

THE WEEK:

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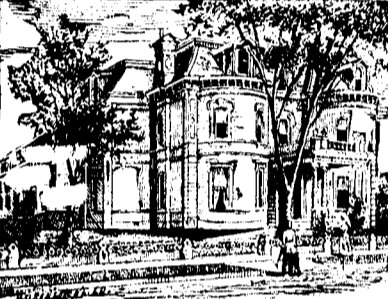
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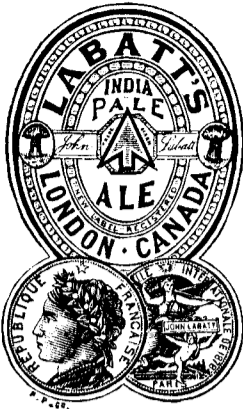
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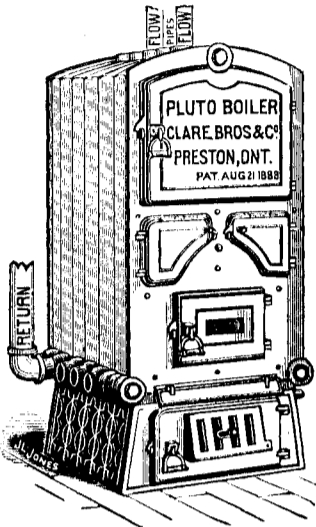
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All articles, contributions, and letters on matters pertaining to the editorial department should be addressed to the Editor, and not to any person who may be supposed to be connected with the paper.

THE latest news from Ottawa at the time of this writing is a veritable surprise. It is the announcement that Sir Hector Langevin tendered his resignation as a Minister of the Crown, preliminary to his appearance to give testimony before the Committee on Privileges and Elections. Had that testimony been, in any sense, an admission of wrongdoing in the matters alleged by the witnesses Murphy and Robert McGreevy, the cause of the resignation would have been apparent. But when the same message which brings the news of the Minister's resignation informs us that his sworn statement, read before the Committee, was a distinct and categorical denial of each and every one of the allegations in which he was represented as being privy to the infamous transactions in evidence before the Committee, his retirement from the Government seems to have taken place just at the moment when we should have expected him to stand firm and defiant. As we have before had occasion to point out, it would have been but becoming had Sir Hector seen fit to retire, temporarily at least, at the commencement of the investigation, seeing that the documentary evidence on which the committee was obliged to rely largely had to be procured from his own department. It would have indicated but a nice sense of propriety had he, in view of that fact, voluntarily put it out of his own power to manipulate this documentary evidence in any way. His present action can, we suppose, be accounted for only on the assumption that, while declaring in the most positive terms that his own hands are clean, he finds himself forced to admit that the fact that such frauds could have taken place under his administration, and have been continued so long, will be regarded by the public as *prima facie* evidence of glaring incompetency on his part. The Ottawa despatch before us assumes that Sir Hector's resignation was forced by the remarkably plain language used by Premier Abbott in the Senate the other day. But we are unable to see how the Premier's declared resolve to find out and punish the guilty without respect to persons, could compel the resignation of a man conscious of innocence. With most natures it would have had the very opposite effect.

WHAT will be the effect of Sir Hector's own statement upon the public mind? Until we have seen the full statement and learned the result of the cross-examination it is perhaps useless to conjecture. A most marked feature of the whole investigation, and one that renders it the more deeply humiliating and disgraceful to the country, is the fact that falsehood and perjury have clearly been rampant throughout. Of scarcely one of the chief witnesses, before Sir Hector, can one feel that his testimony, uncorroborated, is entitled to credence. Mr. O. E. Murphy's credibility was utterly shattered in cross-examination, as well as by his previous record. The Connollys as witnesses were remarkable chiefly for astounding forgetfulness and for skilful fencing with the examiners. Mr. Robert McGreevy, to say nothing of other incidents, stands convicted out of his own mouth of having sworn to what was, to all intents and purposes, a wilful untruth, in the matter affecting his brother's election. Mr. Thomas McGreevy, on his own showing, authorized a solemn falsehood in his declaration in Parliament. We should pity the jury which might have to reach a conclusion on the bare testimony of such witnesses. One would like to accept the sworn statements of a Minister of the Crown and a K. C. M. G., without the slightest suspicion or reservation of any kind. And yet it must be confessed that the theory of Sir Hector's perfect innocence seems so nearly inconceivable, in view of all the circumstances, that one finds himself almost involuntarily searching for double meanings, or for studied ambiguities. If one may be judged to any extent by the characters of those with whom he does business, as well as of those with whom he associates, Sir Hector can hardly complain of such suspicions. How a thoroughly upright administrator could have, for so many years, kept in close business relations with the Department so disreputable a band of boodlers as those composing the now famous firm are shown to be, not less by their own personal admissions than by their mutual testimonies, passes ordinary comprehension. Must one give up all faith in the reliability of moral instincts and perceptions, and in laws of affinity in the ethical sphere? Many men become the dupes of clever knaves once or twice in their lives. Few, indeed, are so unfortunate as to continue blindly their business relations with such, through many years, and after having been repeatedly victimized.

LAST week the area of disturbance in the political atmosphere was materially extended. It has now reached the Senate, and the Railway Committee of that venerable body is engaged in an investigation involving the honesty and honour of the Quebec Local Government. There is still some room to hope that the grave charge which is being pressed by Mr. Barwick, as solicitor for one of the creditors of the old Baie des Chaleurs Railway Company, may be proved baseless, but it must be confessed that appearances are thus far sadly against the supposition. The details are, no doubt, familiar to our readers. The charge is in effect that the Government of Quebec, after having made a grant in aid of the new company which has undertaken to complete and equip that road, and having made it a strict condition of bestowing the grant that a portion of it should be used in paying the *bona fide* claims of creditors of the road, did itself, through the agency of the officer appointed at its suggestion to receive the subsidy, retain \$100,000 of the appropriation thus made, for political purposes. Unfortunately for the accused, Mr. C. N. Armstrong, the creditor of the road, who is said to have been the intermediary in this dishonourable transaction, failed to respond to a summons to give evidence before the Senate Committee. More significant still, the president and promoters of the company, who had been applying for the Dominion Charter as indispensable to the completion of the work, actually sought to withdraw the Bill after Mr. Barwick's statement had been made. Unfortunately, too, for the consistency of some members of the Liberal party, Senators Scott and Power and others of the few Liberals left in the Upper Chamber, strenuously urged that the permission should be granted, and the investigation left for the Opposition in the Quebec Legislature, which would probably have succeeded in carrying through such an enquiry about the time of the Greek

Kalends. Some Conservative Senators, for reasons best known to themselves, joined in the demand that the Company be permitted to withdraw the Bill. This the majority of the Senate very properly refused to do, for, seeing that Dominion subsidies to the extent of more than \$600,000 have been given to the road, nothing can be much clearer than that it is both the right and the duty of the Senate, under the circumstances, to enquire into the truth of so grave a charge of misappropriation of the funds of the railway. The latest news at the time of this writing is that Mr. Armstrong, who, Mr. Barwick insists, must be the first to be examined, will appear before the Committee to-day (Wednesday). Mr. Pacaud, of *L'Electeur*, who, it is alleged, received the money back from Mr. Armstrong, after having formally handed it over to him in the name of the Government, denies the charge *in toto*, and has expressed his willingness to appear, if the time can be arranged so as not to interfere with a trip across the Atlantic for which he had made arrangements. Other witnesses seem to have kept purposely out of the way, so that when the Senate Committee met on Monday not one of those who had been summoned to give evidence appeared. It is probable, however, that all will think better of it if the Senators are found to be in downright earnest. Meanwhile the public can only wait in the fear that another story of disgraceful fraud is about to be added to the already dark record of the Session's discoveries.

THE current session of Parliament has been a most humiliating one to all honest Canadians. The effect upon the reputation of Canadians in general and of those of them in any way connected with the politics and public life of the country in particular, cannot fail to be seriously and lastingly injurious. We cannot complain of the fact. That is merely the outcome of a well understood law of retributive justice. When the people wink at corrupt methods in elections, it is but to be expected that those who gain or retain power by such methods must fail to secure any higher code of honour in those who serve under them in positions of influence or trust. The stream cannot rise above its source. It has often been observed and lamented that too many of those from whom better things might be expected seem to have one system of morals to govern their relations to individuals, and quite another system to govern their relations to the public as an organized body, whether in a municipal or a political capacity. How often is it the case that the man or the woman who would be strictly fair and upright in dealing with a neighbour seems to think it quite pardonable and even creditable to get the better of the corporation in any transaction, or to cheat the Customs or the Post-office, or to obtain two prices for a product or a service from the Provincial or National Government. This shallow and painful trifling with moral standards may often be charitably ascribed to a lack of proper ethical training, or of that moral thoughtfulness which Dr. Arnold rightly prized so highly, and which in many natures can be developed only by careful cultivation of the sense of right and wrong. But if it is painful to find such a deficiency of moral training in the many, what are we to say when we find a similar moral obtuseness in those from whom we should have expected the very opposite? It would be easy to illustrate our meaning from the records of the committees of enquiry now sitting at Ottawa. A Deputy Minister, for instance, fails to see any moral wrong in permitting clerks in a Government office to draw money from the Department, in the name of other persons, real or fictitious, which it would have been illegal to draw in their own. Another official in the service of the Government, himself the son of a Minister, boldly declares, in the presence of a Parliamentary Committee, that he thinks those who hold good contracts from the Government should make liberal donations to the funds of the political party which supports the Government. Nay, a Minister of the Crown himself assures a Parliamentary Committee, with the air of a man who expects applause for the statement, that he has sometimes refused the contract for a public service to the lowest tenderer, in order that he might the better distribute the patronage, as if, forsooth, the management of a branch of the public service meant the distribution of a certain amount of the public funds in the way of patronage,

rather than the conduct of public business on business principles, in the conscientious discharge of a public trust. It is painfully apparent that this baneful idea of "patronage" is at the bottom of much of the wrong-doing which is wasting the national resources and bringing disgrace upon the Canadian name.

THESE are, perhaps, no more difficult questions in political economy or in business ethics than those concerning the limitations which may properly be placed upon the freedom of individuals in combining for mutual advantage in matters of trade and manufacture. Some of the difficulties involved have been pretty clearly brought out in connection with Mr. Clarke Wallace's efforts to promote anti-combine legislation at Ottawa. Nothing can be clearer than that the merging of several small competing factories into one large combination must materially decrease the cost of production of the article, whatever it may be, by increasing the capital available for the perfection of machinery, by facilitating the division of labour upon which cheapness of production so largely depends, by reducing the cost of management, and so forth. The result might be, if the combiners were only so disposed, a real and tangible gain to the public in the reduction of the cost of the article in question—and that, too, without any diminution of the profits of the manufacturers. In the same way a combination of the wholesale dealers in any article of general use and necessity, enabling them to effect a great saving in the cost of management, travelling agents, distribution, etc., should redound to the public benefit by lessening the cost of the wares handled by the dealers in question. A closely-related problem is briefly dealt with in a late number of *Bradstreets*. Referring to the view taken in some quarters that there is a vital difference between the holding back of wheat by wheat-growers, so as to secure higher prices, and the "corners" in wheat by means of which owners of wheat and dealers therein aim to raise the price of the staple and increase their returns from their holding of the same, *Bradstreets* thinks that the distinction is not really very clear:—

Assuming that the wheat-grower has contributed his labour and even capital to the production of the wheat, it is also true that the buyer, and hence the owner, of the wheat exchanges for it his capital, which represents saved or stored labour, so that they both hold the wheat by an equally valid title. The point is made that every individual wheat-grower has the right to sell the product of his own labour where and when he can get the most satisfactory price, or not to sell at all if that suits him best at the time. If that right pertains to the grower, why not to the buyer and owner of wheat, who has also transferred his labour or the representative thereof for the wheat, and holds it by as just a title?

So far, in either case, the argument in favour of freedom to combine for cheaper manufacturing or handling of staple goods, and of freedom to purchase and hold for sale wheat and other articles of prime necessity, seems sound and cogent. In regard to the point touched by *Bradstreets*, it used to be even argued by the old writers on economy that the speculator who, foreseeing a scarcity, buys in large quantities and "holds for a rise," is really though unconsciously a public benefactor, inasmuch as he prevents extravagance and waste, and lays up in storehouses, like Pharaoh's Prime Minister, Joseph, against the day of need.

BUT there is, unhappily, another side to the shield. This theory of freedom, carried to its logical conclusion under present day conditions, and especially when aided by high protective tariffs, may at any time leave whole communities practically at the mercy of the combines, or the speculators. Thinking people are coming to see more and more clearly every day that the system of competition held up by political economists of the old school as the perfection of business methods, and even yet much praised by many writers and legislators, is really one of the most wasteful and in many cases most cruel and unjust that can be imagined. But it is equally clear, on the other hand, that the destruction of this competitive system, whether by the operation of combines and speculative corners, or by direct or indirect legislation, tends to foster worse evils than any which can be the outcome of the freest competition. Here we have, in a nutshell, as we have said, one of the hardest problems of modern civilization. It is just this logical dilemma which is giving rise to the various schemes of State socialism which are being mooted, and in some cases tentatively adopted in different countries. Whether this way lies deliverance, or some better way out may be devised under the stress of necessity, remains to be proved. Many are looking for relief

to an extension of the principle of coöperation or profit-sharing, and no doubt some of the worst evils both of excessive competition and of combination may yet be counteracted in this way. The progress of these methods is no doubt an omen of good. One of the latest and apparently most successful applications of the coöperative principle is being now carried out, strange to say, in Ireland. Driven by the unequal competition with the better and cheaper products of the Danish factory creameries, the producers of butter in certain parts of Ireland resorted for a time to creameries started in their own country. But under the law of competition one of the results was a deterioration in the quality of milk supplied to the factories, and consequently in the quality of the butter produced. To remedy this, twenty coöperative creameries have been established within the last two years, with the most hopeful results. The experiment is said to have proved in every way economical and profitable, and the principle has been so far extended that the entire product of these creameries is now purchased by a "coöperative wholesale society," which in turn sells to perhaps a thousand coöperative retail shops. "It is noteworthy," says the exchange from which these facts are gleaned, "that this experiment was started purely from commercial motives, not with an idea of social or labour reform." Another paper announces the promising beginning of a scheme of coöperation of another kind. Pursuant to the plan of profit-sharing it has inaugurated, the great house of S. S. Pierce and Company, of Boston, Mass., is said to have divided, at the close of last year, \$10,000 among one hundred and sixty-five workers, each man receiving in consequence an addition of almost exactly ten per cent. to the wages regularly earned. Still, however welcome and hopeful as a solution of the labour and social problem, in some of its phases, it is evident that neither coöperation nor profit-sharing is likely to meet fully the requirements of the situation as between competition and combination or monopoly, as there is nothing to prevent a coöperative or profit-sharing concern from itself operating as a combine or monopoly of a most oppressive kind, so far as outsiders are concerned.

DURING the last thirty-five years, many great advances have been made in the direction of liberalizing the great English universities, but we have little hesitation in saying that the last remarkable movement, known as University Extension, bids fair to eclipse them all. Within the period indicated religious tests have been abolished; students have been admitted without compulsory residence in a hall or college; courses of study have been greatly liberalized and extended, and have been made largely elective. Each of these reforms had the effect of bringing the benefits of university training within the reach of a larger number. But the privileges of the universities were still brought within reach of a very few, and these mostly of select classes. The establishment of examinations at various local centres, which began to be held by both Oxford and Cambridge in 1858, was a great advance. It had the two-fold effect of raising the general standard of education in the country and of largely increasing the attendance at the universities. This example was after a time followed by some of the larger institutions in the United States and Canada, and is still continued with excellent results. The next innovation, and the most sensible and beneficent of all, was the commencement of *teaching* at local centres. This it is which promises to revolutionize all the old methods of the universities and to bring the essential conditions of the best university training within the reach of students of all classes and all ages. Outside university teaching was commenced in England in 1867, and nine years later the "London Society for the Extension of University Teaching" was founded. This Society was managed by a Board of Control representing not only the two great universities, but the higher educational institutions of London. Though it has not been pushed in the past with the vigour that is likely to be used in the future, the work has so far grown that no less than 40,000 English men and women were last winter under university instruction at the local centres in England. Scotland, Ireland, Wales and Australia are now falling into line. The first attempt to introduce the extension system into the United States was made by individuals in connection with Johns Hopkins University in 1887. Local centres were established, not only in the vicinity of the university, but at Buffalo, St. Louis and other places. Last year "The American Society for the Extension of University Teaching" was organized in Philadelphia, and immediately commenced operations on a scale and with an

energy characteristic of the people of that country. During the first year of its existence, we are told, no less than forty courses of instruction were established at as many different local centres, and more than 50,000 persons took advantage of the opportunities thus brought within their reach. As our readers are no doubt aware, Dr. Harper, President of the new University of Chicago, is making extension work a part of the very framework of that unique institution, while the University of the State of New York has obtained an appropriation from the Legislature to aid it in carrying on the work at local centres all over the State. No one who has faith in higher education as a thing to be desired for its own sake, irrespective of profession or occupation, can fail to see that immense possibilities and potencies are wrapped up in this new system. The American society is asking, and will no doubt receive, as soon as its objects become a little better understood, large donations to enable it to carry on its work. What is Canada going to do about it? If we are not to be left hopelessly in the rear in the march of higher education, it is time that our universities and all friends of education for the many were moving in the matter.

THE current number of the *Edinburgh Review* contains a noteworthy article on "Colonial Independence." The writer takes strong ground against both the possibility and the desirability of Imperial Federation. Into the validity of the objections, which he marshals with marked ability in dealing with this part of his subject, it is not our purpose just now to enquire. Many of these objections have from time to time been presented in these columns. Others touching practical difficulties connected with the establishment and operation of Federal Courts of Law, Federal judges, etc., that would be necessary to maintain the authority of the Act of Federation, and to enforce the execution of the Federal will, are to a certain extent new; at least we have not seen them before so clearly and forcibly set forth. But what may be called the affirmative part of the article contains some thoughts and suggestions which are certainly worthy of attention in considering the change of the Colonial relationship, which it seems to be generally assumed must take place in the not distant future. After maintaining that any such "control of the Empire as a whole from a single centre," and "as a single nation amongst the nations of the earth," as is, he argues, inseparable from the Federation scheme, could prevail only at the cost of local independence, and would endanger, not strengthen, the mutual friendly sentiments now existing between the Mother Country and the Colonies, the writer proceeds as follows: "Let us by all means endeavour to work together in friendship towards common ends; and in order to do so let us recognize facts, and let us found our co-operation frankly on alliance between virtually independent states—not on the fiction of a common subordination to supreme control." This thought is more fully developed in another passage in the article in which "friendly alliance between Great Britain and those great English communities beyond seas now called Dependencies, but soon to be independent states," is set forth as the writer's ideal. He believes that "as time goes on facts will prove too strong for sentiment, and that, without any great wrench to our Constitution, due recognition will ultimately be given to existing conditions; that virtual independence will have to be recognized as such, and that the relations between Great Britain and Australia and Canada will be determined by contract or treaty freely entered into between them, just as now are the relations between Great Britain and foreign nations." These words remind us of an anomaly in the proposals of the Imperial Federationists which has been on former occasions pointed out in these columns, but which we do not remember to have seen touched upon elsewhere. We refer to the awkwardness, if not incongruity, involved in the idea of negotiations looking to a Federal agreement, being carried on between the Imperial nation and her own dependent and subordinate colonies. The very notion of federation seems to imply that the parties thereto should confer and unite on equal terms; in other words that the absolute independence of the federating colonies should be a condition precedent to any federal compact.

THE London *Spectator* "in a great measure agrees" with the writer of the *Review* article, in his description of the future of the Empire. The main point of divergence in opinion is that indicated in the following interesting extract from the *Spectator* of July 25:—

We think, however, that he (the writer of the *Review*)

article) errs in insisting that the relation which we should desire to see, or, at any rate, which is destined to be established between the various parts of the Empire and the Mother Country, is that of one foreign nation to another. We see no reason why the colonies should not become entirely independent and autonomous, and yet occupy, as regards each other and the United Kingdom, a far closer relationship. Why should not community of citizenship be recognized throughout the English-speaking communities which now form the Empire? That is, why should not it be agreed that no Englishman, Canadian, Australian, or South African should be regarded as an alien in any English-speaking community? Surely this is a bond of unity well worth having, and yet one which brings no difficulties.

Such a bond of union would be, we suppose, too loose and flexible to meet the aspirations of those in the colonies who are now cherishing visions of absolute Imperial Unity, and who will be satisfied with nothing short of a voice in the great national council which sits at Westminster and presides over the destinies of so large a part of the civilized and uncivilized world. But for many others, who, while equally proud of their Anglo-Saxon lineage, and equally desirous of preserving their connection with the history, traditions and institutions of the British race, are unable to see that the young Canadian nation has any mission to entangle itself in the meshes of Old-World diplomacy; who believe, moreover, that only absolute self-dependence can worthily develop the energies and possibilities of this young nation, some such scheme as that suggested by the *Spectator* will have special attractions. These may not all be able to agree with the further proposal of this influential journal, that "the component parts of the present Empire, and, if possible, the United States, should be bound to each other by perpetual treaties of offensive and defensive alliance," since such an alliance would involve the establishment of the standing armies and navies which have hitherto been found unnecessary on this continent, and will, we may hope, long continue alien to the genius and ambition of its peoples. Indeed, the agreements, of which the *Spectator* goes on to speak, "to submit all intestine quarrels to arbitration," would do away with any necessity for large armaments on this side of the ocean. But, apart from this feature, such an ideal as that outlined by the *Spectator* may, indeed, be recognized as well worth striving for, since, if carried out, it would in fifty years' time mean "half the civilized world lapped in the security of a mighty *Pax Anglicana*."

WHILE the people of Canada are rejoicing in the promise of an abundant harvest, the reports from both India and Russia, in the Old World, are such as to beget the gloomiest forebodings. The statement that the Russian authorities have forbidden the export of wheat from the Empire, if true, may be regarded as a confirmation of the rumours of impending famine in that country. A correspondent of the *London Times* says that while in some of the Provinces of Russia there may be a small average harvest, in others the crop will not suffice to provide seed for next season's sowing. The action of the Government not only in forbidding exportation, but in various other ways, such as the granting to peasants of free pasturage on Crown lands, the reduction of the tariff on grain sent from the ports to the interior, etc., indicates that the outlook is believed to be very serious. Late English papers describe the condition of affairs in India as almost equally alarming. As the result of terrible heat and drought, the cattle in some sections are said to be perishing by hundreds from sun-stroke, hunger and thirst, while the crops are dried up from the roots in large portions of both Northern and Southern India. The dreaded locusts, too, are said to be marching in armies across Northern India. Though later reports modify in some respects the dark picture given by previous correspondents, the *Times* concludes that great scarcity and suffering are inevitable, and that there is still great danger of such a failure of crops in both Northern and Southern India as has occurred only once within the memory of living men. The predicted failure, if realized, foredooms multitudes to such straits as will, to say the least, tax the resources of the Government to the uttermost to prevent the death of thousands from famine. The Government of Russia will, it is feared, find it equally difficult, if not quite impossible, to save vast numbers of its people from actual starvation. It is possible that later news may prove that the causes for alarm have been exaggerated, but there seems to be too much reason to fear the worst in the case of both countries. In view of the possibility of such causes, it seems almost heartless even to remember that scarcity in

the Old World means enhanced prices for the food products of the New. It is, nevertheless, matter for thankfulness that the prospects of an abundant supply of grain for export from our own country are so good.

ACADIENSES: THE INDIANS OF ACADIA

AN exhaustive treatise on the aborigines of North America has not as yet been presented to the public. This may be in part the result of the non-existence of material such as is commonly obtainable by persons engaged in historical or quasi-historical investigation. Victor Hugo, in a most interesting chapter of *Notre Dame de Paris*, referring to the decadence of architecture after the invention of printing, indicates the invaluable aid of the former in transmitting historical data and prevailing ideas from generation to generation. But the North American aborigines were not builders, and, except, perhaps, in a few isolated instances, they did not turn their attention to sculpture intended to be permanent. Nearly thirty years ago, indeed, a very interesting discovery was made in the Province of New Brunswick. This consists of a stone, rounded elliptical in form, on the flat surface of which is carved a human face and head in profile. The stone is granulate and measures twenty-one and a-half inches longitudinally and eighteen and a-quarter inches across the shorter diameter, and is of the uniform thickness of about two inches. The writer prepared a paper upon this unique curiosity, which was published, with other miscellaneous papers on anthropology, by the Smithsonian Institute in 1883. In this it is contended that the stone is of considerable antiquity, and that this was an isolated instance in Acadia of an attempt by an Indian to perpetuate the effigy of himself or some other brave. Those interested in the subject will find a reference to this use of sculpture in Parkman's "Pioneers of France in the New World," page 349.

Not only are architectural and sculptured records wanting, but there is an utter absence of a written literature. Of course there are some few specimens on birch bark of information furnished by characters, partially pictorially representative of simple objects, and partially symbolical. But the Indians had no alphabet and apparently they have never attempted to perpetuate for the eye any but the most simple ideas.

At the same time it is not wise to underrate the value of oral tradition, nor to despair of making valuable philological discoveries by a careful study of the language of the aborigines.

I remember reading of an Indian tribe, I think in one of the Western States, which is said to have preserved its legends, for centuries at least, in a comparatively unaltered condition, by meeting at regular stated periods and reciting them. Our Indians have never, to my knowledge, adopted any such practice as this, but, without having done so, they are apparently enabled to relate pretty nearly the same tales as their remote ancestors.

Among nearly all peoples in every portion of the globe, it is usually possible to learn of some great hero or demigod of the distant past, whose coming has been foretold and whose actual appearance has been productive of notable and general benefits. Such a one was Glooscap, the saviour of the Milicetes, and who, I think, was also venerated as such by the Micmacs. It should here be explained that these two tribes occupied the territory comprising the Acadia of the French and the Maritime Provinces of today. The Milicetes or Etchmins, who were the braver and more warlike of the two, lived inland, roaming through the forests and using their canoes almost solely in the lakes and rivers. The Micmacs inhabited the coast, and possessing canoes of stronger build and with greater breadth of beam than those used by the former, fearlessly launched them among the white caps of the gulf, bay, or even ocean, in pursuit of porpoises and seals. I write in the past tense, but at the present day the habits and the location of the tribes are in the above particulars much the same as they were centuries ago and as described. The Passamaquoddy Indians, or Passamaquods, are sometimes, though almost certainly erroneously, spoken of as a distinct tribe, and the tribes mentioned form a portion of the Algonquins.

There is a very close relationship between many of the tribes, and my uncle, Edward Jack, who has passed much of his life in the forest in the companionship of the "Abinakis" (men of the East)—another name for the Milicetes—informs me that he has heard several words of their language used by the Chippewas on the shores of Lake Superior, in Wisconsin. He also discovered that the two peoples retained similar traditions relating to the squirrel, beaver, muskrat, etc.

The principal legend relating to Glooscap has been well told in verse by Mr. Lugin, formerly of Fredericton, in *THE WEEK* for 23rd of January last. It is so interesting, however, that it will bear repeating in a condensed form. The tale commences by describing the happy condition of the Indians on either shore of the upper St. John in a remote age. The clustering wigwams are well filled with splendid braves and their beautiful wives and healthy children. Game is abundant, the fields are ample in dimensions and yield bountifully; the climate is mild, disease is little known and old age comes on tardily. But, alas! all is changed by the Great Beaver who builds his enormous dam at the mouth of the river, causing the water to back up and overflow the lowly lands; famine is the result,

and is followed by death and general misery. There is a prolonged continuance of these wretched conditions, but at length the hearts of the sufferers are cheered by the appearance of a godlike Indian being, who passes over the water in a canoe impelled by unseen force, and foretells the coming of the deliverer. But the faith of the unfortunates has to be fully tried, and hence generations pass away before the hero appears. At length, however, the day of deliverance arrives, and Glooscap, glorious in his beauty and power, passes through the villages on either bank in a magnificent canoe, moving without the aid of pole or paddle down the stream to encounter the terrible beaver. The sounds of the battle between these two are heard for enormous distances as they hurl great stones, the one at the other, which, even at the present day, are pointed out by the Abinakis in the bed of the stream or on the intervals for scores of miles up the river. Of course, in the end, Glooscap triumphs, the beaver's dam is battered down, the water subsides and peace and prosperity again reign on the upper St. John or Onigoudy.

Glooscap does not at once disappear from earth after this great exploit, and there are many references to him in the mythological tales of the Indians. These abound in absurd anomalies, but are not infrequently based on recognized natural phenomena, and generally possess sufficient weirdness to save them from being ridiculous. There are two characteristics of this class of tales, one observable for its grotesqueness, the other for its inconsistency with scientific data. Birds, reptiles and animals of all kinds intermarry with each other in the most indiscriminate manner; and all the dumb animals of to-day are very much reduced in size from their remote ancestors of the same species.

As an instance of the first of these, I may refer to Glooscap's uncle, the great turtle, who, borrowing his illustrious nephew's "pix noggin," or purse, was mistaken for the latter, and hence accepted as a suitable bridegroom for the daughter of Kulloo, the great eagle, and his wife the caribou.

The great beaver must, of course, have been enormous to construct such a dam as that previously described, and possibly his exact dimensions may be determined when it is known that the mythological squirrel was the size of a modern elephant.

The stories of the great turtle are very funny. The offspring of his singular marriage, unlike the papoose, was very fretful and noisy, continually crying out Wah! Wah! Wah! nor did he cease his wailing till his father, by Glooscap's advice, had stuffed him with gulls' eggs, "Wah-nal." Again when this strange creature, the great turtle, having planned a great war under his leadership, was taken prisoner by hostile Indians and condemned by them to death, he was very merry at their expense.

At first it was decreed that he should be burned, whereupon he rushed straight into the flames. Dragged by force from what seemed to be his special liking, it was then determined to cut his throat, whereupon the prisoner seized a knife and commenced to hack at his neck with so much determination that it was only by use of force that they made him desist. It was then agreed that he should be drowned, and this fate seemed to affect him with such dread that he offered every possible resistance, clutching at roots and branches of trees and projecting stones as he was being pulled and pushed to the lake. But when the cunning scamp was thrown in he dove out of sight, and seeking an outlet, eventually escaped to the sea.

There is also a traditionary creature called Lox, who so closely resembles the Scandinavian Lox as to suggest that at some period antedating recorded history, some of the old Vikings must have been for a time associated with the wild dwellers in North America.

The totem of the Milicetes is the musquash or muskrat, and that of the Micmacs, or at least a portion of them, the salmon. The former also give prominence and attach some significance to other animals, and in the exercise of an art which it is to be regretted is now somewhat out of use among them, made very clever carvings of them. I had in my possession some years ago a soap stone pipe bowl, on which a Saint John River Indian had cleverly cut in full relief an otter, a beaver and a muskrat. It will be observed that these creatures are not unlike the Indians in their habits of using both land and water in moving from place to place.

It is worthy of remark that Father Christian Le Clerc, a Recollet, who was in Acadia in 1677, states that the totem of the Miramichi Micmacs was the cross which they used before Europeans visited the country. It is certainly singular that so many instances are recorded in all parts of the globe of the assumption of this figure without any ascertainable reason.

It is scarcely necessary to insist upon the value of philological research in ascertaining historical data, although, without doubt, striking analogies may sometimes induce us to arrive at untenable conclusions. Perhaps the following instances are, in this view, to be regarded with suspicion, but they are so curious that they certainly invite consideration. There is a little sheet of fresh water near Saint George, Charlotte County, New Brunswick, called "Sisquagamuck," which may be translated into "the little mud lake." Take away from the Indian name the prefix "Sis," or little, and we have the Indian quag and muck, suggesting (1) the Latin *quatio* and *mucus*, and (2) the Anglo-Saxon *quag* and *muck*. Again, the word "moxeben" has been given to me as the Indian equivalent for butter, and what

queer suggestions it affords of Latin and Anglo-Saxon origin. *Mollis, ebor*, the ox and the molly cow all present themselves to the mind in the oddest manner. Having no acquaintance with the language of the tribes, it would be rash in me to pursue the subject fully, and possibly these resemblances may easily be explained. I am indeed led to suspect that the Indians have sometimes used French and English words, and hence sometimes Latin derivatives, in coining words within the last few centuries. There are many names of places and objects in the Maritime Provinces which seem to indicate this, and which are calculated to puzzle the most accomplished linguist.

There is a very interesting account by one John Gyles of his captivity among the Milicete Indians on the Upper Saint John from 1689 to 1698. He was seized by a marauding party at Fort Charles, near the Falls of the Pemmaquid, when he was only nine years of age, but, notwithstanding his infancy at the time, he was enabled in after years to relate his adventures very circumstantially. The brutal manner in which he was treated by some, though not all of the savages, especially by the squaws, arouses the warmest sympathy of the reader. Mr. James Hannay produced this narrative with historical notes in 1875, in pamphlet form; but, as the work is rare, it certainly deserves to be republished. The Indians amongst whom poor little Gyles lived were certainly, according to his statement, in a very wretched condition. Rarely feasting, generally starving, without proper shelter or clothing, unable or disinclined to make provision for the future, they had but little present enjoyment, and their anticipations must always have been the opposite of agreeable.

From this as well as from other sources of information it is easy to understand why these people never prospered. They were indeed brave, but theirs was the bravery of the wild animal driven to fierce exertion by necessity, by starvation. Their surrounding conditions have been opposed to their numerical increase, and hence the Indian population seems to have remained almost stationary during the period of which there is any authentic record; and it is doubtful whether more than six or seven hundred warriors could have been brought together at any known time in Acadia.

The establishment of civilization in the country has doubtless been of some benefit to these people, but they find it hard to resist the temptation of fire water, and they have not yet acquired the power of directing their energies into channels suitable for their material advancement.

I. ALLEN JACK.

OTTAWA LETTER.

MR. MCGREEVY'S examination was the beginning of the end in the Privileges and Elections Committee. In the hands of his own counsel it was pretty plain sailing for a while, though the evidences of great caution and reserve were unmistakable. Under the relentless and direct questioning of his accusers this soon changed into stubborn denials of knowledge, strange lapses of memory, and finally positive refusals to answer. For the latter he has been reported to the House to deal with his contumacy as it thinks fit to direct, but whether a majority there will order him to tell who got the money, which he admits he took from the contractors and spent for political purposes, is one question, and whether if so ordered he will tell is another. The extent of the House's power to punish for contempt is very vague, and perhaps not only Mr. McGreevy but also his political friends would prefer, for appearances' sake, that he should be ordered to tell, but that afterwards he should remain in tolerably comfortable imprisonment until the session is over, and with that event the power to punish his silence, unless a special Act of Parliament were passed to authorize further penalties. But if he has stuck to his friends he has told more than enough to kill himself and to expose himself to all the serious consequences of violating the statute which forbids members of Parliaments to receive public money. It was almost pitiable to see him under the ruthless demands for categorical answers as to the truth of his own statements in the House denying the charges as first made by Mr. Tarte. In spite of qualifications and evasive answers he had either to make fatal admissions or denials that in effect were equally fatal to the presumption of innocence.

There was no great surprise in Ottawa when Sir Hector Langevin's resignation was announced in Tuesday morning's *Citizen*, for it had been pretty well understood for some days past that the time had come when he could no longer retain the attitude he had assumed. But it was a very great surprise to some people to find what position he has taken now. Of course it was supposed that when he came to give evidence he would deny most of the charges, explain some of them, and perhaps admit he had received some money for political purposes from McGreevy, but not corruptly, or from the proceeds of contracts. The committee room was jammed, and the crowd lined the corridor to hear his statement, now news to nobody. But a straight, continuous, explicit denial, not only of every charge against him, but of every statement made by the witnesses that was adverse or in any way might raise prejudice against him, was certainly expected by very few of those present. His usual coolness and self-possession stood him in good stead. He faced the vulgar curiosity and incredulity as calmly as if he were on the hustings, and he read his statement for an hour and a quarter in as collected a voice as if speaking in the House on a matter

of administration. It was a striking scene, even in all its commonplaceness, of surrounding and incident. The impression seemed to be that he had denied too much. That remains to be seen after the cross-examination, which begins to-morrow. Many people are expecting another great surprise, believing that Mr. Tarte has kept back proofs in anticipation of Sir Hector's denial. This idea gets little credence, on the ground that Sir Hector would not have put himself in such a position without positive knowledge either that no such evidence ever existed or that it could not be produced.

The minor incidents of the Scandal Committees have been quite overshadowed by these greater matters. Even the discovery of "Bancroft" to be a foreman in the Connollys' employment, but not to be the name of that foreman, and Nicholas Connolly's unblushing admission of the fact that he himself had deposited money to "Bancroft's" credit with one hand and drawn it out with the other, made but a passing sensation. Mr. Heney's "little joke" about ten thousand dollars being the price of a contract which did not get awarded by some strange chance to the contractor who was not willing to pay that sum, but who had expected it, passed merely as one of those strange coincidences that happen in life. And even Mr. Milne's evidence—an Irish gentleman who justified his taking pay from the contractors while he was a Government Inspector over their work, by vehement assertions that he worked night and day for them—soon lost its humorous interest.

The reciprocity question was not allowed to rest as the defeat of Sir Richard Cartwright's amendment left it. The disapproval of commercial union had to be definitely formulated. So the amendment which Mr. Desjardins proposed was brought forward again on the earliest occasion. It also served to express an opportune approval of the Government's policy generally. The majority was only twenty-two on this vote, but the diminution was due to accidental causes. To expect every member to be in his seat for a division on a hot summer night twice within a few days, is more than human nature can be asked, unless a crisis is more imminent than seems probable just now.

That phase of "human devices," which it is alleged was employed to such an extent a few years ago in the granting of "timber limits" to friends and supporters of the Government, gave the House another day's rather hot discussion. But there was nothing new added to the charges made on former occasions by Mr. Charlton and Mr. Barron. The former's famous affidavit against Dr. Hickey, then the member for Dundas, was, of course, flourished in reply to all accusations. That is his enforced retraction of the statements he made therein. On the whole, the debate accomplished very little on either side, leaving, as usual, each party happy in the idea that it had quite proved its own case and flattened out its adversaries, and both in that singular frame of oblivion to what the public really think and believe, which is such an unfortunate characteristic of party feeling generally, and such a marked effect of even a short sojourn in Ottawa. The truth is, that in politics, as in all exciting games, the players forget the very existence of spectators, and the inarticulate voice of the crowd, whether it be heard in applause or disapproval, urges them on to still greater efforts to "play the game" and to win for their side.

On Thursday a little of that business known as "taking up the Estimates" was done. The items relating to Fishery Bounties, the Census, and the Experimental Farms gave members generally a chance to show any special knowledge of these subjects they might happen to have, and Opposition critics a chance in addition to worry the Ministers whose turn it was to be worried. This is not just the time to say anything against minute examination of the expenditure of public moneys; but either Canada is very slowly emerging from the parochial politics' stage or a great deal of time is needlessly occupied in Parliament with details which, under any good government on a large scale, might safely be left to less important officers than Cabinet Ministers, and with improved facilities for thorough criticism.

The Bill to amend the Supreme and Exchequer Courts brought up again the question of the veto power. The principles upon which this should be exercised were in discussion rather more than might have been expected. The important point is that while the decision of the Supreme Court upon any point referred to it will theoretically remain only advice to the Government, it will in reality operate as a final judgment binding the parties and susceptible of an appeal to the Privy Council, whose ultimate decision will put the Government not only in possession of an opinion not likely to be questioned, but of one that is not likely they can venture to act against. And in the very important matter of deciding issues of fact the reference will now be assimilated to the ordinary suit at law; while the expression of opinions and reasons by the judges will afford some good guidance through the maze of difficulties which "constitutional law" is fast becoming under the B. N. A. Act, as it has already become under the Constitution of the United States, although this in some respects is more definite than ours. The bare "yes" or "no" in answer to questions submitted is often as unsatisfactory as the original doubt the questions were meant to resolve, because while in one sense it binds nobody, in another nobody knows how far or why it may be binding in an actual suit.

X.

To be idle is the ultimate object of the busy.—*Dr. Johnson.*

RECIPROCITY CONSIDERED.

THE Honourable Mr. Blaine's reciprocity clause of the McKinley tariff has brought about negotiations for reciprocity between the United States and Canada, although Canada was not originally included in the general scheme which authorized the President to negotiate and conclude a reciprocal arrangement with continental nations. The negotiations which are arranged to take place next October in Washington may be termed a preliminary canter to test the diplomatic strength of the treaty-makers and to draw out public opinion upon the merits of the free trade tendencies of the respective Governments under the ægis of protection, and will pave the way for a more liberal commercial policy between the two countries and probably with the outside world. There are two distinctive features in the diplomatic approach towards the question: on behalf of the United States the principle is laid down that no treaty is possible unless Canada makes a complete surrender of her commercial policy and gives to the United States the exclusive benefit of her trade in return for their free markets; on behalf of Canada the principle is laid down that no treaty is possible which will discriminate against the markets of Great Britain, markets which give Canadians the best prices for their produce and the best value in return for those prices, a principle emphasized by the recent vote on the budget debate. These facts show the wisdom of Mr. Blaine's policy in approaching the question cautiously and first gleaning all the information that may lead to an intelligent view of the merits of a treaty, when time will be given for the people in both countries to consider the question from every standpoint. The intelligence of Canadians is quite as valuable to American statesmen as the intelligence of the citizens of the great Republic in working out a commercial policy, that will advance commercial liberty on this continent. The National Policy of Canada is a free trade measure in so far as articles that contribute to the industry of the people are admitted free and a revenue is derived through the customs upon articles manufactured—the development of which in Canada contributes to the wealth of the country. It is a revenue not forced from the population by the sternness of the tax gatherer, but voluntarily contributed by them as a result of their prosperity, for the business branch of the Government in seeking to harmonize trade and revenue might be classed as any other business is, it produces its own prosperity. Under the National Policy which was introduced in 1878 the revenue of Canada has increased from twenty-one million in 1878 to thirty-nine million dollars in 1890; and in increasing the revenue to that amount there was no force used, it was a voluntary effort on the part of the people and increased as their ability to purchase increased. Sugar was the only article of prime necessity for the consumption of a family that bore a tax on raw material that was not capable of production in the country, and sugar increased in consumption from twenty pounds per head in 1878 to forty-four pounds per head in 1890, which showed that the labouring classes were so prosperous that not only were they able to more than double their consumption of sugar in ten years but they were able to contribute three and a-half millions to the revenue while increasing that consumption. Sugar as a raw material has now been admitted free, and the only tax of importance upon an article that may be classed as a prime necessity is removed. It remains to be seen what effect its removal will have upon consumption.

Sugar plays an important part in the country's trade, and the Government of the United States has used it as a lever in the reciprocity features of the McKinley tariff with effect, and the West Indies are already beginning to anticipate the squeezing process to which they are liable to be subjected. England has for years seen her refineries go by the board in order to take advantage of the cheap beet root sugar produced on the continent of Europe under the stimulus of the bounty system, and the extraordinary spectacle presented itself that continental nations were submitting themselves to high taxation in order to induce the export of beet-root sugar, which enabled the English people to purchase seventy-five pounds per head, while the nations that supplied the sugar could not purchase more than fifteen or twenty pounds per head for their own use. The replies made by the English Government to the refiners when their business was closed up was that more men were employed in manufacturing the sugar into confectionery than were employed in the refineries, consequently the commercial policy could not be changed to relieve the refiners who were being ruined by the false commercial system of neighbouring nations. The people of Great Britain are, however, becoming more alive to the fact that there is a profit in colonial trade, and the problem has yet to be solved if more British labour would not be employed by developing the productiveness of the West Indian Islands, which are naturally adapted for the production of sugar, than to encourage the growth of false commercial principles in the world and ruining a portion of her own territory thereby, and a leaf out of Mr. Blaine's book on reciprocity is worthy of perusal from a Canadian as well as a British standpoint, where the export bounty system of our neighbours has gained a footing under the McKinley Bill.

In reference to the bounty system, Mr. Carnegie in speaking of the McKinley Bill says: "It contains a new idea, or at least an extension of an idea, which in his opinion is to affect Europe more in the future than any increase of duties under the Bill; and he adds: here is

something for political economists to ponder over, Section twenty-five provides that articles that are manufactured for export, and upon which a duty has been collected on the raw material, are to be entitled to a rebate equal to the amount of the duty paid when these articles are exported, less one per cent. on amount collected, or in other words the labourer who manufactures the goods is to be taxed in order to cheapen the cost to the consumer outside of the country." It is safe to say that this is not a Canadian's idea of justice to labour; in Canada we believe in cheapening the cost of maintenance for the labouring classes that they may be able to manufacture more cheaply, and we protect them in order that they may acquire the skill and develop competition among themselves to insure perfection and economy, and in order that we may get the benefit of that particular clause of the McKinley Bill it is clearly advisable to remain outside of that commercial Bund whose policy is designed to manufacture for foreigners more cheaply than they can manufacture for themselves. Canada possesses a great advantage in the development of her trade, that is, in a very long coast line which places her on the world's highway in a most favourable position for foreign trade, all that is required is an increase in the volume to effect a great reduction in the cost, and in that respect Canada offers a good field for the investment of capital, or perhaps more properly for labour, because industries in Canada have rather to be built up than created, and for that reason Canadians have designed their commercial policy to meet their peculiar circumstances. It is likely to become, and properly so, a settled Imperial policy that no discrimination on the part of one portion of the British Empire can be made in favour of a foreign nation from which any nation owing allegiance to the Empire is excluded. This secures reciprocal relations of a most valuable character to all parts of the British Empire, and gives a stability to commercial enterprise that lays out its foundation upon such an extended market.

To revert, however, to the purposes of this article, which is intended to illustrate wherein the commercial policy of Canada differs from the commercial policy of the United States, in so far as the interests of a reciprocal treaty is concerned. The contention has been advanced that under the commercial policy of Canada the contribution to the revenue is voluntary, and rises or falls according as the people are prosperous or the reverse, and in order to illustrate that more forcibly, clothing, one of the prime necessities, may be taken as an example. The writer, on leaving his prairie farm in the north-western part of the Province of Manitoba, 700 miles north of St. Paul, and 600 miles from the Hudson Bay, in order to attend the session of Parliament in Ottawa, passing through the city of Winnipeg purchased at the establishment of Sanford and Company there, a suit of clothes to wear during the present session of Parliament in Ottawa for which he paid \$8.45. It was Canadian tweed. The cost at the manufactory in Hamilton is \$8, forty-five cents being charged for the cost of distribution among the retail traders in Manitoba and the North-West. The wool of which the suit of clothes was made is admitted free from Australia, it was manufactured into cloth at Rosamond's Woollen Mills in Cobourg, Ontario, and into clothing at Senator Sanford's large manufactory in the city of Hamilton. The writer in purchasing that suit of clothes did not contribute to the revenue; it was made as cheaply and as well as the same class of goods can be made anywhere in the United States, most probably better, so that there was no excessive cost in consequence of the duty. Senator Sanford, who is the leading spirit in the large manufactory which distributes this clothing throughout Canada, appeared in his seat in the Senate Chamber in a suit of broadcloth imported, which cost him probably thirty dollars wholesale, and upon which he contributed to the revenue from eight to ten dollars. That was a voluntary contribution on his part. He might have worn a suit of his own tweed had he been so minded. His means permitted him to purchase the more expensive clothing, and in doing so he helped to pay the writer's share of the revenue. In that sense his contribution to the revenue was voluntary, and there was no force put upon the writer to contribute to the revenue in providing himself with the necessary clothing. In the United States wool is taxed. Take the wool which is used in manufacturing worsted cloth as an example. It is largely imported and pays a duty of eleven cents per pound unwashed, but when it is prepared to go into the cloth it is reduced about sixty per cent., consequently the tax is about twenty-five cents per pound in the cloth. To that extent the citizen of the United States is forced to contribute to the revenue, while the Canadian citizen, if satisfied with home-made clothing, goes free, therefore placing our manufactures under the same conditions will not improve the commercial status of the people of Canada.

The free trade tendencies of the people will probably force future Governments gradually to remove the duties that enter into the cost of maintaining the industry of the country, and assist labour in distributing its product in the markets of the world, and at the same time maintain an equilibrium in its commercial policy, in the power to draw the highest amount of revenue from the capital of the country at the least expense to labour without impairing the value of either. As it has been before stated, the revenue in Canada is only collected from those who are able and willing to pay, and the people of Canada have increased their ability to contribute to it from five dollars and a-half in the year 1878 to seven dollars and sixty cents

per head in 1889. But a farmer's family of ten, if they desire to do so, now that sugar is free, can live comfortably without being compelled to contribute in their annual expenditure more than five or six dollars a year to the revenue; while under the tax-gatherer seventy-six dollars a year would be levied upon them—a very serious addition to the burden of the farm expenditure. Should the prosperity of the country increase as much in the next ten years as it has done in the past ten years, the revenue will amount to sixty or seventy million dollars a year, if the same commercial policy is pursued, thus reflecting in the increase the prosperity of the country. The people of the United States contribute to the revenue about six dollars a year per capita, which may be accepted as an evidence that their ability to contribute is not equal to that of the Canadians, although in many articles of prime necessity the citizen of the United States is forcibly taxed, while the Canadian citizen is free. Comparing the duty that is collected upon the imports into the United States, including free and dutiable goods, the average tax that the citizen of the United States has to pay is about sixty per cent., while adding the free and dutiable imports together and taking the tax collected in Canada, the people have to pay twenty-two per cent.—again showing the more liberal position the citizen of Canada occupies commercially.

In regard to markets, which are a prominent feature in any reciprocity negotiations, we will take wheat and breadstuffs, which both countries produce, and both countries sell their surplus in the same market. Prior to 1878 wheat was admitted free, consequently, during the eleven years from 1868 to 1878 inclusive, the United States controlled our local markets, the imports during that decade amounting to seventy million bushels of wheat and one hundred and fifty-four million dollars' worth of breadstuffs, inclusive of wheat. During the same period the exports from Canada were sixty-four million bushels of wheat and one hundred and fifty-four million dollars' worth of breadstuffs. In 1879 the national policy protected the local markets of Canada for their own agricultural population, and in the period between '79 and '89 the position was reversed. American imports were driven out and increased production in Canada followed. During the latter decade the imports only amounted to nineteen million bushels of wheat and forty million dollars' worth of breadstuffs, while after supplying the markets formerly occupied by the agriculturists of the United States, and feeding an increased population, we were still enabled to export sixty million bushels and one hundred and seventy-four million dollars' worth of breadstuffs. In the first decade we did not grow enough for our own consumption, and while our local markets were being supplied by the farmers of the United States, we were competing with them in the distant markets of Great Britain, while a more profitable market existed within ourselves. In the second decade under the national policy, production was stimulated, and while feeding our own population we maintained increased exports. This is direct evidence of the value of our own markets for agriculture produce.

Another feature worthy of note in dealing with the question of wheat production and its price: For five years prior to 1878 the average price in New York was higher than the average price in Montreal, for the five years subsequent to 1878 the average price was equal, and for the five years prior to 1889 the price in Montreal averaged ten cents higher than the price in New York. And last year in consequence of the reduction of freight rates, which had fallen from fourteen cents per bushel to Liverpool in '78, to eighteen cents per quarter of eight bushels in 1890 from the port of Montreal, for the first time in the history of the country the price in Toronto exceeded the price in Liverpool, showing that the prosperity of the consuming population reacted upon the producing. Cattle and sheep, barley and oats, butter and cheese, all find ready sale in the English markets. Ocean transport is low, and the population of Great Britain is a manufacturing population. Consequently, leaving sentiment out of the question, it would be short-sighted policy for Canadians to close their markets to the people of England under unrestricted reciprocity with the United States for the purpose of exchanging products with a country which has got a surplus and which they do not want, while refusing to exchange upon equal terms with the people of England the products of labour that each country requires.

It is frequently asserted that Canada discriminates against England in her commercial policy. Such an assertion is incorrect. Canada exports to the United Kingdom from forty to forty-five million dollars' worth of produce, and imports the product of British labour from forty to forty-five million dollars' worth; while the United States exports four hundred and fifty million dollars' worth to the United Kingdom and imports the product of British labour one hundred and ninety million dollars' worth. An American statesman has lately remarked that one hundred million dollars of this deficiency between imports and exports had to be annually met by exports to South American markets from British workshops; United States' merchants purchasing the exchange in London to pay for their imports from those markets. The reciprocity treaty lately negotiated is intended to alter this commercial feature, and it remains to be seen how far it will affect the purchase of American produce by British labour. Were we to ally ourselves commercially with the United States under a policy that produced the effect of purchasing only fifty per cent. of what we sold, we might then be accused of discrimination; but while our exports are balanced by

our imports there is no discrimination against British labour. The labour of the United States gets an advantage over English labour in the amount of free goods imported from the neighbouring Republic, but that is owing to the importation of coal, cotton, hides, etc., articles which England cannot export. About forty per cent. of the imports from the United States are admitted free, while only about twenty-two per cent. are admitted free from the United Kingdom into Canada. To that extent only is there a discrimination, which is however the force of circumstances not the effect of policy.

At the late elections two policies were presented to the people by the Conservative and Liberal leaders. The one was the policy of opening negotiations with the Government of the United States to bring about a reciprocity treaty between the two countries in natural products, while maintaining the principle of the national policy of Canada. Sir John Macdonald's personal appeal was on behalf of the national policy alone. The other was to ally ourselves commercially with the United States under a policy of unrestricted reciprocity. Both views were ably discussed and the verdict was rendered sustaining the Government. The general interpretation that might fairly be put upon the result was that greater freedom of trade was desirable, but that in the negotiation of any treaty no discrimination should take place that would hamper our trade with Great Britain. During the campaign unrestricted reciprocity was shown to have that effect, consequently a large number of the Liberal voters boldly declared themselves and supported the Conservative party; and a very large number only supported their Liberal leaders upon receiving private assurances from their candidates that they would on no account vote for any measure that would discriminate against our trade with the United Kingdom. In fact there was sufficient evidence brought out at the last election to show that there existed a party in Canada who might be called Conservative Liberals, whose principles are the same as those that brought the Liberal Unionist party in England into existence and to the support of the Conservative party there; Liberals who first and foremost desire to maintain the integrity of their country intact and to maintain the integrity of the Empire intact. Possibly they may have as yet no cohesion, but that they exist in large numbers from the Atlantic to the Pacific is beyond a question; men whose instincts warn them when danger is nigh. And the Liberal party would have found their ranks sorely depleted had not the tocsin been sounded that there was no danger that the policy the Liberal party advocated was a policy of free trade in its purity and in its simplicity. The letter of the Hon. Mr. Blake has shown the fallacy of that position since the elections, and now the question will resolve itself into whether the Conservative element of the Liberal party will merge itself individually into the Conservative party, or give it its support as a party unit. That may fairly be considered one of the political aspects of the late elections in Canada, and although public opinion has not crystallized itself as yet, those who have the opportunity of knowing the political feeling of Canadians will recognize the justness with which their position is presented. The Conservative party is strong in Canada in the ranks of the people, and its strength is increased by the legacy of the patriotic policy which Sir John Macdonald has left behind him, and the memory of that illustrious statesman who has passed away will, for the time at least, hallow the conflicting elements of party warfare and help to purify the political atmosphere which becomes periodically surcharged with the bacteria of political life in a country which has a large public domain to dispose of and develop.

The Honourable Mr. Blake, upon whom the hopes of the Liberal party rested (in fact it may fairly be said upon whom the hopes of the people as a whole rested) when the crisis arrived from which the country has just emerged through the death of the Right Hon. Sir John Macdonald, in a letter to his constituents declining to be their candidate at the late election—not published until after the election—was obliged to confess that after twenty-five years' service on watch as leader of the Liberal party, he realized that the policy his party was appealing to the country upon would result not only in commercial absorption but in political absorption; and his honesty would not permit him to lead the people to a goal that they had not their eyes fixed upon, or to advocate a policy the full effect of which the people were ignorant of. He had to come down from the quarter deck and leave the good ship *Canada* to drift on the waves of uncertainty, or, as he himself expressed it, to a drifting policy, and, had it not been for the Leader of the Senate, the Hon. Mr. Abbot, who is seventy years of age, and who was able to pull a vigorous oar, the taut ship *Canada* might have drifted on the rocks and sunk beneath the waves of uncertainty, and have been blotted out of the geography of the world without a tombstone raised to mark the heroism of her crew. Now, when the reconstruction of the Government takes place, which assuredly it must, there is every reason to believe that a Government will come to life that will have patriotism as its lode star, rectitude as its watchword, progress emblazoned on its standard, and loyalty to the British Empire imprinted in its heart; a Government that will work with the Government of the United States in promoting the welfare of this continent in peace and industry and commercial freedom, under the aegis of the greatest Empire the world has ever known, the Empire of a free people, a people numbering millions by the hundred, and ever adding to their numbers.

THE STILL TRYST.

How Love transcends our mortal sphere,
And sees again the spirit world
Forgot so daily. Thou art here ;—
I know thee, sweet—though fair impeared
Thy face in a far atmosphere
To others,—hearing in the sea
My love a-crying up to thee.

Thou by the surf, I on the Lake :—
Yet in the *real* world we meet ;
And O, for thy endeared sake,
Love, all I am is at thy feet.
With *thy* life let me breathing take ;
And through all Nature do thou see
My love a-crying up to thee :

And with thine eyes shall I pursue
Yon shower-veils from the sunset flying,
Blown mid clouds white and lurid-blue
That crowd the rainbow's arch, defying
Him who in red death shoots them through.
Look with me : in this pageant see
My love all glowing unto thee.

"See what I see, hear what I hear,
I too am with thee by the wave,—
One all the day, the hour, the year :
Our trust of love shall be so brave,
We shall deny that death is here
Or any power in the grave.
I know thee : thou canst love like this :
Be ours the endless spirit-kiss."

Dusk falls. How purely shines that star,
Concealed while day was in the sky :
Life, Love and thou not mortal are,
Though atheist noon your world deny.
Dusk falls ;—though in the west a bar
Of bloom on Evening's pure cheek be,
In beauty thy love cries to me.

ALCHEMIST.

THE SINGLE SONNET OF THOMAS GRAY.

IN these days of sonnet-making when every self-laurelled servant of the muses airily undertakes to lay each ghost of a thought, to preserve the unripe fruits of love, or to photograph a field of peas or potatoes in a Petrarchan stanza, it is refreshing to recall the name of a poet who had the ambition to write *one sonnet* and the modesty not to repeat the attempt. Such an unique performance reminds one of that hero of unutterable things, who lighted the long silence of his parliamentary career with one flash of eloquence, never to be repeated and never to be forgotten : "Single Speech Hamilton."

Master Mathew, in "Every Man in His Humour," somewhat conceitedly remarks : "Your true melancholy breeds your perfect fine wit, sir. I am melancholy myself divers times, sir, and then do I no more but take pen and paper, presently, and overflow you half a score or a dozen of sonnets at a sitting"—to which Edward Knowell adds in a stage whisper : "Sure, he utters them by the gross."

Whether "the limestone and mortar" poet intended this as a sly allusion to his friend Shakespeare and his sugared sonnets, is questionable ; but the description certainly applies to many sonneteers. Wordsworth wrote some 480 ; Charles Tennyson Turner, 342 ; Petrarch, 317 ; Shakespeare, 160 ; Sir Philip Sydney, 108 ; William Alexander, 106, etc. It is somewhat remarkable that there are a few poets who have composed one sonnet and no more, for as a rule when a verse-maker has written one sonnet successfully and obtained the knowledge necessary for the proper moulding of the dewdrop poem, he is seized with an almost irresistible desire to write sonnets to everybody and on everything. There must have been some good and sufficient reason for this single sonnet utterance on the part of the six practised writers of verse to be presently mentioned, but the exact ground in each case cannot be thoroughly determined. It may have been that after the first effort the poet recognized that the dainty form was not for his rough hand to fashion ; that Dr. Johnson's dictum concerning Milton as a writer of sonnets might apply in a measure to his genius "that could hew a Colossus out of a rock, but could not carve heads out of cherry-stones" ; perhaps he could not acquire the necessary taste to be induced to try another, and the first sonnet, like a first olive, could not be got over ; possibly it was discovered to be an unsuitable form for the author's peculiar poetic temperament, too cramped a measure for the airy flight of fancy, the sonnet being for condensed thought and restrained imagery and not for free and unbridled imagination. Whatever the reasons may have been the following widely differing versifiers have made themselves renowned in sonnet literature as being single sonneteers ; the names of these worthies are Thomas Gray, Winthrop Mackworth Praed, Lord Lytton, Adelaide Proctor, Sir Charles Gavan Duffy, and Alice Mary Blunt.

Of the six poems one has become famous. It was written by Thomas Gray on the death of his great friend, Richard West, a fellow Etonian and a son of the then Lord Chancellor of Ireland. Gray used to address him familiarly as Favonius in his correspondence. West died in 1742, aged twenty-five years ; Gray was his senior by one

year. They had similar tastes for the classics, had travelled together, and were in constant correspondence. Gray felt the loss acutely and under the smart of grief and inspiration of loving memory penned the sonnet ; it was one of the earliest of his original efforts in English poetry. At Cambridge he had previously published Latin verses and English translations, and his mind was full of classical lore and imagery. The sonnet itself reads as follows :—

ON THE DEATH OF RICHARD WEST.

In vain to me the smiling mornings shine,
And reddening Phœbus lifts his golden fire,
The birds in vain their amorous descant join,
Or cheerful fields resume their green attire ;
These ears, alas ! for other notes repine,
A different object do these eyes require :
My lonely anguish melts no heart but mine,
And in my breast the imperfect joys expire.
Yet morning smiles the busy race to cheer,
And new-born pleasure brings to happier men ;
The fields to all their wonted tribute bear,
To warm their little loves the birds complain ;
I fruitless mourn to him that cannot hear,
And weep the more because I weep in vain.

Around this sonnet much controversy has arisen, which is deplorable, since the sonnet was composed under great stress of feeling on the death of his dearest friend, and utterances of grief should be respected by critics, however fastidious, and especially when they happen to be brother poets also. Wordsworth never cared for Gray's poetry and has left evidence of his dislike in several places ; but surely he might have passed by this sonnet in silence as an epitaph in the graveyard of poetry entitled to respect. He assailed it, however, in the preface to his Lyrical Ballads in the course of showing the close relation between well-written prose and poetry. Gray he places "at the head of those who by their reasonings have attempted to widen the space of separation between prose and metrical compositions, and was more than any man curiously elaborate in the structure of his own poetic diction." After quoting the sonnet in question, Wordsworth adds the following : "It will easily be perceived that the only part of this sonnet which is of any value is the lines printed in italics ; it is equally obvious that, except in the rhyme, and in the use of the single word 'fruitless' for fruitlessly, which is so far a defect, the language of these lines in no respect differ from that of a prose."

This was not easily perceived by Coleridge who took up the cudgels for Gray and belaboured Wordsworth, though it is to be regretted that in the course of the encounter the innocent Gray received a blow or two from his own champion. Coleridge says : "In my conception, at least, the lines rejected as of no value do, with the exception of the two first, differ as much and as little from the language of common life as those which he has printed in italics as possessing genuine excellence." Coleridge states that if Gray's lines were not poetically unique, they would prove "a truth, of which no man ever doubted, viz., that there are sentences which would be equally in their place both in verse and prose."

Recently Mr. Hall Caine has attempted to defend Wordsworth, and says : "The passage quoted might, if taken alone, be open to the charge of hypercriticism ; but taken in connection with the essay which it was designed to illustrate, it is in all respects generous and even laudatory." Mr. Hall Caine's conciliatory remark does not agree with the impressions produced by Wordsworth's passage about this particular sonnet, in which it is plainly stated that of the fourteen lines nine have no value and the rest have some value. This is scarcely "laudatory." To be plainly told that the five lines of value do not differ, except in the matter of one defect from prose, is not exactly "generous." Wordsworth clearly intended to demolish the sonnet. Coleridge was not so hypercritical, and defended it in some respects ; but he declared "the second line has, indeed, almost as many faults as words," and describes it as "a bad line, not because the language is distinct from that of prose, but because it conveys incongruous images ; because it confounds the cause and effect, the real thing with the personified representative of the thing ; in short, because it differs from the language of good sense."

Poor Gray ! with such critical onslaughts from two of the greatest poets of their day, it is a wonder this sonnet survived. That it has done so indicates there must be a poetic vitality and intrinsic worth in its lines which are beyond the power of criticism to kill. Leigh Hunt has ably defended it from Wordsworth's ill-concealed animosity, and has retorted against Coleridge's ill-directed remarks.

Regarding the much-abused line, condemned on different grounds by the two giant poets—"And reddening Phœbus lifts his golden fire"—Mr. James Russell Lowell in a foot-note to his essay on Pope in "My Study Windows," mentions that this line is one of Gray's happiest reminiscences from a poet, in some respects, greater than either Wordsworth or Gray, and quotes as follows :—

Iamque rubrum tremulis jubar ignibus erigere alte
Cum coepat natura.

—Lucretius IV., 404-405.

So far as the charge of artificiality is concerned, Leigh Hunt writes thus : "As if a man so imbued with the classics as Gray, and lamenting the loss of another man equally so imbued, whose intercourse with him was full of such images, could not speak from his heart in such language ! Similar thought—which it might have been thought would have warned Wordsworth off such ungenial ground—has been found by Johnson for Milton's classical lament of a deceased friend and fellow student, in the beautiful poem of 'Lycidas.' Not only did Milton and Gray speak from the heart on these occasions, but perhaps,

had they not both so written, they had not spoken so well."

Regarding the charge of classicity against the opening lines, Leigh Hunt says : "We are too much in the habit of losing a living notion of the sun ; and a little Paganism like this helps, or ought to help, to remind us of it."

But Wordsworth knew how to be classical, when he so wished, even in his sonnets. He could

Have sight of Proteus rising from the sea ;
Or hear old Triton blow his wreathed horn.

He could refer to

The azure brooks, where Dian joys to lave
Her spotless limbs,

and could speak of

the plausive smile
Of all-beholding Phœbus—

After these it seems a little unfair for him to object to Gray's slight reference.

Gray's sonnet has been translated into Italian by T. J. Mathias, who has also left the following remarks on the original : "Mi pare che il Sonetto il più perfetto che sia mai stato composto in Inglese, nello stile Petrarcesco, è quello del nostro Pindaro Britanno per le morte del suo amicissimo Ricardo West, giovine d'un alto e pellegrino ingegno, e nella poesia allora l'altra speme della nostra Roma. Quel Sonetto è sì pieno d'affetto, e d'una certa tenerezza e melodia cori ricercata, che può sembrare dignissimo di *Valchiusa*." This somewhat makes amends for the Wordsworth and Coleridge criticism.

Mr. John Dennis thinks this sonnet "is very beautiful." Mr. James Ashcroft Noble is of opinion that "the single sonnet of Gray hardly deserved the savage treatment by which Wordsworth has immortalized it." Another critic calls it "a manly production," and a contributor to sonnet lore states that "though not without beauty, it would probably have been forgotten by all but literary students had Wordsworth not kept its memory green by a savage attack."

The last line of this sonnet, "*And weep the more because I weep in vain*," has become a stock quotation ; but there is a very close parallel noted by Park in his *Heliconia* (published 1815). It is in Fitz Jeffrey's "Life and Death of Sir Francis Drake" (published 1596) :—

O therefore do we plaine
And therefore weepe, because we weepe in vaine.

Whether Gray had ever seen this rare book is very doubtful ; but it is far more likely that he had read Colley Cibber's adaptation of "Richard the Third," which appeared in 1700, and which contains a very similar passage. Gray is also accused of having borrowed ideas from Milton, Spenser and Dryden in this sonnet ; but I have not seen them particularized or noticed anything beyond general poetic resemblances in certain passages.

Such is some of the criticism that has arisen out of Thomas Gray's single sonnet. Personally, I prefer to regard the little poem as the honest expression of a poet's personal feeling on the occasion of the death of a dear friend. Milton's "Lycidas" and Shelley's "Adonais" belong to the same order of poetic utterance, which cannot be ruthlessly subjected to the severe criticism applied to poems founded on general topics or imaginary incidents. Regarded in that light, and remembering the poetic characteristics of the time and the classical affinities of its author, the sonnet will take higher rank in its department of poetry than the criticism which it has evoked will obtain in the history of literary quibbles. Considering the mass of comment that has grown around this poem, it was perhaps better for literary peace that Gray only wrote one sonnet. So far as its structure is concerned, its formula is *a. b. a. b. a. b. a. b. c. d. c. d. c. d.* ; the octave and sestet being composed on two rhymes each, alternately placed. This is a comparatively easy form of composition, and is rarely used by sonnet writers in any language. In its verbal arrangement it contains seventy-six monosyllables to thirty-two polysyllables—six lines having a proportion of six to two—five lines of four to three, and the last line eight to one. The style is reminiscent in many lines of the famous "Elegy" ; but the subject is elegiacal, and calls for the same careful arrangement and choice of words. The vowel sounds in the two rhymes of the octave are the same and constitute a fault, so far as sonnet composition has been defined by its critics. In this case it adds to the plaintiveness of the melody, as does the repetition of the words "in vain."

SAREPTA.

FROM some particulars given in the *Library* concerning the collection of books, etc., at Windsor Castle, it appears that the total is now about 100,000 volumes. As the royal library which George III. got together at great cost and labour was taken to the British Museum, his successor really founded the present library, which has several specially interesting characteristics. There is a magnificent collection of books on the fine arts, while English history and topography are well represented. It appears, however, that additions cannot be made so liberally in the future as in the past through want of room. The most precious treasure of the library—the great collection of original drawings and engravings collected by George III., is still intact. It is said that "of late years a considerable number of books in fine old bindings, chiefly royal, have been added," one being the "Faerie Queen," which "may have been the copy read by Queen Elizabeth in the very gallery where it is now again preserved."

A SHORT SKETCH OF THE HISTORY OF THE COPPER MINES OF BESSHI, JAPAN.*

THE Besshi Mountains, where these mines are situated, occupy the south western corner of Umagori, Iyonguni, in Japan. These mountains are upwards of four thousand feet above the level of the sea, and their characteristic features are steep declivities and rugged peaks on every side, except the north, which faces the Inland Sea.

Copper mining at Besshi was first begun on the 1st of August, in the 4th year of Genroku (two hundred years ago), by Tomonobu, my ancestor of the 10th generation, and Tomoyoshi, his son. But even earlier than that date (in the year of Tensho), Riyemon, one of my ancestors, obtained liquation process from a Chinese named Hakusui, and bequeathed it to his posterity. This process has been known since by the name of Nanbanbuki, and was probably the beginning of the reduction of silver from copper ores in our country.

During the many generations we have been engaged in mining and refining copper, our ancestors have opened and worked mines in many provinces, but none of them were good enough to operate upon for a very long period. Fortunately, however, we have been able to continuously work the copper mines of Besshi for two hundred years. Difficulties, of course, there have frequently been, but none that we have found it impossible to overcome, and at the present time, after two hundred years of hard and prosperous working, our mines seem to be richer and better than ever. This, of course, is greatly owing to the progress of civilization and the consequent adoption at the copper mines of Besshi from foreign countries of their newest and most superior methods of mining and metallurgy.

Although, no doubt, there are many mines in various parts of our country that have been doing good work for long periods, yet the fact that the copper mines of Besshi have been owned and successfully operated upon by the heirs of one family for two hundred years without once changing hands is, we venture to think, almost unique; and though it is quite clear that this long continuous prosperity has been in a large measure owing to the natural mineral wealth of our mines, yet I must be allowed to congratulate myself upon the facts: (1) That the foresight, diligence and perseverance of my ancestors were most praiseworthy and beneficial, and (2) that this glorious reign of Meiji has enabled me to make their good work so much more perfect.

It is in honour of the two hundredth anniversary of the working of the copper mines of Besshi, which I am now intending shortly to celebrate, that I have taken the liberty of giving you this short sketch of the history of our industry, and in doing so I beg of you a continuation of your patronage.

KICHIZAEEMON SUMITOMO,
20th Descendant of the Family of Sumitomo.

1st September, 23rd year of Meiji.

PARIS LETTER.

AFTER the Baltic fraternizations of the French and Russian fleets there can be no doubt that a seven league boot step has been made in the fixing up of the alliance between the two Governments. It is the formal betrothal, preparatory to the signing of the marriage contract. Of course both nations have a perfect right to indulge in political match making, only they ought not to object to other nations executing matrimonial arrangements. The triple and dual alliances claim to be peace organizations under a new name, and yet opinion views the combination as some points nearer to that inevitable war which is to clear the air and round off the map of the world. The serious French commence to feel sedate, but from the lower middle classes all are in ecstasies at having Russia on their side to sweep Europe. They indulge in the most phantasmogoric day-dreams as to the carving up of the German, Austrian and British Empires, not forgetting Italy. It is a moment when the wisest heads in France will have to exercise all their sagacity and sang-froid.

It is in the East that diplomatic activity will henceforth be concentrated. The torch of European war can be lit just as well in Afghanistan or in Persia, as in Bulgaria. It is to the Sultan that the rival alliances will make their love. He is assured by journals here that Russia—that did—Constantinople. She only wants to help Turkey to keep European fleets out of the Black Sea, while the latter have for rôle to back Turkey in preventing the Muscovite fleet from quitting that sea. Happily the Sultan knows from which side of his bread the butter is. A correspondent from the Baltic asserts that between the Slav and the Gaul there are secret affinities which make each other rapidly friends. The Russians, he adds, dote upon French champagne. He concludes that the future will show if these exchanges of amiabilities are useful, and if durable alliances are made at banquet tables to the music of national hymns and the clinking of toast glasses.

The statue-mania is in full bloom. Danton's was only recently inaugurated, and now statues to Robespierre and Marat are on the stocks. It is good for sculptors. The only point is which of these two sinister celebrities shall

be first placed on their pedestal. Robespierre was the Masher Terrorist. His historical white-washers blame his bad playing at Commune and his superseding the cult of the Goddess of Reason by that which he organized in favour of the Supreme Being. Tallien, the husband of "Notre Dame de Thermidor," is also to have his statue. He was not the worst of a bad lot. His orgies and pillages are proverbial, yet he ruined himself for the Revolution, and was as unfortunate in his official as in his married life. History is not yet agreed about the number of lovers his wife had, that which did not prevent him from dying in abject want. A ball has just been given in his honour to secure funds to repair his tomb. This mixture of quadrilles and funereal ideas is a curious philosophical mixture.

The free traders are organizing for a decisive attack on the ultra-protectionist Tariff Bill during its debate in the Senate. It is not improbable they will succeed in moderating some of the clauses, and compel the Bill to be re-examined when sent back to the Deputies. The working classes number seventeen millions, demand cheaper bread, meat and wine; they receive for response the stone. Bread will be raised two sous and meat four sous per pound, while wine will be additionally taxed to the extent of sixty-five per cent. In other words the average taxation in France for the working classes is 273 frs. per head. Undeniable calculations establish that the new tariff will increase that poll tax forty-nine per cent. Now that the masses constitute the fourth power in States and have taken stock and know their power, that fresh burden may prove to be the last straw on the camel's back.

France is chagrined, and naturally, at the continued decrease in her population. In 1886 the census gave a total of 36.8 millions; that of April last 38.0 millions. In the former the increase was 565,380, in the latter but 208,584. When the full details shall be published even this increase will be found to be due to the influx of foreigners. In fifty-nine departments, and the richest, the number of inhabitants continues to steadily decline, while in the twenty-nine which reveal an augmentation, this is the result of immigration to the industrial and mining centres. The tendency is demonstrated in France, as in other countries, that of the city populations declining in the business or working quarters, while augmenting in the suburban or residential districts. If the French do not pluck up courage to increase and multiply, say like the Isle of Man or the Channel Islands, they are a doomed race.

Cardinal Lavigerie has arrived in France to nurse an inflamed joint, but really at the request of His Holiness to endeavour to reconcile the divisions in the ranks of the monarchists. One party of the latter will never separate their royalist creed from their Catholic belief; the other party has rallied to the Republic, the better to obtain all the necessary liberties for Catholics and to stand united for their defence. But the worst of the evolution is that the faithful are so incensed against the Pope for accepting the present Constitution, that they no longer subscribe to charitable or propagandist works. During the last six months, the Cardinal states that the subscriptions for his armed Monks—or Sahara Missionaries—have dwindled by 300,000 frs. And Mgr. Fava, Bishop of Grenoble, the Cardinal's right hand man, declares that if the third Republic does not come back to Jesus Christ through the Pope it will disappear. The Radicals and Free Masons protest against any such return. The religious war is intensifying.

There is a society established in Paris whose members have for aim to visit some leading factory or industrial establishment. The recent visit was to the "Abattoirs," where they witnessed all the new processes—chiefly imported from England—for slaughtering animals, and preparing their flesh for city consumption. The treatment of the offal was most curious. By special request, a bullock was killed according to Jewish rites. This consists in cutting the animal's throat with a special knife, blessed by Israelitish consistory; the sacrificing knife must be free from all hacks on the edge. The preparation of sheep's feet and calves' heads is the most laborious work at the abattoir. They are the drovers who buy and slaughter the live stock; then the Paris butchers come and make their purchases after the flesh has been examined by the official veterinary inspectors, and marked by the Government stamp as sound. The animals are also inspected before being admitted to the shambles. A petition hawked about by the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals was instantly signed, praying Parliament to prohibit the Jewish plan of "sacrificing" cattle for food.

The drivers in the employment of one large cab company have obtained a concession. They will henceforth be allowed to wear moustaches. But they will not be guaranteed 7 frs. per day salary. The waiters have held another meeting, demanding to be permitted also to wear theirs.

Public opinion is not at all pleased at President Carnot exercising his clemency towards the woman, Berland, who, with her son and his young accomplice, accomplished the murder of an old single lady at Courbevoie, a city suburb. It was this infamous wretch who incited and planned the crime, and who divided the loot—a miserable sum of 20 frs.—between the pals. It is a false sentiment with the French to hesitate to execute a woman-fiend. It is the female sex that perpetrates some of the most appalling crimes in this country. Since a week, the triple execution was looked forward to by amateurs of decapitation. Crowds of city outcasts assembled night after night, and passed their time till day-break "playing at guillotine,"

and dancing ribald quadrilles round the prison walls. The abbé, Faure, dean of St. Sulpice, is also chaplain at the Roquette prison since 1885. During six years he has consoled seventy-eight culprits condemned to death, of whom eighteen, not respited, he accompanied to the scaffold. Only four of the condemned refused his ministrations. It may perhaps astonish opinion, but the abbé is a resolute partisan of death punishment, and of its taking place in public.

One statue has just been inaugurated, which begets no contention, that to the fabulist Lafontaine. Paris possessed no memorial to the author, who is beloved by age rather than youth. All French geniuses are adopted by Paris as her children. So with Lafontaine, who, though born at Château-Thierry, has had his bust erected in the old Ranelagh Gardens, at Passy, the neighbourhood he loved so much two centuries ago, and on the spot where was his favourite seat. The bust recalls that recently dedicated to Delacroix in the Luxembourg Gardens; over the fabulist is a figure of Fame; round the pedestal are the symbols taken from his most popular animal fables. Lafontaine liked quiet, though perhaps not nature. He was inspector of forests, but did not know one tree from another. He had the mania for reading all seventeenth century authors, and writing and reciting in purest French. Lamartine observes that Lafontaine is not popular with school boys; we relish him only when disabused of life's illusions. The philosophy of his fables is practical wisdom, at once profound and sceptical. Lafontaine was in sympathy with the Middle Ages, but, by a certain pity for the feeble, he belongs to ours. He was not a humanist, but an artist.

The railway catastrophe at St. Maudé, the pretty city outskirts, recalls in not a few of its tragic features the accident at Bellevue on the Versailles line, in May, 1842, when, by one of two engines breaking down, fifty persons met their death from being crushed and calcined by the conflagration of the carriages. Then two stokers, suffocated by the smoke, and dead with their hands grasping their breaks, were slowly consumed. In the terrible accident which took place Sunday last, the driver of the colliding engine and two travellers were consumed before the eyes of the screaming panic-stricken. As on holiday occasions the rush for places in a train is so great that the public stand on the foot-boards and sit on the steps leading to the imperial. It was so at the St. Maudé station, where a train of seventeen carriages was so crammed, waiting for the signal to start. Forgetting to apply the stop-signal, a supplementary train of sixteen carriages ran into the van and three carriages filled with 130 passengers—mostly holiday Parisians, the women and children in majority—of the standing train, pounding the four vehicles into match-wood, and causing in all seventy deaths and over 250 grievously wounded, more or less for life. Already subscriptions are being solicited to erect a memorial chapel on the site.

The day was fertile in accidents. One I witnessed in St. Cloud Park, where a fête was being given to raise funds for the French Ambulance Society. An American girl, advertised as "Miss Lilla," was to traverse from a wire, thirty yards high, a space across the park suspended by her teeth. Her husband so mismanaged the unrolling of the wire that she fell on the bare ground, was picked up seriously wounded and brought off to the village hospital carried by red-cross knights. Z.

THE "EDINBURGH REVIEW" ON MR. KIPLING.

MR. KIPLING has hit the fortunate mean. He adopts a method of pictorial treatment, of which daring directness, sharpness of outline, and naked reality, are the characteristics, and which only errs in the opposite direction to a prudish delicacy. His bold dashing sketches of real nature, with their masses of colour concentrated on exactly the right spot, enable him to make objects picturesque which more finished work would reveal in their true ungainliness and squalour. If labour has been bestowed upon the art, it is successfully concealed. The apparent ease with which the effects are produced reacts upon the reader. And with the eye of the born artist he also possesses his reticence. Concentrating himself upon the one point which he wishes to bring out, he suffers nothing to distract his attention from it. His scenes are painted in the minimum of space, and with the maximum of vividness. The picture is given as it were in a flash of lightning, and he who travels by express train may read it at a glance. The gift of telling a short story, which is complete in itself and does not appear to be a fragment of a larger whole, is a rare one, and Mr. Kipling possesses it to a very remarkable degree of perfection. Mr. Kipling, therefore, is fortunate both in his matter and in his manner: in his matter because it is new, yet real, and deals with incident in a narrative form; in his manner because it is rapid, direct, concentrated, and fitted for an age in which all who wish to read wish also to run. In both respects he has exactly hit a real literary want. He is content to tell a story without reference to ethical purpose, and without pausing to indicate the relations of cause and effect which exist between the characters and conduct of his actors. It would, however, be grossly unjust to attribute all his success to a happy chance, or even to the keen-sighted intuition which detected the drift of fashion and discovered the exact shape in which public caprice could be best satisfied.

* Communicated by Messrs. Musson and Morrow.

Mr. Kipling has gifts which would have obtained him a fair share of success, even had he elected, both in his matter and his manner, to swim against the stream. But all his talents would not have secured him so rapid and immediate a success, if the relations between author and audience were not those of supply and demand. At present it is our opinion that the praise bestowed upon Mr. Kipling's work has been extravagant. His merits still lie rather in the promise than in the performance. His work has been praised to excess, partly because his talents are indisputably great, partly, and mainly, because he has caught the tide at a turn. Over Mr. Kipling there is no need to repeat Canning's exclamation over an embryo orator, "I wish to Heaven that young man would risk himself." Audacity is one of his characteristics. In choice of subjects and in manner of treatment he adopts the "hit or miss" style. Few authors who have been so short a time before the public have ever produced such abundant material for a critic. It is a good sign. Careless cleverness—not that Mr. Kipling is ever careless—is better than careful dullness, and extravagance is generally more hopeful than commonplaceness. Mr. Kipling has published some seventy stories, a novel, and a volume of verse. With the latter we are not concerned. Mr. Kipling's verses are the parerga of a man whose serious business of life is prose fiction. Each crisply, tersely told story illustrates, with more or less force, Mr. Kipling's gift of dramatic representation. However trivial or slight the incident, it is almost always effectively rendered. What the reader is intended to see, he cannot help seeing with vivid clearness. Sharp and distinct, the figures stand out in bold relief. Nothing is allowed to distract attention, or to weaken the force of the impression. Yet we cannot help thinking that Mr. Kipling would have been wiser, if he had put two-thirds of the stories into the fire, or had left the larger number undisturbed in the comparative oblivion of the Indian journals in which they originally appeared. No doubt the temptation to seize a favourable turn in the market, or to make the fat years pay for the lean, is a strong one; but Mr. Kipling should have called to mind his own philosophy, and remembered that "notoriety is windy diet for a young colt," and that "fall under the damnation of the check-book," is "worse than death." . . . Mr. Kipling's stories may be divided into three classes—tales of Indian society, tales of the barrack room, and tales of child life. In our opinion the literary merits of these three classes are very different, though all three possess the distinctive charm of direct, vivid, and lively narrative. The first class comprises a collection of "queer stories," of the same order of merit as those which appear in the pages of a "society weekly." They are uniformly trivial, vulgar, and smart, though not a few are decidedly clever. The second class comprises a series of studies of the British private in peace and war, which, in their peculiar style, are masterly productions. For a parallel to them we must look to the cunning hand which drew the portraits of the two Wellers, Dick Swiveller, and all the knotty, eccentric portraiture of the many-caped figures who haunt the yards, bars, and parlours of English inns. Dickens was the Columbus of Cockneyland; Mr. Kipling is the Columbus of the barrack room. The third class contains a number of slight sketches of child life, which are certain to gain a cheaply earned popularity for the author, but which are, with one exception, artistically of little value. . . . Mr. Kipling's is the style of a man who writes after the light of nature, and who has not formed himself on the study of classic models. In form it is very different from the style of Dickens, but in spirit it has close affinities to "Barnaby Rudge." Both writers aimed at painting pictures which should arrest the most careless eye, or driving home a point to the dullest understanding. Both endeavoured to express themselves in the most emphatic language; both abound in racy idioms caught from the lips of living men; the freshness of unconventionality is common to both. Mr. Kipling sees clearly, rapidly, and distinctly; his eye passes over immaterial details and fastens firmly upon salient features; he realizes his visions to himself with marked vividness. All these gifts are communicated to a picture-making style, the merits of which are that it is terse, lively, pointed, and distinct. Mr. Kipling never wastes his words. Writers are often apt to make the mistake which Napoleon noticed in Talma's rendering of the part of Nero. "You gesticulate too much," said the Emperor to the great actor. "You declaim too vehemently. Despots know that they have only to speak, and their words are obeyed." Mr. Kipling neither declaims nor gesticulates. He seeks for the most pointed expression of his thoughts, produces his effects with the least possible expenditure of language, and leaves the words to make themselves felt by their own inherent force. He knows that a single stroke well aimed returns a better result than a score which are delivered at large; that one touch of colour, or of light and shade, rightly placed, is enough, and that a single word in the mouth of the wise is worth a dictionary on the lips of a fool. He has a horror of indefiniteness, detests generalities, and is intolerant of vague abstractions. Every substantive gives form and substance to the picture; every adjective adds to its individuality; every verb places the lines in some exactly marked position. Every word is at once definite, sharply accentuated, precise, and concrete. At the same time his quick perception of latent analogies gives him a power which is akin to that of American humorists, and the collocation or illustration of his ideas, though rarely forced or

unnatural, enables him to produce those unexpected turns of thought on which the liveliness of literary manner so largely depends. Such a style lends itself readily to epigram, for epigrams come readily to a man who sees clearly, comprehensively, rapidly, and expresses his visions with corresponding definiteness and concentration. On the other hand, Mr. Kipling's manner is calculated to display the conspicuous faults of his matter. Unless it is regulated by a correct and refined taste, it readily degenerates from genuine cleverness into mere smartness and downright vulgarity; it is naturally akin to a flashy pretentiousness of expression which seems designed to advertise the talents of the author; and, if the epigram is missed, the very failure reveals the slippancy of the thought and language. To sum up what has been said. Mr. Kipling's work shows, in some respects, extraordinary promise; but his actual performances have been extravagantly praised. He is a master of the form of short stories, of incident, and in this direction the tide of literary fashion has recently turned. He has shown himself, though the field is at present limited, to be possessed of no ordinary gift of pathos, and of the more precious gift of creative sympathy. He can transform himself at will into the soul of the British private or the drummer boy. But his experience of other sides of life is still so narrow that he foists off upon his readers as reality a view of society which is apparently taken from journals whose existence depends on their capacity to overheat and exaggerate the gossip of the servants' hall. If Mr. Kipling learns more of the real world, or if he can acquire a measure of the joviality and catholicity which made Dickens the master of the humbler grades of life, he will do some of the best work that the present generation has yet seen. But even here a danger lies before him. His powers will be comparatively wasted if he does not abandon his mistaken mission of convincing the British public that a literal coarseness of treatment and a gratuitously rough touch are necessary to emancipate art from the leadingstrings of pedantry.

THE RAMBLER.

It has often been remarked how, when the tide of one's thoughts has set earnestly for some lengthened period towards a certain goal, numerous related facts continually present themselves. We need neither to be members of the Psychical Society nor new-born Theosophists to believe this. Accordingly I was delighted the other day to receive as partly corroborative of my remarks touching the political power of many Englishwomen in these days, a marked paper containing Miss Mabel Hill's very excellent speech made before—or at—the particular proposition appears to fly me—a Habitation of the famous Primrose League. Miss Hill, who is the Ruling Councilor of this special Habitation, referred to the secularization of education, to the policy of the present Government, and to the objects of the League generally. No astonishment appears to have been evinced, nor much made of the event in the papers, and we may conclude that the presence of a clear-headed, intelligent woman at a quasi-political meeting, eloquent of stating her well-grounded opinions in few but desirous words, confident of respect and attention, is no uncommon affair in England. But consider for a moment what columns of self-congratulatory fustian the American press would indulge in were the trend of political feeling to be expounded by the Belva Lockwoods of the day, who believe themselves so greatly the superior of their English sisters in political and social freedom. Miss Hill, who was very heartily applauded, said it gave her great pleasure to do anything she could for the Primrose League, and it could not be too often borne in mind that the League was not so much a political organization as an effort to maintain certain definite principles. These were the maintenance of religion, of the Constitution, and the unity of the Empire. By the way, Miss Hill's father is a Colonel and an M. P., owner of a fine residence near Llandaff. The gallant Colonel was, however, prevented from acting as host on the occasion, and why? because the Corrupt Practices Act forbids any member of Parliament playing host to his constituents. I hope every sojourner at Ottawa will read and remember this. Some things are so easily forgotten.

Emperor William is still the last good gift of the gods to the London press. The gold service at Windsor impressed him by its magnificence, but he is reported as saying that it is inferior to that historic and noble service of silver now in the possession of the Queen Regent of the Netherlands, but originally made for William and Mary. Until about forty years ago it bore the royal arms of England. These have since been erased and the Dutch arms substituted. A private letter informs me, speaking of Royalties, that the Prince of Wales is being received once more with all the old emotion, and perhaps a little compunction thrown in as well. He continues to work hard, opening this and receiving the other, forgetful of that room full of silver trowels at Sandringham. The new Law Courts at Birmingham, sumptuous in the midst of smoke, held him for a few hours lately, while he made one of those practical, simple but genial speeches for which he is so well liked. The *Illustrated American* prints a portrait of Lady Brooke, by the way, remarking that, although handsome and effective, her face has that hard made-up look which distinguishes all the members of the Prince's set who gather around Marlborough

House. Evidently Lady Brooke is no vegetarian, as the "Alabaster Angel" was in her time, that being the name given to a remarkably clear-skinned American girl, Estelle Something-or-other, who hailed from New York, and soon earned a cheap notoriety. Yet I have seen poor, thin, sallow people who declared they were vegetarians—verily, there is no analogy under the sun!

More interest was felt and shown in the reported miracles "down the river" this year than ever before, owing to a great many different reasons. French Canada grows into light with each new year. The Holy Coat of Treves is not a whit more powerful than the finger or toe—which is it—of La Bonne Ste. Anne. It is not every relic, however, that is as useful as that pair of Mahomet's pyjamas, kept at Lahore, which in 1840 stopped a fire. Quite recently a cast-off hat of Mr. Dillon's was sold by auction in Australia for £5. Now, if we were properly patriotic we might manage a splendid Old Clo' and Relic Shop, with hats and canes of departed aldermen, coats of mayors, pens which have signed cheques payable to fictitious gentlemen at large, medals imported from beyond the seas; even the cunningly-made effigy in bronze, or the delicately convoluted lead-pencil would be acceptable. Let not the relic-lover despair. The country is over-young yet. In time she will produce more quaint and entertaining relics than the world has yet seen. The famous Horseshoes of St. Mark will be outshone by the bronze Dogs of Ottawa. Hampton Court and the Pitti will fail to present more fascinating objects than the Loan Museum on Sandy Hill, where trophies in the shape of ex-political great—that served their ends and will serve to show our great grandchildren what we were—will at a future day be gathered.

Those of us who fancied we knew something about contemporaneous French literature may find, on perusing the following enigma, that we are mistaken. It suggests the sparkling satire of Molière himself, say—in *Les Précieuses Ridicules*. But probably it is only the American correspondent busy at work: "Paris is soon to have a new school of poets. There is a schism in the camp of the Symbolists, themselves secessionaries, from the clan of Decadents. The leader of the new movement is Jean Moreas, the original founder of Symbolism, who, dissatisfied with the tendencies of *école*, has left them to their own devices, and with one or two *ames d'élite*, is founding the *Ecole Romaine*." There will soon be in Paris as many schools of poetry as there are political parties, and as equally in earnest.

More letters upon the School Closing question! I have raised a very hornet's nest, and can only take refuge in silence. *Mesdames et Mesdemoiselles, je vous demande mille pardons!* The subject is dead and buried, I assure you.

DR. WRIGHT ON THE OLD TESTAMENT.

The Bishop of Durham, at the last Church Congress, gave expression to the opinion that the main interest in theological circles would, for some time, centre in the Old Testament, and judging from recent literature there is every reason to regard this opinion as accordant with the facts. The theories of German critics are now pretty well known, and have able supporters in both England and America, and the battle, which has for fifty years past raged violently in Germany, is now fairly commenced on new ground. There is a double advantage in this fact. The English critic comes to the conflict with a more thoroughly unbiassed mind than the German. He approaches the subject from the position of one who has hitherto been an onlooker, with the onlooker's proverbial advantage of having seen most of the game. In the next place the English genius is notably more conservative, distrustful of theories, and cautious and deliberate in the adoption of new views. We may, therefore, reasonably look for something like a settlement of the chief points of Old Testament criticism, now that Oxford notably, and Cambridge more recently, in the person of Professor Ryle, are devoting much attention to the subject.

Those who desire to be in a position to follow intelligently the course of Old Testament studies are strongly recommended to purchase Rev. C. H. H. Wright's "Introduction to the Old Testament," which, in the compass of two hundred and twenty-six pages, gives an admirable account first, of the data for Old Testament study, *e. g.*, the History of the Hebrew Text and of the various versions, of the labours of the Maccoretic scholars, the Talmud and the Targums, and secondly, of the outline of the various books of the Old Testament itself. In this latter part we have a sketch of the most important critical theories of the composition of the books.

Dr. Wright is well known as an Old Testament scholar of eminence, and I propose to give a brief account of his views on one or two points of peculiar interest.

(1) With regard to the Hebrew text, it was formerly thought that the labours of the Jewish scholars of the famous school of Tiberias had ensured the almost absolute accuracy of the MSS. It is now known and universally acknowledged that this is far from being the case. Whereas we have MSS. of the New Testament of the fourth century, the oldest codex of the Old Testament is dated 916 A.D. A comparison of the MSS. reveals the fact that the Old Testament writings "have not come down to us in the

ART NOTES.

exact shape in which they were first written, or even as finally edited by their pre-Christian revisers." A further comparison with the Septuagint (LXX.) or Greek version, shows that the translators had a text differing in some important respects from that of the present Hebrew MSS., although, as a whole, the superior value of the latter is admitted. The settlement of the best Hebrew text is, therefore, a matter to be left to text critics, and whilst we can scarcely expect, owing to lack of materials, and the inferior quality of such as we have, to reach the same certainty in the case of the Old as of the New Testament, there seems no reason to doubt that, with the exception of a few passages, the trustworthiness of the present Hebrew text will be substantiated.

(2) We come next to questions of criticism. Here, of course, the authorship of the Pentateuch claims our first regard. Dr. Wright occupies a conservative position, with some important admissions to the critics, whilst the calm, unprejudiced tone of his remarks is worthy of the highest praise.

He regards the Pentateuch as substantially of Mosaic authorship, but its laws were subjected to revision to meet the requirements of altered circumstances. It is, therefore, a work of a composite character, and the old traditional view must be abandoned. The fact that the law is in the New Testament ascribed to Moses, occasions no stumbling block, for it is by no means necessary to regard the "law" as identical with the Pentateuch.

These are Dr. Wright's views, but he gives a very candid and valuable outline of the history of Pentateuch criticism, and summarizes the principal views under four heads: (1) The fragment hypothesis, (2) The completion hypothesis, (3) The document hypothesis, and (4) The Graf-Wellhausen hypothesis, which is a modification of (3).

In this last, criticism has done its worst; the latest possible dates compatible with sanity have been assigned to the various portions of the law, and it is altogether likely that subsequent criticism will take the form of a modification of these views. According to Wellhausen, no part of the Pentateuch is Mosaic. The earliest of the main divisions falls in "the time of the kings and prophets, and the whole was published as at present found in our Bibles by Ezra, about B.C. 444. With regard to this theory, Dr. Wright says: "Notwithstanding the ability with which it has been put forward, the arguments by which it has been defended, or the popularity it has attained among critics, it may safely be predicted that the hypothesis will not long be regarded by any number of scholars as a satisfactory solution of the question of the composition of the Pentateuch."

Space will only permit of our noticing one or two other interesting questions. On the authorship of the last twenty-six chapters of Isaiah, Dr. Wright has scarcely made up his mind, but seems to lean to the old view that Isaiah wrote the whole book, though he admits the mention of Cyrus by name is a difficulty. "It is probable that the proper name in both cases ought to be regarded as later additions."

More interesting is his account and explanation of the book of Jonah. It will probably startle many readers to find that Dr. Wright not only abandons the story of the swallowing of Jonah by the great fish, but the historicity of the whole book. He rejects the view that it is (1) purely legendary or (2) that it is composed of legends based on fact, or (3) that it is wholly fictitious, and agrees with Kleinert that it is a "prophetic-historical allegory." "Jonah represents Israel fleeing from the duty imposed on the nation in its prophetic character as witness for God. The sleep of Jonah, the storm on the sea, Jonah's bold confession of faith when aroused from slumber, admit of easy explanation. The world power is actually represented in the prophets as a sea monster (Isaiah, xxvii. 1, Jer. li. 34). That sea monster is represented as, in the person of Nebuchadnezzar, swallowing up Israel. Bel, the God of Babylon, is forced to disgorge (Isaiah, xlvi. 1, Jer. li. 44). Israel's duration in exile is represented by Hosea as lasting for three days (Hosea vi. 1, 2). The prayer of Jonah in the fish's belly is made up of a number of sentences from psalms composed during the exile. . . . The prayer of Jonah contains no confession of sin and no petition for deliverance. Such facts are highly significant. They are very serious difficulties in the way of the literal explanation; they fall in exactly with the allegorical."

Such are the views of Dr. Wright expressed in a manual intended for beginners in the study of the Old Testament. We do not doubt that to many they will be a source of considerable surprise, mingled with pain. In the history of human progress it is ever so. It is by no means easy to separate essentials from non-essentials, or the super-structure from the foundation. The new wine will ferment, and the old skin bursts. But we who have for our instruction the example of the trial of the faith of those to whom the Epistle to the Hebrews was written, must learn to look the facts which our own age has brought to light steadily in the face. We may, of course, refuse to go forward, but it is at our peril. In clinging to the husk, we may lose the kernel of faith, which should bear in mind is not absolutely dependent upon the written word. Faith may have found supports in a former age which are denied it in this, but we need not doubt that new arguments more valid, and no less cogent, will be found to support the reasonable belief in the Divine origin of the books of the Old equally with those of the New Testament.

O. T.

THE Art Association of Montreal has issued an announcement regarding its spring exhibition for 1892 as follows: Through the liberality of several members of the Association, the Council has been enabled to offer the following prizes for competition at the forthcoming spring exhibition. For the best sea or landscape, \$200; for the second best sea or landscape, \$100; for the best figure painting, \$100; for the best portrait, \$100; for the best painting of still life, \$100; for the best painting by an artist under thirty years of age, not an R. C. academician or associate, \$100; for the second best painting by an artist under thirty years of age, not an R. C. academician or associate, \$50; for the best painting by an artist who has been within three years or is now a pupil of the Association, \$75; for the second best painting by an artist who has been within three years or is now a pupil of the Association, \$50; for the best water colour, \$100; for the second best water colour, \$50. For the picture obtaining the greatest number of votes of visitors attending the exhibition, for which purpose each ticket of admission shall carry one vote, each single ticket of Association membership, two votes, and each family ticket, three votes, \$200. The prizes are to be awarded by a committee of five persons, of whom three shall be elected by the Council of the Art Association and two by the exhibitors. None of the committee shall vote in classes in which they are themselves competitors. A majority of votes of the said committee shall be required to make the awards, and its decisions shall be final. All artists resident in Canada, or Canadian artists studying or residing abroad, may compete for these prizes. A prize shall not be awarded to any artist for the same class of work more than once in five years, nor shall more than one prize be awarded to an artist at any one exhibition. The work of artists who have gained prizes shall, during the period in which they are restricted from competition, be marked "non-competing," and in the catalogue each year shall be printed after their names "Association Prize" (with date and class of work). The special prize to be decided by the popular vote shall be open to competition by all Canadian artists without restriction, and may be won by the recipient of any of the Association prizes.

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA.

AUGUSTUS HARRIS, the well-known manager of the Royal Italian Opera and of Drury Lane Theatre, who recently so successfully provided a gala entertainment at Covent Garden, has been knighted by Her Majesty Queen Victoria, at Windsor Castle. Henceforth Sir Augustus Harris will be the style under which the popular amusement caterer will entertain the public. It remains to be seen whether Sir Augustus Harris will retain the good opinions he earned before he attained the "object of his life." Some people recall the fact that knighthood has caused many a hat to grow, apparently, very much too tight for the comfort or popularity of its owner. Time will show.

OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

ROB: A Story for Boys. By Margaret Sidney. 12 mo., \$1.00. Boston: D. Lothrop Company.

This is a new story of a boy who made the most of his opportunity. It is calculated not only to interest boy readers, but to lead them towards Christian work. The authoress shows both quaintness and strength in her narrative, and her sketches of character are well drawn. The dress of the book—its printing and binding—present a most attractive appearance.

BETTER DEAD. By J. M. Barrie. London: Swan Sonnenschein and Company, Paternoster Square.

This little book is printed on beautiful paper, bound in handsome Prussian blue cloth, gilt edged at the top, and embellished with an extra and wonderful pictorial frontispiece; but as to what its contents mean—well, we confess to being rather puzzled. Is it a skit on Nihilism, a study in monomania, a *jeu d'esprit*, or merely a funny story? If the first, it is far-fetched; if the second, impossible; if the third, weak; and if the fourth, a failure. An imbecile young Scotsman comes to London and falls in with a "Society for Doing Without Some People," and the some people are those best known in the fields of politics and letters in London to-day—perhaps this is the joke. The young man attempts to join this Society, and singles out Mr. Labouchere for murder; fails, and himself barely escapes the fate he had intended for the editor of *Truth*, for the president of the Society cannot restrain himself from clutching with deadly grip the neck of the young probationer because "it was such a good neck to twist." This, with a meagre hint at a love affair, is the whole plot. It may be we have missed Mr. Barrie's point if he has one. The trick, too, of inserting in supposedly ludicrous, but in reality very foolish, situations prominent men and women of the day—Lord Randolph Churchill, Mrs. Fawcett, and many others—surely is not in the best taste; and the opening sentence of Chapter VI. is simply disgusting. Such paper and binding as the book boasts is good material wasted.

FOURTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE CHILDREN'S FRESH AIR FUND, to provide free summer excursions for poor children: account of the work carried on during the season of 1890, with a statement of the poor children's Christmas Fund. J. J. Kelso, Hon. Secy-Treas. Toronto: The Budget Press.

We take peculiar pleasure in noticing, not only this interesting report, but more especially the work of which it is an account. Toronto is growing fast. Its streets are the streets of a city. Even its parks and open spaces are yearly encroached upon. To the wealthy, even to those of moderate incomes, such changes make little difference: there is Lorne Park, Niagara, Grimsby, Victoria Park, Oakville—there are a score of places in which for fifty cents or a dollar they can forget there are such things as unwholesome vapours, ill-ventilated lanes, damp and monotonous road-ways. But of the very poor these things are the constant and unchanged surroundings. True, they may be aware neither of the monotony nor of the noisomeness; still these have their effects, and though we may rejoice in a comparatively clean and sanitary town, there is a vast difference between life on a Rosedale ridge and life in a low-lying lane. This the rich are sometimes apt to forget—happily not all of them. In the statement of receipts for 1890 we find the total to be \$1,078.13; not a small sum certainly, although \$297.29 of it was a balance on hand. Yet surely it might with the utmost ease be increased. If each person denied himself even of one-twentieth of the many minor "outings" he indulges in yearly, this sum would be swollen to proportions which would open the eyes of—many poor children with delight!

CHARLES DARWIN: HIS LIFE AND WORK. By C. F. Holder. New York and London: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Toronto: Williamson and Company. (Leaders in Science Series.)

This is a simple and popular narration of Darwin's life and work, compiled in great part from Mr. Francis Darwin's "Life and Letters," the *Beagle* journals, and other sources. It is told interestingly, and the compiler has kept well in mind the adopted "suggestion that the work should be adapted to young readers as well as old." Like so many American writers, however, Mr. Holder is not over particular or accurate in his choice of terminology and expression—which in a work for youth is a blemish. For example, it is a pity to see wider and wider circulation given to that abominable coinage, "Scientist," as at pages 18, 82, 123, and elsewhere. Professor Henslow, too, would probably have smiled at being described as "one of the best-posted men of his time" (page 16). "He compares his geological studies here to gambling in their excitement" (page 20) sounds odd. A word distasteful to ears polite is quite unnecessarily inserted in "perhaps no naturalist ever went forth after bugs, birds, and reptiles with so singular an escort" (page 40). He means "round" when he says "another method . . . consisted in walking around them on a slow horse" (page 43). "Four nests were found to contain twenty-two eggs, while another bore twenty-seven" (page 52) is ambiguous. To "vibrate" is intransitive, but not so in "without apparently vibrating the wings" (page 78). In "fortunately doing no damage, as they were over one hundred miles from the *Beagle*" (page 80), what is really meant is that it was fortunate no damage was done, since they were so far from the *Beagle*. Such lapses from correctness and elegance of expression (which, after all, is so small a thing to ask of a professed writer of books—Mr. Holder is already known as the author of "Elements of Zoology," "Living Lights," "A Strange Company," etc.) will make some parents hesitate to put this life of Darwin into the hands of a son who, he hopes, will some day speak and write as a scholar.

From the publishers' point of view the book is praiseworthy. It is handsomely bound, very much so; and is embellished with head-and-tail-pieces, initial letters, and twenty eight illustrations.

THE POETICAL WORKS OF SAMUEL TAYLOR COLERIDGE. Edited with introduction and notes by T. Ashe, B.A. In two volumes. London: George Bell and Sons. York Street, Covent Garden.

Was it Samuel Taylor Coleridge who first brought genius into disrepute?

Poor Coleridge! "A most original genius," says De Quincey; "the only person I ever knew who answered to the idea of a man of genius," says Haylitt; "most distinguished for his knowledge and genius," says Wordsworth; "I consider Crabbe and Coleridge as the first of these times in point of power and genius," says Byron; "if there be any man of grand and original genius alive at this moment in Europe, it is Coleridge," says Professor Wilson—and yet, "blessings on his gentle memory,—Coleridge was a frail mortal," says H. N. Coleridge. And genius in the abstract has ever since suffered in character from this its "bright particular" concrete manifestation—aided, perhaps, in its downward growth in popular estimation by other mortals only a little less frail—Shelley, Keats—no need to recount their names. Yes, surely it was Coleridge who first brought genius into disrepute—the very word now is familiarly and idiomatically applied to persons with screws loose.

Poor Coleridge! he had more than one screw loose. "His mind," says Southey, "is in a perpetual St. Vitus' dance—eternal activity without action." "No one was so easily cowed," says Wordsworth, "when moral firmness

was required." In mundane things what a failure he was! in the "Pantisocracy" scheme, the *Friend* episode, the translations from German projects, in the lectures even, and always in the struggle for existence. In supra-mundane things what a wonder! in poesy, in imagination, in analysis, in keenness of criticism, in penetration, in heights of poetic rapture, in wealth of descriptive power—in all that belongs to the world of thought and vision.

Coleridge is not enough. We speak of his "Ancient Mariner," of his "Kubla Khan," of his "Christabel," and of his "Dejection," and in these we speak, perhaps, of his best work; but to those who will look for it there is abundance of treasure elsewhere in his poetical works alone, and to such these two volumes may be highly recommended. They contain everything possible, and are annotated with scrupulous care, the notes being if anything over-full. Thus, Mr. Ashe will occasionally throw in a supererogatory ejaculation as, "To think that America has announced (Sept., 1884) a complete edition of Lord Byron's Poems, to include all his early poems!" To the annotated poems are added (1) a long narrative of the events of the poet's life; (2) a briefer estimate of him as a poet; (3) a bibliography; and (4) an explanation of the arrangement of the contents.

Mr. Ashe needs no introduction to our readers: all know him as the conscientious and appreciative editor of Coleridge, who has collected and read everything that throws any light upon the great poet to whom it is his delight to devote himself. Messrs. George Bell and Sons' familiar scarlet volumes will form an adornment to any book-shelf.

THE prominent articles in the *North American Review* for August are: "New Light on the Jewish Question," by Prof. Goldwin Smith, and "The War—Some unpublished History," by the Hon. Charles A. Dana. Besides these there are other able contributions consisting in part of "The Value of Naval Manœuvres," by the Hon. James R. Soley; "Vampire Literature," by Anthony Comstock; "Possibilities of the Steam Yacht," by Lewis Herreshoff; "The Scientific Basis of Belief," by Prof. R. H. Thurston; "The State as an Immoral Teacher," by Ouida; "Pensions and Patriotism," by Gen. Green B. Raum, Commissioner of Pensions; "How to Rest," by Dr. William A. Hammond; "The New Political Party," by the Governor of Oregon; "Trades Unions for Women," by Lady Dilke; "Notes and Comments," etc. Altogether this is an admirable number.

THE *Overland Monthly* for August is fully up to its usual standard. It contains: "Gold Mining of To-day," by Charles G. Yale (ably illustrated); "A Word to the Wise," by Alex. F. Oakey (illustrated); "Comments on the Relief Map of the Pacific Region," by John S. Hittell (with Maps and Diagrams); "Bazaine's Ghost," by Charles J. Mason; "In the Tower of Dagon," by Catherine Reed Lockwood; "Dragging her Anchor" (continued), by Carrie Blake Morgan; "One Life, one Law," by Charles Edwin Markham; "Early Days in Klamath," by Walter Van Dyke; "An Ecstasy in Yellow," by Florence E. Pratt; "A Phonograph Phantasy," by S. S.; "Doubts Concerning Evolution," by Josiah Keep; "The Origin of Organic Forms," by Joseph Le Conte; "Senator Gwin's Plan for the Colonization of Sonora," by Evan J. Coleman; "The Loss of the *Harriet*," "Jasmine," "The Railway Problem," etc.

DR. ANDREW D. WHITE, LL.D., J.H.D., contributes a most interesting and valuable paper, entitled "New Chapters in the Warfare of Science, XIII., from Fetich to Hygiene," to the August issue of the *Popular Science Monthly*. The number also contains: "The Value of Statistics," by the Hon. Carroll D. Wright; "The Development of American Industries since Columbus," by S. N. Dexter North (concluded); "Hypocrisy as a Social Debaser," by Dr. R. W. Conant; "The Practical Outcome of Science," by W. H. Smith, M.D., Ph.D.; "Dress and Adornment," by Prof. Frederic Starr (illustrated); "Professor Huxley and the Swine Miracle," by W. E. Gladstone; "Illustrations of Mr. Gladstone's Controversial Method," by Prof. T. H. Huxley; "Head-flattening as seen among the Navajo Indians," by Dr. R. W. Shufeldt (illustrated); "The Relations of Abstract Research to Practical Invention," by T. W. Clarke; "Ginseng in Commerce," by J. Jones Bell, M.A. (illustrated); "Sketch of Friedrich W. A. Argelander" (with portrait), etc.

MR. WILLIAM T. STEAD contributes a paper on "Madame Blavatsky" in the July number of the *Review of Reviews*. He writes: "Madame Blavatsky, they say, was an impostor, a vulgar fraud. She was exposed by the Coulombs, shown up by the Psychological Research Society, and last, if not least, she has been 'jumped upon,' almost before her ashes were cool, by the *Pall Mall Gazette*. Madame Blavatsky was a great woman, whom I am proud to have known, and prouder still to have numbered among my friends. She was not the faultless monster whom the world ne'er saw, and it must be admitted she was in more senses than one something of a monster. She was huge in body, and in her character, alike in its strength and weakness, there was something almost Rabelaisianly gigantesque. But if she had all the enormity of the oak, she was not without its strength; and if she had the contortions of the Sibyl, she possessed somewhat of her inspirations. . . . Madame Blavatsky, a Russian, suspected of being a spy, converted leading Anglo-Indians to a passionate belief in her theosophy mission, even when the jingo fever was

hottest, and in her declining years she succeeded in winning over to the new-old religion Annie Besant, who had for years fought in the forefront of the van of militant atheism. A woman who could achieve these two things is a woman indeed. 'But,' it will be objected, 'her philosophy is all moonshine.' Perhaps it is; but is not moonshine better than outer darkness, and is not moonshine itself but the pale reflection of the rays of the sun? I am not, however, by any means prepared to admit that the creed which Madam Blavatsky preached with such savage fervour deserves to be scouted as mere moonshine." Mr. Stead is also the writer of the most noticeable article in the August issue of the same periodical. His subject matter is entitled "The Prince of Wales," and referring to the recent scandals with which the name of the Prince has been associated he says: "I am in a position to give the most absolute contradiction to the whole series of falsehoods which have been disseminated so diligently in certain quarters. So far from the Prince being waterlogged with debt and embarrassed by money-lenders, I am assured on the highest authority that the Prince has no debts worth speaking of, and that he could pay to-morrow every farthing which he owes. I am assured on the same authority, and with equally definite emphasis, that there is not a word of truth in the oft-repeated tale of the mortgage on Sandringham, said to have been granted first to Mackenzie and then passed on through the Murriettas to Baron Hirsch. The whole story is a fabrication, and is on a par with similar tales which represent the Prince as being financed by Israelites of more or less dubious honesty. Further, it follows as a necessary corollary from this, that as there are no debts there has never been any application to Her Majesty to supply funds. No funds were needed for the debts do not exist. Not only has the Queen never been appealed to, but no idea of making such an appeal has ever been entertained at Marlborough House. All the ingenious card-castles of caricature and of calumny raised upon this legend falls to the ground. As for the report, half credited with a sort of shuddering horror, that it might be necessary to apply to Parliament for a grant to the Prince's debts, that also may be dismissed. No such grant has been thought of, for the simple fact that the Prince is not in debt." The other articles in these numbers of this most interesting and useful of magazines are fully up to standard mark.

THE mid-year *Edinburgh Review* is an excellent number—but it is always this. The opening article is devoted to the "Memoirs of Prince Talleyrand." It is rather late in the day perhaps to touch upon these, but in a quarterly this is unavoidable, and at all events the tardiness is abundantly made up for by the excellence both of the matter and form. Next comes a review of two already well-known books: Miss Agnes M. Clerke's "The System of the Stars" and Professor Norman Lockyer's "Meteoritic Hypothesis," and the first two pages of this are occupied with allusions and quotations from Plato! "Beatrice and Dante," "Rawlinson's Phœnicia," "John Murray," "Rudyard Kipling," "The Architecture of London," and "The Revival of Quakerism," bring us to the ninth article—"Colonial Independence," a review presumably of three books, but in reality of only one, Mr. Goldwin Smith's "Canada and the Canadian Question." This is a most important work, the most important work on colonial subjects since Sir Charles Dilke's and Mr. James Bryce's, and although it has been reviewed times without number by critics of every hue and of every degree of mental calibre, what the *Edinburgh Review* has to say of it is worth reading. Accordingly we quote from it the following sentences: "Surely Mr. Goldwin Smith, in advocating the entrance of the Canadian Dominion into the national system of the United States, is arguing against himself. It is for independence that he was pleading, when he told us (at p. 247) 'that the disadvantages of dependence stare us in the face. If to be a nation is strength, energy and grandeur, to be less than a nation is to have less than a full measure of all these. . . . The dependency shares, it may be replied, the greatness of the Imperial nation. It does, but only as a dependent; it bears the train, not wears the royal robe.' Why the inhabitants of the Canadian Dominion should acquire increased dignity and self-respect by being broken up into several States, each subordinate to the supreme Government of the United States, we entirely fail to perceive. On the contrary, the position of the Canadian Dominion at the present moment seems to approach much more nearly to that of independent nationhood than it would do were Canada received into the system of the United States. The change would, in fact, be away from complete independent nationhood, not towards it. It is very conceivable that if we regard for a moment the natural aspirations of the Canadians, we may find a certain amount of dissatisfaction with the limitations (necessitated by the colonial connexion) to their national character, a longing to assume for themselves the full and sole responsibility for their own national career. But, so far as sentiment is concerned, if this completeness of Canadian nationality is to be denied them, we can hardly understand how sentiment can impel the Canadian to exchange the character of British subject for that of American citizen. As regards the material interests of the Canadian, Mr. Goldwin Smith has perhaps stronger arguments to press. Even there, however, we are inclined to think that he overstates the identity of commercial interest between the vast territories north of the Canadian frontier and the lands to the south. . . . In arguing in favour of the annexation of Canada by the United States

he seems to forget Canadian nationality altogether. Yet this would be absolutely extinguished. She would number at most one tenth of the population of the Union, and it is by no means certain that even her commercial interests would be safe in the long run from attack by the very different interests which prevail in other parts of the vast North American continent. Neither from the commercial nor from the sentimental standpoint, therefore is a strong case proved for annexation."

LITERARY AND PERSONAL GOSSIP.

MR. MOWBRAY MORRIS will contribute "Montrose" to "The English Men of Action" series.

MESSRS. MACMILLAN AND COMPANY announce "The Exorcism of Cecilia," by the author of "Mademoiselle Ixe."

DESERTING political employment, Björnsterne Björnson has returned to literary pursuits, in the belief, he says, that the cause he advocated can now be safely left to younger hands.

SIR EDWIN ARNOLD is coming to the United States next October with his son and daughter. He has been engaged to deliver a series of lectures on Japan in the various cities of America.

THE Clarendon Press is to publish a new edition of Sir George Cornewall Lewis' "Government of Dependencies," which has been out of print for some years. The work is in the hands of Mr. C. P. Lucas.

THE Letters of Marie Bashkirtseff have been received with the enthusiasm that was anticipated. They are being read and commented upon with almost as much excitement as was her famous journal.

A CIVIL List Pension of £100 has been granted to Miss Iza Duffus-Hardy, the only surviving child of the late Sir Thomas Duffus-Hardy. Miss Hardy has been for some time in ill-health owing to over-work.

SIR ALGERNON BORTHWICK, M.P., has given £1,000, and Mr. J. A. Wilox, of the *Liverpool Courier*, £500, to a fund just opened by the Institute of Journalists, and to be known as a Journalistic Orphan Fund.

IN view of the widespread interest taken in Palestinian Geography, our readers may be glad to know that Messrs. Wagner and Debes, of Leipzig, have issued a beautiful map, giving all discoveries up to date. The price is 1s. 6d.

WE are not so sanguine as some that the new copyright law will develop an American literature. All the legislators since the beginning of governments would be powerless to enact a law that would make geniuses. They are not created by statute.

THE forthcoming volume of "The Pseudonym Library," Mr. Ganssen's "A Village Priest" is a translation of a Russian novel by Potapenko, who thus makes his first appearance in America. The title literally translated from the original would be "In Actual Service."

THE long-delayed Chaucer concordance has at last reached a possibility of being finished. The work of slip-writing has steadily progressed since it was resumed in 1888, and Dr. Ewald Fûgel, of Leipzig (who has now completed his heavy work upon his dictionary), has undertaken to edit it.

MESSRS. MUSSON AND MORROW, through the courtesy of whom the article on "Copper-mining in Japan" in another column was obtained, have received from their Japanese correspondent a bronze medal, interesting from the fact that it was struck from the products of the mines he describes, and in commemoration of their 200th anniversary of their working.

LONGMANS, GREEN AND COMPANY will publish on October 15 a collection of musical essays by Mr. W. J. Henderson, the well-known musical critic of the *Times*. There will be four main divisions in the work, each being sub-divided (except the last) into several chapters. The titles are, "A Study of 'Der Ring des Nibelungen,'" "Wagneriana," "The Evolution of Piano Music," and "Robert Schumann and the Programme Symphony." The title of the work will probably be "Preludes and Etudes."

OLIPHANT was a great adventure-seeker. One good story of the kind is told about him as a *Times* correspondent in Paris in stormy days. He insisted on attending a revolutionary meeting at Lyons, at which the prefect would not undertake to guarantee the safety of his life. Just as the proceedings were beginning someone got wind of his presence, and, rising, warned the assembly that an emissary from the brutal English *Times* was among them. An immediate tumult arose, and cries of "Cherchons-le! à la mort! à la rivière!" resounded. Oliphant immediately joined himself to the demonstrators, jumping to his feet in overwhelming indignation, and shouting with the best: "Cherchons-le! Cherchons-le!" he cried; "moi, je le connais de vue!" Under cover of this zeal he got out safely.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

Curtin, Jeremiah. Tales of Three Centuries. \$1.00. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Enault, Louis. Carine. \$1.25. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Stewart, Seth T. Plane and Solid Geometry. \$7.12. New York: American Book Co.

READINGS FROM CURRENT LITERATURE.

THE LITERARY MOVEMENT IN AUSTRALIA.

The origin of a literature is always a very curious study. Australian literature has had the unusual fortune of stammering its first lines in the abounding nineteenth century, and of thus reminding us, by their similarity, of the beginnings of Indo-European literature during the historic and barbarous periods. It is very curious to see Australian literature making its first appearance with the same stories of legendary brigands which one sees in the beginnings of previous ones. When we reflect that the surface of Australia is almost equal to that of all Europe, we see the importance of all that concerns it. To judge from the writings of Marcus Clarke, of Mrs. Campbell Praed, of Tasma, the Australians affect the short narratives and simple stories, devoid of incident, which characterize their novels. Mariot Watson, Hume Nisbet, Mr. and Mrs. Mannington Caffyn have published delightful stories of that kind, under the title "Under the Gum Tree." An equally peculiar character of that literature is that the drama lies rather in the mind of the artist than in the action; as in the ancient world, the catastrophe often takes place before the end of the drama. The romancers, everywhere in that new country, possess, even more than the poets, a freshness of imagination which is found nowhere else in the same degree. Among them the grand art of simplicity is no secret. To this they add strength, as a result of the education which the free and easy life of the woods and the fields gives them. If one wished it would be easy to divide Australian writers into two groups, which could be readily recognized at sight. On the one side, those who live in the towns; on the other, those to whom the pastoral life offers its inducements. With the first would be connected Henry Clarence Kendall, the exquisite but melancholy poet, who is sick unto death with weariness and mournfulness; with the second, Lindsay Gordon, the equestrian bard, the singing centaur of Australia. At the rate which the world, and Australia in particular, is to-day travelling, a century is a period of infinite length; and one is glad to think that new nations should, in their early days, possess a literature, a faithful mirror of themselves, which will not allow a thankless posterity to forget or despise its ancestors.—*Public Opinion, from La Revue Des Revues.*

ARCHDEACON FARRAR ON ART.

By the Ethics of Art I mean its true relations to Religion and to Morals. We shall best be able to comprehend these if we note what it is that, in the first instance, Art does, or may do, for us. It is the function of Art to teach us to see. No one has expressed this better than Mr. Browning. "For"—such are the words which he puts into the mouth of Fra Lippo Lippi—

For, don't you see, we are made so that we love,
First, when we see them painted, things we have seen,
Perhaps a hundred times, nor cared to see;
And so they are better painted, better to us,
Which is the same thing. Art was given for that;
God uses us to help each other so,
Lending our minds out.

Now it is interesting to observe that, in the fulfilment of this function, Art is closely akin to Poetry. It is marvellous how little we do see. The open eye of admiration for landscape, for instance—what Humboldt calls the romantic love of scenery—is comparatively modern. Long generations of mankind seem to have lived with closed eyes. At any rate their literature, which is the unconscious revelation of their sentiments, shows little or no trace of delight in that autograph of loveliness which God has written so large over the works of His hands. In the Bible indeed we do find this delight in nature, especially in the Psalms which dwell on the works of God's hands, and the lovely description of Spring in the Song of Solomon; and in the New Testament in the discourses of our Lord. But in ancient Greek literature, with the exception of a passage in Plato and another in Sophocles, it is mostly conspicuous by its absence from the days of Homer to those of Theocritus; and in all the voluminous writings of the Fathers and the schoolmen there are but few traces of this romantic love of nature, except in St. Basil and St. Gregory of Nazianus. And even in these days it is marvellous how non-observant we are. The old story tells of "Eyes and No Eyes," and most of us in most things are still in the condition of "No eyes."

Let me give two illustrations. You may buy for a shilling a little German picture which simply looks to you like that of a pretty young woman. But when you are directed closely to it you see it also to be the picture of an old woman; and when you see that you see nothing else. The old woman is there all along, but our powers of observation are so untrained that we might look at the picture a hundred times and wholly fail to discover it. The other illustration shall be very different. In Tennyson's "Maud" we read:—

I know the way she went
Home with her maiden posy,
For her feet have touched the meadows,
And left the daisies rosy.

Now an eminent sculptor told me that a still more eminent critic to whom he was talking quoted this line with strong disapproval. "How could the girl's feet make the daisies rosy?" he asked triumphantly. "It is nonsense." "Nonsense?" said the sculptor, "it is an exquisite instance of observation! It means that the light feet of the maiden, bending the stems of the daisies, have shown their rosy

under-surface. Have you never noticed that the underside of the daisy's petal passes by beautiful gradations from rose-colour to deep crimson?" "No!" was the astounding answer of the critic. Well, if any of us have been equally unobservant, that line of Tennyson, or the

Wee modest crimson-tipped flower

of Burns, may have taught us to delight in the exquisite fact; and a beautiful painting might have done the same. Both poets and prose writers have rendered us precious service in this way.—*Good Words.*

AMERICAN CHILDREN.

DR. HENRY LING TAYLOR, in a paper recently read before the New York Academy of Medicine, takes a rather lugubrious view of the way in which American—and especially New York—children are brought up. The city child, instead of soil with its diversified coverings, has, he considers, hard and mostly level floors or pavements; instead of grateful, greenish, bluish or brownish tints, the patchwork surface of our houses and streets; and instead of restful silence or simple, harmonious sounds, the irritating jar of complicated noises. Young city children of the primary-school classes have the most extraordinarily distorted ideas about the commonest natural objects, and much of this mass of mis-information remains in adult life. On the other hand, they are abnormally precocious in their knowledge of men and social relations, and in general "knowingness." That the modern methods of school education produce many bad results, is seen in the nervous condition of many children, in their headaches, and ocular and other troubles. Nature, thinks Dr. Ling, is a good school-mistress, and her lessons are the fundamental ones, no matter how much we may supplement them at school or university. The infant is learning his lesson when he is kicking out his legs, waving his arms, or bumping his head, the child playing tag or batting ball, or the youth working with his carpenter tools, or riding a bicycle, just as truly, perhaps more truly, than the university student burning midnight oil over Greek and calculus. Nature was never systematic in the school sense, and however much we may systematize, we must at the same time cultivate our powers and round our individuality by keeping in close touch with so much of nature as lies within our horizon in a restful, informal way. The system of flat-living, the doctor believes, prevents our city women from being good housewives, and the high-pressure work for the mighty dollar renders the men anything but agreeable fathers; so that children really see but little of what ought to go to make up a home for their training. The physique of the children that are now growing up under our eyes is not, he maintains, on the whole, satisfactory, and it is a difficult matter to bring up wholesome, hearty children in New York. But is New York a worse nursery for children than any other big city? Go into the lower quarters of beautiful Paris and you will find the *gamins* and *gaminnes* as unwholesome-looking as the children on the East Side; in Whitechapel the gutter snipe is as pale as his *confrère* in New York's tenement district.—*Illustrated American.*

THE M'KINLEY TARIFF.

THAT the Canadian farmer suffers from the operation of the so-called McKinley tariff levied upon the various staple productions of the farm which our cousins across the line require and continue to purchase from us, is a most mistaken idea. The duty is paid by the consumer or importer resident in the United States, not by the Canadian exporter. This fact is as well recognized by all intelligent and candid Americans as well as by those of our own people who are not blinded by party feeling or misled by ignorance. A writer in the *Springfield Republican* confirms this view in a most marked manner. He writes: The Toronto (Ont.) *Empire* rises to remark that so far as known by the Canadian farmers who send live stock, hay and general produce to this country, they do not pay the McKinley duty on their exports. The *Empire* confirms its opinion by citing figures and asserting that for the products which the Canadian sends to the United States and on which somebody pays the duty, he receives exactly the same price as for those products which he sends to England, on which nobody pays any duty. In this respect the Canadian farmer is better off than many of our manufacturers this side of the line, who do not get the same price for articles which they export as for the same articles when sold to their fellow-countrymen, but they are no better off than our own farmers, who get the same price for their wheat whether ground in a Minneapolis mill, or shipped to free-trade England or to France or Germany, where a heavy duty is assessed upon it. This fact is a hard one for your thorough-going McKinleyite, who insists that the foreign exporter and not the consumer pays the duties on goods sent by him for sale in this country. If this be true concerning goods from Europe, how does it happen that it is not true concerning farm products and live stock from Canada; and why should our farmers be exempt from this rule in sending grain to Europe? Has anybody ever known of England buying our products any cheaper in New York than France or Germany, and is it not also true that the French or German or Italian consumer usually pays at least the amount of the duty levied by his Government more for American products than his English competitor has? The *Empire's* figures are a little old but are just as good for their purpose for all that, for they cover a long period of years, from 1854 to 1866, when there was practically free trade between Can-

ada and the United States in live stock, wool, barley, rye, peas, oats and other farm products; and another period from 1866 to 1875, when reciprocity had been repealed and Congress had put a duty on these articles. In the first period, Canadian horses, for instance, sold under free trade for shipment to the United States at from \$65 to \$85 each, while in the last period, when our tariff was in force, the Canadians received in Canada for their horses which we bought from \$92 to \$104 each, showing that our tariff did not force the Canadian breeders to lower their prices in order to pay the duty which we exacted. The same rule applies to these other products as to horses, and the figures show that in no case did the imposition of our duty reduce the price paid to the Canadian farmer for his products. These are very commonplace, very familiar and very convincing facts which ought to silence all this talk about the foreign exporter or anybody else but the consumer paying the duty; but it is not at all probable that they will, because this is one of the pet delusions which the enthusiastic McKinleyite hugs to his bosom as the alliance man does the cheap-money idea. It would not do to give up this delusion and stop trying to humbug the people with it, for let that go and there is no escape from admitting that the tariff is really a tax, and that is an admission that cannot be drawn from the disciple of the Chinese wall doctrine by wild horses.

WINDSOR'S (N. S.) LOVE OF TREES.

THE inhabitants of Windsor, N. S., are evidently not afraid of the old traditional and erroneous idea that the planting of trees in close proximity to a house is injurious. In that pretty town we find wooden houses completely overhung by masses of foliage, while the porches and sides are often partially covered with honeysuckle, rose or Virginian creeper. It is to this appreciation of arbourculture that the place owes nearly all its beauty. No one is afraid of trees, and they are placed where the greatest effect is produced upon an artistic eye. There are few things more beautiful than a pretty house peeping shyly from masses of leaves or glancing with well-bred reserve from among tree-stems and shrubs. There is something so refined, so genteel and retiring, about such a place, so different from the glaring show which pleases a mind to which the charms of nature are less plainly interpreted. In the town in question the houses are seldom built on the street, but placed a little back, and nearly shut from view by elms, locusts, chestnuts and other trees, which lend an air of loveliness to the plainest building. It is a pity people do not more generally recognize this. A large house erected just on a public way has a flashy appearance, and is not in such good taste as the same building situated somewhat back and set off by foliage, which acts as a foil. The former reminds us of a face without eyebrows—the other features are beautiful in themselves, but the general effect is unfinished, displeasing. It is argued that trees, by keeping off the sun, produce dampness in a house—so, for the matter of that, does the roof. It is said that water drips from them and injures the woodwork—but water can only come from trees when rain is falling or the air is saturated with moisture, therefore the house is damp at such times anyway, and the trees need not be blamed. Everyone thought once that ivy produced dampness and decay, but it has been scientifically shown that the very opposite is the result. The old fashioned and mistaken aversion to being surrounded by trees is known to be a popular fallacy, and it is to an adherence to this belief that Halifax owes much of its dinginess and want of beauty. When our people acknowledge its incorrectness, or are willing to accept a little fancied inconvenience in order to obtain good results, they will begin to be worthy to hold a candle to Windsor in the present matter, but not before. We have often heard people admire the latter place, but beyond vaguely saying it was owing to the trees they did not seem to know exactly where the beauty lay.—*The Halifax Critic.*

ITALY AND THE CHURCH.

To the Italian statesman of to-day the Catholic Church is not an abstract theological faith, it is a concrete organized inveterate enemy which he must fight, and must put under his feet before he can carry out his great schemes for human welfare. And here he labours under a great practical difficulty, for the very principles for which he is contending prevent his using those measures of attack and defence which the Papal Church has not hesitated to employ on its own behalf. The state exists to secure freedom of speech, freedom of religious thought and expression, the sacred rights of the individual conscience, the equality of every man before the law. The Church is the unscrupulous opponent of every one of these principles, and yet she claims their shelter against any infringement of her privileges. For instance, the measure of Crispi, which forbids the appointment of any Catholic priest on the committees of administration of charitable funds, seems a very arbitrary step, and yet it is enforced and claimed to be absolutely necessary to prevent the arbitrary exercise of authority on the part of the higher order of priests over the lower, and the misuse and misappropriation of funds.—*E. D. Cheney, in the Open Court.*

FAME like a broken mirror,
With twenty fragments of a truth,
Gives twenty shapes of error.

—J. S. Blackie.

SCIENTIFIC AND SANITARY.

Two Austrian engineers have invented a new explosive which is called ecrasite. Its power, as compared with dynamite, is as 100 to 70, and it may be carried from place to place with perfect safety.

THE base of celluloid is common paper; by action of sulphuric and nitric acid it is changed to guncotton, then dried, ground and mixed with from 20 to 40 per cent. of camphor, after which it is ground fine, coloured with powder colours, cast in sheets, pressed very hard and at last baked between superheated rollers.—*Manchester Union*.

IN a new process for the manufacture of phosphorus by electricity used by the Phosphorus Company, at Wednesfield, near Wolverhampton, England, says the *London Engineer*, the raw material and coke are all fed into a specially designed furnace, reduced to vapour by electric heat, and the vapour condensed into marketable phosphorus, the elaborate chemical material hitherto needed in dealing with the raw materials before putting them into the furnace thus being dispensed with. The estimated consumption of phosphorus throughout the world is only two thousand tons per year, used chiefly for match-making.

UNDER the guise of "a method of amalgamating glass with other metals than platinum," a sensationally worded Dalziel telegram attributes to Captain Walter, lecturer at the Military Academy of Vienna, "an invention which has been patented in every country in the world. It will effect a revolution in the manufacture of electric lamps, which will be immensely cheapened by it, as the use of platinum will be entirely discarded." Captain Walter states (according to Dalziel) that his invention will cheapen the manufacture of lamps by 100 per cent., while breakage will not hereafter amount to five per cent.—*Electrician*.

THE tanning of elephant hides is comparatively a new industry, according to the *Boston Journal of Commerce*. The method employed is practically the same as in the tanning of cow hide, except that a stronger combination of the tannic ingredients is required, and greater length of time—about six months—is necessary to perform the work. When the hide is taken out of the vat it is an inch and a-half thick. Among the articles made of elephant leather are pocket-books, small satchels, cigar-cases, and similar articles, and they are said to be expensive luxuries. In finishing the hide no attempt is made to glaze or polish it, everything being done to preserve its natural colour and appearance. The leather is very enduring, several years' wear having but little effect upon it.

"German Syrup"

The majority of well-read physicians now believe that Consumption is a germ disease. In other words, instead of being in the constitution itself it is caused by innumerable small creatures living in the lungs having no business there and eating them away as caterpillars do the leaves of trees.

A Germ Disease. The phlegm that is coughed up is those parts of the lungs which have been gnawed off and destroyed. These little bacilli, as the germs are called, are too small to be seen with the naked eye, but they are very much alive just the same, and enter the body in our food, in the air we breathe, and through the pores of the skin. Thence they get into the blood and finally arrive at the lungs where they fasten and increase with frightful rapidity. Then German Syrup comes in, loosens them, kills them, expels them, heals the places they leave, and so nourish and soothe that, in a short time consumptives become germ-proof and well. ●

RAILWAY CARRIAGE COOLING APPLIANCE.—An improved apparatus for providing railway carriages with a cool and pleasant breeze has just been brought out by Mr. George Payne, of the Locomotive Department, Indian Midland Railway. It is fitted under the body of a carriage, is self-revolving, is so arranged that it will catch the air from all directions, and it possesses, according to the *Indian Engineer*, other advantages, one of the most important being that it will keep working for fifteen minutes after the train has been stopped.

THE fuel used on Italian railways has hitherto been imported; but trials have recently been made with lignite prepared by a process introduced by Signor Saporì, of Siena. More lignite was used than coal for the same amount of work—about a ton as compared to 15 cwt.—but lignite is plentiful, and has been used in Austria for some time. So far as the running of the train is concerned, the trials have been successful, and though they were made over a heavy line, the engine kept steam well.—*English Mechanic*.

IN Sonoma County, California, may be seen a peculiar piece of engineering—namely, an actual railway-bed on tree tops. Between the Clipper Mills and Stuart Point, where the road crosses a deep ravine, the trees are sawn off on a level with the surrounding hills, and the timbers and ties laid on the stumps. In the centre of the ravine two huge redwood trees, side by side, form a substantial support. These giants have been lopped off 75 feet above the bed of the creek. This natural tree bridge is considered one of the wonders of the Golden State, and for safety and security is stated to far exceed a bridge built on the most scientific principles.—*Iron*.

THE ventilation and disinfection of the holds of vessels is now proposed to be accomplished by an arrangement or system of tubes, which, in addition to its simplicity, easily overcomes the difficulties experienced in ordinary methods. According to this new plan, iron tubes, pierced with numerous holes, are extended from the deck of the vessel into the hold, these being arranged in such a manner as to establish and maintain an upward and downward draught, by this means causing a thorough ventilation of the hold and its contents, the adaptation of the apparatus for the purpose of fumigation being thus fully apparent.—*Philadelphia Record*.

A SYSTEM has been devised by means of which a ship having a telephone installation on board can be placed in connection with the Central Exchange whenever it comes into port. A telephone is placed in the captain's office, and the wire connecting with it is attached to a flexible cord, fitted with a conductor at the side of the boat. The wire leading from the exchange is brought down to a corresponding position on the dock, and is also fitted with a conductor. When the ship comes into port all that is necessary is to make the connection, which is simply done, and anyone on board can at once communicate with any of the business houses of the town.—*Invention*.

DR. JOHN GRANT writes to the *Lancet* as follows: "Having occasion to make a disinfectant fluid to apply to an offensive surface on a body awaiting *post mortem* examination, I chanced to select permanganate of potash. Thinking the solution might dry too quickly and inefficiently deodorize the part, it occurred to me to add glycerine on account of its hygroscopic powers. Putting a drachm of the crystals into a three-ounce bottle, I added two ounces of water and one of glycerine, and agitated the mixture. To my great surprise the cork and part of the contents were violently ejected, and the remaining portion developed great heat. Everyone is familiar with the danger of mixing glycerine and nitric acid. I have not, however, seen any mention of a combination of it and permanganate of potash. I observed the mixture became brown, losing its purple colour like a deoxidized solution of the salt; and as no effervescence took place, it is probable that the glycerine combined with the oxygen liberated by decomposition of the salt, and that, further, it possesses by some affinity of its own the power of producing rapid decomposition of the permanganate. Perhaps some chemist will kindly explain."

ARGAND, the inventor of the famous lamp which bears his name, had been experimenting for some time in trying to increase the light given out by his lamp, but all to no purpose. On a table before him one night lay an oil flask which had accidentally got the bottom broken off, leaving a long-necked, funnel-shaped tube. This Argand took up carelessly from the table and placed—almost without thought, as he afterward related—over the flame. A brilliant white light was the magical result. It is needless to add that the hint was not lost by the experimenter, who proceeded to put his discovery into practical use by "inventing" the common glass lamp chimney. Hundreds of discoveries which have been heralded to the world as the acme of human genius has been the result of merest accident—the auger, calico printing and vulcanization of rubber being among the number.—*St. Louis Republic*.

TAR "RUBBER."—By-products in many chemical industries often have considerable commercial value without that fact having been discovered. The residue which remains after refining tar with sulphuric acid has heretofore been regarded as worthless (*Gummi Zeitung*). This mass is now worked up into a black substance resembling asphalt closely, but with elastic properties resembling poor rubber. When this is submitted to a continued and intense heat the volume decreases about 60 per cent., and the substance becomes hard like ebonite and very elastic. In its hard form the substance is known by various names, according to the use to which it is applied, while the soft form is known as "mineral rubber asphalt." It is a good non-conductor, and is therefore available for insulating. When dissolved in naphtha the "rubber asphalt" forms a very durable waterproof varnish.—*English Mechanic*.

SEA-SICKNESS.—There is a correspondent of the *Field* who has been trying for forty years to "exorcise the fiend sea-sickness," and has not succeeded yet. He extracts some comfort from the assurances of officers who have served aboard torpedo boats, that "even now he does not know what sea-sickness is," though those who have sailed in one of those delectable craft might tell him if human speech were only equal to the occasion. But this correspondent did not write to ask our condolence on the sufferings from this cause, but to tell us of a curious fact that he has discovered. It is that there are as many kinds of sea-sickness as there are varieties of vessels afloat. Hence you may get rid of one sort, and yet be ready to suffer misery from another. He has known men thoroughly case-hardened aboard small yachts who were utterly undone by the heavy half-roll, half-pitch of a big liner. Even a slight change in the ballast, or the addition of lead to a keel is enough. In short, nothing but perpetual going to sea in every variety of craft will effectually get rid of sea-sickness, unless one is disposed to try that finest of all remedies—stopping ashore.

NEW WEAPONS OF WAR.—The invention of formidable weapons of war continues to receive so much encouragement in Europe that only the most fearful carnage can be predicted as the result of the various efforts to increase the efficiency of guns and explosives. Whether the theory is valid or not that war itself will be abolished from the excess of means of destruction, it is certain that the European Governments are not restrained by any theoretical fears, but are vying with each other in the securing of important secrets of advanced methods of war instruments. The Austro-Hungarian War Office is now sternly guarding the secret of a new explosive called "Ecracite," which has been invented by two Austrian engineers. Its power surpasses that of dynamite by ten to seven, and it is serviceable alike for cartridges and cannon. The future of military operations will have an aspect of terror not before known if this new explosive is put into practice. By experiment it is found that the "Ecracite" will cause one bombshell to practically demolish a line of 500 men. With such force in operation the present conditions of the Red Cross or any hospital service would be entirely inadequate, and the increase of Bands of Mercy would be demanded. Another new invention of war with similar purposes of wholesale destruction is a gun, the manufacture of which has been, until

recently, a profound secret in England. This weapon is pneumatic in principle and is said to be superior to all guns fired by smokeless powder. The gun is described as "almost noiseless, absolutely smokeless and has no recoil, and even if fired by day, and to a much greater extent if fired by night by a moving field battery in a wood with a shell, the only possible means of judging where the shot came from would be by following the projectiles or watching the direction in which they struck the ground, and so following the line from which they came." The formidable character of this weapon is apparent.—*Boston Journal*.

IT may not be commonly known that in the inferior races the head ceases to grow after twenty years of age. In the superior races the head of the intelligent and educated man increases in volume until thirty-five, forty and forty-five years. The skull has reached its maximum development when the bones composing it are welded together, so as to render the sutures invisible. Once the sutures are solidified, the further growth of the brain is impossible, which is said to explain the insurmountable difficulty experienced in trying to teach illiterate adults. The solidification varies according to the investigating activity of the brain. It takes place between twenty-two and twenty-five years in the taskworker, between twenty-eight and thirty-five in the middle-class manual professions, and after thirty-five in educated persons who practice intellectual professions.

DR. LANNELONGUE, a well-known French surgeon, made before the Paris Academy of Sciences recently an official statement in regard to a process of anti-tuberculous inoculation upon which he has been experimenting for some time in his clinic at the Trousseau Hospital, and with which he has obtained some results sufficiently conclusive for public presentation. Dr. Lannelongue proceeds (the *Times* correspondent says) by injection of a special lymph, as does Dr. Koch; but his injections do not, like those of the latter, affect the general system. They are absolutely local in their action, discovering the seat of the tuberculous affection at the very spot where it is specially localized. Until recently Dr. Lannelongue had experimented only on exterior tuberculous manifestations, but he has since made experiments on internal complications. What is absolutely certain (the correspondent adds) is that Dr. Lannelongue's lymph arouses no disorder in any portion of the human organism, save in the specific part affected. It acts with strong curative force upon the tuberculous portions. It does not excite fever, and its application is definite and made without exaggerated pain.

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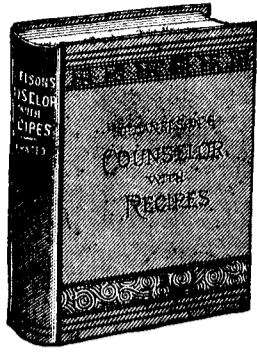


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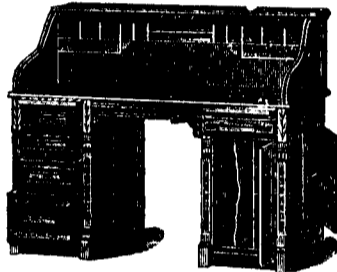
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The Fifteenth State. John L. Hoaton. **Beginnings of the City of St. Joseph.** Illustrated. Judge William A. Wood.

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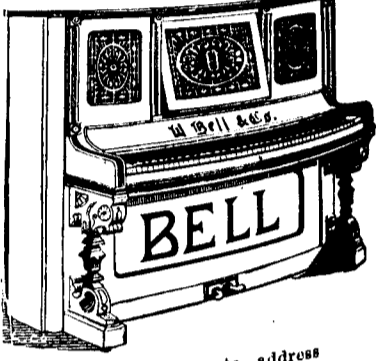
The Annual Meeting of the C. I. R. A. S. and the Indian Conference which were to have taken place in Toronto on May the 14th and 15th have been postponed till September next.

The local committee of arrangements met in Toronto on March 30th, and it was then decided that September being Exhibition month, and travelling rates consequently more reasonable, also Indians being better able to leave their farms at that time than in May, it would be a far better and more convenient time for holding both the Annual Meeting and the Conference.



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