds baked beans, 8 pounds browned coffee and 15 pounds sugar.

On the fourth day each man will receive a pound of canned tomatoes.

Whenever circumstances permit—that is, when not engaged in actual war—pepper, salt and candles will be supplied in addition to the above.

Owing to the miserable roads of Cuba, the transportation of the wounded will present a serious problem.

Ambulances of any kind of wheeled vehicles cannot be much used, so it will be necessary to carry wounded men on mule back or on hand litters.

Portable ice machines will be carried by the medical staff, as ice is often an indispensable requisite for sick and wounded men.

By the use of this small and light apparatus, operated by ammonia, sufficient ice can be made in any climate to provide for the sick and for several surgical operations.

Great care will be exercised with respect to the water used by our troops. Besides boiling it, all drinking water will be filtered through a germ proof filter which has been adopted by the War Department.

A sufficient number of these filters will be carried by the commissaries to provide abundance of pure water for the men whether in camp or on the march.

With all these precautions taken for the physical comfort and safety of the troops it is believed by the military authorities that the climate of Cuba will possess no terrors for them.

Well fed, suitably clothed and provided with up-to-date arms and accoutrements, they will be ready for any test to which they may be put.

The housing of the men in camp will be also carefully attended to.

Each man will sleep in a hammock raised off the ground, and water proof tents will be supplied in sufficient quantities to shelter every man in the service.

In and Around Cuba.

It is not expected that Spain will invade the United States, nor that American troops will be landed in Spain.

Spain is unable to do this, and the United States has no desire to inflict injury on Spain beyond abolishing her rule in Cuba.

The conditions in and around Cuba are now pretty well understood by the American people, who have been watching the blockade by Admiral Sampson's fleet with intense interest.

The Philippine Islands are about 15,000 miles away by the sea route that must be travelled to reach them from New York.

There are some 1,200 islands in the group, containing an area of about three and a half times that of Cuba, and a considerably larger surface than Great Britain.

The population is over 5,000,000, a majority of whom are the native Indians, who are only semi-civilized.

Many of them are still governed practically by their native princes.

In Manila, the capital, and at the ports of Zebu and Iloilo, have happened

these terrible exhibitions known as 'running amuck.'

In these the native Indian turns himself loose armed with knives, revolvers or other weapons, and rushes along a crowded thoroughfare slaying as he goes, until he is finally killed like a mad dog.

It was two of these Manila Indians who ran amuck on the American ship, Frank N. Thyser, a few years ago, killed or wounded the entire crew, and set the ship adrift.

When they had done all the damage they could they jumped into the sea.

The products of the Philippines are similar to those of Cuba, sugar and tobacco being the principal crops.

Civilization as she is in Spain is the only brand of civilization yet known there, but the people are trying to set up a modern government of their own.

Contraband of War.

A general definition of contraband of war is 'anything that can be useful to the enemy.'

Of course this includes guns, ammunition, food for soldiers.

It even includes sulphur intended for manufacturing, but which might be used in war.

There are disputes in all wars as to certain articles, the principal one in question in the present war being coal. The Italian Chamber of Deputies has decided that coal is not contraband of war.

The United States Government holds that it is.

A decision by the powers may be necessary in order to settle the question.

During our civil war England took strong interest in the subject and made both parties to the conflict aware that coal was decidedly contraband.

Neither Union nor Confederate steamers could obtain a cargo of coal in England's ports.

When in 1864 a Confederate warship went to Halifax with her fires at out, she was allowed to burn just enough coal to reach the nearest friendly port.

A careful computation was made from her log and steaming record and the exact amount of coal required was weighed out to her in sacks of 100 pounds each.

The importance of a neutral power really remaining neutral was proved in the case of the Alabama claims, in which England was obliged to pay the United States \$15,000,000 for her failure to live up to the neutrality agreement.

Cost of Killing.

War is an expensive luxury. The cost per day of maintaining in commission an ordinary warship is \$1,500.

The present outfit for the United States Navy is more than \$50,000 a day.

On a peace footing it cost the Government \$30,000,000 to maintain the cruiser New York during 1897.

The expense was divided into pay for officers, crew and marines, \$27,762,762; rations, \$5,512,600; equipment, \$6,725,211; navigation, \$2,216,583; ordnance, \$4,733,700; construction and repair, \$9,043,000; and steam engineering, \$2,830,146.

Besides these items there were small charges for medicines and navy yard repairs.

The Maine's expense account for 1897 was \$282,416.48, the pay roll being \$154,120.50.

The cost of operating these ships in battle is, as yet, an unknown quantity. The men who handle them must be more skilled in their several departments than those who used to fight the old wooden ships that won so many battles.

A single charge of ammunition for some of the great guns costs as much as \$500. Such a shot may do a million dollars' worth of damage to the adversary against whom it is sent.

The single item of coal supply for a man-of-war means an outlay of from \$7,000 to \$10,000 to fill her bunkers.

No estimate of any value can be made in advance of the loss of lives and property that may result from a war.

These losses are always great and often irreparable, but as no person can set a cash value on the life of one who is dear, the mortality item of the cost of war has to be left out of the question.

The war has not yet fairly begun, but it is already costing the United States at the rate of \$25,000,000 a month, or \$300,000,000 a year.

Army operations for a similar period would amount to a vastly larger sum, because of the much greater number of men employed.

It is safe to say that at least \$500,000,000 would be spent in a year of war with Spain, without making allowance for losses of warships and merchantmen, or for other damages which the enemy might inflict.

SOME SAMPLE FIGURES.

Union Navy in 4 years of war cost..... \$310,000,000

Union Army in 4 years of war cost..... 2,714,000,000

Closing months of war, Union expenses, per day..... 3,000,000

Property destroyed by civil war, North and South..... 100,000,000

Revolutionary war cost U.S. 135,193,700

War of 1812 cost U.S. 107,153,000

Number of men killed, died of wounds, &c., in civil war..... 803,000

Great Britain has spent in war in 300 years..... \$6,795,000,000

Such are the money costs of war.

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