

THE WEEK:

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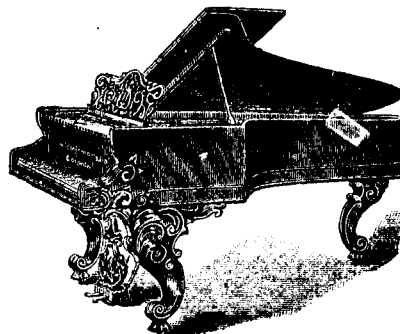
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COMMERCIAL UNION.

It is a pleasure to find that advocates of commercial union with the United States are frankly facing the fact that enlarged intercourse cannot take place without affecting Canada in other than an economic way. The disavowal of Annexation as a necessary sequence of the proposed treaty may be conceded, without accepting the view that the effect of the measure would be in the best interests of this country politically any more than commercially. The economic arguments as a whole would apply more properly to universal Free Trade, because then the evils of discrimination would not have to be weighed. Just now the more violent advocates of the new departure, who see in it a sure and speedy means of redressing all our country's wrongs, may be passed lightly by. Argument will be lost on those who entrench themselves behind vague and sonorous phrases, and who believe that Nature has, all at once, become a partisan of their cause. Fatalism is out of place here, in this age. We are enjoined to "bow to the decrees of Nature," to "obey the natural law of development," and to choose our "natural markets." This is simply trampling on those weaker brethren who think that a natural market is not one where the same articles are produced, who have not seen the decrees referred to, and who believe that all development worthy of the name, either in an individual or a community, must arise by an act of genesis from within. A treaty would not induce a leopard to change his spots, though it might make Newcastle a good market to take coal to.

Less extreme champions of the cause, who have much to say on economic grounds that is entitled to respectful consideration, are content to dismiss other aspects of the case as sentimental merely. This comfortable plea has its drawbacks, the chief of which is that it is impossible to arrive at a true view of the case on the narrower basis. When past history is put into the witness box it may be relied upon to speak the truth. All we have to do is to see that the evidence is relevant, or how much of it is so. The Reciprocity Treaty of 1854 has been used very much in the rural districts; for several reasons great caution is necessary in accepting conclusions drawn from this source. Not only was its scope more limited, and the feature of discrimination absent from it, but during the existence of that treaty two great wars happened, both of which led to a condition of affairs materially favourable to Canada. The Crimean War cut off from the markets of Western Europe the chief competitor of this continent in breadstuffs, and led to high prices for our main articles of export. The same degree of prosperity would not again be brought about by even a larger war, because Europe is now less dependent on a few sources of supply than then. The lavish expenditure of the United States during their civil war was even more advantageous to Canada commercially. These abnormal conditions prevailed during the greater part of the time the treaty was in operation, and it would be difficult, if not impossible, to say now just what the result would have been in ordinary circumstances. Another hardly less important factor further interferes with arguments based upon that period. In 1854 Canada was without manufactures, and

so continued during the early years of Confederation; since then a vigorous policy has been at work, having for its object the fostering of native industries. To such an extent has this been carried that manufacturing enterprises have not only been protected, they have been coddled perhaps into premature maturity in many cases. Municipalities, by means of the bonus system, have vied with the Ottawa Government in bringing about this changed condition of affairs. The wisdom or unwisdom of this policy it is unnecessary to deal with; its results, however, demand recognition at the present time. It is true that the mercantile and agricultural interests of Canada suffered very much from the abrogation of the Reciprocity Treaty, and the question is, how much of the inconvenience felt was due to the absence of the conditions which have since arisen. It must be also borne in mind that the mere change in the current of trade is sufficient to account for much loss even when such change is certain to be of future benefit.

The Union of England and Scotland has been instanced as illustrating the benefit Commercial Union would confer upon us. Again the cases are not parallel ones. For a century before the Union the two countries had been under one crown. Both had agreed to the substitution of William and Mary for James; but the Scottish Act of Security of 1703-4 awoke England to the possibility of Scotland adopting a different policy on the demise of Anne, and the feeling in Scotland was such that a league with France was not unlikely to be brought about. So far as England was concerned the Union was agreed to upon high political grounds. The terrible struggle with Louis XIV. was actually going on at the time. Gibraltar was taken; the Battles of Blenheim and Ramilies had been won, but the end no man could foresee. The Union proved indeed a happy event, and commercial considerations largely influenced Scotland, but they do her an injustice who say it was mere trade with England she sought; that had been declined in the reign of Edward I., and many times in the intervening four centuries. What Scotland asked and got was equal opportunities in those larger fields which the army and fleet of England were giving her access to in Asia and America. Scottish energy, courage, administrative capacity, and commercial enterprise have shone as brightly in India as in Canada. That union encouraged the exodus from Scotland, and it has never been regarded as an injury to her. How different is the case of Commercial Union. It is to stop our exodus. It would establish more intimate relations with a Power that has never been friendly with us, whose government and policy we have no reason to esteem, and at the same time it would discriminate against a people whose government and policy we have every reason to love, and who defended us in our hour of need. It would be a crime to revive past mistakes, for which we are probably as much to blame as our neighbours; we have few

Wrongs unredressed or insults unavenged;

and they may be sentimental people who say that the possible enemies of Great Britain cannot be preferred by us to her. They are sentimental who say that we should not forsake the morally great and choose the morally little for no better reason than that we may trade our fish, flesh, and fowl, our vegetables and our minerals, for certain manufactured goods that we ought to be able to produce in our midst.

The success of the Free Trade agitation formed an epoch in British history, and entirely different as are all the surrounding circumstances from our own, some features of it may merit our attention at this juncture. If ever an agitation had the appearance of being utterly selfish, that against the Corn Laws did so appear. It was forced on the country by a particular class in one district, which supplied the immense sums needed to ensure success. The soul of the movement was a journalist, who for eight years gave to the cause more space in his newspaper than has ever been given to a single subject. He and the able men who supported, and afterwards overshadowed, him laboured to show that the interest of the district and of the nation at large were identical. They succeeded so well that the leader of the party most bitterly opposed to the movement became its champion; and the principles advocated were afterwards elevated into a sort of national religion. Four years before his conversion, Sir Robert Peel made this remarkable admission: "The prosperity of manufactures in this country is of more importance to the interests of this country than any system of corn laws whatever." One conclusion we venture to draw from this is, that in national movements of wide scope personal and

local considerations are lost. It is as little important in discussing Commercial Union to establish that those who oppose it are interested manufacturers, as it would be were it shown that of those who advocate it some seek to boom a foreign enterprise. The introducers of such matters belittle the intelligence of those they address, and do not permanently advance the cause they plead.

The most distinguished advocate of the proposed change has expressed his satisfaction that a question affecting the welfare of the people is replacing less worthy public topics. We are under obligations to those who have compelled us to re-examine the reason of our separate existence, and to look the future honestly in the face. If these be done calmly and in a proper spirit, the discussion may be the means of unifying public sentiment, many cobwebs will disappear, and our manifest destiny may be made clear and a part of the common consciousness of us all. Strikingly, can something not unlike this be seen in the results produced by the Free Trade discussion? Not only were the two historic parties finally broken up, but the newer Chartist cause, that made so deep a mark on the literature of the second quarter of this century, collapsed soon after the voluntary dissolution of the League. It may almost be said that the old Tory party committed suicide. When Lord John Manners, in an attempt to resuscitate it under another name, wrote the couplet:

Let wealth and commerce, laws and learning, die,
But give us back our old nobility,

he gave it its *coup de grace*, and at the same time wrote its epitaph, little as he intended to do either. The Whigs did not lose their identity in the new Liberal party. They did not embrace the *laissez faire* doctrine altogether, any more than they believe in the opposite extreme now current that wealth and happiness are in the gift of government, and that people can be made virtuous by an Act of Parliament. Whig common sense has formed the bridge that has held together the party through this radical change of spirit. The want of cohesion, other than personal attachment, in existing political parties in Canada, gives interest to the speculation as to what result would be produced should the question of Commercial Union be thrown into the political arena as a living issue. If a common patriotic feeling equally prevailed in every section of the Dominion such an event could not be dreaded by any one; as matters are there is some ground for uneasiness.

Before the question takes its place in politics it has to be made apparent that Canada would gain by accepting the commercial hegemony of the United States. There is an approach to cruelty in those who lead the farmer to imagine that the duties now imposed by the latter government would find their way into his pocket were they abolished. The desire of change for its own sake is a danger that must not be overlooked. Confederation was to settle finally all our difficulties; then it was found that the National Policy was needed in order to completely dispose of them. Neither have done all that was too fondly predicted of them, though, it must be admitted, both have done more good than harm. According to Mulhall's latest figures, the most prosperous communities in the world are our Australian kinsmen. They have not needed a market at their doors, nor exclusive trade with sixty millions of people, to achieve this proud position. They have not even chosen to adopt our own measure of intercolonial free trade. Some sections of the Dominion still suffer from the old complaint of nine months winter and three months cold weather, and no treaty can alter this. Canada is tied and bound in many ways, but she is not so poor in spirit or in patience as to need the aid of sixty millions either to unloose the knots or to cut them.

W. H. CROSS.

NATION BUILDING.—IV.

In June, 1886, there died at Hong Hoa, Tonquin, a young soldier, whose name and family are honourably associated with the early years of Canadian history. M. Charles Marie Aurèle Pierre, Comte de Biencourt et Marquis de Pontrincourt, was at once a descendant of the founder of Acadia and a scion of that great house of Montmorency of which the first Bishop of Quebec was a member. In the beginning of the seventeenth century, his ancestor, Jean de Biencourt, Sieur de Pontrincourt, Baron de St. Just, was living quietly on his estate in Champagne, when he received a visit from an old companion in arms, M. de Monts, Sieur de Guast, who laid before him a plan for the formation of a colony in North America. De Pontrincourt listened with sympathy, and with him sympathy meant action. In November, 1603, De Monts obtained his commission. Among others who were interested in the enterprise were Pontgravé and Samuel de Champlain, the founder of Quebec, who, as well as De Monts, had already crossed the Atlantic. The expedition consisted of four vessels—one bound for Tadousac and the fur trade, another to serve as a coast-

guard, and the two remaining ones, under De Monts himself, to carry the germs of New France to the New World. There were in all 120 intending colonists of various ranks and trades, and both creeds. They bade adieu to the shores of France on March 7, 1604. Three years later De Monts' monopoly was rescinded, and Port Royal had to be regretfully abandoned. De Pontrincourt, however, did not despair. In 1610, having secured from the King a confirmation of the grant, he once more set out for his Acadian fief. His young son, De Biencourt, was sent home with a list of Indian baptisms, to urge the plea of evangelisation. The upshot was the despatch to Port Royal of Fathers Biard and Masse. Dissensions arose some time after, in De Pontrincourt's absence, between the Jesuits and his son, and ultimately a purely missionary settlement was established near Mount Desert. Captain Argall, of the James River Colony, being in northern waters on a fishing cruise, made his way thither, and left St. Saviour in ruins. He next attacked and demolished all that remained standing of the Habitation de St. Croix, and finally turned with ruthless purpose towards Port Royal, which he surprised and laid waste. The colony was not, however, totally destroyed, and De Biencourt did all in his power to turn the wreck to the best advantage. Pontrincourt, who was then in France, set sail in December, 1613, from Rochelle, in a vessel given him by some merchants of that place, and reached Port Royal towards the end of the following March. The help was most opportune, and the failing strength of the little colony revived. On his return voyage De Pontrincourt was accompanied by Louis Hébert, a Paris apothecary, who intended to bring out his family, with a view to permanent settlement. He did, indeed, again cross the ocean, but his destination was not Port Royal, but Quebec, where he is held in honoured remembrance as the first *habitant* and the ancestor of a numerous posterity. As for De Pontrincourt, he returned no more to the colony which he had sacrificed so much to establish. He died in 1615, at the siege of Méry-sur-Seine, fighting for the king (Louis XIII.) against the forces of the Prince of Conti.

De Pontrincourt's work survived him. His son, De Biencourt, whom he had left in command, administered the colony till his death in 1623, at the early age of thirty-one years, when, by his wishes, Charles de Latour succeeded to his authority and to all his rights. M. Rameau maintains that neither after the assault of Argall nor the death of De Pontrincourt did there fail to be a remnant of European settlers to keep colonisation alive. On the former occasion the mill and some of the cabins had escaped the ravages of the aggressors, and the pioneers had lost no time in repairing, as best they could, the damages wrought by the enemy. In his earnest desire to put the settlement on the footing of a civilised community, De Pontrincourt had carried his wife across the Atlantic, and she remained till the unhappy dissensions between her son and the Jesuit Fathers made residence at Port Royal unpleasant. Accounts differ as to the date and character of Charles de Latour's first marriage. Hannay states that about 1625 he married a Huguenot lady; but who she was, or how she happened to be in Acadia at that time, he does not know. Rameau suggests that in the same year he formed a connection with an Indian woman, and mentions as a fact, on the authority of Beamish Murdoch, the birth of his half-breed daughter, Jeanne, in 1626. Of the little germ of the future colony over which De Biencourt presided, he writes: "Several of his companions had formed irregular unions with squaws, the issue of which was a number of half-breed families that spread themselves over the eastern coasts. The colonists introduced afterwards by M. de Razilly sometimes chose their partners from those same families, and their offspring again intermarried with the European families of later arrival."

But, before the initiation of the new order of things which followed the Peace of St. Germain-en-Laye, the population of Acadia had been still further modified by the incorporation of another European element. Sir William Alexander, afterwards Earl of Stirling, obtained from James I. a vast grant of territory, comprising the continental portion of the Maritime Provinces, under the now well-known name of Nova Scotia. Though a comprehensive scheme of colonisation was drawn up, no practical steps were taken to give it effect, the only colonising effort with which the name of Alexander is associated being the little Scotch settlement at Port Royal, effected by Sir William's son. In all, it is said not to have exceeded about 100 souls, including women and children. It did not prosper; thirty died the first winter, of sickness and hardship, and though relief came in time to save the settlers from starvation, they again lost heart, and several of them betook themselves to New England. It was therefore a hardly unwelcome change when Charles I., alarmed for his consort's dowry, decided to surrender Acadia to France. To Isaac Razilly was entrusted the delicate task of receiving back from the hands of the British "the coasts of Acadia, and especially Port Royal." The Scotch chose to remain, and some of their names may possibly be found, in a modified form, in the

list of Acadian patronymics.* Like other members of their race at a later epoch in Canadian history, they became completely merged in the French community, all traces of their nationality, their religion, and their speech being lost before the lapse of the second generation. M. Rameau says that they intermarried with the French of Port Royal, and thus formed a fresh nucleus of population. It is to Latour and his companions especially that the same writer attributes the infusion of Indian blood among the people of Acadia.

In his earlier work, *La France aux Colonies*, M. Rameau ventures on the statement that there are few Acadian families that have not some drops of Indian blood in their veins. He also more than once expresses his conviction that the three-fourths, if not four-fifths, of the Acadian people are descended from the forty-seven families enumerated in the census of 1671. In a series of articles, contributed in 1874 and 1875 to *La Revue Canadienne*, M. Pascal Poirier, himself a native Acadian, has undertaken to refute M. Rameau's assertions. He insists that, instead of only forty-seven family stocks, there are no less than 430 distinct gentes, each having its own name, to which the Acadians of the present trace their origin. Of these at least 380 made their appearance in the country after the census of 1671. M. Poirier also denies that the Acadians of 1671 were to any appreciable extent of Indian extraction, and, after producing a mass of statistics bearing on the question, he reaches the conclusion that the Acadians of to-day are not only free from any intermixture of Micmac or other Indian blood, but are French *pur sang*, without any alien ingredient whatever. In a later volume, *Une Colonie Féodale en Amérique*, published at Paris in 1877—that is, two years after the issue of M. Poirier's criticism of his former book—M. Rameau repeats again and again the statements made years before as to the comparative frequency in early colonial times of marriages or unions between the Acadian settlers and the Indian women. He treats the whole subject in an unimpassioned and philosophic manner, and certainly without the slightest thought of making it the medium for insults or reproaches. Writing of the life of the *capitaines des sauvages* and *coureurs des bois*, he suggests that their experience may furnish the key to the course of civilisation as it spread from its prehistoric centres among the ruder nations of the early world, and he seems to regret that a usage which had in it the promise of a new race and a new society, and might have borne fruits so precious for ethnology, should not have been systematically encouraged.

Mr. James Hannay, whose excellent *History of Acadia* is the result of conscientious and impartial examination of original documents, thus refers to the controversy just summarised: "Probably it was the scarcity of white women that caused some of the Acadians to marry Indian females." M. Rameau, the talented author of *La France aux Colonies*, has been fiercely attacked for ascribing the great friendship which existed between the Acadians and Indians to these marriages. Nevertheless, that such unions took place is susceptible of as clear proof as any fact in Acadian history. Mr. Hannay then adduces proof that at least three such marriages took place and that children were born of them. Of such unions after 1714 the census contains no evidence, but passages in letters of Colonel Vetch and Lieutenant-Governor Mascarene give it to be understood that half-breeds were not only not unknown but were in considerable number down to 1745. On the other hand, La Mothe Cadillac describes the Acadians in 1692 as having, generally, light hair, which, as Mr. Hannay says, "certainly is not a description of a people who had Indian blood in their veins." His conclusion is thus stated: "The percentage of Indian blood in the veins of the Acadians is too small to be worthy to be taken into account, and in modern times marriages between Acadians and Indians have been exceedingly rare."

I do not quite agree with the historian when he says that the Indian element, however small, is undeserving of consideration. Dr. Beddoe, an English ethnologist, has been at the utmost pains to show that the pre-Aryan constituent in the complex English race is still clearly recognisable in parts of Great Britain, in the complexion and features of the inhabitants. It is regrettable that anything like resentment should have been manifested in conducting an inquiry such as that on which M. Poirier has expended so much labour. The writer whom he has criticised so severely seems to me to be the very last person who would do or say anything offensive or injurious to the people of either Acadia or Canada. In 1860 he visited the country and investigated thoroughly, on the very scene of his delightful and instructive narrative, every detail of the problem with which his enthusiastic interest in the romantic and heroic features of our early annals had induced him to deal. In January and the succeeding

* Some of those family names are English or Scotch quite as much as French, such as *Martin*. It is worthy of note that Abraham Martin, who gave a name to the memorable "Plains of Abraham," was known in his lifetime, and is entered in the Register of Notre Dame de Quebec as *L'Écossais* (the Scotchman).

months of the year 1886 he contributed to the Saturday *Minerve*—a special issue of that journal devoted largely to literary and historical questions—a series of sketches on his voyage across the Atlantic, and his tour through Acadia. No one can read those columns without being convinced of his honesty, impartiality, and love of truth, and the same qualities are discernible on every page of his historical works. It is a pity that, in presenting to the world so undoubtedly valuable a mass of information on the "Origin of the Acadians," Mr. Poirier should have adopted a tone of asperity towards an author so worthy of the esteem of all Canadians.

But the reader may ask, What is the real and trustworthy "conclusion of the whole matter?" Where such men of learning disagree, how is the student to know where the truth is to be found? Happily, on this point we have a court of appeal, to which even the most erudite of authors need think it no humiliation to submit his case. M. l'Abbé Tanguay has devoted the best years of his laborious life to the elucidation of this very question. His *Dictionnaire Généalogique des Familles Canadiennes* is a vast storehouse of knowledge as to all that concerns the race, country, and lineage of one great section of our people. Let us see, therefore, what Abbé Tanguay has to say on the subject of intermarriage with Indians.

JOHN READE.

WHY WE HAVE NO GREAT ARTISTS.

A SYNOPSIS of an article by John D. Champlin, Jun., which appeared in the August *Forum*, seems to be an admirable pendant to "American Art since the Centennial," from the pen of the Hon. S. W. Benjamin, which we abridged in a previous issue, containing besides many practical hints upon the development of native talent that may prove useful to Canadian art students:

The author opens his subject by saying: "We have produced sculptors and painters above the average in merit, but though a few have exhibited talent enough to entitle them to fair rank in their profession in Europe as well as at home, no master has yet appeared of genius sufficient to impress the age. Whatever our optimists may see in the future, it is safe to assume that there is no such thing at present as an American school of art. Nor is this any reflection on our native artists. Accepting therefore as a fact that we have not yet produced a national art, let us examine briefly into its causes, which will lead us into the domain of political economy. Art production, like all other production, is regulated by the law of supply and demand. Whenever in our evolution we shall reach the point where art becomes a national necessity, then we shall have a national art, and great artists will be born to us. Until that period arrives, all the art museums, academies, and professors in the world will not suffice to create for us great masters and masterpieces. You may build in a day a magnificent Chicago, and endow it with picture galleries, but they will not at once create an art atmosphere, nor breed art knowledge and traditions. They are the children of time. The history of art recognises but two periods of absolute perfection—the Phidian age in Greece, and the age of the Renaissance in Italy. The Greek through generations of laborious endeavour evolved the art of architecture and its sister sculpture from crude and conventional forms to a perfection which the world has agreed to recognise as final; the Italian by efforts no less slow and laborious rescued painting from the slough of Byzantism, and elevated it to a like eminence. In each case art came into being without any of the adventitious aids upon which modern civilisation sets so high a value. In each the advance has a true evolution—a progression through successive stages. In the daily contemplation of such masterpieces as the Zeus Olympius, the Pallas Athena, the Hera and Aphrodite, a love of beauty became a religious principle with the Greek, and art, part of his religion; thus it happened that art and religion acted reciprocally on each other, for as art was developed out of the fusion of humanity and duty, so religion derived its strongest impulse from the perfection of art. A like intimate relation between art and religion obtained in the Renaissance in Italy, the thread of tradition connecting them having never been broken throughout the Dark Ages, although what may be called Christian art had passed through a period of symbolism which had little of art in it. While the Greek, whose highest expression of his ideas in the incarnation of deity, found the noblest and exalting than mere physical perfection, required an art which appealed more strongly to the emotions, and devoted himself to the development of painting in colour. The church welcomed this new movement as an efficient coadjutor, and gave it its first great impulse in Italy; and for a long time the Old and New Testament and the *Acta Sanctorum* furnished the chief themes for the many painters whom the demand for church and convent decoration brought into being. Later on through many phases Italian art gradually widened into two distinct schools, the Florentine and the Venetian—the one representing the intellectual side of human nature, caring rather for moral and spiritual than for external beauty, the other the sensuous side, seeking beauty for the sake of beauty, and caring more for the pictorial effect than for the inculcation of a moral lesson; the one culminating in Leonardo, a Raphael, a Michael Angelo, the other in a Giorgione, a Veronese, a Titian.

"Now while it may be true that art owes its genesis to religion, it is probably also true that the inspiration of opportunity had much to do with its advancement, and that the success attained by the artists of the Peri-

clean and the Renaissance periods was largely due to the superior opportunities afforded them of practising and perfecting their art. Polyclitus and Phidias would not be recognised to-day as the fathers of sculpture if their work had been confined to their studios or to the private collections of the wealthy. It was their employment in magnificent public works which gave them the opportunity to carry their art to its culmination in the Doryphorus, the Athena Parthenos, and the Olympian Zeus. The decoration of the temples of the gods and the public buildings of Greece employed sculptors and painters, and not only made artists, but in a large degree art itself. So was it in the Renaissance in Italy; the encouragement due to the demand for church and convent decoration, and later, that derived from the munificence of the great guilds and corporations, to say nothing of princely patrons, created an army of painters, and gave an impulse to art which is felt to-day in every civilised land. Whatever we may think of the reciprocal relations of art and religion, it is certain that modern art hinges directly on the art of the past, and derives from it its most valued traditions. The sculptor, no matter what his clime or race, still draws his models from the masterpieces of Greece; the painter still turns to Italy for inspiration. This which is true of every modern school is well exemplified in the French. Passing by Leonardo and Primaticcio and his assistants who carried that art to France, French art was early linked to the schools of Italy through Poussin, who lived and died in Rome. To him and to his pupil Le Brun, through whose influence was founded the French Academy in Rome, is largely due the distinctive character of Gallic art, which down to the present time has preserved an unbroken chain of traditions to which all its prominent masters have been linked. And this is one of the chief reasons, if not the chief reason, why the French school leads the world of art to-day, as it assuredly does, in spite of the critics who affect to sneer at academic methods.

"The nation that founds public art museums and picture galleries, whose citizens expend their wealth in decorating their homes with the masterpieces of foreign art, is on the high way to art education. The contemplation of the great works of antiquity and the best examples of the schools of the present will gradually raise the standard of art culture, but it alone will not make great artists, nor create a national art. Rome under the Cæsars was one immense museum into which was gathered the art wealth of the ancient world, but history has preserved the name of no great Roman painter or sculptor.

"The evolution of art requires an educated public. Great art would be lost among barbarians, and the people which has not advanced sufficiently in culture to know the difference between imitative and creative art is still barbarian in art itself. Similarity in art is the mark of mediocrity. Art which has passed the imitative age—and no art can be called great which has not passed that stage—has in it something which gives it individuality, which raises it above the level of ordinary good art.

"They who look for the spontaneous blossoming and fructification of a purely American art therefore will be doomed to disappointment. Our art must necessarily be in some sense the reflection of foreign art, for only through it can we win a place in the genealogical succession from the art of the past; but it does not follow that it must always wear the imprint of foreign schools. In order to expand our art into something characteristic of us and of our institutions public sentiment must be advanced sufficiently to recognise and to give encouragement to native talent. As our artists can hope for little aid from either state or church, our rich men must be to them what the government was to the Greek, what the church and the guild were to the artists of the Renaissance. Let the Cræuses who wish to decorate their mansions look about them before inviting proposals from London and Paris, and see if there are no struggling geniuses who are competent to do their work. Among so many of our young men who have exhibited exceptional ability in the Paris and Munich schools, there must be some with capacity for great development if properly encouraged. Private encouragement would lead to public encouragement, and thus might be produced artists capable of decorating our public buildings with paintings and sculptures which would be an education and the precursor of distinctive art. And by this I mean the art representative of the present not of the dead past; an art quick with the blood of to-day which shall depict living humanity instead of pseudo-classicism and mediævalism."

THE AMERICAN STATE AND THE AMERICAN MAN.

In Mr. Goldwin Smith's article in the *Contemporary Review*, on the Canadian Constitution, the following occurs with regard to Provincial Legislatures: "Too much power, at the same time, is given to the Canadian Legislatures, especially to those of the Provinces. It is almost appalling to think what changes, not political or legal only, but social and economical, may be made by the single vote of a Provincial Legislature composed of men fit perhaps to do mere local business, such as comes before a county council, but hardly fit for the higher legislation, especially since the choice of men for the Local Legislatures has been limited by the Act which prevents members of the Dominion House from sitting in a Local House also." The following abridgment of an article in a recent number of the *Contemporary*, showing the scope of State legislation among our neighbours, may have a special interest, in view of the expression of this opinion.

The writer selects Minnesota as the seat of action, being one of the newer western States with the latest legislative improvements. The Legislature of Minnesota holds sessions of sixty days, beginning with the first Monday in January, and the subject now discussed is the laws enacted during the session of 1885. Northern Minnesota and Northern Dakota are agricultural States, their leading crop being wheat; conse-

quently the marketing and loading of grain became matters of prime importance to the farming community. Minnesota and Dakota grain was handled by extensive elevator companies having headquarters at Minneapolis and Duluth and other points, and maintaining a series of warehouses at frequent intervals along the railroads. By special contracts and private understandings with the railroad companies, these elevator lines were able to maintain in effect a monopoly in the storage and purchase of grain. The farmers were thus shut off from the advantages of an open market, and had a real grievance. In this mood they elected their legislative representatives. The body was largely composed of farmers, and its avowed object was the strict regulation by law of railroads and of the handling of grain, and in which, moreover, it succeeded; while the subject was brought prominently before at least a dozen of the Legislatures of 1885, and the famous Reagan Bill for the regulation of inter-State railroad traffic engrossed Congress during the best weeks of the winter session.

Southern Minnesota has outlived the wheat-growing and crop-farming period, and is engaged in the more profitable pursuit of dairy-farming. The region is peculiarly adapted to butter and cheese making, and the industry has developed marvellously in a few years, with large expectations for the future. The dairy farmers have sought and obtained the protection and patronage of the State. A new bureau has been erected, manned by a State Dairy Commissioner and his subordinate officers, its object being to protect the butter makers and great creamery establishments from the competition of the artificial product known as butterine. This article is manufactured on a vast scale at Chicago; its principal ingredients are hogs' lard, cotton seed oil, and genuine butter. Experts have pronounced it thoroughly healthful, and desirable as a cheap substitute for butter. [Take notice, Canadian farmers, of your competitor in the Republic.] A single Chicago firm manufactures a larger quantity of it than the total butter product of the great dairy State of Iowa, and it undersells real butter even throughout the dairy region. It is estimated that four or five million pounds of it were sold as real butter in Minnesota in 1884. The new law of 1885 banishes this artificial article from the State.

The extensive cattle business of the west is another department of rural industry which has grown into such prominence as to have claimed and received the patronage and regulation of the State. The cattle men were predominant in the last Territorial Legislature of Montana, and the result is a formidable array of new laws touching every feature of the cattle industry.

The vast pine forests of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota for years have constituted the largest source of the lumber supply of the United States. Perhaps few persons besides those immediately interested are aware to what extent the laws of these three States have encompassed the logging and lumbering business. These States are divided into lumbering districts, and each district is supplied with its corps of State inspectors, scalers, etc. Not a log is floated down stream from the woods to the saw-mill for which it is destined without official cognisance.

The insurance business is conducted under strict regulations in most of the western States. The State Insurance Commissioner is an important officer in Minnesota. New laws extend his supervision beyond the regular insurance companies to all the numerous societies and local organisations which practice co-operative insurance. A special tax on insurance companies yields a considerable revenue. In Wisconsin the fire insurance companies are compelled to pay the full amount of a policy in case of a total loss, irrespective of the actual extent of the damage.

Savings banks in Minnesota are organised under a peculiarly rigid system of laws, and are subject to the inspection of a useful State officer, known as the Public Examiner, who also supervises the book-keeping of State and county officers, and scrutinises the accounts of public institutions. A State Oil Inspector derives a handsome salary from inspection of the illuminating oils sold in the State. A State Board of Medical Examiners regulates the practice of medicine, examining and admitting all new practitioners. A new law creates a Board of Pharmacy for the examination of all druggists and compounding clerks. Another new law regulates the practice of dentistry and creates an additional State Board. Among the miscellaneous instances of regulation should be included the fish and game laws, which are minute and exhaustive. A State Board of Inspectors for steam boilers in Minnesota licenses stationary engineers, and carries out an elaborate statute which regulates the testing and operating of steam engines and boilers.

Among the enactments of the last Minnesota Legislature is one which fixes the maximum proportion of toll to be exacted by a custom mill for grinding wheat or other grain; one which declares dogs to be personal property; another which sets forth the aggravating circumstances under which a farmer may slay his neighbour's dog with impunity; another regulating the business of operating telegraph lines; one which provides for the collecting of criminal statistics; one prescribing in detail the character of the passenger waiting-rooms, which all railway companies must maintain at their stopping-places in villages, towns, and cities; and another providing for storage and disposal of unclaimed baggage and freight; another to prevent fraud in the use of false brands, stamps, labels, or trade marks; one to protect all citizens in their civil and legal rights, and prescribing penalties for discrimination against individuals in inns, public conveyances, barber shops, and the like.

In no part of the world perhaps is State interference in behalf of the public health less required by circumstances than in the North-west portion of the United States, and yet new laws have given Minnesota a more stringent system of health regulations than exists in any other part of the Republic. Besides the State Board of Health, which has extensive functions, every township, borough, village, and city is required to have its local

Board of Health organised in a manner prescribed by statute. Thorough sanitary inspections are made obligatory, as are also periodical written reports from every Local Board to the State Board. Violation or neglect of rules is made a misdemeanour punishable by fine and imprisonment. The arbitrary power to invade premises and issue peremptory orders in the interest of the public health is not hedged about or limited in any way; and it presents a striking example of the growth of State interference. In Minnesota the State Board of Health is charged with the execution of stringent measures to prevent the spread of diseases among cattle, horses, and other domestic animals, and has also new duties under a new statute enacted to prevent the pollution of rivers and sources of water supply.

For obvious reasons, legislation dealing with the employment of labour, and protecting the interests of wage workers, is not yet very extensive in the western States, though lien laws protecting wages are on the statute books of all States. A new Minnesota law also fixes the maximum time for which locomotive engineers and firemen may be kept continually at their posts. In Wisconsin, Iowa, Kansas, Montana, and Wyoming, also in the two southern States of Georgia and Mississippi, statutes render railway companies liable for injuries received by employes; and no contract restricting such liability is binding. In Rhode Island such a law is made applicable to steamboats as well as to railroads.

The peculiar pride of every western State is its Public School system. The high taxes which poor and sparsely settled frontier communities cheerfully pay for the maintenance of free public schools are simply astonishing, when all circumstances are considered. The magnificent young territory of Dakota, practically an unbroken wilderness in 1870, has not only provided itself with first-class elementary schools for all its children, but has established several ambitious normal schools, and has founded two or three collegiate establishments, known in Western parlance as universities. It is to maintain in the Black Hills mining region a school of metallurgy and mining engineering. It will, of course, have its agricultural college, with experimental farm adjoining. Not content with providing the elementary schools, Minnesota has promulgated a new law making attendance compulsory. In Minnesota the common school text books are prescribed and furnished by the central authorities, and both in that and various other States the educational code includes a law authorising free public libraries maintained by local taxation.

Legislation intended to enforce certain standards of morality is perhaps more prolific and vigorous in the western section of the United States than anywhere else in the world. The disposition to force the moral ideas of the majority upon the whole society is well nigh irresistible. The States of Iowa and Kansas are engaged in a difficult attempt to enforce laws absolutely forbidding the manufacture, sale, and transportation (virtually therefore forbidding the use) of every kind of alcoholic beverage. Not only does the law in Minnesota prohibit the sale of obscene, immoral, and indecent publications and pictures, but in the words of the statute any person commits a crime "who sells, lends, gives away, or shows, or has in his possession with intent to sell or give away or show or advertise, or otherwise offer for loan, gift, or distribution any book, pamphlet, magazine, newspaper or other printed paper devoted to the publication or principally made up of criminal news, police reports, or accounts of criminal deeds, or pictures and stories of deeds of bloodshed, lust, or crime."

In conclusion the writer sets forth, that "while it must be conceded that very many of these undertakings, restrictions, and interferences on the part of the Government are advantageous and commendable, no one who accepts the statement of facts will deny the deplorable tendency to reckless, selfish, and strained employments of the State prerogative." The majority of Canadians, I think, will agree that if according to Mr. Goldwin Smith, "too much power is given to our own Provincial Legislatures" their rights are far exceeded by those of the State Legislature of Minnesota.

COREA.

MR. CARLES, lately Vice-Consul in Corea, in a sketch of that country read lately before the China Asiatic Society, said that owing to its position between China and Japan it had been frequently subject to invasion by both countries. Two large invasions from China have taken place within the last thousand years; these were due to Corea refusing to recognise the sovereignty of new dynasties. There have also been several Japanese invasions. The relics of one which occurred in the sixteenth century are said to be preserved in a large mound at Kioto, underneath which are buried the ears and noses of 130,000 Coreans. At one time Corea paid tribute to China, at another to Japan. The King went to Peking on two occasions for the purpose, but since the sixteenth century the country has been practically independent. The origin of the Coreans is at present unknown, but certain tribes appear to have come down in remote ages from the north-east coast of Asia, near the present Vladivostock, which may have been the forerunners of the present Corean race. Corean civilisation came from the Chinese who invaded the country about 3,000 years ago. From the seventh to the thirteenth centuries of our era was the period of Corea's prime, and it was then an important country. It was about this time that Buddhism was introduced, and the remains of Buddhist temples of that date are still found. At this time Corea was in communication with Arabia and Persia, and many Persian ornaments have been found as relics of this period, during which the ceramic art was supposed to be introduced into Corea from these countries. Few antiquarian or historical remains are to be found in the peninsula; the great Japanese invasion destroyed almost every vestige of art in the country. The people are exceedingly peaceful and civil to strangers. The women are kept in strict

confinement all day, and are only allowed to walk abroad in the evening when all the men retire indoors, and go out after nightfall under penalty of imprisonment. All classes are decent and orderly in their dress and demeanour. The country is so primitive that the people have almost no wants, and the difficulty of trading with them is that they have nothing to supply, for the reason that they want nothing. The houses have no furniture except a mat, a pillow, and a screen. There is no great desire to make money, beyond what will last through the winter; there is nothing to invest money in, and if a man has more than he urgently needs, it is generally taken from him by the officials. The men are greatly addicted to drink, and it is a common thing to see them rolling helplessly drunk about the streets, and nobody appears to take the least notice of them. The prevailing colour of the dress is white. The proper names are nearly all Chinese, pure and simple. The country is about the size of England, Wales, and Scotland, while the population is about one-third of that of Great Britain. The Government is monarchical, and feudalism exists. The pipe is the curse of the country; tobacco is to Corea what opium is to China and drink to England. The Corean goes about with his pipe about three feet long held in one hand, while with the other he tries to do whatever work he is at, whether it is digging with a spade or any other employment. The result is that fifteen men can only do the work of three, for nothing will induce a Corean to relinquish his pipe for a moment. Another great impediment to work is their dress, on account of their long, loose sleeves, into which they cram everything they want to carry. This has been recognised as such a nuisance by the King that he issued a proclamation against long sleeves, ordering his subjects to adopt short, tight sleeves, which he wore himself; but the order was utterly disregarded, and the people still keep their long pipes and their long sleeves. The people have an intense admiration for the natural beauties of their country, which are very great.—*The Times*.

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE ENGLISH OF YOUNG CANADA.

To the Editor of THE WEEK:

SIR,—Will you allow me a short space in reply to the article by Mr. Haultain on "The Recent University and Departmental Examinations?" The state of affairs disclosed by the writer is certainly very serious, and will be apt to give rather a rude shock to those who have been accustomed to regard our educational system as doing its work with reasonable efficiency. But I do not wish at present to enter upon the discussion of the general subject. My object is merely to take exception to an inference which Mr. Haultain draws from the sad fact that, so far as one may judge from the papers of the candidates examined by him, "the English language is to the vast majority of candidates, an unknown tongue." After enumerating a number of gross errors, and exhibiting in the strongest possible terms the utter ignorance of even elementary ideas of grammatical structure, he says: "What can one say or do? One thing one can say, and it is this: Such pupils were taught by men and women who could not themselves talk or write correctly." Now, this must mean that the peculiar English of which Mr. Haultain has given examples was acquired by the pupils from the masters of our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, in which nine-tenths of the candidates he examined were prepared. It either means this, or it means that the pupils, at their entrance to the High Schools, were already accustomed to use such expressions, and that the teachers were so grossly ignorant of the English language that their teaching and example had no effect in correcting these errors. In other words, the masters of these schools are in the habit of constantly using in their intercourse with their classes such expressions as "I scen," "he don't," "they is," "he dost," etc., etc., that in their ordinary daily speech they are utterly unable to distinguish between "lay" and "lie," between "fly" and "flee," between "sit" and "set," between "round" and "around," etc., etc. Now to those who know the High School masters of Ontario, it is quite unnecessary to say that they are not so grossly illiterate and uncultured as this; and that, wherever these candidates acquired their phenomenal ignorance, it was not from those who prepared them for examination.

It may be that Mr. Haultain intended to indicate the Public School teachers as those "men and women who could not themselves talk or write correctly." If so, he is, I am convinced, doing them as a body a great injustice. I do not believe that any large proportion of our teachers can be truly characterised by the words quoted.

There is, however, a sense in which Mr. Haultain's inference is quite correct, but it is evidently not the sense intended by him. If, by those who taught the candidates, we understand their home associates and out-of-school companions, it is quite true that their teachers are to blame for the peculiar phraseology and inability to speak good English of those whose papers he read. The efforts of the Public and High School teachers have been all in the other direction. It is lamentable to find that these efforts have had so little effect, but I think it altogether unjust to blame the teachers because they have not been able, during the brief period of the pupil's attendance at school, to eradicate the evil habits of early life, strengthened and encouraged by daily intercourse with the ignorant and the illiterate. But it is infinitely more unjust to say, as Mr. Haultain appears to do, that the deplorable ignorance of the candidates whom he examined is due to the gross illiteracy and want of culture of the High School masters who prepared them for examination.

Yours,

W. TYTLER.

Collegiate Institute, Guelph, Sept. 19, 1887.

The Week.

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A RICH field is offering in Canada to any Reform organ that will turn its exclusive regards from the corrupt practices of our rulers to the corrupt practices of the electors. A corrupt Government could not exist for a day if a majority of the electors were not equally corrupt; the one is an effect flowing from the other; and Reform should begin on the cause, not the effect, as seems to be imagined by those who are perpetually calling on the people to turn the rogues out. The rogues in the Government must very fairly represent the amount of roguery among the people or they would not be there; and if we would judge of the amount of political morality among a people, we should not look elsewhere than at the character of the men the people delight to honour. So when we see, as the *Montreal Witness* sadly remarks, that in Canadian politics "the Mackenzies, Massons, Blakes, and Jolys have to go to the wall, while the Macdonalds, the Tupper, the Chapleaus, and the Merciers ride by in triumph," and reflect that these men do not arbitrarily force themselves into power, but are the popular choice, we must place the reproach where it belongs, not wholly on those who take advantage of the low state of political morality among the people, but chiefly on the people themselves.

In the county of Ottawa, at the last General Election for the Local House, the Nationalist candidate was defeated by three hundred and fifty seven votes; last week, with the same candidate against the same opponent, the Nationalist candidate triumphed by a majority of seven hundred and fifty-seven votes—a result representing a change of eleven hundred votes within a few months. What has caused it? A change of conviction, or the tenure of power during the intervening months by a Nationalist Government? Mr. Mercier, according to the *Witness*, has studied with profit the methods brought to a system by Sir John Macdonald and his lieutenants, of using largely in elections the local issues that prevail in every constituency, instead of relying for success on general principles and general policy; and he bids fair to outrun his models. In one constituency he uses the Jesuits; in another the commercial tax question; in another the timber due question (which appears to have been the bait in Ottawa County); while the Government is always represented as a possible benefactor in case it elects a supporter. This, though it is commonly countenanced by the party Press, which talks about a constituency alienating itself from the Government by electing an opponent, or discontinuing its attitude of "isolation" from the Government by electing a supporter,—is open bribery offered by the Government, the acceptance of which by the electors marks them as at least equally corrupt.

THE nomination of Sir John A. Macdonald as third British Commissioner (with Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Lionel Sackville-West) on the Fisheries Commission, is on several accounts the best that could be made. No one is likely to be so well acquainted with all the facts as he; he is probably as familiar with the American case as the Americans themselves; he has the astuteness requisite to satisfactorily deal with American diplomats; he may confidently be expected strenuously to contend for the advantage of Canada; and in short he is a colleague of ability, knowledge, and diplomatic rank worthy in every way of Mr. Chamberlain, who had a right to expect the most efficient support obtainable.

THE address of Sir Henry Roscoe, the President, to the British Association this year was almost confined to his own subject, chemistry, and is described as full of interest, though the *Spectator* expresses a natural wish that Sir Henry could have given a popular account of the arguments by which some of the conclusions he mentioned have been reached. He gave a very interesting account of the atomic theory and its development, referring to the conclusions arrived at by Dr. Loschmidt, of Vienna, that the diameter of an atom of oxygen or nitrogen is one ten-millionth part of a centimetre. But the writer in the *Spectator* objects that he had never been able to gather that the existence of this atom itself is more than a hypothesis; which appears to us to be the truth, for we cannot conceive of the existence of an atom, however minute—even the ten-millionth part of a centimetre—that may not be divided. Again, one would like to know

the kind of reasoning by which it is established that if a drop of water could be magnified to the size of the earth, we should then see that the coarseness of the graining of such a mass would be "something between a heap of small shot and a heap of cricket-balls;" or again, that "if we suppose that the minutest organism we can now see were provided with equally powerful microscopes with ours (microscopes that magnify from 6,000 to 8,000 times), then these beings would be able to see the atoms."

IN spite of the favourable Report of the recent Royal Commission, the success of the Pasteurian method appears from every evidence to be limited to the case of dogs inoculated *before* being bitten by a mad dog. In such a case the dog has a considerably better chance of escaping rabies than if it had not been inoculated. And that is the whole net result of Pasteurism. It is not, indeed, likely that any disease once caught can be rendered harmless by subsequent inoculation; therefore to avoid rabies, or rather minimise the risk of rabies, among human beings, it would be necessary that inoculation against it should become as general as inoculation against small-pox. That would manifestly be too much, considering the great infrequency of cases of hydrophobia; men must first become mad as the maddest dog to generally adopt so heroic a preventive against a disease that in all human probability is not likely to affect one in a million. Yet that is what Pasteurism requires. If it came, however, seriously to a question of taking precaution we suppose all the dogs rather than all the men would be inoculated; but this again would be too much, for we believe our faithful friends are a much maligned race in this respect, and are almost as free from rabies as their masters. There is nothing in this controversy less satisfactorily established than the madness of most of the dogs whose bite has been supposed to be dangerous; if an unlucky dog but hung his tongue out in London a few months ago he ran great risk of having his brains knocked out as well by some nervous policeman. From the "scare" then prevalent, which by no means shows that the dogs were madder than the men, has sprung all this desperate clinging to Pasteur, whose influence, however is on the wane. The death of Lord Doneraile (bitten by a tame fox, not a dog) was the third death within a few days among M. Pasteur's patients; and the other day the Vienna correspondent of the *London Standard* told us:—"The Austrian Government has withdrawn the subvention that it granted last year to the Vienna General Hospital to defray the cost of the inoculation on the Pasteur system. The failures have been so numerous as to discourage competent judges from further supporting the method."

UNDER the government of intimidation exercised by the National League over Ireland, there were in the nine months ending March 31, 1887, 1,310 agrarian crimes. In 1,103 of these crimes no one was brought to justice. In the same period there were 132 incendiary fires, and in 126 of these cases no one was brought to justice. There were eleven murders; five persons were tried, and only one was convicted. Here is all that need be said to justify the suppression of this organised terrorism; its yoke removed from the neck of the people, law may be re-established, and justice again prevail in Ireland. Happily the Government seem resolved to do its duty: the Session of Parliament is practically at an end; and the process of re-establishing the authority of the Queen's Government in Ireland can no longer be impeded within the walls of Parliament by the treasonable practices of the Parnellites. In Ireland there may be a sharp tussle with the irregular Government, and the strict application of the law may offend many of the softer sort of Liberals in England; but the result of a contest between the Imperial Government and a body of political agitators who at most have not half the Irish people at their back cannot be doubtful; while nothing is more certain than that if the Government use the extra powers given it to cope with the Irish difficulty firmly and justly, it may confidently count on the approval of the sounder portion of the English people, who expect the Government of the day to act in a manly fashion, on its own conviction, and not to keep veering about, yielding to clamour, or following the vagaries of journalists.

IT may be expected that as the contest with the National League proceeds, crime will increase in Ireland. As the League is compelled to relax its hold, such pernicious forces as it restrains—and we do not doubt it does exercise government over evil as well as good—will break loose. The cry that broke from Mr. Parnell on the eve of prorogation was one of almost despair; for he knows that his now manifest failure to obtain the recognition of the *de facto* government of the National League as the Government *de jure* of Ireland may cause a transfer of the control of the Irish conspiracy to the murder and dynamite wing, whose violent method has been unwillingly suspended during the recent Home Rule campaign and will probably be

resumed now this campaign is at end, notwithstanding the promising capture of so large a body of English Liberals. Still Imperial law must be re-established in Ireland, as a condition precedent to the granting of the local self-government which we hope will follow. No civilised Government could tolerate such usurpation of its functions as is practised by the National League; and if the League has to be washed away in blood that must be done, or England will stand confessed before the world as a Government impotent to govern—a weak sham-Government that any internal conspiracy may with persistence easily overcome. And the end of the British Empire will then not be far off.

A CORRESPONDENT of the *Spectator* gives an encouraging hint of what may happen when Mr. Gladstone's paper Federal Constitution for the British Isles has replaced the present worn-out though venerable institution, and Ireland is enjoying her share of the general Home Rule. "Almost irritated" by the calm way in which another writer to the paper had proposed an Irish Parliament as an "experiment" in self-government, without the least reference to the feelings of the minority in Ireland, the present writer reminds us that the Irish Protestants number about a million and a quarter, who are practically to a man vehemently opposed to any tampering with the Union Settlement of 1800, and would regard an Irish Parliament with bitter hatred as a badge of humiliation and defeat. A large number of Catholics of education and property are of the same way of thinking. What chance of usefulness then, he asks, not to say of life, would an Irish Parliament have which was hated by two millions out of five millions of the population of Ireland? If eighty-six hostile M. P.'s have been able to work such havoc in one Session with the venerable mother of Parliaments at Westminster, what might not eighty-six hostile members do to a new spick-and-span Irish Parliament on College Green? . . . Till unanimity is won for a revision of the Act of Union re-establishing a separate Parliament in Ireland, such a measure would be simply an act of madness. If such a Parliament is forced upon the Irish minority, he says, we will kill it as dead as Queen Anne in a very few years. Here is a delightful promise of Measure for Measure; but fancy the Rules of Procedure, not to say Coercion Acts, that will be proposed when the Parnellite Government finds itself hoist with its own petard.

MR. ROBERT GRANT WEBSTER, M.P., sends to the *Times* extracts from a letter recently received from County Carlow, from a man apparently of the working classes, who is described as one of keen intelligence and clear perception who the writer avers was thoroughly in touch with the working classes of England before he left to reside in Ireland, where he has resided constantly for the last twenty years and has, by his own energy and perseverance, raised his position in life considerably.

As regards politics, the writer of the letter says, we are on the *qui vive* about the operation of the Bill. My own experience is that the more stringent the measure, the better it is for the peace of the country. During Gladstone's Government, and especially before the Home Rule Bill was introduced, we were living under the tyranny of the National League. It was the only law in these parts, and that law was severely administered. We Protestants, isolated as we are, had some rather unpleasant experiences: and the foretastes of Home Rule showed us that we must either live in the country ever on the defensive or leave it altogether, for we should get no quarter, and force was our only remedy. The Roman Catholics are now waiting, the public prints are advocating delay, but the spirit is there—the hostility and hatred for everything Protestant and English is as strong as ever and on the watch. Before the agitation began we lived here in peace and harmony, both religions working well together. But of late it is not so. The present Government have restored the old state of things somewhat, and if their Acts are quickly and firmly administered we may be a prosperous and contented people. Ireland wants a strong, firm, unflinching rule. We require more than the passing of Acts. We want them carried out at once, and no departure from them. Hitherto there has been weakness and vacillation—the hotbeds and strongholds of Irish agitation. If there is a loophole anywhere an Irishman will get his head through, and he will roar till he gets completely through. Easily roused by the promises of agitators, they are as quickly put down by just force. That is my experience, and as I am in and out among all classes I am pretty fairly acquainted with their weakness and their strength.

Mr. Webster naturally regards this opinion as of ten-thousand fold more value than that of any impression formed by some personally conducted young Radical member who is taken over to Ireland in charge of two Irish Home Rule members of Parliament for a ten days' trip, is taken to see a carefully prepared, sensational ejection, is cheered as he goes to his hotel, is flattered and blarneyed to his heart's content, and comes back to deliver himself of his experience to an enraptured Senate.

In connexion with this subject another correspondent, apparently a commercial traveller, who passes about a third of every year in Ireland,

coming in contact in the course of his business with Loyalists and Nationalists alike, emphatically declares that at least fifty per cent. of the members of the National League have been compelled to join and subscribe to the League funds. "About six months ago," he says, "I met one of this class (a most respectable man) in the South, in one of the largest towns, a perfect stranger to me, and in the course of conversation he told me it was a pleasure to get into conversation with a respectable, intelligent Englishman, to whom he could open his mind and give vent to his thoughts and feelings. He declared he had been compelled to join the League and subscribe, but he added most emphatically, 'Curse the League; it is the ruin of the country.' 'But,' he also said, 'what is a poor fellow to do, sir? I endeavoured as long as I could to keep out of the ranks, but it was no use, I must either join or be ruined.' He also informed me the terror of the League was such that 'Even brothers by blood dare not open their minds to each other, fearing treachery.'"

MR. GLADSTONE delivered at Hawarden Castle on August 30 an eloquent and very graceful address to a number of his fellow-parishioners whom he entertained at a Jubilee treat in honour of the Queen's completion of the fiftieth year of her reign. Mr. Gladstone contrasted the Jubilee of George III. with the Queen's Jubilee, as a Jubilee of the classes with a Jubilee of the masses. George III.'s Jubilee was celebrated chiefly by great folks, by corporations, etc. Indeed, the masses were then too hard pressed to think much of Jubilees at all. The condition of the poor in that reign was once pithily thus described: "The poor starved and were hanged." The food of the people was dear, and their wages low. The most trivial offences were punished capitally. Tea was 8s. a pound; sugar was four times the price it is now; wheat was more than four times its present price; meat was cheaper only because there was no one in the poorer classes to compete for it; and wages were little more than half what they are now. The Queen had associated herself with all the great changes for the better which have taken place, by giving a willing and hearty consent to all the legislative measures which have ameliorated the condition of the nation, and by making her Court an example of a pure and noble life. Mr. Gladstone concluded his speech by reminding his audience that those in high station are not thereby removed from temptation, but rather more exposed to temptation, and that the Queen deserves and is entitled to the hearty prayers of all her subjects.

It is rather ludicrous to see Turkish decorations conferred on M. Flourens and other high officials of the French Foreign Ministry for the "strong support which the French Cabinet had afforded the Porte on the Egyptian question;"—that is, for making a promise (which was afterwards unblushingly repudiated) to protect the Porte against any consequence of repudiating the Convention, and so bringing about the collapse of an agreement that placed Turkey in a more commanding position with regard to Egypt than she has occupied for the past fifty years.

It is not likely that timber will ever lose its value, or be in over supply except locally; notwithstanding its displacement in many trades, notably in shipbuilding, by iron, the value of wood appears to increase, not diminish, its use in the crafts as a whole advancing *pari passu* with the use of iron. It might be made a source of immense wealth to Canada in the future if it were properly conserved; we have plenty of waste land, fit for nothing else, which, planted with trees, would grow what would pay off our national debt, while we were sleeping.

THE National League has been enriched by the accession to its ranks of Mr. Henry Labouchere. Is it wicked to hope that the road he has now stepped into may speedily lead him to the same goal, or goal, with his friend Mr. O'Brien? If all the Laboucheres and O'Briens could only be induced to commit themselves to safe keeping in this way, the re-establishment of good government in Ireland, and the return of prosperity to the Irish people, would go on "with leaps and bounds," as Mr. Gladstone might have said a year or two ago.

MR. O'BRIEN courts martyrdom, but he wants the path to it sprinkled with rose water. The nine by four cell to which his incitement has brought many an Irish peasant is not spacious enough for his importance, which he thinks deserves better treatment—luxurious lodging, perhaps refreshed by champagne and turtle. But the British Government sees no reason why they who incite to crime should receive better treatment than humbler criminals, their victims or tools; and so this would-be "elegant recluse" may at last get a taste of the treatment he deserves.

THE REQUEST.

Your eyes will look in hers, and drink
 Deep of their tenderness, and smile;
 And what your thoughts are, she will think;
 And wholly worship you the while.
 Ah! when she has this joy divine
 Forget—that so you looked in mine!

Your words will thrill her with their hidden power,
 Your nearness fill her with a sweet delight;
 Make her forget brief is Love's longest hour;—
 Your presence makes her day, your absence night.—
 Ah! while such perfect happiness there be
 Forget—that so you spoke to me!

Your kindly kiss will fall on loving lips
 Lips which with ardour cling to your embrace—
 And kiss will fall on kiss; her finger tips
 Will softly sweep the love locks from your face.
 Ah! while she is so near—so near to thee,
 Forget—that even so you kissed me!

Your arms will close around her yielding form,
 And draw her happy head upon your breast,—
 Can out of joy like this a pain be born?—
 And you will whisper "*Sweet, I love you best.*"
 Ah! while she is so close—so close to thee,
 Forget—that even so you whispered me!

Your love will grow around her life, and fill
 Her days with happiness; your tender care
 Will surely save her soul from slightest ill,
 Nor let her life be touched by dark despair.
 Ah! when she is so much—so much to thee,
 Forget—that so your love once sheltered me!

Montreal.

MAY AUSTIN.

PROMINENT CANADIANS.—I.

HON. OLIVER MOWAT, Q.C., LL.D.

WERE some skilful pen-and-ink artist to sketch, at the dictation of a number of representative Canadians taken from the various walks of public and private life, from both of the great political parties, and from the rapidly swelling ranks of those who profess to be subservient to neither party, their respective conceptions of the ideal Canadian statesman, the result would no doubt be a series of distinct portraits as numerous as the individuals consulted. Each model thus formed would have its own peculiar traits and proportions. It would, nevertheless, be inevitable that the points of likeness should be both more numerous and more important than the points of contrast. Let the number of distinct models thus obtained be reduced—as there is too much reason to fear it might be largely reduced—by the rejection of all those in which strict conscientiousness and lofty morality were not conspicuous features. Let the question then be submitted to a body of competent and unbiassed judges, "Who of all the men now in Canadian public life has shown himself possessed in the greatest number, and in the highest degree, of the fundamental qualities of Canadian statesmanship, as evolved by this process?" We make bold to say that the answer by a large majority, if not with unanimous consent, would be, "The Honourable Oliver Mowat, Attorney-General and First Minister of the Province of Ontario."

The claim is a large one. Many may be inclined at first thought to demur, but fuller consideration will, in most cases, compel assent. What are the qualities essential to the conception of a Canadian statesman of the first order? To attempt an exhaustive enumeration would be arrogant, but it should not be very hard to make a list such as would be generally approved of those most indispensable. The ideal man for the highest position in Dominion or Provincial politics must combine with the qualities which command influence and respect those which win success. He must not only be honest, able, industrious, and patriotic, but must have extraordinary tact, shrewdness, and practicality. It would not perhaps be very hard to find, amongst the men now prominent in Canadian public affairs, those who are the equals of Mr. Mowat in several of the qualities enumerated. A very few might be found his superiors in respect to some one or more of them. Corrupt as Canadian politics have unquestionably become, there are yet happily a few leaders who have held fast their integrity, of each of whom it can be said, as well as of Oliver Mowat, that no man can lay any dishonourable deed to his charge, or point to any stain of immorality on his escutcheon.

Mr. Mowat's most ardent admirers will scarcely claim for him the intellectual breadth and massiveness, or the grand oratorical powers, of a Blake. His capacity for sustained hard work is immense, and, as is almost always the case with men who have accomplished much, is one of the chief sources of his strength; but two ex-leaders of the Liberal Parliament in the Commons are living embodiments of the genius of industry and, to the country's great loss, have successively broken their health by excessive toil of brain. If intelligent devotion to his own province and unflinching defence of her rights are a proof of patriotism, the Premier of Ontario has proved himself a patriot of the first water. Should it be said that the

fealty of a Canadian is first to the Dominion rather than to the province, the ready answer is that he who is true to his own province when it entrusts its interests to his keeping, cannot be false to the Dominion, or to any other province. By boldly maintaining the possessions and prerogatives of Ontario, Mr. Mowat has best promoted the harmony and permanence of the whole Confederation.

As to the practical qualities which are so much prized in political science, Conservatives, at least, will be slow to admit that even Mr. Mowat's well-proved tact and shrewdness can entitle him to rank with that prince of tacticians and incarnation of political subtlety, who is the Ulysses of Canadian party warfare, and who has so long kept his party in power and himself at its head, in Dominion affairs. Be that as it may, the man who has shaped the policy and ruled the counsels of Ontario for sixteen consecutive and prosperous years, and who is still, in spite of all struggles for office, all prejudices of race and creed, and the most determined hostility of the Ottawa Government, at the head of its affairs, with an undiminished majority and a full exchequer, has most certainly established his claim to the position by the best argument of business men and politicians, that of practical success.

When we turn for a moment to inquire into the sources of the power which has made Mr. Mowat what he is, and placed him where he is, we are not surprised to find him of the stock which has given to Canada so many of its foremost men in every department, the Canadian-Scotch. His father, John Mowat, was from Caithness-shire, Scotland. He was a soldier who had seen stern service in the army of Wellington during its Peninsular campaigns; his wife was also of Caithness-shire. They came to Canada in 1816, and settled in Kingston, where their son Oliver was born on July 22, 1820. His education was as good as the schools of that city afforded at that date. At about the age of seventeen he entered the law office of Mr. (now Sir) John A. Macdonald, who, a young man but five years his senior, had just been admitted to the bar, and had settled down to practise his profession. At the outset of his student life young Mowat was called on to serve as a volunteer in the Rebellion of 1837. It may well be supposed that the state of parties and affairs in Canada to which his attention was thus early and practically called must have afforded him food for thought, and had much effect in shaping his after course. It is certainly noteworthy, as indicating both mental independence and moral earnestness of no common order, that, born as he was of Conservative parents, surrounded with Conservative influences, and trained in the study of a profession which is more closely related to politics than any other, in the office and under the direct influence of a man whose brilliant talents and personal magnetism have long been and still are the strongest forces on the side of Conservatism in Canada, Oliver Mowat should have chosen that broad-minded, moderate Liberalism, of whose principles he has ever since been so able an exponent, and so steadfast a promoter.

He was called to the Bar in 1842, and commenced practice in Kingston, but very soon afterwards came to Toronto, where he has ever since resided. At a time when the line of demarcation between Common Law and Equity was much more clearly drawn than at present, Mr. Mowat chose the latter branch. He rose quickly to eminence at the Chancery Bar. In 1856 he was appointed by the Government of which Mr. John A. Macdonald was a member, as Commissioner for Consolidating the Statutes of Canada and of Upper Canada respectively, a position which he held until 1859. In 1857 he was elected to Parliament as member for South Oxford. He continued to represent that constituency until 1864. Upon the fall of the Macdonald-Cartier Government in 1867, he was selected, though he had been but one year in the House, to fill the office of Provincial Secretary in the Brown-Dorion Administration. He held the portfolio of Postmaster-General in the Coalition Government formed by Mr. J. S. Macdonald in 1862, a position which he retained until the defeat of that Government in 1864. He was also a member of the memorable Union Conference which met at Quebec in 1864, and framed the Confederation Scheme; but his acceptance a few months later of the Vice-Chancellorship of Upper Canada deprived the framers of the Confederation Act of his services in the subsequent deliberations. When the Dual Representation Act compelled the retirement of Messrs. Blake and Mackenzie from the leadership of the Ontario Legislature in 1872, he was called on by the Lieutenant Governor, acting no doubt on the advice of the retiring Premier, to form an Administration. His descent from the Bench and re-entrance into political life gave occasion for a good deal of discussion at the time, on the part of those who thought, or affected to think, that the purity of the judicial ermine must be in some way contaminated by the change. The answer, if any is needed, to those who think that the position of Head of the Provincial Government is one requiring either mental or moral qualifications of a lower order than those of even the Chancellor's bench, is to be found in the record of sixteen years of able, upright, and progressive government of the affairs of Ontario. Those must be wilfully purblind who cannot now see that the judicial temperament and habit, with all of mental training and capacity and of moral integrity they imply, furnish the very best of qualifications for the responsible and honourable position of virtual ruler of a great province.

Sound discretion, marked ability, and sterling integrity have characterized Mr. Mowat's career in each division of his professional and official life. As a lawyer his talents quickly gained recognition, and reinforced by his clear judgment and scrupulous conscientiousness, soon won for him a high place in the confidence of the profession and of the court in which he practised. Though not fluent, he was energetic, forcible, and convincing as a pleader. His patience was admirable, his industry untiring, and his fertility in resources great. He was said to be endowed in large measure with the power of "thinking out" a subject, and was believed to be stronger in ability to go to the bottom of the subject than any of his con-

temporaries. As a judge he exhibited qualities of both head and heart which, while they won for him respect and admiration, gained also esteem and friendship in high degree. His great business and executive ability quickly showed itself in the improved conduct and quicker despatch of the business of the Court. As the head of the Government his record has long been before the people of Ontario. The mere enumeration of the reforms that have been effected and the beneficial acts passed during his *régime* would occupy more space than we have at disposal. The judicious settlement of the vexed question of the Municipal Loan Fund; the liberal and salutary provisions of the local Railway Acts; the consolidation of the Provincial Statutes; the local option principle reduced to practice in the Liquor Acts; the General Incorporation Act, by which so much economy of time has been secured in the Legislative Assembly; the well-considered and systematic aid to Public Charities; the changes by which the Education Department has been relieved of its irresponsible and bureaucratic character, and put in charge of a responsible Minister; the progressive legislation in connection with higher education and the University of Toronto; the introduction of the Ballot in political and municipal elections; the liberalising of the Franchise up to the verge of universal suffrage;—all these and many other legislative reforms wrought under this *régime* will be lasting monuments to his statesmanship.

Mr. Mowat's legislation, though uniformly Liberal and progressive, has never been sensational. His opponents have sometimes charged him with timidity. That wise caution that refuses to move blindly under irresponsible pressure, that waits to look on all sides of a question, and goes forward only when the way is made clear, is certainly his. But that cowardly fear of censure which shrinks and hesitates on the brink of what is seen to be right and just, for fear of consequences, cannot be laid to his charge. No really urgent legislation in the interests of Liberalism and progress has been unduly delayed through his fault. The manner in which he has met and vanquished, not only in the local political arena but in the highest court of the realm, Sir John A. Macdonald with all the power and prestige of his own high reputation and the Dominion premiership at his back, sufficiently attests his courage in doing what he deems the right. The vindication of provincial rights in the matters of the Boundary, the Rivers and Streams Bills, and the License question are services rendered by Oliver Mowat which will long be remembered by a grateful province.

As leader of the Local Government, in the House and out, Mr. Mowat's address and tactics are admirable. Clear-headed and logical in debate; cautious in committing himself, yet, when occasion demands, prompt in decision and firm in action; uniformly courteous and affable, yet ready and keen in retort, and often turning the tables on an opponent most effectively; keeping himself thoroughly informed on all important questions; exhibiting on all occasions a sound judgment combined with a ready wit, he inspires his colleagues and followers with confidence, and generally holds at bay or discomfits his most eager assailants. In some of these respects, notably in the extent and fulness of his knowledge of the subjects under debate, and in the soundness and acumen of his opinions on juridical and jurisdictional questions, his record compares most favourably with that of his great antagonist, the veteran leader of the Dominion Government.

To say that he may have sometimes made mistakes in judgment and policy, and that he has not uniformly steered clear of the dangerous reefs which abound in the streams of patronage, is but to admit that he is human and consequently fallible.

Mr. Mowat has always taken a deep interest in social and religious questions. He is a member of the Presbyterian Church, and was for many years President of the Evangelical Alliance. Like most men who have wrought earnestly and conscientiously for the public good in any sphere, his philanthropy and integrity are, no doubt, deep-based upon the firm foundation of religious principle. It has been sneeringly insinuated that he has claimed for himself the high honour of being a "Christian politician." It is unnecessary to say that the charge is without foundation. It seems to have originated in a perversion of a hypothetical allusion in one of his speeches to what might be considered the duty of a Christian politician, in some specified case. To arrogate to himself the distinctive title was farthest from his thought. Such a boast would be as repugnant to his good sense and taste as to the modesty for which he is distinguished. That he is a faithful and devout member of an influential Christian church is a crime which will be readily forgiven him in view of the great services he has rendered to society and the State.

J. E. WELLS.

BAIN ON "RHETORIC" * AND "TEACHING ENGLISH." †

A COUPLE of volumes from the press of D. Appleton and Co., and from the pen of Alexander Bain, LL.D., Emeritus Professor of Logic in the University of Aberdeen, will be certain to attract the purely literary mind as well as the vast body of teachers and students for whom these works have principally been compiled. For many years Bain's *Mind and Body*, *Mental Science*, *Logic*, and *English Composition and Rhetoric* have been before the public, and accepted as the most excellent text-books on these subjects it is possible to obtain. The last named work has, after twenty years' experience of teaching, been entirely remodelled, and with it appears a second volume, entitled *On Teaching English*, auxiliary to the enlarged and improved edition of the *Rhetoric and English Composition*. Both works denote, in various impressive and unmistakeable ways, the

union, in the brain of their author, of extreme niceness and delicacy of mere literary discrimination with the rarer qualities of psychological knowledge and appreciation of mental phenomena. Prof. Bain would be incapable of sending out into the world a text-book redolent of shop; in other words, a book in which the facts and figures of any given subject are simply tabulated and reduced to system, gathered into groups and put under headings, and duly accompanied by orthodox questions and answers. For instance, the student who is tediously familiar with Litotes and Metalepsis, Erotesis and Epizeuxis, Epanthosis and Hypotoposis, as more or less fascinating figures of rhetoric, or with Enallage and Hyperbaton, as more or less useful figures of syntax, or with Tmesis and Paragoge, as more or less lucid and entertaining figures of etymology, will be grateful to Professor Bain for having confined most of his observations to the more popular topics, such as metaphor, simile, and allegory, hyperbole and climax. Mere enumeration of figures has in several cases been the stumbling-block in the way of many students of the rhetorical art, and the chief blemish in works on the subject; and feeling this, Prof. Bain has selected and classified those figures of speech and syntax which appeared to him most worthy and relevant. Viewing, then, the whole rhetorical field from the high vantage ground of a trained metaphysician, the author divides the various and greatly varying forms or figures of speech into three classes, according to their source, viz.: Figures founded on similarity, including the metaphor, the simile, and the allegory; the figures founded on contiguity, such as the metonymy, the synecdoche, and the transferred epithet ("the open air," "a dark lantern," a "fat living," etc.); and the figures founded on contrast, such as the different kinds of antitheses, in addition to which are cited single figures of importance, like the epigram, the innuendo, apostrophe, hyperbole, and climax. Innuendo or insinuation is well defined to be what is termed suggestiveness carried to the pitch of a figure; euphemism, which in previous works has been defined as "that figure by which a harsh or offensive word is set aside, and one more delicate put in its place," being simply a special application of innuendo. Several of the examples adduced, however, incline strongly to the figure repartee, which has been frequently defined as "a sharp, witty reply," and under which head might easily come such a saying as Sir William Temple's, who upon being bothered about physicians during a season of ill-health, answered that he "did not consult physicians, for he hoped to die without them." Somewhat of a bull, too, is the famous speech of Mark Twain's anxious friend who, when in Germany, and listening to Twain discussing private matters *viva voce*, said, "Speak in German, these Germans may understand English." In the second division of the *Rhetoric*, the qualities of style, named respectively clearness, simplicity, impressiveness, and picturesqueness, are fully expounded and exemplified, and applied to the arts of criticism and composition.

These intellectual qualities of style, while of the utmost importance and interest, must not be confounded with the emotional qualities which are treated of in the auxiliary volume, *On Teaching English*. Here the author, critic, and philosopher is at his best. There is not a dull page in the book. The chapter on essay-writing should be in the hands of every teacher, male and female, throughout the world. The advantages of composition or essay-writing are manifestly three: it causes the pupils to develop their powers in exceptional cases where pupils possess powers; it conduces to wider reading and more special research and preparation, the benefit of which is apparent, and it prescribes an easy task for the teacher. "Like indiscriminate committing to memory," says Prof. Bain, "it ranks among the crude devices of the infancy of the education art. Even when costing almost nothing to the teacher, it is not without effect on the learner." Against the practice are put forth several very powerful considerations. The author contends that the prescription of essays is pernicious, in so far as their preparation involves an exercise in knowledge or thought. As long as the essay is considered only as an exercise in style, no reasonable and comprehensive objection can be taken to it. Certainly, it is apparent that there is much truth in this statement. In ladies' schools and colleges alone the detriment to self-knowledge and self-culture that a course of limp and flowery or stale and stilted essay-writing entails is beyond recording; the self-sufficiency it engenders, the pert glibness it applauds, both far-reaching in their evil consequences. The teacher of grammar or of rhetoric, of history or of literature, is not in a position to claim from his pupils that knowledge of the world and mankind requisite to frame a bundle of essays entitled—we quote again from the author—the *Relative Benefits of Solitude and Society*, the *Dependence of the Mind on the Body*, the *Choice of a Profession*, the *Virtue of Frugality*, the *Pleasures of Imagination*, the *Influence of Climate on National Character*, *Humanity to the Lower Animals*. There is, of course, a trace of special pleading in Prof. Bain's attitude inseparable from the intense earnestness and love of method which characterise the philosopher. Let us teach, says the Professor in effect, but one thing at a time, and that well. Let us learn in the same definite manner. Let us above all, before we dare to think of essay-writing, be sure of our instruction and our training, and let us have so learnt to arrange, ticket, and label our varied stores of information that in the treatment of a given subject we shall be able to distinguish the scientific from the ethical, the descriptive from the expository, the narrative from the persuasive. It will not escape the critical reader that such a course will more surely evolve a John Foster or a Bacon than a Leigh Hunt or a Charles Lamb, the whimsicalities and tangential propensities of the latter two being somewhat at variance with the strict lines laid down in this earnest manual, but as the teacher must concern himself with the pupils of the living present rather than with the authors of an uncertain future, no better advice than the above can be followed. The section on "Paraphrasing" contains some hits at the habit, pernicious in the extreme, of encouraging mere perfunctory conversions of good poetry into bad prose, or good prose into most indifferent poetry. English and Scotch inspectors of schools

* *English Composition and Rhetoric*. Part I. By Alex. Bain, LL.D. New York: D. Appleton and Co.

† *On Teaching English*. With Detailed Examples, and an Enquiry into the Definition of Poetry. By Alex. Bain, LL.D. New York: D. Appleton and Co.

prescribe this exercise very largely, but not always with genuine success, if we are to judge from the reports. The paraphrase, however, has its good points, and in the hands of a careful teacher may lead to good results; it should neither be neglected nor overrated, but used sparingly as a useful means to point out changes of language and of order that are inseparable from the new form. In the analysis of the emotional qualities of style, such writers as Keats, Shelley, Gray, and Milton are mainly drawn upon for poetic examples, nine pages being devoted to a close study of the "Ode to a Skylark," justly considered one of the most beautiful poems in the language. There may be perhaps a hint of the cold-blooded man of science and metaphysics in the manner of dissecting this delicate morsel, clad in a robe of the most gorgeous imagery, likened to a "cloud of fire," melting in a purple even, invisible like the star in daytime, but heard by the listening ear of the poet. But if, as critic, he uses the knife, as all critics have to do, he at least uses it carefully and gently, and with due appreciation of the many sweet and eloquent lines in the poem. How is it therefore that the analysis stops in the middle of the poem, and that out of the twenty-one stanzas that compose it, the most relevant, the most touching, and the most poetically harmonious are left unnoticed? It is true that they contain fewer images than the preceding stanzas, and therefore are not such fit subjects for the critic's treatment, but it would have been better to have at least indicated their existence, and not have dismissed the poem without making any reference to them. What Shelley wanted to say on that occasion he said at the close of his poem, after he had exhausted his gorgeous images and had made an end of "talking wild and without set purpose," according to our author. The remainder of the treatise on the emotional qualities deals with the ideas of pain, of pathos, of sublimity, and of human interest or character, and the work finally closes with an exhaustive essay on the "Definition of Poetry." Mr. Matthew Arnold's definition—which will be remembered as "a criticism of life,"—Alfred Austin's attempt to locate and christen the muse by calling it "the idealising of the matter-of-fact," not to speak of those definitions by Aristotle, Shairp, and Wordsworth, familiar to us all, are here brought forward and set by side. We are inclined to advise our readers, those who are anxious to procure as good a definition and history of poetry as possible, to turn to that article in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, entitled "Poetry," from the pen of Mr. Theodore Watts, whom Mr. Swinburne has recently called the "first critic of our time—perhaps the largest-minded and surest-sighted of any age," and who has pointed out in his truly admirable essay the interesting distinction which in ancient Greece divided claimants to the laurel into "singers" and "makers." In taking leave of these two valuable books, we may safely welcome in them that method of the author by which the teaching art is subjected to scientific handling, and ordinary experiences viewed in the light of psychological law.

OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

AMERICAN COMMONWEALTHS. Connecticut. A study of a Commonwealth-Democracy. By Alexander Johnston, Professor in Princeton College. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin, and Company. Toronto: Williamson and Company.

This volume of 400 pages deals with the political and constitutional history and growth of the State of Connecticut, regarded as the typical American commonwealth, or most thorough development of democratic institutions contained in the Republic. The reader is led by entertaining stages from the first settlements in 1629 and 1631 through the Pequot War, the disturbances of the Indians, the foundations of the New Haven and Connecticut colonies, to the union of these two settlements in 1662, when Charles signed for the new State a charter on April 23, giving it a government which lasted for a century and a half, until the adoption of the new constitution in 1818. An appendix contains a copy of the original constitution of 1639, and a list of the Governors of Connecticut. A handsome map also accompanies the work, which is bound to become one of great use and value, as illustrating American principles and American laws, and bearing witness to the thoroughness of American talent for reconstruction and organisation. Mr. Horace P. Scudder is the editor of the Commonwealth Series, and the present volume is inscribed to Timothy Dwight, president of Yale University.

Twok. By Watson Griffin. Hamilton: Griffin and Kidner.

It is a little difficult to determine whether Mr. Watson Griffin intends us to find in *Twok* a novel, a Sunday-school book, or a vehicle for certain moral, educational, and economic theories in which its author has confidence. It is certainly something of all three. "Twok" is a Buffalo waif of Canadian parentage. The story consists mainly of an account of her fortunes in returning to the land of her birth, and of the fortunes of a good many other people with whom she comes in contact. It has a local interest in its references to Hamilton, Toronto, and Montreal; and none who read it through will fail to be convinced that Mr. Griffin has written it with a high and earnest purpose. His work shows a good deal of sympathy and discernment in dealing with child-nature, and much patience in working out the details of a somewhat intricate plot. The story lacks unity and directness of aim, which detracts from its artistic value as a whole; and one is disposed to believe it might have been shortened to advantage. As a rather complex presentation of some simple phases of Canadian life, however, it will doubtless find many interested readers among book-buyers generally, while the admirable moral lessons it inculcates entitle it to special recommendation for youthful reading.

ELEMENTARY CLASSICS. EASY SELECTIONS FROM OVID, in Elegiac Verse. Arranged and Edited with Notes, Vocabularies and Exercises in Latin Verse Composition. By Herbert Wilkinson, M.A., formerly Postmaster of Merton College, Oxford. London and New York: Macmillan and Co. Toronto: Williamson and Co.

This charming little light-blue primer, intended for small boys and girls who are reading Latin poetry for the first time, would seem to be all it is intended to be, containing, out of about one hundred pages, fifty that are devoted to minute explanations of the text. So many text-books of a similar nature are multiplied in these days that it becomes difficult to pronounce upon them. One is about as good as another, and their use manifestly removes one great source of evil in teaching, the inequalities and inaccuracies of interpretation on the part of teachers who are not all fitted either by education or natural gifts to introduce their young pupils to the study of the higher classics. The passages in the present little work are arranged in order of difficulty, and the conventional spelling of Latin words, as identical with that in the grammars in general use, has been, for obvious reasons, retained throughout. The pupil is supposed to be conversant with all elementary rules of prosody, and with the scansion of hexameter and pentameter lines.

MILTON'S PARADISE LOST. Books I. and II. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by M. Macmillan, B.A., Oxon. London and New York: Macmillan and Co. Toronto: Williamson and Co.

The author of this critical hand-book to one of the most important English classics is Professor of Logic and Moral Philosophy, Elphinstone College, Bombay. The notes are profuse and learned, while an excellent introduction is chiefly remarkable for the review it presents of the charges brought against Milton at different times, and by different critics, of plagiarism. Voltaire, it will be remembered, wrote in 1727 to the effect that the idea of *Paradise Lost* was taken from a comedy entitled *Adamo*, written by a Florentine player. Dr. Johnson denies this, although there can be little doubt of very many similarities existing in the two works. Mr. Edmund Gosse finds the original of the poem in Holland, a fine poem, *Lucifer*, having been published in 1654 by Vondel, a prominent Dutch poet, and containing not only contiguous ideas, but lines almost startling in their similarity. The *Niobe* of Stafford, published in 1611, is another claimant for the honour of first principles and ideas; so is the *Locustæ*, a Latin poem, by Phineas Fletcher, published in 1627. A translation by Sylvester, of a poem on creation, by a French poet, Du Bartas, is also cited as having possibly suggested much of the subject-matter of his great epic to Milton, who would, we feel sure, be greatly surprised and perhaps a little disgusted could he know the intense eagerness with which critics have sought to prove that *Paradise Lost* was not *Paradise Lost*, and that Milton was not—well, Milton. It is usually believed that Cædmon, the first Anglo-Saxon poet of eminence, whose poem on the Creation was printed at Amsterdam in 1655, was very nearly allied to Milton in power and in manner, and although Milton nowhere admits as much, we may gather from his familiarity with Anglo-Saxon literature (he wrote a History of England down to the Norman Conquest) that he was conversant with Cædmon's poem, and probably much impressed by it. We must conclude in all these cases of so-called plagiarism, that it is occasionally with literary men as it is with others, scientists, explorers, astronomers and inventors—the glory is not always to the actual first man in the field, but often to the man who comes second or even third, and appropriates, perhaps unconsciously, what has been suggested to him by a more original mind and nature than his own. The first man has had the glory of conception; to the lucky second or third comes that of execution, and it is usually the latter of whom the world hears most.

We have received also the following publications:

QUERIES. September. Buffalo: C. W. Moulton and Company.
THE PANSY. September. Boston: D. Lothrop and Company.
FRANK LESLIE'S SUNDAY MAGAZINE. October. New York: 53-57 Park Place.
CHURCH REVIEW. September. New York: J. G. Geddes and Company.
COSMOPOLITAN. September. New York: Schlicht and Field Company.
MACMILLAN'S MAGAZINE. September. New York: Macmillan and Company.
LIPPINCOTT'S MAGAZINE. October. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company.

SAUNTERINGS.

WE must not close our notes of this year's art exhibitions in London and Paris without some reference to sculpture, which, being less attractive than painting to the general public, is a branch of art which is often only too much neglected, considering it is the foundation of that classical Greek genius of which colour was only the Italian development, and should always be studied as a necessary factor in art education. The sculpture exhibited at the Grosvenor Gallery this year can scarcely be said to sustain the promise of last year. (Of the show at Burlington House no good criticism has yet been received.) Mr. Harry Bates' small bronze bust of Rhodope, a powerful engraving of which appears in the *Magazine of Art*, has indeed a distinction of style that is always rare, and shows delicacy and research in the modelling. Mr. Nelson MacLean's statue of "Comedy," though a less successful treatment of the theme than the sculptor's "Tragedy," is yet the most dignified and impressive example at the Grosvenor. Mr. Onslow Ford is well represented by his bust of the Right Honourable A. J. Balfour, M.P., a piece of portraiture of excellent force and character. He is a young sculptor of whom great things may be expected, and has already shown signs of original genius, his statue of

Carlyle upon the Thames Embankment being a noble evidence of his powers. Mr. Waldo Story's marble group, "The Fallen Angel," though creditable in design, lacks strength and expression in the chiselling.

MR. HOLMAN HUNT, whose celebrated picture, "The Scapegoat," created so much criticism on its exhibition in London, has committed his experiences and adventures in the East to the press in a series of papers, called "The Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood," in which he tells how, in the summer of 1854, he made an interesting journey to the remote end of the Dead Sea, and there found, in the neighbourhood of Usdum, what he determined to make the background of the "Scapegoat." In an article contributed to the *Contemporary* he gives a detailed account of the painting of this remarkable picture, which seems to bring both the scene and the canvas itself before our eyes. "Having determined," he tells us, "against certain spots, I had only to choose between one or two I had kept in reserve, and to study the manner of the goat's walking over the insecure ground, noting the while the tone he assumed." (The animal in question was a young, white goat, which had been brought by the artist from Jerusalem on a mule to serve as a model for his work.) His easel was planted, his canvas uncovered, and we see him at work. "Every minute," says Dr. Hunt, "the mountains became more gorgeous and solemn—the whole scene more unlike anything ever portrayed before. Afar all seemed of the brilliancy and preciousness of jewels, while close by all of this was salt and burnt limestone, with decayed trees and broken branches brought from far distant lands, from roots perhaps still growing on the banks of rivers, which in the winter flood the lake. Skeletons, too, of animals which had perished for the most part in crossing the Jordan and the Jabbok had been swept here, and lay salt-covered, so that birds and beasts of prey left them untouched. It was most appropriate for the subject, and each minute I rejoiced more in my work."

We have lately met with some interesting facts concerning the studios of three well known English painters in an American art journal, which seem indicative of the individuality and tastes of the occupants. Mr. Pettie, the historical painter, for instance, possesses an atelier that is not only an artistic conception but contains a valuable collection of objects invaluable to his profession; he has rare suits of armour adorning his walls, and many curious appurtenances belonging to their period, the arrangements of his rooms being in admirable keeping with these warlike accessories. Close to his residence is that of Mr. Frank Holl, whose portraits have created quite a sensation in London this season. It is a very handsome building, and often the carriages of numerous members of the aristocracy may be seen outside its doors. The studio is a large square room, its decorations very subdued, and disposed with a view to forming a fitting background for a semicircle of life-size portraits on view. There were no less than nine. Here could be seen a well-known statesman, a soldier, an author, a prelate and an actor, with other persons of note, shoulder to shoulder, conspicuous among them being Gladstone and Irving, both strikingly realistic portraits. A peculiarity of this painter is that he finds it impossible to portray a woman's face to his satisfaction. The studio of Mr. Edwin Long, one of the leading Royal Academicians, is an Eastern sanctum, entered by widely opened doors, through which one is ushered by an Oriental in native costume; but it does not burst upon you all at once, for in front of the doorway is a huge Indian fretted screen of exquisite workmanship. Soft strains of music float down from an invisible source—an organ played by the artist's daughter on a little raised gallery, behind another fretwork screen. The roof of the apartment is dome-shaped, and has unexpected nooks and corners; silken hangings, superb Eastern rugs, with many works of art, form a wealth of colour and lend a charm to the whole not easily forgotten.

THE sketches, chiefly in pencil, of the late George Cruikshank, presented by his widow to the British Museum, recall a phase of English caricature when the aim, rather than the means, was all important. Although he, like his father, at the outset of his career chiefly occupied himself with politics, he soon found his true vocation lay in art, and in the delineation of the crimes and follies of his time. He applied a lash to the streets and alleys of London, which whipt away much of the open vice of fifty years ago.

ON December 7, 1885, a picture by Raphael, said to be an original, the "Virgin and the Book," was seized at Chicago by special treasury agents. It was returned to its owner this summer. The painting is the property of Honore Keiffer, a resident of that city, who kept a small picture shop in Paris in 1869. He purchased the Raphael from a priest for 8,000 francs, and it was seized while on exhibition at the Calumet Club when the owner was trying to sell it for \$40,000.

MR. CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER has discovered a reputed Titian in a remote village of Mexico with an unpronounceable name, which he describes as follows: "In the sacristy of an ancient church is the treasure of the country. The room is oblong and has windows only on one side, but across it and filling in one end over the vestment chest hangs 'The Entombment' by Titian. The canvas, which is enclosed in a splendid old carved wood frame is fifteen and a half feet long. It contains eleven figures all life size. Is this great picture really an original? It seems incredible that a work of such value and importance should be comparatively unknown and found in a remote corner of the New World, but the evidence that it is a Titian is strong. It was sent to this church by Philip II., who seems to have thought no gift too costly or precious for the cause of the true faith. Titian, we know, visited at the Court of Philip, and executed works to his order. It is possible that the picture is a replica of one somewhere in Europe. I think that any one familiar with

the works of Titian would say this is in his manner, that in colour and composition it is like his best pictures, and I trust that this description of it will lead to some investigation abroad that will settle the question."

MADAME ADELINA PATTI holds by right of her talent and wealth a position in England approaching that of any noble in the land, and commands an amount of attention in her adopted Welsh home which must be exceedingly gratifying to the cantatrice. She organised last month a concert in aid of the poor of the district of Brecon, which was given in the Town Hall and proved a great success, the room being filled with a very fashionable audience and the day regarded as a public holiday. Madame Patti was met at the railway station by the Mayor and Corporation, attired in their robes of office, as well as by the mace-bearers and borough officials, and was accompanied in state to the Town Hall, the route being hung with flags and lined with spectators, a triumphal arch decorating one of the principal streets. The station and concert-room were both elaborately ornamented. The great lady sang no less than six times, and after the performance was over received a vote of thanks from the Mayor of Brecon. She is not only generous in a public but also in a private capacity, having substantially befriended many poor and struggling artists; her latest venture in this direction has been the education of her own rival in the person of a young American girl called "Nikita" or the "Fairy of Niagara," who is shortly to make her debut at Colonel Mapleson's popular concerts. The maiden is a native of Virginia, and since her earliest childhood has like the prima donna displayed a marvellous gift of song. Reports ascribe to her a romantic history. At six years of age she used to sing at concerts, then she was stolen by the Indians, and for five years she lived with them, was treated with great kindness, and worshipped for her beautiful voice. Her adopted father, the chief of his tribe, on his death-bed exacted a promise from his followers that they would restore her to her parents, which they faithfully fulfilled. "Nikita's" mother brought her over to Europe, found out Madame Patti, and made the child sing for her. From that time her fortune was assured. Madame Patti supervised her musical education and confided her to the care of her brother-in-law, Mr. Maurice Strakosch, with what results will soon be made apparent to the world at large.

A COMPETENT London critic makes the following comment upon the recent performance of *A Midsummer Night's Dream*, no account of which seems to have reached Canada beyond what we have published. "The wonder is that any one who has experienced the unqualified pleasure of attending a pastoral play in the open air—such as Lady Archibald Campbell brought into vogue a few summers ago—can have the patience and endurance to sit for hours in a closed theatre during this tropical August weather. Quite delightful on the sultry evening of Saturday last was the second performance of *A Midsummer Night's Dream*, in the well wooded garden of Pope's Villa, Twickenham, under the capable direction of Mrs. Henry Labouchere, who gave the proceeds of her charming entertainment to the Charing-cross Hospital on this occasion. The part of the Fairy King Oberon, who sets the two pairs of lovers by the ears in the enchanted wood near Athens, and makes Titania fall in love with Bottom the weaver, was sustained with characteristic grace and earnestness by Lady Archibald Campbell. The coming and going of Hermia and Helena (Miss Fortescue and Miss Dorothy Dene) beneath the greenwood tree; the sprightliness of Miss Norrey in performing Puck's elfish tricks with good-humoured glee; the fascinations of witching Miss Kate Vaughan as Titania; and Mr. Sala's gravely humorous prosing and dosing as Bottom—all told the more by reason of the comedy being so naturally acted under real branches in the fresh air that it seemed like life itself rather than a play. The beauties of Mendelssohn's illustrative music were well brought out by Mr. Auguste Van Biene's orchestra. The audience who, comfortably seated under an open marquee, enjoyed this captivating garden rendering of Shakespeare's fairy comedy would no doubt in combination with the general public afford ample support to any enlightened manager who should favour London with a regular summer season of open air plays." E. S.

LITERARY GOSSIP.

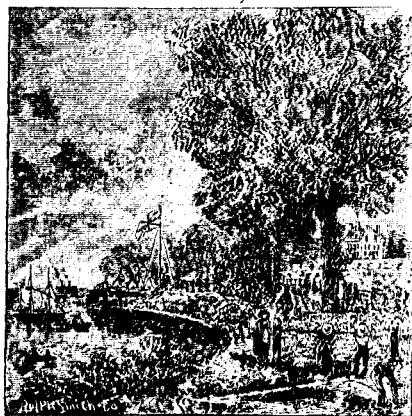
Kanada und Newfoundland, by Ernest von Hesse-Wartegg, is announced for publication by Herder, of Freiburg, Germany. It will be fully illustrated.

SCOTT's complete poetical works, carefully revised by W. J. Rolfe, and now first published in a correct edition, are announced as one of the Ticknor's holiday books. The work will contain all the original illustrations of the poems, together with many new ones.

AMONG the oddities in books may be reckoned an almanac to illustrate "the German." This is the *Cotillion Almanac for 1888* (announced by George Routledge and Sons), a miniature book whose clever and original designs of the dance and its favours are daintily printed in colours and gold.

WHEN it was stated on unimpeachable authority that poor Richard Jefferies had died penniless, the first idea of some people was that he must have been the victim of greedy publishers. To prevent this notion spreading, the publisher of two of Mr. Jefferies' books writes to *The Standard* to say that, so far as he is concerned, there was no greediness. He made a net loss of £60 on the books, while he paid Mr. Jefferies £250. The fact is Mr. Jefferies failed to hit the popular taste, which of late years has run more than ever in the direction of cheap sensational fiction—a taste which like other forms of debauchery, mental or physical, tends to grow by what it feeds on.

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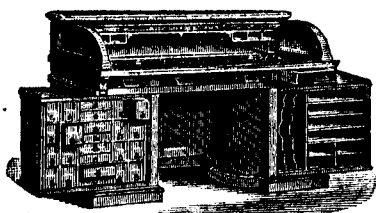
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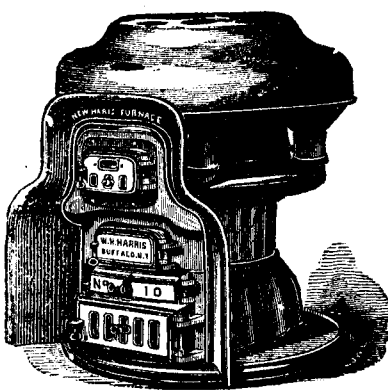
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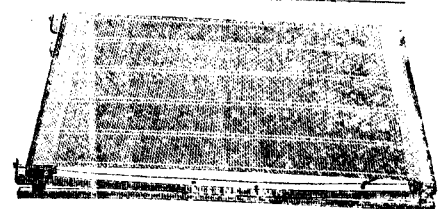


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